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PROTOTYPES.

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PROFESSIONAL LABORATORY EXPERIENCES IN THE SPECIAL
METHODS COMPONENT IN THE PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION
OF MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS—TOWARD
DEVELOPING PROTOTYPES

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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* * * * *

The Ohio State University
1970

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Major Field: Foreign Language Education
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

In order for teachers to know how to provide creative learning experiences they must first understand children and how they learn. The concept of learning by doing is widely accepted and used in our schools, and prospective teachers need to learn how to put this educational principle into practice. The teacher education institution faces the challenge of implementing this concept by providing prospective teachers with learning experiences that are meaningful and functional in the light of their needs. It is safe to assume that if children learn through and by experience the prospective teacher can do likewise. Teachers who learn by experience can gain considerable insight into the kinds of learning activities they can create for young people.

Applying this principle in teacher education means providing prospective teachers with simulated or direct contact with pupils in a variety of teaching-learning situations. This plan is based on the assumption that active participation in a meaningful situation results in effective learning. Such an assumption has numerous implications for teacher education. Prospective teachers use these experiences as a basis for professional growth instead of depending entirely on the study of theory in professional courses and in library resources. Today many
college students go out to teach and return to say that what they
learned in college does not seem to apply out there in the real world.
In 1904 Dewey expressed his concern for this need to relate theory to
practice as follows:

... We may ... use practice work as an instrument in making
real and vital theoretical instruction; the knowledge of sub-
ject-matter and of principles of education. This is the labo-
ratory point of view ... Practice work thus ... [gives] the
student a better hold upon the educational significance of the
subject-matter he is acquiring ... ¹

For Dewey the main purpose of professional laboratory experi-
ences was the understanding of principles of education upon which prac-
tice should be based. He assumed that skill and proficiency in the
work of teaching ultimately would emerge from them.

LaGrone in a 1964 publication stated:

The professional component of a program of teacher educa-
tion for the last twenty-five or thirty years has taken for
granted that the teacher education student will put together
the talk about education and his teaching. The recent research
in teaching and work in theory indicate that this is an ex-
tremely difficult task and that an assumption of this magni-
tude is more likely to be false than true.²

In an article published in 1948 McGrath indicates that the meth-
ods course is highly regarded by teachers and has always been a sort of
liaison between the subject and the professional fields, integrating
them, and implementing one with the other.³

More recently Goodlad has expressed the belief that if there is
any place in the teacher education program where theory and practice
must be brought together, it is in that phase called methods.⁴

Methods students often seem to be doing no more than verbaliz-
ing, perhaps due to their relative inexperience. In many instances
they are not being challenged by either their professor or their peers when talking in general about learning and teaching. Willis suggests that experimenting with new organizations and sequences of experiences, new methods and new media may lead to more meaningful experiences for our students, thus leading to a deeper understanding of fundamental concepts and principles.\(^5\)

Cruickshank indicates the possibility of combining the use of the newer media and the adaptation of an old training technique, simulation, to enable teacher educators to provide additional life-like learning situations of an instrumental nature which also permit theory and practice to be joined without actually being in the classroom.

Merrill states that the purpose of all professional laboratory experiences is to provide opportunities for the prospective teacher to learn in a very fundamental way. This would mean involvement of his values, mind, personality and energy in various experiences. Interaction with others as well as action would be considered vital.\(^6\) The teacher education program, therefore, should offer many opportunities for contact with children. The methods component should help provide the opportunity for systematic, supervised observation of, as well as some participation in, a variety of modern foreign language teaching-learning situations of differing quality in elementary and secondary schools, at beginning, intermediate and advanced levels of instruction, in the classroom, language laboratory and elsewhere. "Guidelines for Teacher Education Programs in Modern Foreign Languages" calls for observation experiences of this nature in the teacher education program.\(^7\)
The Problem Statement

Dozens of creative efforts have been made to wed theory and practice in the methods portion of the teacher education program, but the obstacles and limitations have been many. Often the sheer logistics of arranging for meaningful direct experiences short of student teaching out in the classroom are formidable. Unless the methods class is very small only a part of it can be accommodated for observation purposes in a single school classroom. There is no common basis for discussion if all class members have not viewed the same thing. Some instructors manage to do a reasonably good job of arranging experiences to accompany their theoretical work. Many experiences are not adequately interpreted in the light of educational principles. Frequently methods courses are conducted without the benefit of laboratory experiences. Continued teaching of methods courses divorced from the classroom or its simulated likeness is a malpractice which we can ill afford to perpetuate.

In this study the writer explores the present and possible uses of professional laboratory experiences in the special methods component in the professional education of modern foreign language teachers. An attempt is made to give meaning to the teaching of foreign languages by providing college students with professional laboratory experiences of such a nature as to meet more directly their needs as examined in this study by questionnaire and through the literature. Present experiences do not always adequately meet their needs. In an attempt to move toward the projecting of a general design for the special methods component current ideas are examined quite thoroughly. The main
problem is to organize conceptually the field of laboratory experiences as these experiences relate to the special methods component of the curriculum.

**Definition of Terms**

To assist the reader in perceiving meanings of the concepts as they are used in this study, a definition of some of the terms and concepts will be given.

**Micro-teaching.**—A teaching encounter scaled down in class size and class time (usually limited to one to five students and lasting from five to twenty minutes) with predetermined objectives stated for the particular micro-teaching session.

**Professional laboratory experiences.**—All those contacts with children, youth and adults in school and community, including observation, participation, teaching and other leadership activities which make a direct contribution to an understanding of basic concepts and principles as well as individuals and their guidance in the teaching-learning process. (This study is concerned primarily with pre-student teaching professional laboratory experiences.)

**Student teaching.**—A period of guided teaching when a college student assumes increasing responsibility for directing the learning of a group or groups of learners over a period of consecutive weeks.

**Observation.**—Those opportunities provided for college students to see teaching, learning and all manner of community activities without necessarily becoming involved in the ongoing activity itself.
Participation.—Those experiences of the college student in which he takes an active part, under direction, in an ongoing teaching, learning or other community activity. Also defined as all those activities along a continuum between observation and full responsibility for teaching or directing the activities of a group in a school or other community agency.

General methods.—The adaptation of learning content to the learner without reference to the nature of the content or learner involved. (Example: Principles and Techniques of Secondary School Teaching.)

Special methods.—The ways by which a teacher may adapt a given field of subject matter to a given group of learners for the purpose of effective learning. In this study "special methods" often refers to the courses in which students have an opportunity to study the methodological and professional problems connected with teaching one or more foreign languages. (Examples: The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages; The Teaching of French.) The writer uses the term "special methods component" to indicate a broader conception of special methods than that encompassed by separate, formally organized courses. In most cases the terms will be used interchangeably in this study, although "component" will be used from time to time to indicate thinking in terms of possible newer patterns in teacher education.

Organization of Remainder of Study

The general procedures of the study are presented in Chapter II. A description of the population is given, the instrumentation is
explained, and procedures for gathering the data are indicated. Pertinent literature is reviewed in Chapters III, IV, V and VI. Chapter III deals with professional laboratory experiences in teacher education in general, whereas Chapter IV treats professional laboratory experiences in relation to the special methods course. Relevant current ideas are reviewed in Chapter V. The needs and problems of beginning and student teachers are described briefly in Chapter VI. Included in Chapter VII are specific procedures for analyzing the data, findings of the study and a discussion of them. Additional data are found in Appendix B. Chapter VIII moves toward the developing of general prototypes and includes implications for teacher education as well as recommendations for further research.
CHAPTER II

PROCEDURE

Description of Population

Selected to participate in the questionnaire survey were the beginning teachers of modern foreign languages in the public secondary (grades 9-12) schools of Cook County in the State of Illinois and those student teachers from the principal colleges and universities in the Chicago area who did their student teaching in the field of modern foreign languages during the spring term of 1970. A "beginning teacher" in this study refers to any teacher who has taught a modern foreign language as a major in that field for two years or less as of September, 1969.

Instrumentation

The opinions of beginning teachers of modern foreign languages and student teachers regarding the degree of intensity of their problems during the first year of teaching or during student teaching, respectively, and those needs which they considered most or least satisfied by the special methods course as well as their recommendations with respect to treatment of the problem area in future special methods courses were obtained by the questionnaire method. Personal and professional data, frequency of professional laboratory experiences and appraisal of those experiences encountered in the special methods...
course as well as in the rest of the curriculum were also obtained by
the same instrument.

The questionnaire was developed after extensive reading of
pertinent literature on research and evaluative studies and on the
teaching of modern foreign languages.

The questionnaire was then given to the Advisory Committee
for a critique of the items. The Advisory Committee consisted of
four leaders in the secondary education field (two foreign language
consultants for city public schools, a high school foreign language
department chairman and an experienced high school foreign language
teacher) and four leaders in the field of foreign language and for­
eign language education (three college professors, of whom two were
special methods instructors, and a state foreign language consultant).

The questionnaire was tried out and various modifications were
made before the final form appeared. The final form of the question­
naire may be found in Appendix A.

Questionnaires were mailed to 216 individuals, consisting of
158 beginning teachers and 58 student teachers in the public secondary
schools of Cook County. As many as three follow-up questionnaires were
sent and many respondents were called by telephone. The total response
to all contacts amounted to 167, or a 77 per cent return. A sample of
8 individuals, or 7 per cent, were interviewed to check on the valid­
ity of the questionnaire.

Members of the Advisory Committee were asked to assist in
analyzing the data after the results had been tabulated. Most of the
results are arranged in the form of tables. The tabulated data and
Possible Limitations of Validity

1. The factor of selection inherent in response to the questionnaire. — Those individuals who responded to the questionnaire may have had a special methods course, by and large, different from that of those who did not respond. Their problems, the degree of intensity of those problems, their experiences and their recommendations may have differed also. Finally, the general quality of instruction and experiential and academic background of those who replied may be higher than that among those who did not reply.

2. The imperfection of the questionnaire as an instrument in obtaining the data needed in the study. — To get a truly adequate picture of the actual problems of the beginning teacher in the classroom, a team of judges would have to be there in person. The purpose here, however, was to obtain the opinions of the beginning and student teachers themselves. The questionnaire has content validity, since the experts agreed that the items appeared to be measuring the opinions of the beginning and student teachers. Possible weaknesses lie in the fact that content validity reflects the opinions or judgment of experts who may or may not be able to evaluate the extent to which items do, in fact and in practice, reflect any given opinion; and, in part, it reflects the adequacy of the initial selection of judges. Respondents may have their own biases. Some may be reluctant to admit that they have certain problems and to express their opinions concerning them in written form in a questionnaire. It is also possible that
some questions were not read carefully, perhaps due to the length of the questionnaire and the number of items. There probably is little or no standardization in the conditions under which the respondents answered the questions. As a check on the validity of the questionnaire, the writer interviewed a sample of the respondents. In general, the questionnaire appeared to be measuring what it purported to measure. There were some inconsistencies in responses to individual items. The interview was used to clear up any misunderstandings and to allow for open responses. Additional comments of the teachers taken from the questionnaire and the interview are included in Chapter VII.

3. The imperfections in establishing the population.—Letters were mailed to principals of all secondary schools in Cook County in an effort to secure the names of all beginning teachers of foreign language employed. In most instances the chairman of the Foreign Language Department at the school provided the information on a specially prepared form. Possible weakness here lies in the fact that the definition of beginning teacher was not always read carefully. The writer later removed from the list the names of those teachers who did not qualify as beginning teachers according to the definition. By the same token it is possible that the form was returned indicating "no beginning teachers" when, in fact, the school may have had such teachers. It is probably safe to say that the administrators of four schools did not choose to participate in this study, since confirmation of "no beginning teacher" in those particular schools could not be secured in writing.
Specific procedures for analyzing the data are included in Chapter VII in order to make the findings of the study more meaningful to the reader.

Let us now review the pertinent literature by first looking at professional laboratory experiences in teacher education.
CHAPTER III

PROFESSIONAL LABORATORY EXPERIENCES

IN TEACHER EDUCATION

At a time when renewed emphasis is being placed on laboratory experiences as the heart and substance of teacher education, it would be well to step back and gain some perspective.

American Association of Teachers Colleges

One of the most significant publications in the field of teacher education was School and Community Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education issued in 1948 by the American Association of Teachers Colleges. It was the result of the work of a subcommittee of the Standards and Surveys Committee and is often referred to as the Flowers Report. As an outgrowth of the Committee's work, student teaching became broader in meaning than a particular course or courses and came to encompass a series of experiences extending over the period of professional education with the purpose of helping the student to participate in and study the major activities of the teacher.

The term "professional laboratory experiences" was devised to refer to this broader concept of student teaching. Student teaching was limited in usage to its usual meaning of "the period of guided teaching when the student takes increasing responsibility for the work
with a given group of learners over a period of consecutive weeks.\textsuperscript{1}

After setting up basic principles and studying existing practices extensively in view of these principles, the Committee then presented guidelines for planning professional laboratory experiences in a teacher education institution. Implementation was clarified as follows:

The amount and the kinds of professional laboratory experiences to be included in the program of a teachers college must be determined in the light of the purposes to be served by such experiences, the needs of the individual students being served, and the overall design of the college curriculum.\textsuperscript{2}

Andrews suggests that the projected image of the ingredients of the "good" program had more impact on thought and discussion than on practice probably due to the practical problems involved in implementation and to later developments such as the pressure to reduce professional courses. In some instances colleges may have tried to follow the guidelines too closely and in others the recommended standards may have posed objectives which could not be realized even with optimum pooling of college, school and community resources and facilities.\textsuperscript{3}

In any event this report is significant because of the importance it placed on the value of professional laboratory experiences as a part of the total teacher education program and the useful recommendations made for guiding teacher education faculties in the planning of such experiences. It certainly caused many institutions to examine their professional education curricula and dramatized the potentialities of professional laboratory experiences.
Association for Student Teaching

Practices and procedures at specific institutions for providing professional laboratory experiences in teacher education curricula are reported in the 1948 yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching. This report primarily treats the programs of a few institutions and is not an extension of the theory of professional laboratory experiences presented in the Flowers Report.4

Bowling Green Conference

An expression by the profession regarding the nature and content of pre-service education of teachers emanated from the Bowling Green Conference on teacher education sponsored and conducted in 1948 by the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of the National Education Association. One of the four sections of the conference was dedicated to the consideration of the professional education of teachers. It is significant that this section recommended in the report of the conference that continuous and extensive laboratory experiences be an integral part of the professional education of teachers.5

Commission on Teacher Education

The Commission on Teacher Education, sponsored by the American Council on Education, began a seven-year nation-wide project in 1938 for the purpose of helping institutions engaged in teacher education study problems which seemed to them to have the widest and deepest significance. Among the Commission's conclusions regarding
the improvement of teacher preparation was the following recommendation:

Special attention should be given to enabling prospective teachers to study children, schools and communities at first hand, not merely to observe them but to work with them with some appropriate degree of responsibility. Such responsibility should begin fairly early in the preparatory program and be continuous in complementary relation to a variety of classroom experiences. Campus-school facilities and those that may be provided through suitable arrangements with nearby public schools should be fully capitalized in this connection.6

Cason

Cason in a study made in 1949 described and appraised the professional curriculum for prospective secondary teachers of the academic subjects at The Ohio State University. After 240 hours of observation, contacts with students, instructors and administrators, study of published and unpublished materials and college records, as well as a study of the reactions and recommendations of 210 students and former students obtained by questionnaire and interview, he concluded that one of the three major reasons for weaknesses in the professional part of the general curriculum was that "the program made inadequate provision for the use of direct experience."7

After applying his criteria to the professional part of the curriculum Cason reached the following conclusions:

1. Concurrent and continuously interrelated verbal, observational and actively self-directional experiences were provided to little extent throughout the program.

2. Observational and self-directional activities provided to little extent for growth in appreciation and understanding of all major tasks of the teacher.8
The students' reactions indicated that they wanted more direct experiences to be provided in order to bring meaning and reality to the professional program.  

As a result of his study Cason presented various proposals as possible ways of providing more extensive and effective use of professional laboratory experiences. Cason proposed that all instructors use their own methodology purposefully to illustrate the application of principles of teaching and learning and that observation and participation be incorporated in all courses when consonant with their purposes. Preference was expressed for group rather than individual observations in extra-class situations. Cason encouraged group observation of human behavior and social conditions and broadening of experiences to include contrasting schools and communities and all major tasks of the teacher.

Hardgrove made an exploratory study of the Cason proposals as they apply to a special methods course for prospective mathematics teachers. References are made to this study in Chapter IV. In addition to looking at educators' recommendations for the use of professional laboratory experiences in the curriculum we should continue to consider the significance of these experiences to those who participate in them.

Cottrell

The significance of professional laboratory experiences is indicated when Cottrell states that:

   studies have frequently shown that prospective teachers, looking back over their preservice professional preparation,
have concluded that the 'practical' experiences of student teaching, participation . . . and even guided observation, have been the most valuable parts of their programs. Many advisers of graduate students of education have observed that advanced professional studies of all kinds seem to come alive for students after at least a short period of teaching service . . . The only plausible explanation would seem to be that these experiences are considered to be connected with the very heart of their adopted purposes and prospective professional roles. It may well be that in these experiences for the first time they are able to project themselves as future teachers. Here they may see realistically the significance of the problems, issues and viewpoints with which they have been and are concerned in courses on campus.  

National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards

The New Horizons Task Force reported that direct experience gives meaning to ideas and closes the gap between knowing and doing. The group recommended that course work, as well as independent study not directly related to course work, should include direct experience. The group also indicated that the total collegiate environment and the larger community in which the college is located provide important direct experiences.

Stratemeyer

One's views in the area of teaching-scholarship certainly have a vital relationship to the nature and role of direct experience. According to Stratemeyer a unique fifth dimension is required of a teacher, for his scholarship must include having insight into helping others—individuals and groups—develop competence and genuine interest in learning. A teacher must be more than a practitioner; he must be educated to exercise choices, to render judgments and to make decisions. To develop a teacher who is thoughtful and independent requires
that direct experiences be focused sharply on the study of teaching, on helping the prospective teacher grasp principles and generalizations that can be derived from that study, and on applications of basic concepts in situations which have changing dimensions.¹³

Current proposals such as that of substituting an internship with little or no previous direct experience for student teaching are difficult to reconcile with the development of the teacher as a student of teaching. Limited direct experiences would not provide the intern with the insights needed to penetrate external factors and action to the meaningful internal facts. With attention riveted on immediate pressing and practical problems the intern would adjust his behavior to professional survival patterns based on what he sees succeed and fail, what he sees other teachers do and to directions and counsel given to him. Cooperative clarification is needed on the parts of both college and school staffs regarding the dimensions of teaching-scholarship and of the contributions of the various aspects of the curriculum to that scholarship. It seems that the major thrust should be that of realizing the power of the teaching experience in developing individuals who will continue to be students of teaching.¹⁴

Types of Experiences

Professional laboratory experiences in teacher education are frequently grouped under five main headings, as follows: observation, participation, student teaching, clinical experience (defined as in medical school curricula) and internship. Since this study is primarily concerned with experiences prior to the traditional one-shot
student teaching period, let us look at some of the characteristics and potential uses of the more common types in this area.

Observation

The value of observation depends upon the experiential background of the viewer and his perceptivity as well as on what is seen. It is probably safe to say that well-directed observations for which the student has been prepared usually are more beneficial to the student than those which are random and undirected. If one continued to observe without active involvement, learning would tend to diminish. Hunter and Amidon go so far as to suggest that the end of the full-time student teaching experience would seem to be the right time for observation in schools on the ground that those who have not yet taught learn little from observation. Of course, the ideal time would have to be determined upon viewing the entire sequence of experiences in the program and the needs of the student.

Direct observation provides a touch of reality, but it is seldom that a whole class can see the same thing as a prelude to class discussion and analysis. There is the problem of arranging observations for large numbers and the very real question as to whether or not observers can always see what they came to observe. Approaches such as constructing large laboratory school classrooms, observation booths and one-way screens or glass have been used in an effort to accommodate entire classes. Reproductions via the new media may help solve some of these problems. With direct observation the event passes and perhaps no one remembers exactly what he witnessed in any
great detail. In fact, perhaps no two people would see the same thing. Even closed-circuit television has the transitory character of a never-to-be-seen-again event. The videotaped observation, on the other hand, allows the instructor to preview the presentation, direct attention in advance to specific or characteristic techniques or methods and replay all or any part of the tape to reinforce certain points. It is also possible to transfer the recording to sound film. A library of well-chosen reproductions of teaching-learning could provide teacher educators with a valuable resource of great potential. There may be more and more types of vicarious experience available in the future with the newer media and refined procedures.

The optimum combination or use of direct and indirect or vicarious experiences might be determined by looking at the desired outcomes or the needs of the student.

Stratemeyer concluded her analysis of the two types with this digest:

For verbal pursuits to have action concepts there must be concrete imagery which is exact and accurate. This suggests that when the student has not had previous direct contact with the situations and concepts under consideration or with similar or related events, direct experience should be provided if at all possible. When there has been pertinent previous direct experience, vivid and accurate imagery can be a part of vicarious experience.16

Lindsey is quite explicit when she states as follows:

Prior to practice of coping behaviors in a resource center or simulation laboratory a student should have experiences in a real teaching situation in order to identify behaviors needed and to perceive the intricate relationship among behaviors in a real setting.17
The fear expressed here is that extensive practice of isolated behaviors in a simulated situation without concurrent real classroom experiences may well lead to mechanistic approaches to dealing with conditions and problems of teaching. Since variables in the real classroom situation are multiple, they inevitably demand integration of knowledge and practice as well as selection from a variety of behaviors.

Participation

Students usually are grateful for the opportunity to be active and to have even a small part in teaching. Potential activities from the beginning should probably be selected from the following: observation, carrying out noninstructional routines, assisting the teacher in and out of the class with the ongoing instructional activity, and carrying out small, unitary and exploratory teaching activities, often known as "bit" teaching. Even brief experiences of the appropriate type may have tremendous impact on the student and on his readiness and understanding in his campus courses.

Participation in the community has more potential to change young people, their behavior, attitudes and purposes than any other type, according to many who have directed students in such leadership roles. In this area contacts with different communities, socio-economic levels and cultures and leadership experiences with children and youth, especially in recreational, social, welfare and camp settings are important components. There exists the possibility that even intensive stimulating experiences may provide little true
professional growth and understanding unless they are paralleled by group discussion furnishing some intellectualization of the experience and its implications. In the past few colleges have offered rich community experiences with adequate supervision by college personnel and an accompanying seminar. 18

Recent Focus on Direct Experiences

Since the teacher can and must play a vital role in integrating youth with society, he must, himself, have a broad range of "real world" experiences to draw on in order to be successful. A recent report by the New Jersey Committee on Teacher Education emphasizes the importance of training teachers "where the action is" in more relevant supervised practice and more frequent and varied encounters. It goes much further, however, with guidelines on how to increase prospective teacher involvement in the art of teaching. This committee states that student teaching, classroom observations, participation in school activities, working as aides in community projects, and in observing the resources and functions of institutions within the community can and should be carried out, not only in relation to the teacher preparation courses, but in a planned relationship to the other disciplines. 19 It is interesting to note that the Flowers Report had also indicated that direct experience applies equally to academic and professional courses.

The New Jersey group's imperatives for action include exposure to the total school program. Each college student should have an opportunity to work with a team of school personnel, including teachers,
principal, guidance counselor, curriculum coordinator, school psychologist, school nurse and social worker. The student should become acquainted with special offerings in the school such as speech correction, remedial instruction, psychological services, special education and humanities programs. The observation and participation program should acquaint the student with the needs of all children and youth, including the gifted, the slow learners, the culturally different, the disadvantaged, and the broad spectrum of average students.

The New Jersey group also recommends that colleges make a special effort and specific preparations to place more prospective teachers in urban centers for professional laboratory experiences. Prospective teachers should be encouraged to provide services which might range from the volunteer tutoring of children with special needs to participating in a campaign for community improvement. Colleges should make arrangements for students to observe and participate in the opening of schools in early September for one or more weeks so that the student may be aware of the orientation process. Seminars should be held for planning for and evaluating the experience. A good curriculum laboratory should be available so that students can observe and practice techniques related to the most recent research in teaching. This experience might include exposure to team teaching, outdoor education, individually programmed instruction and various new methodologies.20

In the New Jersey proposals we recognize the kind of joint responsibility of public school systems, community agencies, institutions of higher education and state agencies that is needed in order
to improve the preparation of teachers through the offering of quality field experiences which are relevant to the teaching act.

While we are very much interested in viewing total programs and general approaches, it is also important to examine many elements carefully when trying to determine which ones might best fit into the particular part of the teacher preparation program for which we are most directly responsible.

Innovations

Fattu in an early report on the USOE Research Bureau project indicated that during the 1960's teacher education was in a period of ferment. Many innovations turned up, including the following:

- emphasis on performance and competence as opposed to credit accumulation criteria; programmed instruction; behaviorally-stated goals; performance testing; individualized instruction, including IPI (Individually Prescribed Instruction), CMI (Computer Managed Instruction), CAI (Computer Assisted Instruction), R and D (Research and Development) units, and management "systems"; team teaching, sensitivity training, micro-teaching, flexible scheduling, interaction analysis; gaming and simulation; clinical professors, clinical work, internships, residencies, and on-the-job training.

We could add others such as mini-course, program recycling, professional "half-life," portal schools, differentiated teaching staff and teaching strategies.

The writer will select from among the various current ideas those believed to be most pertinent to this study and will treat them in some detail in Chapter V. Before doing this, however, the writer would like to focus more specifically on professional laboratory experiences as they relate to the special methods course or component.
CHAPTER IV

PROFESSIONAL LABORATORY EXPERIENCES

IN THE SPECIAL METHODS COURSE

As early as 1877 in the Summer Language School at Amherst College Dr. Lambert Sauveur taught French and Italian for three different types of classes—a class in literature, a class for adult beginners and a class for children. A class of teachers was invited to observe him demonstrate a new method, later referred to as the "natural" method, which at that time was considered rather revolutionary. The teachers would observe Dr. Sauveur's beginning classes and then participate in the teaching by conducting the class for short periods of time. Dr. Sauveur's class for teachers was, perhaps, the first methods class in the teaching of foreign languages in the United States, and his arrangement for permitting teachers to observe and participate in the teaching might be regarded as the first program of professional laboratory experiences in connection with a foreign language methods course.¹

Although this study is primarily concerned with the use of professional laboratory experiences in the special methods course in the area of foreign language, the writer will view their use in other areas as well in order to gain perspective. Viewing the use of such experiences in general methods courses is also considered helpful.

26
The special methods course in making use of the experience approach has more specific aims for professional laboratory experiences than more general professional study, since it focuses on the study of teaching in a specific subject field and operates within this well-defined framework. This does not remove the larger purpose of developing competent and resourceful teachers with a high degree of understanding of the growth and development of young people and of teaching but gives emphasis to it.

A review of the literature relating to the use of professional laboratory experiences indicates that the experience approach to teacher education at all levels in all parts of the curriculum is consistent with educational theory and that such experiences prior to student teaching are limited in many cases and in need of further investigation.

American Association of Teachers Colleges

School and Community Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education and the few other sources describing practices in professional laboratory experiences at that time reported a small number of direct experiences in the special methods area of the professional education of teachers. Data gathered by sending questionnaires to teacher education institutions revealed that opportunities for professional laboratory experiences prior to student teaching were relatively uncommon and that in most institutions these experiences emphasized observation. The Flowers Report also pointed to the need for study and experimentation with respect to experiences that should precede student teaching.2
In 1948 at the time of the Flowers Report it was not uncommon to find a separate course in observation offered during the freshman year for the purpose of providing students with a background for later professional work. In some cases observation courses were offered during the junior year for purposes of inducting the student into the full responsibilities of teaching gradually or of providing direct contact with the teaching-learning situation at the same time the student was pursuing methods courses. Perhaps what is most important here is that the principle of continuous contact be in operation and that the student be helped in relating his experiences to his other college work.

Hardgrove

Due to the lack of specific references to the direct experience approach in special methods courses in the literature Hardgrove made her own survey of practices relating to the professional education of teachers of mathematics.

The Hardgrove survey points to several matters of significance regarding the professional education of teachers of mathematics in the educational institutions consulted. These are as follows:

1. Only about half of the special methods courses have any type of professional laboratory experiences.

2. The experiences that are provided are limited to less than three class periods per quarter for a five quarter credit hour course.

3. The experiences are largely observational in character.

4. The experiences that were reported have little or no effect on the nature of the course. 3
After making the survey Hardgrove explored the use of professional laboratory experiences in a special methods course by setting up a program. The experiences designed were many and varied. The students began with observation, gradually assuming more responsibility for classroom activities, and culminated the experience with exploratory teaching.

Guidance of the students was accomplished in many ways, both formally and informally, in helping the students plan in terms of their needs, in helping them relate the theory of the college classroom to their professional laboratory experiences and in helping them intellectualize their experiences.

Members of the class with the guidance of the college supervisor defined specific aims for the professional laboratory experiences and planned and evaluated their experiences in terms of them.

The significance of the experiences of the special methods course was critically evaluated by the class in a free-response evaluation. The students rated the professional laboratory experiences as "good" or better, because they learned about teaching by having a responsible experience in a teaching situation. The outstanding contributions of the experiences were as follows: the defining and studying of problems that exist in a teaching-learning situation, the developing of good human relations, the developing of a concern for the learning experiences of boys and girls, and the developing of self-confidence as a teacher.

Let us look at the evaluations in relation to the aims of the professional laboratory experiences in order to see more specifically
what was learned in this program of professional laboratory experiences incorporated in the special methods course. In general, students showed progress in defining and studying problems arising in the teaching-learning situation, with some students such as Student Number 46 making more progress than others. Student Number 46 defined 20 problems and formulated 32 hypotheses in the records of his participation. Among the problems identified were those of how to plan in terms of individual differences, how to diagnose difficulties, how to account for slowness in problem solving when lack of understanding is not a factor and how to locate material on the level of the learner. The problems and hypotheses were broad in scope and were of a general nature. There was a high degree of relationship between the problems defined and the hypotheses formulated. The same student made much progress in effectiveness in the study of boys and girls as groups and as individuals as indicated by examination of hypotheses formulated and of the evidence found in his anecdotal record. He made much progress toward the realization of the aim of effectiveness in relating education concepts developed in the professional program to those which exist in practice. The problems and hypotheses he formulated centered around teaching for understanding and stimulating and maintaining interest, which were also centers of attention in the class meetings. Even though this student formulated only one hypothesis regarding relationships with pupils and the teacher, he showed by his actions that he considered human relations to be of utmost importance in teaching. He made progress in the area of effectiveness in planning for teaching-learning experiences and in putting
the plans into operation. He showed evidence of having studied the problem of how to plan in terms of individual differences. The data reveal seven examples of planning experiences. He showed progress in effectiveness in stimulating pupils to think critically by actions such as helping pupils develop their own ideas and asking them to justify their statements. His effectiveness in securing and using materials for teaching-learning experiences was also reflected in his actions.\textsuperscript{5}

After an exploratory teaching experience one student reported having learned to plan better in terms of students' needs and in terms of available time. Tutoring helped another student know pupils more intimately. Students reported learnings such as development of a clearer understanding of levels of comprehension, gaining better understanding of the subject matter field and realization of the very important part visual aids can play. Several students learned how important it is to make the problem clear and as practical and applicable as possible to situations which arise in the everyday lives of the pupils. One student discovered class interest is much higher on days when resource materials are used. Others gained early insight into some of the problems of teaching, tested ideas in action and realized the responsibilities of a teacher. There seemed to be great value in being in a teaching situation while studying how to teach. One student reported that the experiences helped him to see more clearly problems he had heard about but had given little thought to and to locate problems he did not know even existed.\textsuperscript{6}
The students rated the course as helpful in the integrating of experiences, because they felt that a real experience provides a basis for the study of teaching. The students who had a student teaching experience following the quarter of participation reported unanimously that the experiences were of value to them in student teaching. The college supervisors also believed that the experiences contributed greatly to student teaching. The student teachers suggested that the program of professional laboratory experiences be expanded in the rest of the teacher education curriculum as well as in the special methods course. Hardgrove recommended that administrators and teachers in the schools should be given the opportunity to assume increased responsibility for teacher education.

Thomas

Data from the Thomas study indicate that in only a minority of the special methods classes in foreign language (about one-third) were students given an opportunity to observe high school classes in operation. The number of observations made by students varied widely among the responses (1 to 90), with no central grouping observable. The average number of observations for all cases was 12.5. Students were permitted to participate actively in high school classes in only 13 per cent of the methods classes. The activities varied widely in the amount of responsibility required and provided experience in planning, evaluating, conducting and assisting with both in-class and extra-curricular activities. Demonstration classes, that is, high school language classes taught by the methods instructor, were few in
Thomas believes that professional laboratory experiences should be incorporated in the foreign language methods course. The students should be guided to profit from these experiences by relating them to methods as well as to adolescent psychology and other areas, since reactions of students indicate that isolated experiences have less value than discussed and evaluated experiences. Thomas recommends that the course should provide students with a preview of language teaching problems and that the instructor should make rich use of demonstration, based on the principle that a multi-sensory approach has a greater advantage in communicating the understanding of a given concept than a purely verbal approach. The student must be given ample opportunities to practice the skills he must use in actual teaching. For this reason he advocates peer teaching in the methods class. He calls for participations in actual high school classrooms for the purpose of acquainting students with the operations of the classroom and the nature of high school pupils.

The students emphasized that the most valuable part of the course was practice, practice and more practice. They presented originally planned units on pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. The teacher demonstrated various stages in the learning of a modern foreign language by using a "shock" language. Some students felt that they would have liked a course composed entirely of this type of direct, active experience. The students considered valuable fewer elements more completely learned rather than more elements incompletely learned. They emphasized the value of student-centered discussion
which enabled them to describe experiences that contributed to class understandings and to describe problems that brought theory down to their level. 9

Thomas does not indicate exactly what was learned by using particular professional laboratory experiences. He simply lists the types of activities engaged in, with grading papers, helping pupils, teaching, and correcting board work being the four most frequently mentioned activities. So-called "low-frequency" experiences included "learning by watching" (demonstrations by instructor) and "learning by doing" (in the form of undertaking projects and practicing teaching skills). Experiences most often omitted from methods courses were observation of and participation in high school classes, guest speakers, and field trips. It is interesting to note that each of these experiences involves the use of outside resources and the making of cooperative arrangements. Student evaluation showed that actual performing of the skill, after studying the theory, proved most helpful. Observations and demonstration lessons by students were considered the most valuable practices. The value to the student was indicated as providing him an opportunity to develop confidence as well as ability before being launched on his teaching career and affording an opportunity for corrective measures to be taken on the spot. Thomas reports that a controlled study of how students profit from various types of experiences in methods courses is apparently unavailable. 10

McGeoch

McGeoch describes in detail direct experiences provided by
three hypothetical teacher education institutions. Even though the
descriptions are not accurate portrayals of any existing programs,
actual institutions served as bases for descriptions and most of the
practices mentioned were used in teacher institutions similar to the
ones in the study. She describes the programs as they were operating
in 1953 and suggests plans for action by projecting programs for 1958
based on the needs and potentialities of the local situation. Let us
look at one such program.

The Central State Teachers College program in 1953 offered
very few laboratory experiences for students prior to student teach-
ing. McGeoch considered the professional sequence for elementary
education majors less a sequence than a series of courses which might
have had some relation but often did not. Observations were made in
some professional education courses, but there was no participation
program.

There were seven required methods courses which could come any
time during the last three years of college courses. The Teaching of
Language Arts extended over two quarters and was taught in the Educa-
tion Department. The students had about two or three observations in
the laboratory school each quarter and spent some time observing pro-
grams in the public schools, both individually and in small groups.
They were also scheduled to observe various special activities at the
laboratory school such as student council, assemblies and club programs.
McGeoch believes that the experiences afforded any one student were
quite meager, but she notes that the strain on the resources available
was considerable.
The methods courses other than the one in language arts were taught in the subject matter departments and provided almost no laboratory experiences beyond one or two demonstration lessons per quarter in some departments.

The projected goal for 1958 called for a revision of the professional courses to form a unified sequence which would extend throughout the four years of the college program and would include many experiences with children and youth prior to student teaching. She requested situations for all prospective teachers outside the laboratory school, either in the city or in off-campus centers. Use of many nonschool educational agencies for providing pre-student teaching professional laboratory experiences was recommended. Community participation experiences were to be an integral part of course work and not something added on. She hoped to develop a program in which all of the sophomores would have an opportunity for at least one quarter of participation in one of the local schools as well as experience with a community organization.

The problem of the methods course was one of the most difficult due to the vested interests involved. A general curriculum course came about with six teachers cooperating in the teaching of ten sections of the course. Three teachers came from three different subject matter departments and three from the Education Department. A special methods teacher was assigned to each of the ten sections of the course for a period of six weeks during which time he met with the group for two hours a day on three days of the week. In
addition to the time spent with individual groups, each special methods teacher was on call as a resource person for any group that might need help.

A weekly two-hour period was allowed for each division to meet with its coordinator to consider general problems of the curriculum and of the integration of subject matter areas. The classes invited the special methods teachers to participate on panels where they discussed and evaluated the students' plans from the standpoint of the opportunities for learning in the various subject matter areas.

Perhaps further experiences planning together and cooperating in activities such as these could lead to a more flexible structure than the one described. The projected directed electives in the senior year could better provide for individual differences and might consist of further laboratory experiences or teaching in a given field, independent study in class work in an area in which he needs greater competence or even general education in areas in which he has insufficient background. McGeoch presents programmatic provisions for field experiences but does not indicate the specific contributions of the various types of experiences in relation to the methods course.

Wilhelms

Hunter and Amidon maintain that direct experiences in the schools need not be isolated from foundation courses but can begin with the first course in education. They believe that ideally the social, psychological and philosophical foundations of education might be combined with methods courses and direct experience in a
way such as Wilhelms combined them in his project at San Francisco State College. 12

Wilhelms' group proposed an instructional program characterized virtually from the start by an evolving sequence of significant experiences with children in schools and other agencies, closely and constantly interwoven with seminars and with specialized consultation of experts from various areas. This pattern of early and continuous experience would enable the student to grow rapidly in understanding what the way of life of a teacher is and to size himself up in relation to it. The self-selection of teachers would, therefore, be on valid ground. 13

In the Teacher Education Project the necessary work in areas such as principles of education, curriculum and instruction, and psychology was woven in against the background of real experience, using the experience as a basis for analysis. In this way the student had the opportunity to practice and to test what he was studying, thus avoiding the usual dichotomy between good theory and what is practical. Since the student, when he was studying methodology, was already in touch with children, he had the opportunity to integrate his concern for the personal development of children with his concern for subject matter instruction, sacrificing neither and setting up no gap between them. 14

In a survey in which students could suggest content and procedures for the ensuing semester, they expressed major concern for more observation and participation with follow-up discussion and for methods of teaching specific subjects. The students ranked
professional laboratory experiences as the most valued component in the Teacher Education Project. Those who commented on this element identified the following features as being especially worth while: continuous observation-participation experiences, early student teaching opportunities before the last semester of the senior year, continuous and cooperative evaluation by resident teacher and college supervisor and an extended experience for reinforcement and enrichment in the final semester. The process orientation of the experience was second in rank. Their comments about the methods of teaching and use of the team approach were especially enthusiastic. On the whole, the group was favorably impressed by the problem-solving approach and made various references to its value in facilitating the integration of theory and practice. 

Observation-participation experiences, which constituted a major part of the exploratory program, were designed to facilitate the testing out of educational principles that were being learned and the integration of theoretical and practical aspects of the professional sequence. Laboratory experiences were provided at several levels and were employed for a variety of specific purposes such as problem identification, reality testing, insight stretching and reinforcement of learning. The Classroom Perception Test was designed to ascertain the degree of sensitivities to teaching-learning processes evidenced in the students' observations of classroom situations, and data were gathered early in the program. Unfortunately, this instrument was not used in the same form for subsequent classroom observations, so it is not possible to compare results and indicate what the actual
learnings were. The report, however, gives the impression that the program would aid the student toward an early appreciation of the complexity and full significance of teaching. This appreciation might lead to deep respect for teaching as a vocation, for himself as a person who has chosen the vocation and for the work required in becoming a teacher. One major aim was that of developing a commitment to the pupils' welfare, to serving the community and to utilizing its resources in one's teaching. The program is integrated in such a way that it might be difficult to ferret out particular learnings in relation to the methods area. Apparently, the primary responsibility of the special methods and audiovisual specialist in a Wilhelms type of program would be for content and not so much for factors of broad personal development, although attention to the latter would also be desirable where possible.  

Drumheller and Paris

Teacher education institutions frequently have difficulties in presenting meaningful experiences in methods courses prior to student teaching. At State University of New York, College at Brockport, groups of ten each in a methods course plan a four-week unit of work and go three times a week into a classroom where each individually presents the unit to small groups of from two to four children. The twenty-five-minute lessons are followed by a twenty-five-minute seminar, conducted by the classroom teacher, in which work is appraised, problems are discussed and plans are made for the following session. Results of this study indicate that the approach was highly efficient
and effective from the point of view of the college and cooperating school instructors and highly effective with respect to the college students' and cooperating school pupils' achievement.

This new approach greatly increased the percentage of time the college students were in direct contact with the pupils during their time in the classroom. In fact, they actually spent about eight times as much time teaching under the new program. Regarding the quality of the teaching experiences, both evaluation groups rated highest the degree to which the teaching experience helped the student to understand child behavior and the problems faced by a teacher, and to play effectively the role of a teacher. There was no clear indication that this experience helped the college participant to understand the total instructional program of the grade.

Bogniard

Bogniard describes a pre-service simulated experience in which the special methods teacher, the college supervisor and the investigator were the instructors. The problem was to determine the feasibility of using simulated teaching experiences as an educational tool in the pre-service preparation of student teachers, that is, determine whether simulated learning experiences could be built into a total learning situation profitably. The rationale on the part of the investigator was that if desirable teaching behaviors and attitudes could be discovered and developed by prospective student teachers through participating in simulated experiences, and it was then found that they transferred from participating in a simulated experience to
the student teaching situation, a valuable technique would have been created to help solve the problem of making theory practical by providing prospective student teachers with realistic classroom experience before they reach the actual student teaching situation. It was felt that the two-week period required for providing simulated experiences could perhaps be found in the methods course or by delaying the student teaching experience, which was done in this experiment, in order to incorporate this type of practice and study. At the close of student teaching five students out of seven felt that it would have been better to take time in methods class than to shorten student teaching time.

The evidence collected in the Bogniard study shows that faculty and students feel that simulation in teacher education is a highly acceptable and effective method. Changes in ability to enact the desired response, to assess the problem and the total performance were all significant at the .01 level. There was clear evidence that student ability to understand and critically assess a simulated teaching problem was improved. Participating in simulation experiences not only helped the student develop the ability to enact responses to, assess and solve teaching problems but also increased her self-confidence in her teaching ability. The most timid and self-conscious student showed the greatest change on the post-test and greatest growth in confidence. Perhaps this kind of student may benefit most from this type of experience. More data under controlled conditions are needed to test this idea.
In 1969 Carr explored the feasibility of an adapted methods course in pre-service education which would integrate the basic principles of the teaching-learning processes appropriate for all potential teachers, knowledge of youth from depressed areas, and direct experiences with the life styles of these youth into a unified whole. It seems that such an adapted methods course is feasible and that there are several implications for change in teacher education curricula.

The significant changes in attitude toward others different from one's self suggest that a deliberate plan to acquaint the prospective teachers with their own degree of acceptance or nonacceptance of others and then to arrange for many opportunities for growth and understanding of these groups through simulated and direct experiences can help increase interest in teaching these youth and allay the superficial fearfulness found in many potential teachers. Such attitude formation would point to probable enrichment for any pre-service teacher education program.

The data also suggest that prospective teachers can profit from encouragement to learn through individualized use of audiovisual materials found in an independent laboratory setting.

The data supported the non-volunteer approach; that is to say, an approach to teacher preparation for disadvantaged youth is feasible and effective regardless of whether college students specifically choose to be involved in this aspect of education. The data indicate that prospective teachers can be adequately prepared to teach in the inner-city schools and they can also be adequately prepared, as well
as self-confident, in any school setting.  

In this connection it is interesting to note that in 1966 Wiles recommended that specialized components might be designed to prepare teachers for specific kinds of assignments. For example, one special component might be working with socially disadvantaged children; another, working in overseas education; and a third, working with the academically talented. Wiles pointed out that the important thing is to make sure that, in each of the components of the teacher education sequence, there is actual study of the interaction process of human beings of the same age and of different ages.

Hunter College students were involved in a cross-age tutoring program held in a public school as part of a methods course. This pre-student teaching experience gave college students an opportunity to teach youngsters and to study their own teaching and the teaching of an older child as he tutored a younger child. Cross-age tutoring refers to those activities in which older children tutor younger children, hopefully with both benefiting from the experience. The youngsters looked forward to the tutoring sessions and the classroom teachers reported that they regarded the programs as helpful. Hunter and Amidon indicate that typically teacher education curricula provide some group observation in schools in conjunction with methods or foundations courses.
The rationale for practice-centered programs is supported by Hough and Amidon, who found that the key to changing teacher behavior seems to lie in finding ways of helping teachers discover personal meaning in cognitive knowledge regarding the teaching-learning process. According to the investigators, means must be found by which potential teachers can

(1) gain knowledge about principles of teaching and learning, (2) make use of such knowledge in a situation characterized by personal meaning, (3) get immediate feedback regarding the effects of their behavior in the classroom, and thus (4) discover for themselves more effective patterns of teaching behavior.25

The preparation of language teachers usually involves courses in language, civilization and culture, applied linguistics and methods followed by some form of student teaching. These courses have been sequential in nature in the typical college program as opposed to the parallel nature of the NDEA Institute programs. The syllabus issued by Politzer and Bartley at Stanford takes on the parallel approach and links each lesson in applied linguistics to a corresponding lesson in language practice and in turn relates this to principles of methodology and finally applies all of this in the teaching of a specific micro-lesson by the trainee. Mackey's program deals with what is traditionally thought of as the methods and student teaching segments and involves three stages: observation, practice and performance. The trainee sees short examples of specific teacher behavior on videotape and is trained by subtitles to focus on the type of behavior, drill and so on that he is viewing. During the second
viewing after subtitles have been removed he is expected to identify the behavior exhibited. More detailed analysis follows in which the trainee answers a series of questions about the tape. The group discusses and analyzes the matter of why the teacher made such moves. A period of planning and practice follows the observation period. The trainee develops a plan for the same type of lesson, making use of the demonstration teacher's plan as analyzed on the videotape and from discussions and critiques with his supervisor and his peer group. Finally, the trainee performs under controlled conditions. The University of Nebraska program is a modification of the existing structure which leaves methods and student teaching until last. In this systems approach many new approaches to training teachers are integrated into a workable package. The student goes through various phases which include the following:

1. the learning of Interaction Analysis as an observational tool, 2. training in the use of audiovisual equipment, 3. observation of good teaching models, 4. analysis of audio-lingual principles, 5. exposure to a previously unknown foreign language through audio-lingual techniques, 6. analysis of the psychology of language learning and the language learner, 7. the systems approach to instructional planning, 8. micro-teaching, and 9. practice teaching.26

Audiotapes as well as videotapes are used in the micro-teaching and practice phases. The two instructors involved in teaching the methods class also supervise the practice teaching, thus providing for constant feedback and evaluation of the training program.

The use of micro-teaching in language circles has not been widespread but is increasing. Mackey seems to have incorporated a slightly different form of it into his proposed program and refers to it as a
module. The number of students is not necessarily limited. According to Dugas micro-teaching has also been slightly modified for use in a recent NDEA Institute. Another modification was used at a summer workshop held at the University of Nebraska. 27

Micro-teaching in the Special Methods Course

At Brigham Young University each student is required to micro-teach at least once in the first professional education course. In subsequent subject matter methods classes secondary students do additional micro-teaching. Social studies majors, for example, must teach at least two more lessons which are videotaped. One is taught inductively and another fifteen-minute lesson requires the student to use a variety of methods and media appropriate to the concepts being taught. Assignments for micro-teaching in the special methods courses vary from pattern drills in foreign language teaching to motor acts in homemaking. 28

Smithers states that at the University of Minnesota micro-teaching in some methods courses helps solve the dilemma of relating theory to practice. 29

At Eastern Illinois University micro-teaching was a part of the prescribed program of pre-student teaching laboratory experiences for students at the secondary level throughout the winter and spring quarters of the 1966–67 school year. The micro-teaching experience is a part of the specialized methods instruction and an integral part of the respective methods courses. Each instructor tends to vary the format somewhat to suit the particular needs of his content area, but,
in general, the procedure is for each student to prepare a short segment of material (three to five minutes) to present before the camera to his fellow methods students. The student and methods instructor discuss the strengths and weaknesses of the performance and the student replans the sequence and repeats it, or parts of it, before the camera and once again the videotape is viewed.

The students at Eastern have liked the experience and have felt that this scaled-down teaching encounter has afforded them the opportunity to see and correct their errors before being criticized by their supervising instructor. Among the advantages of micro-teaching as practiced at Eastern Illinois University are (1) the teaching sequence is simplified over a similar situation in a real classroom and thereby allows the student to practice specific methods, (2) the supervising instructor can pinpoint supervision in a much more precise manner because both he and his student can see the same thing at the same time, (3) each student can work on his own problems, therefore permitting greater individualization, (4) students are less fearful of the first few days of student teaching, and (5) the instant feedback allows immediate evaluation of his performance by each student.

At Eastern Illinois University they believe that while micro-teaching should not constitute the whole of the pre-student teaching laboratory experience there is no doubt that it is an important supplement to other kinds of experience available in the program of laboratory experiences of a student prior to student teaching. The faculty sees micro-teaching as one of many ways for the students in
secondary education to relate theory to practice and to improve their performance in a very effective way. At the University of Manitoba the videotape recorder was used to record discrete elements of a lesson taught by a student to his peers who were enrolled in a special methods course and who were also student teachers. The last phase of the Training Instructional Practice Sessions (TIPS) was the production of a complete lesson presentation, using the elements previously practiced in isolation. It was found that students were not too concerned or disturbed by outside influences such as visitors. It would seem that the use of the videotape recorder tends to inculcate an objective attitude in the students to the point that they can take criticism objectively. This attitude is important because it develops a sense of self-confidence which they need in the first year of teaching. Students apparently accept criticism when a supportive group atmosphere has been created. The videotape recorder contributes to this supportive atmosphere by providing direct evidence of performance so that criticism is viewed by the student as discussion of specific, observed behavior and not as personal, subjective opinion. The medium eliminates the need for the instructor to comment on obvious deficiencies. The presence of two instructors was well accepted by the students. The "tandem teaching" concept in this kind of situation as well as others bears further investigation. It seems that this feature eliminated the "student-professor" relationship and enhanced the value of the group function. The fact that two instructors can discuss a situation and come to a decision emphasizes the decision-making aspect of teaching. The
opportunity to see and practice behavior can lead to a generalization on the part of the participant. The comment by one of the students regarding this type of decision-making brings to mind Carl Rogers' remark to the effect that the only learning which significantly affects human behavior is self-discovered learning.

The students were especially appreciative of the opportunity to develop questioning techniques, first with the peer group and later with pupils. The students preferred short teaching periods and the immediate replay, interrupted for comment and discussion, which was more easily provided when the peer group was acting as a class. The videotape recorder was very effective in showing the boredom engendered by lengthy, ill-organized exposition. Prospective teachers could see that "teaching" is not "telling." Students criticized instructors' models and came to regard the model as only one of a variety of possibilities.

The use of a small number of "real" pupils was rated highly; however, the students realized that it did not provide the problem of a full class. It was found that prospective teachers need work in techniques of group discussion. It seems that students learn by observation if eventual participation is required of them and do so efficiently if participation is not long delayed. Variations of this technique might be used in remedial work for student teachers who do poorly or for in-service training of weaker teachers.

Gilliom's experience as reported in 1969 would seem to indicate that micro-teaching can be made an integral, significant part of
the social studies methods course and can provide that earlier con-
frontation being requested by students. The micro-teaching experi-
ence, however, was not designed to replace the observation-
participation experience offered in introductory education courses
or to duplicate student teaching. It was designed to serve as a
proving ground for field testing teaching methods and applying ideas
discussed in class. It also provides students with the opportunity
to understand the various tasks comprising teaching and to appraise
and analyze their strengths and weaknesses as classroom teachers
before plunging into student teaching.32

Clinical Professor

In a study done at the State University College at Fredonia,
New York, the college professor, who is referred to as a "clinical
professor," continues to teach in the elementary classroom while
providing instruction in "how to teach" in college methods courses.
Two instructors taught social studies to sixth grade pupils and also
taught the social studies methods course to college juniors. The
college students observed their instructors in the elementary class-
rooms.33

Colorado State College

The Student Field Experiences Office at Colorado State College
is now developing a "preliminary field experience" phase, and early
efforts are being made to assist special methods and educational psy-
chology classes to relate the campus class to public school observa-
tions. An ad hoc committee is attempting to redesign the "educational
core" program; in essence, they will ask for a pilot, exploratory program to try freshmen and sophomores in some kind of integrated practice-theory format in a progressive way for all four years. They will consider a partial tutorial approach (a la Northwestern University) among other innovative methods and approaches. The Student Field Experiences Office serves the whole college for field experiences of all kinds: group or individual, special and general methods, observation, aide, student teaching and interning.34

The feeling of the Foreign Language Department at Colorado State College is that the adequate preparation of future foreign language teachers requires a certain amount of dedication and professional involvement at the very early stage of preparation. In order to attain the type of professionalism and feeling of relevancy in the program that they desire they have initiated an observation program which attempts to place their majors in the public school as early as possible. For some professional candidates this means observation as early as the sophomore year. Up to the present time the only participation at this level comes in working with individual students.35

**University of Maryland**

This institution incorporates some professional laboratory experiences in connection with the pre-student teaching methods courses. The special methods instructors request, through the Office of Laboratory Experiences, a specific school they would like to visit with their class on each of three consecutive Tuesdays during the first six weeks of the methods course. This experience is prepared for and supervised
by the instructor of the course. Following these visits, there are three consecutive visits by the student to the school to which he will be assigned. These visits are made in lieu of the methods class on Tuesdays. They are prepared for by the course instructor, but they are supervised by the cooperating public schools. Following these visits, the student begins his student teaching.36

In the Experimental Teacher Education Program in Mathematics at the University of Maryland professional laboratory experiences and methods courses were integrated. The program incorporated the theoretical content of two methods courses and the practical experiences of student teaching into a single program. There were many individualized as well as joint experiences. The college instructor and the public school teachers both supervised and evaluated the laboratory experiences; however, the main burden for the supervision of the laboratory experiences was with the public school teachers. The laboratory experiences were of several types: observation in a demonstration center, observation in a regular classroom, participation in the demonstration center, participation in a clinic individual situation, regular classroom student teaching and micro-teaching. All of these experiences took place in one of two teacher education centers in Montgomery County, Maryland. All of the experiences involved actual participation with the exception of some classroom observation for discussion purposes in the seminar. Two kinds of field experiences were videotaped and/or audiotaped for later use for evaluation purposes: micro-teaching situations and samples of classroom behavior for each student teacher. Major features of the program include the
following: (1) cooperative planning, implementation and evaluating by university and public school personnel, (2) methods and techniques demonstrated with two classes of students being team taught by two public school teachers and two university professors, and (3) sensitivity training to help each prospective teacher gain a greater degree of self-understanding. Henkelman finds that the integrated and unified program is far superior to the usual separation between methods courses and laboratory experiences. In this type of program a planning team can describe expected performances of prospective teachers without regard to the usual rather artificial divisions now made. 37

In the Bridge evaluation of the experimental program the hypothesis stating that prospective teachers who complete the experimental program show more observable teaching strategies (patterns) than those who complete the regular program was supported. The hypothesis indicating that they would be better teachers on a subjective, global evaluation was not supported. Perhaps the experimental teacher education program could be refined and investigated further. 38

Let us continue gaining perspective by examining some relevant current ideas and practices.
CHAPTER V

RELEVANT CURRENT IDEAS

Relevant current ideas will be examined in order to help in the process of conceptually organizing the field of professional laboratory experiences as these experiences relate to the special methods component. Since there is a growing willingness and even determination on the part of educational leaders to make creative applications of technology in the solution of instructional problems, let us start by examining some current practices in the realm of television and related media.

Television and Related Media

Considerable evidence is now available to document the fact that television can be used effectively for a wide variety of instructional tasks. In the judgment of many educational leaders, one of the great promises for instructional television lies in the area of preservice and in-service education of teachers. The most recent practices seem to predict a new direction in the use of television—toward more individualized and small group uses of the medium. Emphasis is now being placed on the use of television as a research and diagnostic instrument rather than as a dispenser of information to mass audiences. The use of videotapes and videotape recorders indicates that television
may be turning into a much more flexible teaching and learning instru-
ment than it has been up to now. We are now witnessing creative uses
of the medium to improve teacher efficiency and competence as well as
to increase teacher insight into instructional-learning problems.

Observation via television
and videotape

Renewed stress is currently being placed on professional labo-
ratory experience as the heart and soul of teacher education programs,
and observation-participation activities are being given a major share
of this attention. Due to the ever increasing demand for high-quality
student teaching stations teacher education institutions face the
dilemma of finding enough qualified model teachers for observation-
participation activities. Numerous teacher education institutions are
now using closed-circuit television and the videotape recorder in the
area of classroom observation.

In 1964 at the University of Florida College of Education a
closed-circuit television system was installed mainly to decrease the
heavy student observation load at the laboratory school. Remote con-
trol permitted the professor to operate the camera and thereby select
and direct the observation to those aspects of human behavior or
classroom activity considered relevant to his class of observers. A
microphone attached to the remote panel provided for "talk-back"
communications. Videotaping was done to provide for classes and ob-
servations that met after laboratory school hours. Some of the pur-
poses for which the observations were used in the various courses
were: training for objectivity in observation before moving on to
analysis of observed behavior, presenting an overview of a total school program by viewing scenes from various levels, and providing invariability of content as well as specific experiences which might not be available to the student if left to chance during an actual observation.¹

A small investigation conducted in the United Kingdom among students who had experienced both in-person observation by school visits and observation by closed-circuit television showed that their attitudes toward the latter were generally favorable. The students recognized the advantages of the medium: the possibility of providing a common experience, the use of the zoom lens and the close-up, the exemplifying of theory in practice, the structuring of observation, the motivational value and the simple administrative convenience of this type of observation as opposed to the major operation of providing regular in-school opportunities. The students also pointed to some of the weaknesses; for instance, the unreality of a televised lesson, and expressed the hope that opportunities would still be provided for observation involving closer contact with children in a classroom.²

In this connection L. O. Andrews expressed his opinion as follows:

... There are certain kinds of observations that I would not like to substitute media for. There's the whole matter of reality. You need to expose young people to the reality of the kind of classroom they expect to teach in. They need to feel it, they need to smell it, they need to be a part of it, and this doesn't take very long; but unless this is done, many of the random observations that young people do in education, of course, simply have very little value ... the
recorded classroom episode is a means of making observation more functional in education courses.3

The findings of the three-year research project conducted by Rogers at San Jose State College indicate that planned observation of public school activities via controlled television plus decreased amounts of in-person observation is as effective as the total established amount of in-person observation. In this research the reduction of observation time amounted to 50 per cent and reduction in cost of travel was 75 per cent.4

Evidence from the Clemens study indicates that television observation before in-person observation is significantly more effective than television observation only, in-person observation only or television observation after in-person observation.5

In a television project study sponsored by the California State Department of Education the students agreed that unguided observation was of little value, but observation guided by an instructor had meaning and value.6

The University of Massachusetts has used and still uses closed-circuit television to supplement observation. In planning for an effective sequence of observation lessons for television, the faculty conceived the idea of using videotapes. They decided to use videotapes in the directed observation part of the teacher education program in order to focus attention on more specific teaching activities, including the role of the classroom teacher, classroom facilities, curriculum considerations and a structured overview of grade levels from one through six.7
Advantages of classroom observation by closed-circuit television over direct observation are plentiful. Far greater numbers of students can observe the lesson, since traditional classrooms are not designed to accommodate large numbers of visitors or observers. Unobtrusive, remote-controlled television cameras provide less distraction than observers physically present in the classroom. Even when special observation areas are provided and one-way glass installed to minimize this problem, the limited view of what is actually going on is accentuated and there is often inconvenience caused by crowding observers into a small observation area.

The videotaped observation has several intrinsic advantages over either direct observation in the classroom or the closed-circuit system. First of all, the recorded episode can be viewed by large or small groups and can be stopped, reversed and replayed and discussed and studied in great detail. The instructor can preview the presentation, call attention to specific teaching techniques or methods in advance, and replay all or portions of the tape to reinforce certain points. Videotaping can be done at the convenience of the individuals involved. The recorded episode is then at the disposal of the college instructor as to the way in which it may be used. He can fit the viewings into his teaching plans and select, edit or combine sequences to suit his purposes.

The Hunter College Education Department has done some work on comparing direct observation with live closed-circuit and recorded observation. Since the latter part of 1964 the Hunter College Observation Television Center has concentrated on building a library of
kinescopes of various instructional situations to supplement the direct observation which has long constituted part of various course offerings. Though still attached to the concept of recording ongoing, unrehearsed instructional situations, their faculty has found that edited versions of such material are frequently more effective than unedited versions, especially in cases involving various repetitions of a certain process or instructional interaction. 8

In an effort to discover the extent to which videotaped classroom episodes could supplement, extend and reinforce other laboratory experiences in teacher education, the State of Utah, as a part of an endeavor coordinated through the Multi-State Teacher Education Project, produced a series of unstructured observations in various kinds of classroom situations throughout the state. These episodes are being used and evaluated by teacher education institutions in Utah and several other states. While it may be premature to form valid conclusions, the following are a few of the impressions some users have presented:

1. Videotaped classroom episodes have distinct advantages over direct observation but also have some limitations. They constitute a valuable supplement to other kinds of laboratory experience.

2. Observations recorded on 16 mm sound film may have some advantages over videotaped episodes, particularly when immediate replay is not a valid requirement.

3. Short, single-concept episodes may prove to be more valuable than prolonged videotaped observations. The ultimate medium may be the 8 mm sound film loop made from videotape or 16 mm sound film. 9
Observation by film

Teacher educators increasingly seek convenient methods of providing the referent of the concept they are teaching. Videotaped or filmed episodes of teaching which model an intended behavior provide one way. Webb and Baird see the super 8 mm cartridge format as an accessible, easily manipulated product to assist the teacher educator. This instructional aid would allow the methods instructor's student to observe briefly the target behavior without tying up videotape equipment to show a five-to-ten-minute teaching episode. This solution involves the transfer to film of videotape and the packaging of the film in a cartridge. 10

The Painter project was designed to evaluate the possible and effective use of authentic and unrehearsed classroom films in lieu of direct classroom observation. During the initial period of the experiment the results leaned slightly in favor of the use of the films, and during the second period the differences were statistically significant in favor of the films. During the final period there was no significant difference between the achievement of the two groups. The films did, however, save a great deal of student time, allowed a larger group to observe the situation than could be accommodated in a classroom and provided a common observation for discussion. 11

Micro-teaching

The concept of micro-teaching qualifies as one of the three or four most provocative developments in teacher education, both pre-service and in-service, of the last six or seven years.
Micro-teaching is a scaled-down teaching encounter. Typically class size is limited to one to five students and class time to from five- to twenty-minute lessons. Actual teaching takes place even though the teacher and students are brought together specifically for practice. Micro-teaching may be accomplished with or without a video-tape recorder. Predetermined objectives are stated for the particular micro-teaching session.

Micro-teaching at Stanford University

The first micro-teaching clinic was held at Stanford University in the summer of 1963, and the interns concentrated on six specific skills in which they received formal training. Before the training phase each intern taught a short diagnostic lesson to a group of five secondary school pupils who, like the regular micro-classes, were hired by Stanford. These lessons were observed by a supervisor and video-taped. Formal training was followed by the micro-teaching sessions, and many of the lessons were presented on a teach-reteach basis. After the first trial of each lesson had been recorded on videotape and evaluated by the micro-class, the intern and his supervisor replayed the video recording. Even though the supervisor evaluated each session, self-evaluation by the intern was stressed. After a brief replanning period the intern taught the same lesson to a different micro-class. This lesson was also evaluated by the micro-class. Each intern taught a final lesson at the conclusion of the clinic.¹²

Results of this clinic were based on the evaluations of the micro-classes and the supervisors. It was found that the trainees in
the experimental micro-teaching group achieved a higher level of teaching competence than the control group. The experimental group had spent about ten hours a week in training, whereas the control group had spent between twenty and twenty-five hours a week in regular classroom instruction and teacher aide experience. The trainees' performance in the micro-teaching clinic also proved to be a good predictor of future performance in the internship.

It was found that student ratings of teaching performance were more reliable than those of supervisors. Furthermore, those trainees who had received student appraisal improved significantly more than those who had been evaluated only by supervisors.

During the micro-teaching clinic there was a significant improvement in the trainees' skill in self-evaluation, perhaps due to the opportunities they had to observe their performance on video recordings.

In 1965 in addition to the Teacher Demonstration Rating Scale used to rate interns, the Stanford Teacher Competence Appraisal Guide was used to rate the first and last diagnostic lessons. The results of the 1965 clinic substantiated the findings for the clinics held in 1963 and 1964.

For the 1966 clinic the clinic staff decided to construct instruments to evaluate student progress in each of the technical skills, since the Appraisal Guide had been developed to measure overall effectiveness of a lesson and it was difficult to relate items in the Guide to specific techniques of the micro-teaching clinic. More time was given the intern to replan his lesson before the
reteach; nevertheless, there was a significant change only when more than one teach-reteach cycle was used with a specific skill. The 1966 experience indicated that the most inefficient use of the videotape is to replay the entire lesson and just sit and watch it. The supervisor needs to point out the specific things (not more than one or two) on which he wants the intern to focus and he needs to replay small segments to emphasize or clarify certain points.\(^ {13}\)

**Micro-teaching at Brigham Young University**

At Brigham Young University, micro-teaching is viewed as the creation of a miniature teaching situation under controlled conditions in which all of the elements of the teaching act are present. The uniqueness of the micro-teaching experience stems mainly from two factors: (1) the facility with which teaching situations can be controlled and manipulated, and (2) the availability of immediate feedback for the prospective teacher, in the form of videotape recording and playback of the instructional sequence as well as in the form of critical comments of micro-class students and the evaluator.\(^ {14}\)

Webb and Baird report on research done in connection with 200 micro-teaching sessions conducted with students in teacher education since spring semester, 1966.

In the pre-service area findings were as follows:

1. Students react positively to the technique—ninety-five per cent of those who have received micro-teaching training judge the experience to be "valuable" or "very valuable."
2. Students do not see themselves as performing atypi­cally because of the "threatening" nature of the micro-teaching experience. This expression concurs with that of the micro-teaching instructors: anxiety reactions among micro-teachers at Brigham Young University are essentially negligible. Only in the initial experience, and rarely then, is evidence of performance-distorting reaction found.

3. Students who have received micro-teaching rate themselves as more nearly like the "ideal teacher" than do students who have not received micro-teaching.

4. Experience at Brigham Young University corroborates the conclusion suggested by the Stanford research: observing a trainee's teaching performance globally is much less valuable than observing, and helping him to observe, one or two specific, discriminable actions within the teaching act. Further, the micro-teacher must prepare his brief lesson to achieve a similarly specific skill or competency. 15

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**Micro-teaching at the University of Illinois**

The Teaching Techniques Laboratory at the University of Illinois was organized for the purpose of providing a practice component for each course in the teacher preparation sequence; however, it functions as a service unit for instructors engaged in teacher education. The laboratory offers different combinations of pupils, rooms, materials and hardware for each course in the teacher education program.

Johnson describes one example of the type of work done in the laboratory. Three methods instructors decided their students should have practice in three specific skills: lecture, giving instructions and discussion. After instruction in each of the three techniques, the forty-eight students were referred to the Teaching Techniques Laboratory, where each taught six lessons which were videotaped. The students were supervised by advanced graduate students with no
particular training in supervision. All lessons were evaluated, using seven-interval observation scales based on a general model of teaching. Pre- and post-treatment lessons were rated by a panel of trained observers from videotapes. Statistical analysis showed an overall improvement significant at the 0.2 level but not at the 0.1 level. In only one of the three skills was there an improvement significant at the 0.1 level.

Johnson did not regard the absence of significant improvement as final, but suggested that the results of the early studies be used as guidelines for making the technique more effective. Problems to be solved included the training of supervisors, the development of more effective criteria for evaluation of teaching and further delineation of the specific techniques used in micro-teaching.

Micro-teaching at the University of Maryland and John Hopkins University

At the University of Maryland micro-teaching appears at three points in the program: junior year experiences, pre-student teaching in methods courses and concurrent with student teaching. Before doing full-scale teaching, student teachers in several pilot projects are micro-teaching as a part of the methods courses. After discussing the relationship of a given dimension of teacher behavior to learning, student teachers identify specific teaching behaviors within that dimension and practice them in a micro-teaching sequence. Micro-teaching is conducted at a teacher education center, so there is the advantage of availability of pupils from study halls or related content classes. Sessions may also be held after school with volunteer pupils. The
major focus at the center is analysis and modification of teaching behavior. Teachers are prepared in the use of Flanders' interaction analysis, Galloway's nonverbal continuum and other systems for analyzing teaching, including micro-teaching, videotape feedback and simulation to modify behavior. There is "learning by doing" as center instructors use the systems with prospective teachers.

Young and his associates have also used micro-teaching and self-analysis techniques at Johns Hopkins University to individualize pre-service training and internships for prospective teachers. A five-minute performance of a diagnostic lesson for four pupils is coded and analyzed, using Hough's Observation System and/or Medley and Mitzel's Observation Scale and Record. Based on the analysis and inventory, a series of four micro-teaching training modules are prescribed for acquisition of the selected behaviors. The number of reteaches depends on the success attained, and the procedure is repeated for further lessons. The models of the behavior serve as a basis for developing the performance criteria. Following these individualized sequences and just prior to student teaching each prospective teacher teaches a twenty-minute lesson to ten students to be analyzed by his peers and retaught to a different group of pupils.

Micro-teaching has been incorporated effectively in a variety of short-term workshops and clinics as well as in extensive projects such as the University of Maryland and Johns Hopkins University programs. For the experienced, micro-teaching affords the opportunity to acquire and practice new teaching skills and refine existing ones.
For the pre-student teacher it can furnish gradual immersion into the complexities of teaching.  

**Interaction Analysis**

Interaction analysis is an observation system used for describing and analyzing teacher-pupil verbal interaction. Techniques such as this are used to help students and teachers be more self-analytical and more precise in stating their instructional objectives.

In early research Flanders found that pupils of teachers who were observed to be indirect had more positive attitudes than pupils of teachers who were perceived by observers to be direct. Amidon and Flanders found that dependent-prone eighth grade students who were taught geometry by indirect teaching methods learned more than dependent-prone children taught by direct methods. Since all of this research appeared to have implications for teacher education, Flanders instituted an in-service program in which interaction analysis was taught as an observation tool. At the end of the experimental program teachers exhibited more encouraging and accepting behavior and were less critical and more indirect than they had been at the beginning of the experiment.

Moskowitz experimented with foreign language pre-service and in-service teachers. At the end of the training in interaction analysis, questionnaires and observations indicated that the pre-service teachers:

(1) had more positive attitudes toward teaching; (2) used more indirect teaching patterns in grammar and conversation lessons; (3) had more negative attitudes toward their cooperating teachers; and (4) were perceived more favorably by the pupils in their classes.
In-service teachers were taught three systems: interaction analysis, FLint (Foreign Language Interaction) and IDEI, a nonverbal system. The FLint system is an expanded form of the Flanders system with specific behaviors relative to foreign language classes. The main goal of the experiment was to train teachers in observational systems so that their sensitivity with respect to their own teaching situations might increase. The teachers compared the videotape of the micro-teaching they had done partway through the course with an audio recording of one of their classes which had been taped prior to the end of the regular school year. Using interaction analysis to analyze the micro-teaching turned the analysis into an objective analysis rather than a subjective, opinionated one. In this sense, Moskowitz found results which corroborated those at Stanford in which micro-teaching was found to be a means of objective analysis of teaching performance. The difference was that Moskowitz was using two techniques—micro-teaching and interaction analysis. Responses to questionnaires sent out one month after the teachers were back on the job indicated that the teachers felt studying observational systems had influenced them to make numerous desirable changes in their teaching, causing them to feel more confident and competent in their classroom interaction.

In this same vein Politzer suggested that the efficiency of the language teacher's teaching should be analyzed in terms of observable, behavioral categories.

This combination of micro-teaching and interaction analysis in the same experiment not only may lead to a more clearly defined
statement of the "ideal" behavior patterns of foreign language teachers as they teach but it also may be the source for guiding foreign language teacher trainees and in-service personnel to "see" their growth in a desirable direction. The latter is most important and is analogous to teaching foreign language students to "hear" phonemic differences before trying to teach them to produce the sounds.

This writer has visited many schools whose foreign language staff claimed to be offering a modern audio-lingual program. Upon visiting teachers at the various levels of instruction it was discovered that an extremely high percentage of the classroom work involved teacher talk and that virtually all functional communication between teacher and students was being carried on in English. Students rarely had the opportunity to use the language in order to acquire the necessary skills. Due to this lack of consistency between goal and method, foreign language teachers and prospective teachers must have some way to study their own behavior and that of their students in a systematic and objective manner. After this analysis, skill sessions are needed to help them make use of the analysis skill to move in the direction desired for improvement.

Jarvis attempted the categorizing of language and used the terms "real" and "drill" to describe the kinds of language employed in the classroom. He reported a relatively high degree of success with his instrument for two graduate students and himself in recording observations of three one-half hour segments of videotaped high school classes. Jarvis felt that the use of such instruments may be a factor that will cause behavior change.
Hough and Ober conducted a study involving the shaping of verbal behavior of 420 pre-service secondary teachers who were enrolled in a general methods course at The Ohio State University. The subjects in the group which had received formal training in interaction analysis were found to use significantly more verbal behaviors which have been found to be associated with higher student achievement and more positive attitudes toward their teacher and school than their untrained colleagues. 23

During the two weeks of observation and participation in public schools each student in the trained group was encouraged to take interaction analysis on his cooperating teacher and to analyze his cooperating teacher's verbal instructional behavior. Students were encouraged to try a variety of patterns when teaching lessons or portions of lessons. The students were assigned to schools in pairs so that while one was doing exploratory teaching the other could take interaction analysis on his partner and give the feedback to him at the end of the exploratory teaching episode. Students in both groups practiced various verbal teaching behaviors in a series of peer teaching episodes, and at the end of the course the methods class instructor took interaction on them as they taught their peers in a twenty- to thirty-minute micro-class lesson. Hough, Lohman and Ober believe that a reasonable approach to curriculum revision in teacher education would seem to be one that incorporates the best of what we know about the shaping of what are presently believed to be effective teaching behaviors while still being open to continued revision based on any new findings regarding the relationship between the use of selected
teaching behaviors and pupil achievement. The evolution of the general methods course which they describe is an example of such an approach.

Findings in various studies suggest that interaction analysis is an effective tool for shaping the classroom verbal behavior of teachers. The implication here is that observation systems, such as interaction analysis, show promise as a means for bridging the gap between theory and practice which exists with regard to effective teaching. The teacher or prospective teacher can be helped by interaction analysis only to the degree to which he is willing to help himself. He must indicate precisely what he intends to do in a particular lesson, teach the lesson while data are collected and, then, compare his actual classroom behavior with his planned behavior. This meaningful feedback will help him revise effectively for future improvement.

Simulation

After reviewing various articles which contained "simulation" in the title, Perdew concluded that such a wide variety of activities were included that it was almost impossible to discover a definition which would cover them all. His study group decided to confine discussion to activities which are similar to teaching and observing but which are not, in fact, carried on in the regular classroom. That was still somewhat ambiguous so the group chose to emphasize those which involved the "new" media such as videotapes or audiotapes of teaching situations, intermittent photography and micro-teaching with video
playback. The group also included more traditional approaches, such as the college student's teaching his fellow students as if they were high school pupils.25

While many forms of simulation are among the most recent innovations in instructional technique others as simple and familiar as card or board games are being used. Simulation may refer to an indirect experience such as the use in a class of prospective teachers of a film of a real classroom situation, neither staged nor edited, or it may refer to a highly sophisticated devised experience.

Simulation permits teacher educators to provide life-like learning situations in which theory and practice are joined. Student behavior may be re-created, observed and analyzed in terms of a variety of constructs presented in class previously. There is an opportunity to study teaching behavior, curriculum, social relationships, values and individual differences. Devised experiences can be placed in a realistic setting and systematized in such a way that one may participate as a hypothetical teacher in a long-range, in-depth controlled experience which is both intellectually and psychologically engaging. Cruickshank uses the term to refer to "the creation of realistic experiences to be played out by participants in order to provide them with life-like problem-solving experiences related to their present or future work."26

The successful employment of simulation as an instructional technique in industrial and military areas is well known. War games are the earliest known efforts to train practitioners by using operating models of field tasks. Perhaps the best-known individualized
simulator is the Link flight trainer developed during World War II. For many years simulation techniques have been used in business and industry for training prospective businessmen in many aspects of commerce and administration, such as top management.

In education it seems that success in simulation was first achieved in driver education. One of the subjects in which simulation has proliferated most rapidly is politics.

Simulation techniques have been employed in teacher education relatively recently. This may be due to the fact that pre-student teaching laboratory experiences of an excellent quality have become increasingly difficult to provide in recent years. In some cases parents have expressed opposition to the extensive use of partially prepared and inexperienced college students in the classroom on anything more than an observing basis. Simulation techniques are of interest to teacher educators not only as a research tool but also as a way to enrich, supplement and replace inadequate aspects of laboratory experience. They afford the opportunity for the university to improve what it can do best—abstracting, generalizing and foundation-building. Simulation perhaps reaches its maximum potential in pre-student teaching learning experiences and may become a new kind of demonstration laboratory prior to student teaching.

In the late 1950's, the University Council for Educational Administration simulated the administrative position in the public elementary school. Simulation materials included film, filmstrips, tape recordings and printed materials.
Attempts were made to shape student teaching by using film clips and a feedback procedure in a simulation laboratory at Oregon College of Education built by Kersh. Kersh hypothesized that a realistic display (life-size picture and motion) would enhance learning. He discovered that simulator experience did enhance learning but that there was a significant difference in favor of small stills, the least realistic mode, over large stills and motion pictures. Kersh found that students who underwent simulation training were ready to assume full responsibility during student teaching up to three weeks earlier than a control group not having such training.27

Vlcek studied the effects of Kersh's classroom simulation facility with respect to the transfer value of simulation instruction in a real classroom setting. Vlcek's observational data show that students who have had training learn instructional principles that subsequently are used in student teaching. Vlcek also found that simulation increases participants' confidence in their ability to teach.28

Wedberg and Finn compared the effectiveness of simulated and of actual observations of public school classrooms for an introductory professional education course. Three techniques were used. The combination of ten-hour on-campus programmed observations plus ten-hour off-campus observations proved superior to the other techniques in the degree to which all stated observation unit objectives were met.29

In the Fulton and Rupiper study the use of specially prepared audiovisual materials was compared with direct observation. The direct observation groups made nine 30-minute observations of classroom and
school–community situations. The vicarious observation groups viewed nine 30-minute film and slide sequences. The conclusion reached was that one method was as effective as the other in reaching the stated objectives of the course.30

Cruickshank and others simulated a teaching environment in an effort to wed theory and practice for preparing elementary student teachers through developing the Teaching Problems Laboratory. The Laboratory creates the "Longacre Elementary School" wherein participants assume the role of "Pat Taylor," a beginning fifth grade teacher, and practice solving thirty critical teaching problems which are presented on film, through role play and in written incidents. The participant responds by identifying the problem and the forces and factors affecting the problem environment, locating pertinent information, projecting alternative courses of action and communicating and implementing a decision. The problem is further explored and analyzed by the entire group.31

Some of our newer programs use simulation in various phases of the total program. In the undergraduate teacher preparation model at Michigan State University in the "Scholarly Modes of Knowledge" component emphasis is placed on verbal and nonverbal communication patterns. Simulated experience with cross-culture contacts is provided to help the student to better understand himself and his feelings toward others. As he increases his understanding of self and others, he is expected to analyze his encoding and decoding of messages and his choice of channels. Simulated and live contact with elementary-school-age children is included. Simulated and actual experiences are used for teaching
decision-making to prospective teachers. Clinical procedures are analyzed and practiced through both simulated and actual situations. Some experienced teachers from clinic-schools return to college to work with undergraduates. Some of these teachers would contribute through program development, refining teacher behavior analysis, micro-teaching or research whereas others would focus on simulation.32

The increase in the scope and sequence of professional laboratory experiences might well mean that the time spent in these experiences may be immensely out of proportion to the actual learning that takes place. It now seems possible for us to move ahead and develop simulation devices which will not only reduce the amount of time spent in professional laboratory experiences but will also provide greater assurance that the desired learnings have occurred. The next problem, of course, is to determine how and where these devices should be used in the professional laboratory experience program.

Performance Curriculum

"Performance curriculum" appears to be a promising approach to teacher education. It is an attempt to describe the essential features of certain teaching skills as performed by an effective teacher. A basic premise of performance curriculum is that much of teaching consists of acts or behaviors. Many attempts in the past have been pointed toward identifying a "good" teacher and assuming that once we knew these characteristics, we could try to get people who professed them to enter the profession. We must then consider whether or not we can change the personalities of most of our teacher trainees. A more
fruitful approach has been suggested. It is that we train pre-service teachers to include certain behaviors in their training.

By adopting or adapting a competency or performance-based model, a teacher education program is in the unique position of being able to provide evidence that a teacher is able to perform the tasks that he is expected to perform prior to assuming responsibility for the teaching of children.

The basic assumption underlying hope for an ideal long-range outcome is simply that when prospective teachers themselves engage in an educational experience in a way which gives it personal meaning and when they themselves become independent, self-directed learners, they above all others will be likely to create a similar kind of learning experience for those they teach.

The University of Massachusetts' Model Elementary Teacher Education Program operates on the assumption that specific performance criteria, based on an analysis of knowledge, skills and attitudes in the human relations, behavioral and content areas should be identified to provide a flexible basis for change. The meeting of specified criteria requirements will mean completion of the program regardless of the length of time enrolled. Performance criteria are essentially behavioral objectives. They state the behavior expected of the teacher, under what conditions the behavior will be performed and how the behavior will be evaluated. At least two instructional alternatives are provided for each performance criterion, since they believe there are alternative routes to the same skills. As differentiated staffing
becomes a possibility, carefully thought out performance criteria for teachers become a necessity.  

Apparently systems analysis has proven to be the most comprehensive method of organizing performance criteria presently available. 

Within the given subject areas there are certain behaviors which teachers perform frequently. In requesting that teacher education become behavioral Cooper indicated that too often teacher educators have left prospective teachers on their own to try to translate the knowledge of psychology, sociology, anthropology and other sciences into teaching behaviors in the classroom. A teacher must be taught to diagnose a situation and then select the skills which he has which best meet the needs of the situation.  

In order to teach prospective teachers certain frequently occurring behavioral skills a general performance curriculum has been developed at Stanford University. Among the skills included are the following: making assignments, testing procedures, introducing a unit, small group work, using audiovisual aids and problem solving. 

One of Cooper's associates, Robert L. Politzer, has developed foreign language performance criteria with accompanying textual materials for each criterion under each skill. Their validity and reliability are subject to further research, but they do represent the consensus of a group of experienced teachers and describe the performance to be evaluated in great detail. The criteria also serve as a training instrument and part of the syllabus for the training of language teachers. Some of the skills for which performance criteria have been written in foreign language appear in the table of contents
of Politzer's work as follows:

I. Management of Audio-Lingual Activities
II. Presentation of Basic Material
III. Teaching of Structure
IV. Teaching of Pronunciation
V. Teaching of Sound-Letter Correspondence
VI. Teaching of Reading
VII. Teaching of Culture
VIII. Using Visual Aids
IX. Use of Electronic Equipment (Language Laboratory)
X. Making Homework Assignments
XI. Testing

Cooper believes that by using the performance criterion the teacher educator will limit himself to one or two skills which he intends to discuss with the prospective teachers and in which he hopes to obtain behavior change. This is the same thing that feedback research indicated at Stanford.

**Individualization**

Instruction within these systems which are designed to bring about professional competencies and their personalization must be individualized with respect to point of entry into the curriculum, pacing, sequencing, and information-processing preferences; and a computer-based information management system should be used to handle the frequent and diverse demand upon information created by the above factors.

The Multi-State Teacher Education Project (M-STEP) helped the Bellevue Public Schools and Washington State University create a teacher education practicum based on performance criteria. The student was the judge of whether or not he was able to complete a task successfully after receiving feedback from the instructional system, his peers,
the faculty and recording devices. The result has been a highly individualized program in which the student is responsible for his own learning and sees the relationship between the task and his own professional development. Sensitivity training was added to effect group identification and commitment on the part of student participants.

The Northwest Regional Laboratory, in its model program, emphasizes differences in the way people learn and proposes a program that permits students to move through at different paces and with different combinations of learning experiences. Individualization of experience is also provided for in programs at institutions such as Southern Illinois University, Pace College, Portland State College, Bucknell University and George Peabody College.

In the individualized secondary teacher education program at Brigham Young University pre-service teachers are recommended for certification on the basis of their ability to perform the behaviors that good teachers perform rather than on their ability to endure a sequence of professional education courses. The faculty members feel that the innovations of team teaching, continuous progress education, nongraded schools and the expanding use of technology in our schools have helped change the role of the teacher to an identifier of learning problems and a director of learning activities rather than a presenter of information. In 1965 an experiment was conducted at Brigham Young University in a beginning methods class to determine if there was a significant difference in learning between students who completed the course in a self-paced mode and those who completed the same course in the traditional lecture-discussion mode. The results of this research
seemed to justify moving even further into an examination of their con-
ventional teacher education program. The behavioral objectives with
their accompanying skills and concepts have been determined as the
basis of the changing role of the teacher and the teacher's responsi-
bility of representing himself and the educational institution within
the profession and within the community.\textsuperscript{38}

In view of our current needs, it would seem that the goal of
individualized instruction must be to develop persons who seek oppor-
tunities to learn and who possess the ability to set their own goals,
plan an instructional program and evaluate and monitor their activ-
ities as learning progresses. It is possible to develop individualized
systems with various degrees of control. For example, we could have
maximum outside-the-student control in cases in which all planning and
control are exercised by the teacher. Another example of an extreme
position would be a computer-assisted instruction system in which all
decisions were built into the system itself. The desired type of in-
dividualized instruction would require a program in which students
could take part in meaningful learning activities adapted to their own
needs and to a considerable degree directed and managed by each indi-
vidual student. This is a basic and ultimate goal of the program for
Individually Prescribed Instruction (IPI) which is being field tested
and disseminated by Research for Better Schools, the Philadelphia-based
Regional Educational Laboratory. A basic assumption of IPI is that
the type of individualized instruction wanted is possible only when
careful structure and guidance are provided via a carefully defined
system. So far little individualization has resulted from telling
teachers to pay attention to individual differences. The typical teacher needs the assistance of a system. In short, IPI is based on a structured curriculum involving a detailed specification of instructional objectives which are organized in terms of levels and topics. Other elements include a placement testing program, unit post-tests, a system for developing individualized plans of instruction, testing and continuous evaluation. To really adapt instruction to individual needs certain aspects of evaluation, diagnosis, prescription and instruction must be carried out by a trained teacher. These new roles of teacher as diagnostician, counselor and prescriber of individualized learning experiences suggest that the preparation of teachers to carry out these roles should provide a new focus for professional programs of teacher education. In fact, the theory, techniques and skills associated with performing these roles may constitute a major component of the content of professional education. 39

Most people now writing about Computer-Assisted Instruction (CAI) seem to be referring to the use of the computer as a branching Skinnerian teaching device. The typical CAI situation presents a computer-generated question followed by a typed student response. This procedure is repeated various times to make a dialogue. Ideally, a teaching conversation with a computer can be extremely individualized, drawing heavily on the previous training, abilities and performance of each student. The dialogue may also include the use of visual and audio materials in a variety of ways. Greater complexity and individualization is obtainable with the computer than with programmed books or non-computer-based teaching machines. We are still at an
early stage in understanding how to construct dialogues. We should not ignore the other ways in which computers can be used in the teaching process, many of which can contribute to individualization of instruction. The computer produces standard kinds of teaching material for already available media. Recently there has been an upsurge of computer-generated films and increasingly the computer is employed in book production. In simulations, the computer models something. In the area of computer-directed teaching a collection of data can be structured and used for educational purposes. The goal is to provide guidance to either student or teacher in assisting the learning process. Computer-assisted scheduling is already available. The computer can be used to match students with curriculum materials and can assist the teacher by offering him background information such as that found in guides or handbooks for teachers. Of course, in some areas the computer as a computational device is also useful.

A development by a doctoral candidate at the University of Utah may help teachers individualize instruction. By managing student achievement (performance) and readiness information the computer program relieves teachers of time-consuming tasks such as test scoring, recording and arranging test results, analyzing testing instruments, revising or updating records and storing and retrieving these records. Daily decision-making has been facilitated. For experimentation purposes the system has been converted into a communications system using remote video data terminals at the school for instantaneous updating and retrieval of information. With this new development the power of the computer is at the teacher's finger tips.
Programmed instruction

Programmed instruction at this stage of development would suggest two major implications for teacher education and professional laboratory experiences. First, prospective teachers need experience in the use of programs because of the improvement and growing acceptance of programmed instruction in public schools together with the fact that there is practically nothing in the literature on the use of programs. Second, the prospective teacher should receive experience in writing at least a unit or a portion of a program. This would give him a vastly improved concept of the preparation of instructional materials. Some of the learnings might be that one must be extremely knowledgeable in any field he wishes to teach well and that the way we think students will respond to materials is frequently wrong. It is necessary to try out materials and every aspect of our procedure on children and then revise the program various times before its final form. The prospective teacher would barely get his feet wet in programming, since the modern teacher has neither the time nor the ability to write the sophisticated programs needed today.42

Team teaching

The opportunities to meet the individual differences of children becomes more possible as one considers team teaching as a tool rather than a method of teaching. Only insofar as the professional staff begins to function as a team with differentiated roles can individualization even be approached say nothing about achieved. Team teaching permits teachers to specialize and improve their professional
competencies within their area of specialization. In this way the curriculum can expand to further meet the individual needs of the students. In this connection the prospective teacher should be able to gain professional laboratory experiences which will equip him for a team teaching experience.

The Weber County School District, Ogden, Utah, has developed three videotapes in which a number of the elements of team teaching are depicted. Weber State College and the school district have cooperated in providing adequate professional laboratory experience for students certifying in teacher education. 43

Responses to a questionnaire survey by Griffith regarding the extent to which team teaching was being used in the professional laboratory experiences of prospective teachers revealed that a considerable number of institutions are utilizing various combinations of team teaching personnel in their professional education courses. The greatest number used professor-professor team teaching combinations, while others used supervising teacher-student teacher and laboratory school supervising teacher-student teacher combinations. College supervisors teamed with other college supervisors and student teachers with other student teachers. Professors teamed up with resource persons and with graduate assistants as well as with college supervisors and laboratory supervising teachers. 44

Differentiated staffing

Basic to the concept of the differentiated staff is the principle that positioning on a staff is dictated by performance and
demonstrated competence. Progress through demonstration and performance would suggest that much should be taught through self-pacing programmed instruction.

Ryan calls for instruction in specific teaching skills. A prospective teacher should gradually acquire basic skills through structured classroom observation and pre-student teaching activities such as tutoring and micro-teaching prior to immersion in the complex milieu of the classroom. His performance of certain skills would be one of the criteria for his advancement in pre-service education and later for his position on a differentiated staff. Differentiated staffing would maximize educational opportunities for children and provide viable career patterns for teachers.  

The Teacher Education Center Concept

The University of Maryland has developed and implemented the teacher education center concept as a unified approach to the study of teaching and supervision. This program articulates and integrates theory and practice and joins the pre-service and in-service components in such a way as to produce a unified and continuous teacher education program. The responsibility for planning, directing and assessing the development of an undergraduate student falls on a number and variety of people and ultimately on the whole center staff.

The center exposes the student teacher to a variety of teaching models in order to help him develop his own personal teaching style. Multigrade and multilevel observation and participation are common, and individuality is expected. Students are encouraged to observe
and participate not only with the same age group they plan to teach but also with other age groups. Pre-student teaching laboratory experiences such as reading to children, aiding individual children in small tasks and working with small groups in informal activities are offered by the center. One of the objectives of the program is to bring college resource people to the school to meet with teachers and help plan the program for students. Student teachers also help the other students to identify what it is like to be a student teacher and how to prepare for their student teaching experience. \(^{46}\)

In the center increased emphasis was placed on the role of the public school for the pre-service program in such a way that it was possible for public school personnel to participate in planning and conducting certain aspects of the program in a more meaningful way than had been possible previously. \(^{47}\)

Relevant Current Ideas in Foreign Language

Teachers in training should experience the best possible instruction themselves while they are being trained to be effective in handling all kinds of new problems. Innovative use of electronic devices in the teacher preparation program would guarantee the prospective teacher's exposure to them. The three areas most concerned with the education of teachers, the public schools and the academic and teacher education divisions of higher education, must plan together in order to offer new and creative approaches to training. Centers of study such as the Modern Language Center of the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (OISE) are necessary if we are to
keep up with the rapid changes taking place in education. This center of the OISE will pay attention to vital areas such as language teaching technology and language testing and assessment. We should constantly be aware of the fact that the prospective teacher must not only know how to operate the hardware being considered for use in the near future but also must understand how to derive optimum value from these new technological advances. His role may well shift toward dealing with individualized learning styles and working with different types of groupings, in which case work in developing leadership potential and in understanding group dynamics must be stepped up. Many believe that we need new programs to prepare teachers for such assignments as working with the disadvantaged. We might consider experiences such as those had in the Teacher Corps which involve the trainee in much more field experience, specially designed courses, sensitivity training, and social activities designed to orient him to the problems he will face.48

The exploration of the superelectronic applications to foreign language is inevitable. In fact, a perusal of research being conducted in languages indicates the degree to which studies involving computers and foreign languages are already being pursued. Let us look at the present status of machine-aided language learning.

Data show agreement in the predominance of the use of the filmstrip projector and the 16 mm motion picture projector as educational media in the foreign languages. Far more than half of the foreign language teachers use the tape recorder. Filmstrips, phonograph records and 16 mm motion picture films top the NEA list, perhaps due to their universal availability. Over half of the elementary and secondary
teachers polled by the NEA used the overhead projector while it was absent from the university-level foreign language programs of the colleges chosen. The NEA study showed that the equipment the classroom teacher most desired but did not have was some form of television. The application of instructional television in the foreign language teaching field is epitomized by the Parlons Français series for teaching French in elementary schools. Some schools utilize both the color film version and the television broadcasts. Instructional television offers opportunities for teacher training, increased communication throughout the school district, exposure of all students to the expertise of the television teacher and the opportunity of classroom viewing of any filmed or televised event of the past or present. There are a few well-known foreign language courses using integrated films that might be suitable for television transmission. Perhaps less well-known and less well publicized are the numerous supplementary films that can be used in a foreign language program. A multiple sound track for the same film could provide flexibility. If the school has a language laboratory with multiple program channels, the student could listen to any of a number of graded sound tracks while viewing a 16 mm motion picture. The videotape recorder (VTR) as a tool in teacher education and its ability to immediately replay and feed back information have already been discussed. The VTR is also suited for regular classroom instruction. It can transmit more information in a given amount of time than conventional teaching techniques. The VTR has been used in the production of cultural mini-skits at Wayne State University. 49
It is possible to make film an important part of language teaching and this can often be done without resorting to local production. Imaginative use of single-concept films from other disciplines can result in supplementary material for a foreign language class. Sound could accompany the film by means of a tape recorder. You could also load film cartridges with locally produced footage for purposes such as providing inexpensive individual drill of language usage in different social situations. Such individual practice could be handled in most language laboratories or in a learning center with study carrels.

Films for teacher training can be effective, and you can obtain high picture quality for a moderate price. Most of the scenes for the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages for 1969 were filmed unstaged out in the classrooms the previous year. While you do get a professionally produced medium, you do not get immediate feedback from instant replay. Among 16 mm films in teacher training is the five-reel series produced in cooperation with the Modern Language Association and the 13-reel Henry Lee Smith series produced by National Educational Television.

The language laboratory is perhaps the most familiar of the machine-aided language learning devices and ranges in terms of equipment from a listen-only tape recorder to remote control, dial-access and video complemented student positions. The goals of the foreign language program should determine the degree of sophistication needed. Dodge suggests that the dial-access systems are having their problems, since we do not hear clear reports of success from highly sophisticated learning center systems such as the one found in Oak Park and River
Forest High School in Illinois. New models of the cassette tape recorder promise to be even better tools for individualized study. There has been a resurgence in the use of the term "electronic classroom." Actually what is needed is equipment that is more responsive to the student's performance.  

Adams, Morrison and Reddy report conversation with a computer as a technique of language instruction in an experiment conducted at State University of New York at Stony Brook, in which one section used the CAI lab as their sole means of instruction in reading and writing while receiving audio-lingual instruction in normal class sessions. End-of-year proficiency of CAI students was superior on writing, somewhat above normal in reading, and about normal on speaking and listening as compared to audio-lingually trained students. It would seem that a CAI laboratory as described by the researchers has the potential of taking on a significant burden of the more mechanical portions of early foreign language instruction.

Rosenbaum believes that the central focus of foreign language teaching must be on the construction of a learning environment in which students will purposefully undertake activities which will lead to mastery of the subject matter. He contends that the large gains observed at Stony Brook are attributable to the adequacy of the following components in the CAI system: "(1) acceptable content, (2) a readily comprehensible mediational system allowing a student to perform relevant tasks, and (3) a supervisory system structuring and assigning learning tasks on an individual basis."
Three of the eighty entries in the 1968 list of PLATO (Programmed Logic for Automatic Teaching Operations) programs at the University of Illinois were in foreign language: one Latin and two French. At Annapolis one Russian language course used the CAI facility in 1968.54

Turner believes that CARLOS (Computer-Assisted Review Lessons On Syntax) at Dartmouth College is unique among CAI projects primarily because the program had its origin in the day-to-day necessities of teaching and learning Spanish grammar rather than in pedagogical theory. Turner experienced all problems connected with the program and remained sensitive to students' reactions by serving as programmer, lesson planner and classroom instructor. Attitudes of the students toward CAI fell on the positive side of the scale. The availability of time-sharing and the relative simplicity of the programming language made CARLOS practical, economical, and, apparently, successful.55

The hope now is that we can move toward the optimum integration of media, including the various forms of television and the technology of computers in the study of foreign languages, literatures and cultures.

"Simulated tutoring" and "simulated conversation" programming techniques have been used to provide for communication experience. In a cost-effectiveness analysis Jernudd found self-instructional teaching profitable. McKim would evaluate programmed instruction on the basis of behaviorally stated objectives, graduated sequences, self-pacing and immediate reinforcement. Mueller and others have suggested that
programmed instruction especially helps the linguistically underprivileged. Ornstein notes that some of the language programmers who are now at work are adopting experience-based new views and approaches.

Sweet finds that since programmed instruction cannot provide optimally for all learning experiences integration of programmed materials with other media offers a possible solution. The problem is the proper proportion of programmed materials to the other components. With improved self-instructional materials the student could regard his teacher as a guide and counselor rather than a drill master.

The novelty of a complete programmed learning course can wear off, so ideas such as pairing of students to improve motivation have been tried. Valdman and others have discussed the necessity of display sessions in a communications situation such as is needed for learning a foreign language. Programmed instruction is becoming a part of the learning system at the secondary school level. The trend seems to be toward programming units as parts of the instructional component of a foreign language course that brings together various media and strategies of instruction to create the best learning environment possible for the student. It is important that we attempt to integrate into the foreign language teaching techniques those educational innovations which have application to foreign language teaching. Our prospective teachers in the methods course or elsewhere must gain some understanding of flexible grouping and some notions about modular scheduling or whatever form of schedule would be most appropriate for the purpose of teaching foreign language in a particular school. Independent Learning Systems (ILS) has developed a system of
individualized instruction for college students who are beginning the study of Spanish. The Phase I content will consist of fifteen weeks of combined self-instructional and instructor-interaction aspects of Spanish-language validation.

A review of the literature since 1960 reveals that recent attempts to individualize instruction through various innovative practices have seldom been employed by foreign language teachers. The new foreign language program at McCluer High School in North St. Louis County is experimenting with team teaching, differentiated learning experiences, flexible scheduling and nongraded curricula in an effort to meet the goals they believe are not now being met. They have positive feelings about the quality of learning being achieved with their nongraded performance curriculum which stresses individualized learning through small group activities and team teaching. They are now in the process of designing and conducting a comprehensive evaluation.

At least several dozen schools have tried flexible scheduling with varying degrees of success. An evaluation of the more successful programs indicates a reduction of psychological pressures upon the student. The flexible scheduled program at the Nova School in Florida, which offers six years of five different languages, is quite well known. Ford Junior High School in Cleveland uses a team teaching approach incorporated with modular scheduling.

At the time of the Allen and Politzer study the teachers of foreign languages and their students generally favored flexible scheduling despite persistent problems. Hoye later visited two of the schools involved in the study. In one school in which unstructured
time had been abolished Hoye found an exciting resource center for foreign language and in the other school both teachers and students seemed to be enjoying the modified flexibility of a more controlled schedule. At Marshall-University High School in Minneapolis they decided to modify their schedule and build a new resource center. Native speakers are used as teachers and aides to bring culturally authentic language patterns into the classroom. Advanced electives which deal with cultural aspects of a country in its native language are now offered. A German and humanities course for seventh graders considered to be "academic and disciplinary" problems uses team teaching techniques and includes the services of two other teachers, one in art and the other in music. The students are enthusiastic perhaps due to seeing relationships and unity in the curriculum. The team approach within a flexible time block could permit teachers to work together.\textsuperscript{59}

A two-year experiment at Oxon Senior High School in Maryland showed that a modified multilevel grouping with built-in flexibility for intergroup movement is more successful than the conventional lock-step arrangement in motivating and retaining students. Foreign language enrollment increased and the success of the below-level courses enabled students to remain in the sequence.\textsuperscript{60}

Multilevel tracks and various types of teaching strategies must be explored further and minimum criteria for entry into each level must be established. Teachers must be trained for nongrading, and teaching materials must be prepared for nongraded plans. The various possibilities regarding use of differentiated staffing and appropriate
activities for large groups, small groups, laboratory and independent study must be studied. Ciotti has recently presented a conceptual framework for small group instruction in French. It seems that a systems approach such as Banathy's would be needed to make scheduling designs and instructional procedures beneficial to a foreign language program which must develop more individualization of instruction.

There has been considerable literature concerning methodology of foreign language teaching during the past few years. The first status study commissioned by MLA/ERIC discusses culture from several points of view and suggests that "patterns of living" is perhaps the most pertinent one for language teaching. Carroll, Birkmaier and Lange and others have discussed the usefulness of large comparative methodological studies and small, discrete, carefully designed evaluative studies. It would seem that the evaluation of audio-lingual or traditional approaches to foreign language learning offers little of significance for the regular classroom teacher. Until a general theory of second language learning has been formulated, the smaller type studies dealing with specific techniques, procedures and strategies may help the classroom teacher obtain the information he needs to fulfill his objectives. The profession must now apply its own ideas and resources to determine priorities and goals for researchers in foreign language teaching and learning. Our prospective teachers should be at least consumers of research if not producers.

We have examined selected current ideas in some detail and have mentioned others more briefly. We shall now move to a general overview of the newer patterns and programs which are emerging.
Newer Patterns and Programs

Teacher educators now point in various directions such as to the necessity for paying more attention to the personal, selfhood needs of the prospective teacher, for confronting him with his own values and the consequences of value decisions and for focusing on problem-solving skills rather than value choices. Some teacher educators call for more flexibility in participation experiences so that individual student needs can be met, which, in turn, implies optimum college-school collaboration. Others call for more contact with the world of feeling, of perceptual experiences, of self-discovery. Some ask for early student involvement in laboratory experiences to generate commitment and initiative. Since teacher educators can conceptualize change in infinite forms, the task would be endless and we can, admittedly, mention relatively few of the possible patterns.

In teacher education we can identify major trends which may stem from sources such as industrial training programs, government agencies, the Job Corps and the professions of law and medicine. The ideas generally fall into the categories of the use of unusual alliances of resources and the identification of a broad area of ability in personnel pools.

The Immaculate Heart College in California has engaged in an experiment conducted in conjunction with the Western Behavioral Sciences Institute designed to bring about a climate of self-directed learning in schools and personal growth for teachers. The authors of the program believe that the teachers' and prospective teachers' abilities to be receptive and flexible can be effected by intensive
group experience, also referred to as T-grouping or sensitivity training. 61

An integral part of the Temple City, California, model of differentiated staffing is the concomitant installation of flexible scheduling. This plan obviously has implications for college programs that are preparing teachers. In the differentiated staffing program involving Atlanta, Georgia, public schools and area colleges potential teachers can be identified as early as the high school years and can start getting classroom experience as teacher aides at that time. From then on they spend at least one quarter each year in teaching activities and the other quarters in regular college work. This program permits experiences in different schools, different cultural communities and at different levels. It affords the school system the opportunity to recruit and channel more people into areas that need staffing. Such a program is based on the premise that roles in schools can be learned earlier than has been tried before and that long-term field experiences can make the teacher induction process more fruitful. Also involved is the idea of using the environment of learning in public schools to promote teacher education.

In the Tutorial-Clinical Program at Northwestern University formal courses in theory and methods are replaced by a four-year sequence of tutorials and parallel clinical experiences—observing, tutoring, planning, teaching and evaluating—under the direction and supervision of tutorial and clinical professors and cooperating teachers.
The tutorial professors as full-time members of the School of Education faculty, work with ten to twelve students individually and in groups. Clinical professors hold joint appointments in the University and the cooperating schools and are practicing master teachers. Students begin with questions on problems and look for tentative answers in academic courses or clinical practice. Freshman tutorials focus on social problems and institution responses to them, and various field trips are made. In the sophomore tutorials they follow a half-day per week schedule at the elementary and junior high levels being exposed to laboratory settings for observation, tutoring, paraprofessional responsibilities and active induction into school and teaching procedures. At the end of the sophomore year they decide on their teaching field and certification level. In the junior and senior tutorials the clinical professors arrange for two-year assignments for the students in one or more schools where they get some feeling of continuity and can develop teaching skills. They start with clinical work one-half day per week and go to teaching half-time every day during the winter quarter of the senior year. The students' teaching performance is assessed during these two years and classroom assignments are tailored to build their competency.

Kansas State Teachers College in Emporia has an experimental program which replaces formal courses with three "phases" of professional preparation based on a structured study of content in conjunction with planned laboratory experiences. Phase I is a semester of intense observation by closed-circuit television and coordinated reading accompanied by seminars. In Phase II trainees serve as
teacher aides out in the public school classrooms, and parallel readings and seminars to keep pace with students' laboratory settings are continued. Phase III is based on the idea that concepts acquired through observation, participation and readings can be tested through practical application in student teaching.

In the teacher education program at Hope College in Holland, Michigan, two major elements of the program focus on clinical experiences: mini-teaching and micro-teaching. Mini-teaching is a pre-student teaching experience designed to unite the teaching methods discussed in class with the experience of putting them into practice. Student teams plan a unit for about two weeks and then go out in a school to teach it. These planning and teaching intervals are spread throughout the semester, and each team determines its own approach and presents the lesson plan to colleagues prior to teaching. Evaluations are made and guidance is given by college instructors who observe the teaching. Micro-teaching is done in a total-participation plan which takes college seniors to an elementary school full time for a year, where they are assigned as associates to experienced teachers, receive part-time pay and twenty semester hours of credit and are supervised by college personnel.

The Correlated Teacher Education Program at the Duluth branch of the University of Minnesota provides early induction to field experiences, individualizes the course of study and is a cooperative effort of college and public school staffs. In the junior year Phase I includes tutoring in the public school and study of the growth of the child plus selected readings on school organization. Phase II
includes micro-teaching and the study of human learning, measurement
and statistics. In Phase III the student is involved in small-group
instruction in the public school and the study of methods of instruc-
tion and evaluation of learning within a subject matter specialty.
In the senior year he engages in full-day pre-service teaching and
independent study and/or research related to his area of concentration,
plus development of a personal philosophy of teaching. Material usu-
ally handled in methods courses is covered in this program in individ-
ualized instruction, independent study and small-group seminars di-
rected by college personnel.62

Upon viewing innovative programs we are again reminded of the
need for further explorations into new cooperative structures among
universities, schools, state agencies and professional organizations
if we are to meet the needs of all the students.

Before we view the findings of this study with respect to the
needs and problems of beginning teachers of modern foreign languages
let us take a look at the problems of beginning teachers in general.
CHAPTER VI

PROBLEMS OF BEGINNING AND STUDENT TEACHERS

The beginning teacher today must be much better prepared than his counterpart of a decade ago. He must continue to grow with the changes occurring within his profession and the changes occurring in our society. He must have an extensive knowledge of subject matter, methods, child psychology, current societal and educational trends and the latest expectations with respect to the teacher role if he expects to meet the needs of all the students in his charge. The beginning teacher must learn to relate well with children, administrators and other teachers.

School administrators need new teachers who are capable of fitting immediately into the ongoing programs. Students often feel lost between the senior year in college and the first few weeks or months in the teaching position. The gap between theory and practice, they maintain, is often left to the new teacher to close without benefit of help from the preparing institution. Goodlad has suggested that the ideal place to bring theory and practice together is the methods component.

Thomas reasons that since the methods course comes before student teaching, the problems encountered by student teachers should be of some value in indicating learning experiences needed in the methods
course. Thomas indicates that one of the chief limitations of his study was the fact that it did not attempt to derive information extensively from students who had taken methods courses. Both student teachers and beginning teachers participated in the questionnaire survey made in conjunction with the present study. There are many studies on the problems encountered by student and in-service teachers, and the majority of them report very similar results.

Prospective teachers in a methods course were asked to indicate their professional insecurities during the second class session. Lueck found that the area of greatest concern in their opinion was that of conducting the class session effectively, asking stimulating questions and supervising study. Motivating learning was rated third by the 1963 juniors and fifth by the 1964 students. One class was asked to rate the problems before and after taking the methods course. In this study on the effect of a secondary methods course the greatest reduction in feeling of inadequacy was registered for planning instruction. Significant reductions were also reported for conducting the class and motivating instruction. Preparing units and lesson plans as a student would be essentially the same tasks as those of the in-service teacher. If the methods student cannot test the effectiveness of his learning, as in maintaining discipline, the reduction in his feeling of inadequacy seems to be less marked.

Anticipated problems may aid in determining emphases to be made in a methods course, but a teacher of methods cannot build his course solely on anticipated problems. Experienced difficulties are essential to the developing of the special methods component. This
writer will rely quite heavily on the opinions of student teachers and beginning teachers as well as on current literature in moving toward the projecting of prototypes.

According to the Hefferman findings published in 1958 the foremost problem of elementary school teachers was adjusting instruction to the varying abilities of the learner. In Lueck's study this item ranked seventh. Perhaps prospective high school teachers are aware of this problem but do not feel it as keenly.3

In the studies done by Batchelder, Lauby, Wey and McCleary, discipline headed the list of difficulties indicated by student teachers. Lueck points out that some studies report teaching difficulties in terms of frequency. A high frequency of classroom discipline problems does not necessarily mean that that area causes the greatest concern or feeling of insecurity in the teacher. Lueck contends that studies that request that the prospective teacher report the areas that give him the greatest feeling of inadequacy have consistently shown that discipline ranks below such problems as "motivating the student" or "presenting the lesson effectively."4

Campbell reported that the major concerns of beginning teachers were discipline, administrative routine, teacher–teacher relationships, measurement of pupil achievement, teachers' cliques, not being recognized for good work, insecurity, and general dissatisfaction.5

Riggle found that meeting individual differences, using a variety of teaching aids, securing and using teacher materials and equipment and handling discipline are the principal concerns of beginning teachers.6
Bennie, in a survey of the problems encountered by 171 first-year teachers in Texas, found fears and concerns as follows:

1. Meeting the individual needs of students . 50.2 percent
2. Problems of classroom control . . . . 28.1 percent
3. Motivation of pupil interest and response. 26.3 percent
4. Evaluating pupil progress . . . . . . 25.1 percent
5. Lack of subject matter knowledge . . . . 17.5 percent
6. Equipment deficiencies . . . . . . . 15.8 percent
7. Handling routine classroom management . 12.2 percent
8. Presenting lessons effectively . . . . . . 11.7 percent
9. Supervisors of extracurricular activities . 8.7 percent
10. Planning and preparing lessons . . . . 8.2 percent
11. Adjusting to the teacher role . . . . . . 5.8 percent
12. Relationships with pupils, teachers . . . 2.3 percent

Whitman found concern with areas such as interpreting and understanding materials, discovering community resources and understanding the school's philosophy.

Turner found that, according to their supervisors, beginning teachers had subject matter problems and problems with their expectations of students.

In the Richings study completed in 1968 it was found that beginning teachers were more concerned with discipline and class control than were experienced teachers. Apparently, the experienced teachers had learned to cope with discipline and classroom control problems; therefore, this area was not of as much concern to them as it was to beginning teachers. Otherwise, the ranking was strikingly similar. Both beginning teachers and experienced teachers felt that meeting individual differences was the major problem. Evidently there is a vast difference between the theory of meeting individual differences and actually being able to implement the theory in a classroom of thirty children.
Richings' findings for teaching problems of moderate and major degree of intensity for beginning teachers in the South-Western City Schools indicated the top five problems as follows:

- Meeting individual differences (pupils) . . . . . . . 67.6
- Discipline and class control. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 60.6
- Planning and preparing lessons. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 45.0
- Motivation and holding student interest . . . . . . . . . . 43.7
- Need for more knowledge of teaching methods . . . . . . . 42.4

Lueck and others have indicated that a prospective teacher's major subject has only a small influence on the inadequacies he feels toward the general problems of teaching. In this study we have looked at general problems but also want to determine the major areas of concern for the beginning teacher of modern foreign language in particular in order to be able to know better what to include and emphasize in future special methods components in the professional preparation of modern foreign language teachers.

At the annual meeting of the Illinois Foreign Language Teachers Association held in 1968 a group of young foreign language teachers who had taught one year expressed what they considered to be shortcomings in their own preparation. In the area of pre-student teaching experiences they indicated that they had had an insufficient number of school visitations prior to student teaching. They would like future teachers to be encouraged as early as possible to participate in a variety of activities with children in the age group they plan to teach. In the realm of foreign language methods they would like to see single-language methods courses, since they feel that in the field courses the specifics of each language are sacrificed to the generalities which may be applied
to the teaching of all foreign languages. They indicated insufficient exposure to first-hand observation of excellent teachers in action in a class. They called for more practice in teaching children of the age group they plan to teach, since they believe that teaching one's peers does not provide the vital experience needed.

In the Beery study regarding the preparation of teachers of modern foreign languages in Ohio suggestions in the methods category included the request for more observations of outstanding teachers. Various persons asked that the methods course be made less theoretical and more practical. 11

In the Thomas study the student teachers of foreign languages reported their biggest problem to be pupils rather than methods or command of language. Discipline or bringing about a business-like classroom atmosphere was felt to be necessary before any method could work. Some student teachers wanted to know how to motivate and interest high school pupils. Thomas believes that the extent of this problem would seem to indicate that skills for alleviating it should be learned prior to student teaching and should occupy a significant portion of the teacher education program. The question may well be what part of the time needed for this purpose pertains to the special methods course or component. Thomas believes that much of the attention paid to the nature of the high school pupil should be centered in educational psychology, although pupil reactions to language learning should definitely be discussed in the methods course. 12

This review of the problems of beginning and student teachers reveals the not insignificant differences of reported priorities among
various studies of these groups. Whether these differences (Hefferman versus Lueck, for example) are attributable to differences in the preparation programs would be virtually impossible to discover. Perhaps in the future many small studies which involve selected variables can be conducted to help determine to what degree the differences among priorities are a function of the different types of preparation programs.

The findings of the study and a discussion of them are found in Chapter VII. We will start by looking at the reports of beginning and student teachers of modern foreign languages regarding their problems as indicated by them in the questionnaire survey conducted in conjunction with this study.
CHAPTER VII

FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS

In this chapter the writer attempts a fairly thorough analysis of the problems and needs of teachers of foreign language and the opinions of those teachers concerning the degree of adequacy of the special methods course in which they enrolled. It would seem that the respondents were more careful in their handling of the sections pertaining to their problems than they were in responding to the sections dealing with the professional laboratory experiences which they were afforded. The treatment of the latter section will not be quite as thorough as that of the first sections which deal with their problems and needs and the degree to which these needs were satisfied in the methods course.

Section I. Teaching Problems As Seen by Beginning and Student Teachers

Findings

A four-point scale was used to show relative degree of intensity of problem during the first year or less of teaching. The first analysis was made by formula, with "major," "moderate," "minor," and "none" ratings being given numerical values according to weights assigned to them by the investigator, as follows:
"Major" was given a value of 3.

"Moderate" was given a value of 2.

"Minor" was given a value of 1.

"None" was given a value of 0.

Each problem was then assigned a weighted score which was divided by the total number of individuals responding to that particular item. The problem areas were listed from highest to lowest in the order of their scores. The results, recorded in Table 1, are intended to show the relative degree of intensity of problems experienced by the beginning teacher during his first year of teaching and by the student during his student teaching experience.

### TABLE 1

TEACHING PROBLEMS AS SEEN BY BEGINNING AND STUDENT TEACHERS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Weighted Score</th>
<th>Problem Area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>Motivation, holding pupil interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>Eliciting responses and original ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>Relating theory to practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>Developing desirable and realistic foreign language course objectives at various levels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>Developing materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>Solving teaching-learning problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>Meeting individual differences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>Location and use of resources within the community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>Anticipating student reactions to various teaching behaviors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>Preparing audiovisual aids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>Audio-lingual activities beyond dialog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>Need for training in self-criticism, analysis and discussion with peers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>Evaluation of textbooks and materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>Teaching of writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>Assessing teaching-learning problems</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As a check on the reliability of the former procedure, an additional analysis of the intensity of problem was made by simply
tallying the number of people who indicated that the problem was "major." The percentage is based on the 167 total, and an asterisk is used to indicate any item for which a less than 90 per cent response was received. The problem areas were ranked in intensity from highest to lowest according to the resulting scores, as can be seen in Table 2.

**TABLE 2**

TEACHING PROBLEMS OF MAJOR DEGREE OF INTENSITY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Number of Tallies</th>
<th>Percentage of 167</th>
<th>Problem Area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>20*</td>
<td>Location and use of resources within the community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Developing desirable and realistic foreign language course objectives at various levels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Eliciting responses and original ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Relating theory to practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Location and use of resources within the school/school system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Preparing audiovisual aids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Motivation, holding pupil interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Meeting individual differences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Testing procedures for speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Developing of materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Anticipating student reactions to various teaching behaviors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Audio-lingual activities beyond dialog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Location and use of resources from professional sources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Evaluation of textbooks and materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Solving teaching-learning problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10*</td>
<td>Use of electronic equipment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Teaching of literary appreciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Relating foreign language to total curriculum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Teaching of writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Testing procedures for listening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Using audiovisual aids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Understanding of pupils and problems of the inner city, outer city or suburbs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Planning and preparing lessons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>Number of Tallies</td>
<td>Percentage of 167</td>
<td>Problem Area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Developing of self-confidence as a teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Need for training in self-criticism, analysis and discussion with peers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Discipline and class control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Teaching sound-letter correspondence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Understanding of student feelings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Testing procedures for writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Teaching pronunciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Recognizing teaching-learning problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Teaching a specific grammar point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Teaching of culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Audio-lingual drill activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Assessing teaching-learning problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Testing procedures for reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Teaching various stages of reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Analysis and comparative value of various methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Adapting to innovative programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Relationship to pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Audio-lingual dialog activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Making homework assignments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Review and correction of assignments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Subject matter knowledge (speaking knowledge for teachers)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Relationship to teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Relationship to administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46.5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Subject matter knowledge (understanding of basic structure)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46.5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Professional organizations, duties</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen by examination of Tables 1 and 2, nine of the same items appear in the first ten ranks on both lists. Nine of the same items appear in the last ten ranks on both lists.

Interpretations

Interpretation of the findings of this study regarding the
intensity of problem as assessed by the beginning and student teachers will be attempted, with special attention being focused on the high-priority or critical problem areas.

It would seem that certain of the problem areas are very much related. For example, motivation, solving teaching-learning problems and discipline and class control would seem to be related. These problems are ranked 1, 5.5, and 20, respectively. There is some congruence in the ranking of motivation and the solving of teaching-learning problems. The question of semantics may be a crucial one in this instance. Perhaps the teachers involved in this study are reluctant to admit that they have discipline problems, since this would be tantamount to admitting that they have failed in their efforts to control the class. They may be more willing to express this problem in more neutral terms by indicating a serious motivation problem. Perhaps we should admit that some degree of candidness was expressed by virtue of the fact that they listed discipline as "20" in a 48-item list.

The eliciting of responses and original ideas ranked "2."

Ideally all of the respondents would have the opportunity to explain their responses more fully. On the basis of the comments of those interviewed, the writer would tend to conclude that many of the beginning teachers have expectations that are far too high especially in those cases in which the students are studying the first level of a foreign language. It seems that the teachers may be having difficulty accepting and building on one-word answers. In most cases the beginning teachers are referring to the eliciting of original ideas rather than to the eliciting of responses such as those required in the simpler
pattern drills. This question could have been subdivided and then divided even further with respect to the different levels of a language. This problem would have various implications with regard to the teacher's attitude and his nonverbal as well as verbal behavior in the classroom. One might question to what extent the student was expected to react to the teacher and to what extent the students were expected to react to each other. Perhaps the teacher was in front of the class all of the time and there were never any student leaders. The peer group philosophy may not have been helping at all if an autocratic situation existed. The problem of audio-lingual activities beyond dialog ranked 11.5, and it is not surprising to see these two problems in the same quarter of the list.

The problem which ranked third has to do with relating theory to practice. This could indicate two different criticisms. The response here could represent the case of the conscientious teacher who does not know how to operationalize theory or it could represent disenchantment with the methods course. The seventh question on the third page of the questionnaire was a free-response question requesting suggestions for improving the methods course. Of the 167 respondents to the questionnaire, 98 responded to this particular question. Of those 98 who responded to the question, 20 wrote specifically to this point. They indicated that the methods course simply was not practical enough. In a few cases this may be due to the fact that the methods course is taught by someone who has never taught in a high school. Let us look at some of the comments taken from some of the responses to the seventh question on the third page.
Stress the practical aspects; that is, presentation of lessons with constructive criticism.

A chance to perform in front of your peers more often, to have to do teaching of drills, games, etc.

Too much emphasis on theories in the methods courses I had—not enough practice with techniques that are actually used in the classroom: For instance, "How should I teach reading?" "What is the best way to teach pronunciation at first year level?"

It would be more practical and helpful if we could teach a condensed version of an entire 40-minute class, which includes a bit of everything.

I would have liked to have had more time to give more dialogs, pattern drills, etc., and less theory. Also some more experience in handling discipline problems.

Emphasize actual day-to-day conditions to be experienced in class—not so much theory. Simulate class conditions... cover in detail all preparations necessary for a class presentation.

More actual teaching situations with peers to judge would be most helpful. I feel that much of the theory and philosophical background should be deleted from a methods course.

The problem of developing materials ranked 5.5, and this suggests two possible hypotheses: (1) beginning teachers have not developed the skills necessary for developing materials, and (2) beginning teachers are not aware of the existence of adequate materials. The Advisory Committee and some of the literature would seem to indicate that teachers have neither the time nor the inclination to develop materials. Some of the members of the Committee did not feel that this item should be considered a critical problem in spite of its rank. Perhaps this high rank would be more understandable had the survey been made over ten years ago, at which time not so many materials were available. It would also be more understandable even now in the case of the
teaching of Russian as compared to the teaching of Spanish, French or German, in the light of materials available today. As indicated on page 3 of the questionnaire, 80 respondents teach Spanish; 39, French; 21, German; and the remainder teach either minor languages or various combinations of languages. No one indicated that he taught Russian. Developing materials was not interpreted as building of basic materials by any of the respondents interviewed. The usual interpretation was that of enhancing the basic material being used. Materials were being developed for the purpose of supplementing a basic text or adapting it in such a way as to accommodate different learning styles. There seems to be some internal consistency inasmuch as developing materials ranked 5.5 and preparing audiovisual aids ranked 10.

The problem of solving teaching-learning problems also ranked 5.5. This problem ranked close to motivation, which was the first one on the list. This item may have been a catchall for the general feeling that they were not up to the challenges thrown to them by the class. One must wonder whether they were having difficulty solving all kinds of problems or just specific kinds. Some members of the Advisory Committee believe that the high degree of difficulty expressed here may be due to the fact that many teachers do not read the professional materials which often suggest possible solutions to specific problems. Difficulty may well be due to their lack of knowledge regarding location and use of resources as well as to their lack of a sense of professional responsibility or possible reluctance to share information.

The problem of meeting individual differences ranked seventh. It seems that this problem would be related either directly or
indirectly to many other problems. For example, the writer could see a possible relationship to the use of electronic equipment, which ranked 32.5. Since the beginning teachers simply checked the degree of intensity of the problem in using electronic equipment, we do not have the kind of data we need here. Are they using it and finding it a problem or don't they feel a need to use it? If they do not use electronic equipment at all, they might well check that they have no problem. We need some indication as to how many times the tape recorder or other equipment was used last semester, how it was used, and so forth. We might also call for an opinion as to how helpful the teacher found the using of certain types of equipment and for what types of students and for what types of activities, whether in the case of a full laboratory or a simple tape recorder. Use of electronic equipment was a need which was considered by 88 people to have been "most" satisfactorily met in the special methods course, and it ranked "4" in this respect, as can be seen in Table 3. In spite of this high rank, 40 teachers indicated that it was a need that was "least" satisfactorily met or "not treated." Difficulty in the meeting of individual differences may also be related to such factors as the inflexibility of the time and space allotted, class size, lack of awareness of existing programmed learning materials and non-availability of supplementary materials. We might ask to what extent lack of modular scheduling or a learning resource center might preclude the meeting of individual differences.

Location and use of resources within the community ranked eighth. Perhaps the recent thrust in education which calls for more
involvement of educational institutions in the community may have contributed to this rather high rank. Since the population for this study consisted of beginning teachers and student teachers, we might wonder to what extent the newness of the community contributed to the difficulty in finding resources in the community. Certainly you would expect that many hints would be given in the methods course as to how to go about getting information relatively quickly. The resources pursued most actively would probably be those located in the more immediate community. Since communities differ, suggestions could be made as to the different types of resources, human and otherwise, which could be investigated in most communities.

Anticipating student reactions to various teaching behaviors ranked ninth. It is possible that some methods teachers may believe that this is exclusively a matter of actual experience out in the field. Beginning teachers often have difficulty getting to know the interest level of their students with respect to their teaching techniques and selection of materials and learning experiences. One of the respondents to the free-response question on page 3 requested that various foreign language teachers from the area come in to talk about how responses of individuals in different communities might differ from teachers' expectations.

The developing of self-confidence as a teacher ranked "24," and discipline and class control ranked "20." Recognizing teaching-learning problems does not constitute as much of a problem as does the solving of problems, as indicated by their respective ranks of 24 and 5.5.
It is interesting to note that the degree of intensity of the problem in testing pretty much follows the order of priorities in teaching adhered to by many teachers using an audio-lingual approach. Testing procedures for speaking, listening, reading and writing ranked 17, 29, 35 and 39, respectively. This is not surprising, since many teachers who do not have appropriate language-laboratory facilities for the testing of speaking find great difficulty testing this skill in the classroom and some fail to do so at all. Perhaps they are not considering the indirect testing of speaking which is feasible.

Relating foreign language to total curriculum ranked fairly high at 16. The terminology is general, and several interpretations may be possible. Even though the rank is high, the real need is perhaps even greater than the assessed need. They may not know how foreign language fits in the program themselves even though they may have been exposed to many clichés.

It is interesting to note that "teaching a specific grammar point" was much further down the list than "developing desirable and realistic foreign language course objectives at various levels," the respective ranks being 22 and 4. Neither was there a close relationship between "planning and preparing lessons," which ranked 34, and the developing of desirable goals. It seems that teachers may be having some difficulty seeing how daily activities fit into yearly objectives. Perhaps for the same reason one respondent requested practice in teaching a whole lesson and not just the bits. The teachers evidently want to see the whole in order to understand better the function of the parts.
As we move further down the list of problems as seen by the teachers and notice that they do not view certain problems as more important than they do, we must think of several factors. Perhaps they do not see the problems as more important because their methods courses did not prepare them in those areas or because they do not have the insight to realize their importance. Teaching of literary appreciation is about halfway down the list, being ranked at 26. Perhaps we should be happy that even that many teachers think of it as having even this amount of importance. Since the respondents are beginning teachers, we would assume that many of them are teaching at levels one and two.

Understanding of pupils and problems of the inner city, outer city or suburbs ranked 32.5, and relationships to pupils ranked 43, so they are relatively close on the list. However, if the teachers have such fine relationships to their pupils, one might question why the motivation problem is so great.

Teaching of culture ranks 37.5. This could be interpreted several ways. Either the teachers are doing a good job of teaching culture or culture does not have much of a role in their program. From the various comments and complaints of students it would seem that there are simply gaps in the program in this respect. In the interviews several of the teachers revealed a rather limited conception as to what the teaching of culture encompasses. In several cases they were thinking about formal culture only and were ignoring deep culture.
Adapting to innovative programs ranked 40.5. In a society whose most striking quality is change, innovation is necessary. If an innovative teacher is the better teacher, we should have teachers engaged in innovation. Perhaps the teachers are not innovating, and, therefore, do not see this area as a problem. Relationship to administration ranked 46, yet two respondents wrote on page 1 of the questionnaire in the columns to be checked that their administrations did not permit innovation. If innovation is desirable, then this relationship would be an extremely important one.

In this study we are very much interested in the teachers' self-assessment of problems. However, we are also interested in some of the low-ranking areas, since the fact that teachers do not view an area as constituting a problem does not necessarily mean that no problem exists. We must pay attention to the high priority areas in order to give the students more security, but as professionals we must also act in other vital areas even if the teachers do not think of them as problems.

Professional organizations and duties, relationship to administration and relationship to teachers are ranked in the bottom quarter of the list at 44, 46 and 47, respectively. Perhaps the teachers are not convinced that professional organizations have much to offer. They may be accepting a low position for themselves. Perhaps if relationships with administration were different other factors in the teaching-learning situation could also be different.

The teachers seem relatively secure in the subject matter areas. Speaking knowledge and understanding of basic structure rank
45 and 48, respectively. Perhaps this is due to the fact that 114, or 68 per cent, of the respondents in this study have either traveled or studied abroad or done both. Twenty-eight have traveled abroad; 9 have studied abroad and 77 have done both.

Section II. Satisfaction of Needs in the Special Methods Course As Seen by Beginning and Student Teachers

Findings

A three-point scale was used to show to what degree needs were satisfied by the special methods course. "Most," "least," and "not treated" ratings were given numerical values according to the weights assigned to them by the investigator, as follows:

"Most" was given a value of 2.

"Least" was given a value of 1.

"Not treated" was given a value of 0.

Each problem area was then assigned a weighted score which was divided by the total number of individuals responding to that particular item. The problem areas were listed starting with those needs considered to be most satisfactorily met and descending in the order of their scores as the needs became less satisfactorily met. The results, recorded in Table 3, are intended to show the degree to which the beginning and student teachers believed their needs were met by the special methods course.

While the weighted score procedure is followed for determining rank of the problem area in the case of Table 3, an additional analysis will be made as a check on this procedure and reported in Table 4.
## TABLE 3
SATISFACTION OF NEEDS IN THE SPECIAL METHODS COURSE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Weighted Score</th>
<th>Problem Area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>Planning and preparing lessons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>Audio-lingual drill activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>Audio-lingual dialog activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>Use of electronic equipment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>Using audiovisual aids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>Teaching a specific grammar point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>Evaluation of textbooks and materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>Audio-lingual activities beyond dialog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>Testing procedures for listening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>Testing procedures for speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>Testing procedures for writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>Preparing audiovisual aids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>Testing procedures for reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>Developing materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>Analysis and comparative value of various methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>Developing desirable and realistic foreign language course objectives at various levels</td>
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<td>Teaching pronunciation</td>
</tr>
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<td>Motivation, holding pupil interest</td>
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<td>19.5</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>Relating theory to practice</td>
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<td>19.5</td>
<td>1.14</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Subject matter knowledge (speaking knowledge for teachers)</td>
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<td>1.07</td>
<td>Recognizing teaching–learning problems</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>.97</td>
<td>Teaching sound-letter correspondence</td>
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<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>.95</td>
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<td>27.5</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>Location and use of resources from professional sources</td>
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<tr>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>Assessing teaching–learning problems</td>
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<td>Teaching of culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>Meeting individual differences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>Need for training in self-criticism, analysis, and discussion with peers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>.88</td>
<td>Eliciting responses and original ideas</td>
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<td>33.5</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>Teaching of writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.5</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>Solving teaching–learning problems</td>
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<tr>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>Anticipating student reactions to various teaching behaviors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>Weighted Score</td>
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<td>------</td>
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<tr>
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<td>.85</td>
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<td>.82</td>
<td>Teaching various stages of reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>Making homework assignments</td>
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<td>39</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>Understanding of student feelings</td>
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<td>40</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>Location and use of resources within the community</td>
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<td>.68</td>
<td>Discipline and class control</td>
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<td>42</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>Developing of self-confidence as a teacher</td>
</tr>
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<td>43</td>
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<td>Relating foreign language to total curriculum</td>
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<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>Understanding of pupils and problems of the inner city, outer city or suburbs</td>
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<td>45</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>Teaching of literary appreciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>.52</td>
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<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>Review and correction of assignments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>Relationship to administration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As a check on the reliability of the above procedure, an additional analysis of the degree to which needs were considered to have been met in the special methods course was made by simply tallying the number of people who indicated that the need was "most" satisfactorily met in the methods course. Since the instructions indicated "not all problem areas need to be checked," various problems were not checked. The number of tallies indicates the actual number of people checking "most" for that problem. The problem areas are ranked from highest to lowest with the need assessed as "most" satisfactorily met by the greatest number of people coming first. Analysis by tallying the "most" responses is found in Table 4.

Note that eleven of the same items appear in the first twelve ranks, or top quarter, in both Tables 3 and 4. Ten of the same items appear in the last twelve ranks, or bottom quarter, in both tables.
### TABLE 4

**NEEDS MOST SATISFACTORILY MET BY THE SPECIAL METHODS COURSE AS ASSESSED BY BEGINNING AND STUDENT TEACHERS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Needs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>1</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>Audio-lingual dialog activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>Audio-lingual drill activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>Planning and preparing lessons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>Use of electronic equipment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>Using audiovisual aids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>Teaching a specific grammar point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>Evaluation of textbooks and materials</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>70</td>
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<tr>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>Testing procedures for listening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>Testing procedures for writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>Testing procedures for speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>Testing procedures for reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>Audio-lingual activities beyond dialog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>Teaching pronunciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>Developing materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>Motivation, holding pupil interest</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>Developing desirable and realistic foreign language course objectives at various levels</td>
</tr>
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<td>50</td>
<td>Subject matter knowledge (understanding of basic structure)</td>
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<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Adapting to innovative programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>Relationship to pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>Relating theory to practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>Recognizing teaching-learning problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>Location and use of resources within the school/school system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>Teaching sound-letter correspondence</td>
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<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>Teaching of writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>Teaching of culture</td>
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<td>Need for training in self-criticism, analysis, and discussion with peers</td>
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<td>29.5</td>
<td>33</td>
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<td>31</td>
<td>Anticipating student reactions to various teaching behaviors</td>
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<tr>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>Location and use of resources from professional sources</td>
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<td>Developing of self-confidence as a teacher</td>
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<td>30</td>
<td>Meeting individual differences</td>
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</table>
TABLE 4—Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Needs</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>35.5</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>Assessing teaching-learning problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Eliciting responses and original ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Understanding of student feelings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Solving teaching-learning problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Making homework assignments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Relationship to teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Discipline and class control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Relationship to administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Understanding of pupils and problems of the inner city, outer city or suburbs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Relating foreign language to total curriculum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46.5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Teaching of literary appreciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46.5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Location and use of resources within the community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Review and correction of assignments</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Interpretations**

Those needs considered by the beginning and student teachers to have been met "most" satisfactorily in the special methods course (as indicated by their appearance in the top quarter of Table 3) and which do not constitute much of a problem for them (as indicated by their appearance in the bottom half of Table 1) are the following:

1. testing procedures for writing,  
2. audio-lingual dialog activities,  
3. planning and preparing lessons,  
4. use of electronic equipment,  
5. using audiovisual aids,  
6. testing procedures for listening, and  
7. audio-lingual drill activities.

It is interesting to note that in spite of the fact that certain needs were assessed by the beginning teachers as having been most satisfactorily met they still constituted a considerable problem for them. Perhaps they remembered that the topic had been touched on in
the methods class so checked "most" simply because class time had been
dedicated to that particular area. The possible implication here may
be that even though the topic or area was touched on it was not han­
dled in an effective manner and obviously did not produce the results
desired.

Those needs assessed by the beginning and student teachers as
having been met "most" satisfactorily by the methods course (as indi­
cated by their appearance in the top quarter of Table 3) and which
still constituted a problem for them (as indicated by their appearance
in the top half of Table 1) are the following: (1) preparing audio­
visual aids, (2) audio-lingual activities beyond dialog, (3) evaluation
of textbooks and materials, (4) testing procedures for speaking, and
(5) teaching a specific grammar point. The implication here may be
that while the teacher may know a lot about the problem and perhaps
can verbalize about what should be done he finds difficulty in the
actual implementation.

Section III. Recommendations of Beginning and
Student Teachers Regarding Treatment of
Problem Areas in Future Special
Methods Courses

Findings

A three-point scale was used to indicate the strength of the
recommendation for treatment of the problem area in future special
methods courses. "Emphasize," "include," and "exclude" were given
numerical values according to weights assigned to them by the inves­
tigator, as follows:

"Emphasize" was given a value of 2.
"Include" was given a value of 1.

"Exclude" was given a value of 0.

Each problem was then assigned a weighted score which was divided by the total number of individuals responding to that particular item. The problem areas were listed from highest to lowest in the order of their scores. The results, recorded in Table 5, are intended to show the degree to which the beginning and student teachers would like to see the particular problem area treated in future special methods courses.

**TABLE 5**

**RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING TREATMENT OF PROBLEM AREAS IN FUTURE SPECIAL METHODS COURSES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Weighted Score</th>
<th>Problem Area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>Motivation, holding pupil interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>Audio-lingual activities <strong>beyond</strong> dialog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>Testing procedures for speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>Relating theory to practice</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>Eliciting responses and original ideas</td>
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<td>1.47</td>
<td>Developing materials</td>
</tr>
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<td>7</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>Solving teaching-learning problems</td>
</tr>
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<td>8</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>Testing procedures for listening</td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
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<td>Preparing audiovisual aids</td>
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<td>1.43</td>
<td>Developing desirable and realistic foreign language course objectives at various levels</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>Recognizing teaching-learning problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>Using audiovisual aids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>Meeting individual differences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>Assessing teaching-learning problems</td>
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<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>Audio-lingual drill activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>Testing procedures for reading</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>1.37</td>
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<td>1.36</td>
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<td>18.5</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>Use of electronic equipment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>Teaching pronunciation</td>
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TABLE 5—Continued

<table>
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<th>Problem Area</th>
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<td>Teaching a specific grammar point</td>
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<td>1.33</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1.30</td>
<td>Teaching of culture</td>
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<td>1.27</td>
<td>Teaching of writing</td>
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<td>1.27</td>
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<td>1.26</td>
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<td>1.25</td>
<td>Evaluation of textbooks and materials</td>
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<td>Teaching sound-letter correspondence</td>
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<td>1.23</td>
<td>Planning and preparing lessons</td>
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<tr>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>Developing of self-confidence as a teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>Understanding of pupils and problems of the inner city, outer city or suburbs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>Need for training in self-criticism, analysis, and discussion with peers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>Teaching of literary appreciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>Discipline and class control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>Subject matter knowledge (speaking knowledge for teachers)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>Adapting to innovative programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>Relationship to pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>Location and use of resources within the school/school system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>Location and use of resources from professional sources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>Relating foreign language to total curriculum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>Location and use of resources within the community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>Subject matter knowledge (understanding of basic structure)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>Making homework assignments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>Review and correction of assignments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>Professional organizations, duties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>Relationship to teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>Relationship to administration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interpretations

The beginning and student teachers recommended a high degree of treatment in future methods courses for many of the same problems which they assessed as being serious for them in Section I of the questions
addressed to them. Those 6 problems which were most serious in their
eyes and which ranked from 1 to 5.5 in Table 1 all appear in the first
12 ranks, or top quarter, of Table 5 in their recommendations for
treatment in future methods courses. Eight problems in the top quarter
of the Table 5 recommendations also appear in the top quarter of
Table 1, indicating a high degree of intensity of problem in their
opinion. These 8 in the order of their appearance in Table 5 are as
follows: motivation, holding pupil interest; audio-lingual activities
beyond dialog; relating theory to practice; eliciting responses and
original ideas; developing materials; solving teaching-learning prob-
lems; preparing audiovisual aids; and developing desirable and real-
istic foreign language course objectives at various levels. The 4
which appeared in the top quarter of Table 5 recommendations but which
did not appear in the top quarter of Table 1 were the following:
testing procedures for speaking, testing procedures for listening,
recognizing teaching-learning problems and using audiovisual aids.
These 4 did appear in the second and third quarters of Table 1. Per-
haps they feel that even more knowledge and practice in these areas
would be helpful and desirable even though they are able to operate
fairly well themselves, perhaps after experience on their own. In
fact, 3 of these 4 problems are found in the top quarter of Table 3,
with the other one being found in the second quarter, thus indicating
a high degree of satisfaction of these needs in the special methods
course. These needs may have been "satisfied" in the sense that they
were at least treated in most cases whereas other problems were not,
but they still constituted somewhat of a problem as indicated by a weighted score of over 1.00 in all four cases as seen in Table 1.

Almost all problem areas were recommended for treatment in future special methods courses. The real question may be one of which entity, department or course could best handle the particular problem area and would have the time allocated to do so. Ideally many of these problems would involve cooperation among various departments and entities. The beginning and student teachers tend not to recommend the following areas for inclusion in the foreign language methods course: making homework assignments, review and correction of assignments, professional organizations and duties, relationship to teachers and relationship to administration. Perhaps they view these as functions of other departments or entities. In fact, they do not consider them much of a problem at all, since these problem areas all fall in the bottom quarter of Table 1.

It is interesting to note that location and use of resources within the community, from professional sources and within the school/school system all appear in the bottom quarter of the Table 5 recommendations for treatment in future special methods courses. However, they constitute a problem of such a magnitude that they are in the top or second quarter of Table 1 and rank 8, 18.5 and 21, respectively. They do average out at the "include" level, but perhaps the teachers would like to see these problems treated by other departments or entities.

The respondents were asked to make specific suggestions with respect to improving the foreign language methods course.
Question 7, Page 3. Suggestions for Improving the Special Methods Course

Ninety-eight individuals, or 59 per cent of those returning the questionnaire, responded to this free-response item. As mentioned previously, 20 requested that the methods course be made more practical. With respect to single-language versus field courses, 20 voiced opinions against mixing of the languages and 3 voiced opinions for mixing them. Four individuals requested that those studying for elementary school teaching be separated from those preparing for teaching in the secondary schools. Four respondents asked that class size be limited. Eighteen expressed the opinion that the special methods course should be taken before student teaching and 3 requested a course both before and during student teaching. Four others expressed opinions of during, before and after, during or after, and during or before student teaching.

It is interesting to note that 6 requested the presentation of many methods of teaching a foreign language and that some were greatly disturbed by the methods instructor's bias in advocating a particular method or model which he has found useful. This point was also made by two of those interviewed.

Three respondents requested that emphasis be placed on the use of audiovisual aids, the tape recorder and the language laboratory. Emphasis on motivation in specific kinds of schools and with specific kinds of students was requested by several people. One respondent felt "one-sided" in a special program for inner city and believes that some exposure to suburbia and rural areas would have strengthened
the base. Two respondents requested a course in the methods of teaching Spanish to the Spanish-speaking.

Other requests included the following: (1) make editions of various texts, tapes and filmstrips available; (2) more emphasis on eliciting student leadership of language learning activities and encouraging good working relations among students; (3) testing procedures for the four skills; (4) more about how students learn a language; (5) how to handle discipline; (6) more suggestions on supplementary material; (7) more discussion of teacher-student, teacher-administration relationships; (8) how to teach a grammar point; (9) "bit" teaching; and (10) audio-lingual dialog and drill activities.

While some of these ideas were quite well expressed in other parts of the questionnaire more weight is added by the fact that the respondents wrote in their suggestions. The major thrust was the request to move toward more opportunities to practice teaching behaviors in the methods course.

Question 8, Page 4. Professional Laboratory Experiences Had in Conjunction with the Special Methods Course

Findings

A four-point scale was used to indicate the estimated number of each type of professional laboratory experience that the beginning and student teachers had in conjunction with their special methods courses. The estimated number of experiences (Est'd. No. of Exprcs.) were indicated in the following categories: no experience (0), one to three experiences (1-3), four to six experiences (4-6), and seven
experiences or more (7+). Of the 167 individuals who returned the questionnaire, only 131 to 141, or an average of 138, checked items a. through k.

The estimated number of experiences of each type had in conjunction with the special methods course are shown in Table 6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Professional Laboratory Experiences</th>
<th>Est'd. No. of Expos.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Direct (first-hand) observation—in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) in the foreign language area</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) in other subject area(s)</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Indirect observation (film, video or audiotape, CCTV, etc.)—school setting only</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Direct observation—community (nonschool)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Indirect observation—community (nonschool)</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Participation—teacher-assistant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) instructional—whole class only</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) non-instructional</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Tutoring of individual pupils</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. Participation—micro-teaching of pupils</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) with videotape playback</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) without videotape playback</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. Participation—teaching of peers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) with videotape playback</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) without videotape playback</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Participation—leadership activities in the community (recreation, social, camp, etc.)</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j. Use of Interaction Analysis or other observation system</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k. Experiences with pupils from contrasting schools and communities</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The total number of individuals who had each type of experience was determined by adding the tallies in categories 1-3, 4-6 and 7+. 
It should be remembered that an average of only 138 individuals of the 167 who returned the questionnaire checked these 15 items. Items are ranked from highest to lowest with the highest number of individuals having that particular experience appearing at the top. Table 7 shows these ranks as well as the number of individuals who had each type of experience.

### TABLE 7

**NUMBER HAVING EXPERIENCES IN THE SPECIAL METHODS COURSE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Number Having Expr.</th>
<th>Type of Professional Laboratory Experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>Direct observation—in schools—in the foreign language area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>Indirect observation—school setting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>Participation—teaching of peers—without videotape playback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>Tutoring of individual pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>Participation—teacher assistant—instructional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>Participation—leadership activities—community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>Participation—teacher assistant—non-instructional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>Direct observation in schools—other subject area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>Use of Interaction Analysis or other observation system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,5</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>Participation—teaching of peers—with videotape playback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,5</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>Experiences with pupils from contrasting schools and communities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>Direct observation—community (nonschool)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>Indirect observation—community (nonschool)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Participation—micro-teaching of pupils with videotape playback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Participation—micro-teaching of pupils without videotape playback</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this study 100 of the 167 respondents, or 60 per cent, reported making direct observations in the schools in the foreign
language area in conjunction with the special methods course. About one-third of that number, or 35, made nonschool direct observations out in the community. Indirect observations were made by 88 in a school setting and by 33 in a nonschool setting.

The leading participation activity was that of teaching peers without videotape playback. While 77 respondents taught peers without playback, 37 reported teaching peers with playback. Tutoring of pupils was done by 71, and teacher assistant participation of an instructional nature was engaged in by 68. Teacher assistant participations of a non-instructional nature were enjoyed by 44, and 45 engaged in participation in the community. An observation system was used by 39. While 26 did micro-teaching of pupils with videotape playback, 22 did so without playback.

The ratings the beginning and student teachers gave the various professional laboratory experiences are found in Table 8.

**Interpretations**

According to the Thomas study made in 1952, only about one-third of the methods students had the opportunity to observe high school classes in operation. In this study 60 per cent reported making direct observations in the schools in the foreign language area.

The Thomas study indicates that students were permitted to participate actively in high school classes in only 13 per cent of the methods classes. It would seem that more prospective teachers of modern foreign languages now have opportunities to participate, with 46 per cent teaching peers without playback, 43 per cent tutoring
pupils, and 41 per cent assisting the teacher in instructional duties in various ways.

TABLE 8
PROFESSIONAL LABORATORY EXPERIENCES AS RATED BY BEGINNING AND STUDENT TEACHERS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Professional Laboratory Experiences</th>
<th>Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not Helpful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Direct observation— in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) in the foreign language area</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) in other subject area(s)</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Indirect observation— school setting</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Direct observation— community</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Indirect observation— community</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Participation— teacher— assistant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) whole class only</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) non-instructional</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Tutoring of individual pupils</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. Participation— micro— teaching pupils</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) with videotape playback</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) without videotape playback</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. Participation— teaching of peers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) with videotape playback</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) without videotape playback</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Participation— community</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j. Use of Interaction Analysis or other observation system</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k. Experiences with pupils from contrasting schools and communities</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It would seem that on the whole prospective teachers are now afforded more opportunities than they were several decades ago. Perhaps the quantity of experiences is not as important as the quality of the experiences. In any event it seems that many individuals are still not provided various types of experiences which the literature indicates would or could prove beneficial to them. Only 16 per cent reported micro-teaching of pupils with videotape playback, and 13 per cent reported micro-teaching without playback. Even though a low percentage reported this type of experience in conjunction with the special methods course even fewer reported this type of experience in other parts of their college career. Twenty-three per cent reported the use of some observation system in the methods course and even fewer reported this experience other places in their college career.

Almost all of the 100 who had direct observation in the schools reported that the experiences were helpful, with the tallies being equally distributed between "moderately helpful" and "very helpful." Of the 100 who indicated that they had made direct observations in the schools 48 indicated "moderately helpful" and 48 indicated "very helpful." Many indicated that the indirect observations in a school setting were "moderately helpful" while relatively few indicated they were "very helpful." Perhaps more of the prospective teachers in the methods course found the direct experiences more helpful than the indirect due to the feeling of reality created by being where the action was. This feeling of reality may also be the reason that 26 indicated "very helpful" and 11 "moderately helpful" with respect to the experiences with pupils from contrasting schools and communities. The
contact with pupils in teacher-assistant instructional activities as well as in tutoring of individual pupils also brought more "very helpful" responses than "moderately helpful" ones.

There are many questions which could be raised in the area of professional laboratory experiences with respect to possible relationships. We will explore one such possibility here.

**Number of Experiences and Degree of Helpfulness**

Let us ask to what extent the degree of helpfulness to the student of a given type of experience is a function of the number of those experiences. In order to estimate this function the chi-square was performed for each type of experience encountered in the special methods course. Those analyses which were significant at least at the .05 level of significance are presented in this chapter. Those analyses which did not produce significant chi-squares are found in Appendix B.

**Statistical procedure**

The formula for chi-square is as follows:

\[ \chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O - E)^2}{E} \]

where \( O \) = observed frequency for a given cell.

\( E \) = expected frequency for a given cell.

The computational steps involved are as follows:

1. Place observed frequencies in a contingency table with \( k \) columns (number of experiences) and \( r \) rows (student rating of the experience).
2. Calculate the expected frequency for each cell by multiplying marginal totals associated with it by the total number of cases.

3. For each cell, find the difference between expected and observed frequencies, square this difference, and divide the result by the expected frequency for that cell.

4. By summing the totals derived from 3. above for each cell, the calculated $\chi^2$ is obtained.

If the calculated chi-square is equal to or larger than the table value with $(k - 1)(r - 1)$ degrees of freedom, it is significant as opposed to chance. A significant chi-square suggests that a differing proportion of each group falls within each category.

**Findings**

Table 9 gives the chi-square ($\chi^2$) analysis of responses of beginning and student teachers to a not helpful–moderately helpful–very helpful rating scale and their responses as to the number of first-hand observations they made out in the schools in the foreign language area in conjunction with the foreign language methods course. Because of small frequencies per cell the "not helpful" and "moderately helpful" groups were combined into a "not + moderately helpful" group in this particular case.

**Interpretations**

More than expected of the persons who had 1–3 experiences found these experiences to be either not helpful or only moderately so
whereas more than expected of both the 4-6 and 7+ groups found the experiences to be very helpful.

**TABLE 9**

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES TO QUESTION 8a.1) ON DIRECT OBSERVATION IN SCHOOLS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating of Experience</th>
<th>Number of Experiences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 E</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not + Moderately Helpful</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Helpful</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26.67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2 (2 \text{ df.}) = 6.05 (P < .05)$

**Findings**

Table 10 presents the chi-square analysis of responses regarding indirect observation in the school setting.

**TABLE 10**

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES TO QUESTION 8b. ON INDIRECT OBSERVATION IN SCHOOL SETTING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating of Experience</th>
<th>Number of Experiences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 E</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not + Moderately Helpful</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>54.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Helpful</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8.60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2 (1 \text{ df.}) = 27.33 (P < .001)$
Interpretations

Fewer than expected of the 1-3 experiences group rated their experiences as "very helpful," and more than expected of the 4 + group rated them in this way. On the other hand, more than expected of the 1-3 group rated the experiences as "not helpful" or only "moderately helpful." Fewer than expected of the 4 + group rated the experiences in this manner.

Findings

Table 11 shows the chi-square analysis of responses with respect to teacher-assistant participation of an instructional nature.

TABLE 11

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES TO QUESTION 8e.1) ON PARTICIPATION (TEACHER ASSISTANT—INSTRUCTION)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating of Experience</th>
<th>Number of Experiences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1—3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Very Helpful</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Helpful</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 (2 \text{ df.}) = 17.15 \quad (P < .001) \]

Interpretations

In the case of instructional participation responses followed a pattern similar to that found for observation in the schools. In the 1-3 experiences group more than expected considered the experiences
not helpful or moderately so, whereas fewer than expected considered them as being very helpful. In contrast, in the 7+ experiences group more than expected rated them as being very helpful, and fewer than expected rated them as being not or moderately helpful.

Findings

Table 12 presents the chi-square analysis of responses regarding teacher-assistant participation of a non-instructional nature.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES TO QUESTION 8e.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ON PARTICIPATION (TEACHER-ASSISTANT—NON-INSTRUCTIONAL)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating of Experience</th>
<th>Number of Experiences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not + Moderately Helpful</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Helpful</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 (1 \text{ df.}) = 8.50 (\text{P}<.005) \]

Interpretations

For the 1-3 experiences group more than expected rated the experiences as not helpful or moderately helpful, whereas fewer than expected rated them as very helpful. For the 4+ experiences group, however, fewer than expected rated them as not or moderately helpful, and more than expected rated them as very helpful.
Findings

Table 13 shows the chi-square analysis of responses with regard to tutoring of individual pupils.

Table 13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating of Experience</th>
<th>Number of Experiences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-3 (E)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not + Moderately Helpful</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Helpful</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 (1 \text{ df.}) = 7.82 \quad (P < .01) \]

Interpretations

For the 1-3 experiences group more than expected rated the experiences as being not or moderately helpful, and fewer than expected rated them as being very helpful. While more than expected in the 4+ experiences group rated the experiences as being very helpful, fewer than expected rated them as being not or moderately helpful.

Findings

Table 14 gives the chi-square analysis of responses concerning participation in recreational, camp, social, and other leadership activities in the community.
### TABLE 14

**CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES TO QUESTION 8i. ON PARTICIPATION (LEADERSHIP ACTIVITIES IN THE COMMUNITY)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating of Experiences</th>
<th>Number of Experiences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1—3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0  E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not + Moderately Helpful</td>
<td>18 11.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Helpful</td>
<td>2  8.45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 (1 \text{ df.}) = 15.32 \text{ (} \phi < .001 \text{) } \]

**Interpretations**

In the case of leadership activities in the community the same trend is noted. More than expected in the 1—3 experiences group found the experiences to be either not or moderately helpful, whereas fewer than expected of this group rated them as very helpful. In the 4+ experiences group, however, fewer than expected rated the experiences as being only moderately or not helpful, whereas more than expected rated them as being very helpful.

**Findings**

With respect to the use of interaction analysis or other observation system, it should be noted that only 39 of the 167 individuals returning the questionnaire reported having had this type of experience.
Table 15 presents the chi-square analysis of responses regarding the use of interaction analysis or any other observation system.

**TABLE 15**

**CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES TO QUESTION 8j ON USE OF INTERACTION ANALYSIS OR OTHER OBSERVATION SYSTEM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating of Experiences</th>
<th>Number of Experiences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not + Moderately Helpful</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Helpful</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 (1 \text{ df.}) = 8.81 \quad (P < .005) \]

**Interpretations**

Once again we observe that the more experiences the student had, the more likely he was to say that they were very helpful. More than expected in the 1-3 experiences group found the experiences to be either not or moderately helpful, whereas fewer than expected of this group rated them as very helpful. In the 4+ experiences group, however, fewer than expected rated the experiences as being only moderately or not helpful, whereas more than expected rated them as being very helpful.

**Findings**

In Table 16 we see the chi-square analysis of responses regarding experiences with pupils from contrasting schools and communities.
### TABLE 16

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES TO QUESTION 8k. ON EXPERIENCES WITH PUPILS FROM CONTRASTING SCHOOLS AND COMMUNITIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating of Experiences</th>
<th>Number of Experiences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1—3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0   E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not + Moderately Helpful</td>
<td>10  6.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Helpful</td>
<td>11  14.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 (1 \text{ df.}) = 5.11 \ (P < .025) \]

**Interpretations**

The more experiences the student had, the more valuable they were in his eyes.

An identical trend was found for all other items with the exception of direct observation of a nonschool nature out in the community. These analyses are found in Appendix B.

**Question 9, Page 4. Professional Laboratory Experiences Performed in the College Career except in the Special Methods Course**

With the experiences executed in other than the special methods course the same trend that obtained with Question 8 (that is to say, the more experiences they had, the higher the evaluation of the experiences) also was found to be true with Question 9.

In the case of the following items the chi-square was significant: (1) direct observation in schools in foreign language,
(2) indirect observation in a school setting, (3) indirect observation in the community (nonschool), (4) participation—teacher—assistant (instructional), (5) participation—teacher assistant (non—instruction type), (6) tutoring of individual pupils, (7) participation—leadership activities in the community, (8) use of Interaction Analysis or other observation system, and (9) experiences with pupils from contrasting schools and communities.

With the remaining items either the chi-square was not significant or it could not be performed because the data did not meet the requirements of the test. However, in each instance a trend identical to the aforesaid was noted.

The contributions and possible contributions of the various types of experiences will be discussed in Chapter VIII.
CHAPTER VIII

TOWARD DEVELOPING PROTOTYPES

In this study professional laboratory experiences have been viewed with particular attention being focused on their relationship and possible relationship to an existing division of teacher education—the special methods area—as a point of departure in generating prototypes for helping people learn how to teach foreign languages, or, better yet, for helping them become effective and efficient teachers of foreign languages.

Sources

The needs and problems of beginning teachers and student teachers as expressed by them through the questionnaire survey conducted in conjunction with this study and as indicated in the literature as well as relevant current ideas have served as major frames of reference to indicate what is important in the learner and how to go about affecting it. Other sources include describers of the on-the-job performance of foreign language teachers considered to be effective by experts in the field, cooperating teachers, foreign language supervisors and consultants, foreign language educationists, authors of textbooks and professional journal articles, and researchers in areas such as teaching, communication and auditory discrimination.
There are many reasons for drawing on diverse sources in the process of building ideas and moving toward the generating of prototypes. Some will be suggested here.

All concerned members of society should have a voice in defining needs and determining which deserve attention. Perhaps changes in what exists and the capacity to produce further changes should be considered continuing major societal goals. Relevant current ideas are emphasized in this study, because goals may be derived not only from examination of the present but also from extrapolation of current trends to the future. Our most important output may be the generating of people who are themselves flexible and who in turn generate change.

We have not limited ourselves to dealing with areas which constitute a problem for certain people, since we need foreign language teachers who are competent in many areas in addition to those treated to help solve specific problems. An individual may experience difficulty in handling a required activity. Perhaps we should question whether that particular activity should be required. The existing reality may be undesirable, and we are in danger of finding out that we have had difficulty solving something that did not need to be solved at all. Maybe the real teaching problem is not one of handling a particular drill but rather one of getting off a plateau and into thinking in the language. The how-to-teach problem should be approached only after the what and when to teach have been confronted. A job can grow in an evolutionary way out of the needs of the environment and may not be at all what the job specification sheet shows. As behavior changes need changes, and new objectives are required.
At this point in our thinking we have an account of present and predicted needs or a series of needs with respect to the professional preparation of the teacher of modern foreign languages. Many people have been involved in the process, some directly and others more indirectly. Ideally planning and decision-making would involve an even more varied group of participants. Representatives of all departments, divisions and entities involved in the preparation of the teacher would participate in the planning and decision-making related to his preparation. The primary responsibility, however, is that of those engaged more specifically in teacher education. Traditionally the prospective teacher of foreign language takes courses in the particular foreign language and literature. He may take courses in methods and applied linguistics. Since these courses may be conducted in different and unrelated departments, they often have objectives peculiar to the particular discipline they represent. There is no guarantee that these courses are worked into an interacting pattern of common design. For this reason we might wish to conceive of the education of foreign language teachers as a system. In this way the parts of the various entities would be interrelated and designed to interact in order to attain predetermined goals.

The Advisory Committee helped analyze the data obtained through the questionnaire. While the writer was advised by this committee on a number of interpretations of the data, the writer assumes full responsibility for the text presented here. The findings and interpretations are found in Chapter VII. The findings of this study were compared with the statements of need that others in the field have
been producing, and an attempt was made to develop a preference scale or hierarchy of needs to serve as a basis for generating objectives. The Advisory Committee agreed to the general purpose for the foreign language methods course, helped analyze this purpose, and, through a process of gradual specification, formulated a set of broad objectives. The results of these efforts follow.

**General Purpose of the Foreign Language Methods Course**

To produce teachers who will be able to teach effectively and efficiently the skills of a language in a structured sequence within the cultural context of that language.

**Broad Objectives of the Foreign Language Methods Course**

To provide the prospective teacher with the opportunity to:

1. Develop the ability to state the objectives of foreign language instruction at every level in behavioral terms in all areas where appropriate and especially where learning of basic skills is concerned.

2. Develop the ability to evaluate the progress and diagnose the deficiencies of student performance in the light of the objectives developed as well as to evaluate his own teaching effectiveness.

3. Develop the ability to teach the four basic skills of listening comprehension, speaking, reading and writing.

4. Develop his problem solving ability by exposing him to various problems he is likely to encounter in his teaching along with a number of possible solutions to these problems.
5. Develop the ability to make judicious selection and use of approaches, methods, techniques, aids, material and equipment, with particular attention being focused on an understanding of the newer media and their advantages and limitations.

6. Develop the ability to relate language instruction to its cultural context.

7. Develop the ability to relate foreign language to the total curriculum as well as to specific areas of the curriculum.

8. Develop a professional attitude toward language instruction.

9. Develop the ability to present works of literary merit in such a way as to help the student understand them and appreciate their values.

From the broad objectives the Committee moved toward more specific objectives. The analysis and design stage led to thinking in terms of components needed to achieve the ends and thereby alleviate the needs. In the light of specific objectives, we considered various learning tasks and sets of learning tasks. The first major question raised had to do with which task areas could be handled best and most uniquely in the special methods course. We also had to consider matters such as prerequisites and the sequencing of task areas. Each task area or subsystem will produce competence peculiar to its own objectives, and, hopefully, they will support each other and produce teachers with predetermined performance capabilities. Let us look at the problem of the teaching of literary appreciation as an example. It would seem that not even the most ideal special methods course could
give the prospective language teacher all the skills he would need in order to perform this task satisfactorily. Perhaps task areas could be shared, or the task area which could be handled best and most uniquely in the Introduction to Literature course would be handled there and the accomplishment of those particular functions would be used as an entry point to the methods course, in which course another task area or portion of task area would be handled, and together they would help the student move closer to his goal. It is in the introductory literature course rather than in the methods course where the prospective teacher can become sensitized to beauty conveyed through choice of words and where he can feel drawn to the work of a given poet or novelist to whose writings he would later introduce his high school pupils with contagious inspiration. It is in the methods course where he could practice his teaching skill. Sustaining some students in their eagerness and arousing others from their lethargy can be accomplished only by a combination of fire, personal involvement and teaching skill.

The second major question raised had to do with which learning tasks could be handled best and most uniquely in the special methods course through professional laboratory experiences ways as compared to non-laboratory experiences ways. This called for a long look at the contributions and possible contributions of professional laboratory experiences.

**Contributions of Professional Laboratory Experiences**

The purpose of this study is to explore present and possible uses of professional laboratory experiences in the special methods
component in an effort to improve the component. Neither formal re-
search nor theoretical statements provide much help in identifying the
effects of the use of professional laboratory experiences as an inte-
gral part of the teacher preparation program. The subjective judg-
ments of keen observers could be turned into precise hypotheses which
could be tested through research. Then the findings from such re-
search could guide those who design teacher education curricula.
There are various guides, handbooks and textbooks available to help
teacher education students and their supervisors achieve profitable
laboratory experiences. These materials, however, do not postulate
the relationship between certain types of laboratory experience ob-
jectives and certain types of laboratory situations. Perhaps the
type of laboratory experiences which is appropriate at any given time
is a function of the type of objective being pursued. If such is the
case, we should be doing more work on the classifying of objectives.

The definition of laboratory experience presented by K. Fred
Daniel might serve as a general objective for professional laboratory
experiences. He defined it in terms of the purposes for which it is
provided thus:

It comprises those situations which are established for the
purpose of enabling students (a) to develop through induction
an understanding of the applicability of teaching principles
and a clearer concept of the nature of teaching, and/or (b) to
develop skill in teaching.¹

In a study such as this which concerns itself primarily with
pre-student teaching laboratory experiences the general goal for them
might be "readiness for student teaching." From the literature and
practice we might come up with the broad general objective of
"professional growth." Broad general goals, however, do not give us much direction, so we need to move to more and more specific objectives.

The Flowers Report presents the contribution of laboratory experiences as follows:

**Principle I.** The particular contribution of professional laboratory experiences (including student teaching) to the education of teachers is three-fold: (1) an opportunity to implement theory—both to study the pragmatic value of the theory and to check with the student his understanding of the theory in application; (2) a field of activity which, through raising questions and problems, helps the student to see his needs for further study; and (3) an opportunity to study with the student his ability to function effectively when guiding actual teaching-learning situations.2

Specific objectives are seen in Principle III, which urges extensive guided contact with learners "to contribute to functional understanding of human growth and development," and in Principle IV, which recommends that experiences be designed "to afford opportunity for responsible participation in all of the important phases of the teacher's activities, both in and out of school."3

With respect to pre-student teaching laboratory experiences Ort has suggested that we start with these more specific objectives for the students:

1. Development of sensitivity: to a teacher's roles; to the needs and nature of children; to the nature of learning processes and the immediate implications for teaching processes that are closely related

2. Development of insight: into each item listed above; into himself as a teacher-to-be; into curriculum structure and development

3. Development of teaching skills
4. Refinement of teaching skills

5. Changes in perception. Perhaps this is a restatement of the other ideas, but it seems to be highly related to the process of changes in behavior. As such it can become a tangible goal.  

Since a comprehensive theoretical base for professional laboratory experiences is not yet available, practical alternatives must be considered. A set of hypothetical objectives and possible contributions of all types of laboratory experiences could be developed. The alternative chosen here was that of compiling a list which represents in large part an informal composite of the accumulated subjective judgment of many faculty members who have designed experiences for their students, tried and evaluated them. Many experiences have been conceived and explored, and some research and reports of practice now point to their actual and possible contributions. It is hoped that this list will serve as a practical tool in course design for the present time. Let us now examine the contributions and possible contributions of professional laboratory experiences as culled from the literature.

Purposes of Professional Laboratory Experiences

Micro-teaching

Purposes

1. To develop fundamental skills.

2. To improve the ability to diagnose and state behavioral objectives.

3. To provide an opportunity for those who are preparing to teach to obtain a liberal amount of practice early, under optimum
conditions for the prospective teacher and without endangering the learning of pupils.

4. To individualize pre-service education by making possible variation in amount and type of practice according to the needs of the prospective teacher.

5. To reduce the complex teaching act to concentrate on its various components.

6. To provide an environment in which methods or teaching techniques may be systematically investigated and improved.

7. To rate total performance through the use of immediate pupil feedback.

8. To permit several judges to evaluate and to re-evaluate a single performance.

9. To increase the accuracy of the prospective teacher's self-perception of his teaching performance through identification of weaknesses as well as strengths.

10. To provide a reality test (through the opportunity to understand the various tasks comprising teaching) to help the prospective teacher decide if he really wants to become a teacher.

11. To help the prospective teacher develop an objective attitude to the point that he can take criticism objectively.

12. To insure variety of types of pupils (age, sex, and so forth).

13. To test alternative approaches to a particular problem, with immediate feedback.
14. To acquaint one with and test out instructional materials and techniques before their introduction to the classroom.

15. To provide the prospective teacher the opportunity to relate theory to practice.

Observation—direct
Purpose

1. To strengthen understanding by exposure to reality, which adds feeling and other sensory impressions to verbalized knowledge.

2. To develop professional understanding of concepts and theories from professional and related disciplines.

3. To facilitate the testing out of educational principles.

4. To facilitate the integration of theoretical and practical aspects of the professional sequence.

Observation—indirect
Purposes

1. To develop understanding of concepts and theories.

2. To provide an opportunity to acquire, use and test information.

3. To strengthen understanding by exposure to reality.

4. To develop mature professional purposes and attitudes.

5. To develop readiness for professional experiences, professional growth, and full-responsibility teaching.

6. To provide a basis for personal decision on making teaching a career.
Participation—in the community

Purposes

1. To provide a basis for making a decision as to a teaching career.

2. To develop a commitment to pupils' welfare, to serving the community and to utilizing its resources in one's teaching.

3. To develop readiness for professional experiences, professional growth, and full-responsibility teaching.

4. To develop mature purposes and attitudes.

5. To provide a feeling of personal worth—the satisfaction that comes from giving useful professional service.

6. To provide opportunities for insight stretching.

Participation—in the school

Purposes

1. To provide opportunities for problem identification.

2. To provide opportunities for reinforcement of learning.

3. To provide for reality testing with respect to a teaching career.

4. To develop readiness for professional experiences, professional growth, and full-responsibility teaching.

5. To provide an opportunity to acquire, use and test information.

6. To develop mature professional purposes and attitudes.

7. To strengthen understanding by exposure to reality.

8. To develop understanding of concepts and theories.
9. To develop professional skill.

10. To provide a basis for evaluating professional, social and personal growth.

11. To facilitate the testing out of educational principles.

12. To acquaint the prospective teacher with operations of the classroom and the nature of high school pupils.

13. To facilitate the relating of theory to practice.

Simulation Purposes

1. To present a total picture of a complex situation, requiring the prospective teacher to make professional judgments and decisions—to utilize his best understanding and principles as a basis for decision making in choosing and designing certain teaching behaviors which he would employ in the particular situation.

2. To enhance sensitivity to the needs of pupils and to the environment and social factors affecting the school and its functions.

3. To help the prospective teacher to better understand himself and his feelings toward others.

4. To provide the opportunity to learn instructional principles.

5. To provide an opportunity to study teaching behavior, curriculum, social relationships, values and individual differences.

6. To introduce the prospective teacher to the realities of the classroom in a controlled fashion and allow him to practice specific behaviors in a variety of realistic situations.
7. To provide life-like learning situations in which theory and practice are joined.

8. To permit participants to
   a) assume the role of a teacher;
   b) have access to and use of related, appropriate professional information and materials and unfettered opportunities to solve critical problems of beginning teachers;
   c) have exposure to a variety of potential solutions to particular problems; and
   d) consider possible consequences of their problem-solving behavior.

9. To permit each prospective teacher to analyze his own classroom behavior.

10. To encourage each prospective teacher to "stretch" his teaching behavior by employing alternative solutions to classroom problems.

11. To teach the learner how to apply and evaluate courses of action at the choice points.

12. To help the prospective teacher develop methods of coping with classroom problems.

**Stimulus or critical incident films**

**Purposes**

1. To focus attention on principles from educational psychology and methodology.
2. To assist prospective teachers in the development of bases for decision-making.

Interaction analysis

Purposes

1. To help the prospective teacher to be more self-analytical and more precise in stating his instructional objectives.
2. To help him understand more clearly the degrees and kinds of influences he exercises in the classroom through talking.
3. To help him shape his verbal behavior.
4. To help him develop skill in observation of teaching.
5. To provide him with a framework for practicing and learning specific teaching skills.
6. To help bridge the gap between theory and practice.

Criteria for selecting professional laboratory experiences for the special methods component should be considered. Student needs and problems would serve as a major criterion for the selection of an experience. Plans should be flexible enough so that the student can plan with his adviser in terms of his needs and purposes. The student should see the need for the experience, and he should assume increasing responsibility for his experiences. He should be helped in integrating professional laboratory experiences with other experiences of the methods course and with other experiences in the curriculum. Evaluation of the experiences should be continuous and made in terms of his personal aims and the aims of the professional laboratory experiences. We would, of course, direct ourselves to the more specific
aims of professional laboratory experiences in the special methods course. Among the more specific aims of laboratory experiences in the foreign language methods course would be the developing of an understanding of the application of teaching principles and a clearer concept of the nature of teaching and particularly language teaching, developing of the ability to recognize, assess and solve teaching-learning problems, developing of the ability to be self-critical, developing an effectiveness in securing and using to advantage materials for teaching-learning situations and developing of teaching skills through practice.

Before moving toward general designs we will review the contributions of the present study up to this point. The writer has reviewed the literature with respect to the use of professional laboratory experiences in the special methods component and in the teacher education program in general. New data have been gathered through the questionnaire survey, and critical problem areas for beginning teachers of foreign language have been identified. Ideas culled from the reading seem to be relevant to the problems identified. The purpose of the review of the literature was to provide a background for making suggestions as to how to handle the critical problems in the special methods component. Due to the uncontrolled nature of the literature, the writer is not able to recommend with any empirical basis how professional laboratory experiences can be used in the special methods component. Before moving to the developing of general models with a high degree of confidence, the writer suggests that the purposes in the "Purposes of Professional Laboratory Experiences" section be turned
into testable hypotheses by future researchers. Once these hypotheses have been tested, they will have direct implications for model methods courses. In fact, each purpose may lend itself to several hypotheses. In the meantime the literature has suggested many ways to meet the critical needs the beginning teachers have identified. Implications for professional laboratory experiences as well as other than professional laboratory experiences are suggested below. These are suggestions, and the lists are not necessarily complete.

Critical Problems of Beginning and Student Teachers

Problem 1: Motivation, holding pupil interest

A. Implications for professional laboratory experiences

1. Foreign language in action—viewing of how students use the language and their various reactions to it—via direct observation (Examples: visits to the Spanish Day House, a regular classroom, French Club meeting) or via indirect observation (Examples: movies taken of students' trips to a Mexican restaurant and the Art Institute).

2. Videotapes of especially effective presentations to demonstrate specific aspects of language teaching. Each of these aspects demonstrated by several different teachers in order to show a variety of approaches. Directed and controlled observation followed by immediate discussion focused on such matters as differences in teaching and learning styles.
3. Videotapes of demonstrations of the personal relationships within the classroom, that is, student-teacher interaction. Demonstrations varying from techniques for motivating achievement to the handling of discipline.

4. Using an observation system such as Flanders' Interaction Analysis or Moskowitz' FLint to help the teacher understand more clearly the degrees and kinds of influences he exercises through talking.

5. Using a nonverbal observation system (such as Galloway's) to objectively look at and classify nonverbal communication. (Some of the nonverbal aspects of vocal communication may be particularly important for stimulating the emotional experiences which seem to be central in getting people permanently interested in doing better at the tasks they undertake.)

6. Participation in the community—to get an idea of the student's interests and what motivates him.

7. Participation in the school—teacher aide, "bit" teaching.

8. Simulated laboratory experience requiring participants to consider motivational techniques.


11. Micro-teaching concentrated on the following skills:
   a) set induction, b) clarity of aims, c) pacing of the lesson, d) pupil participation and attention, e) involving and interesting students, f) teacher-pupil rapport.

B. Implications for other than professional laboratory experiences

1. Suggestions, discussion and action regarding
   a) Proper pacing in teaching a lesson,
   b) Active student participation,
   c) Short use of audiovisual aids,
   d) Introducing resources from the community,
   e) Uses of language so that pupils see a purpose in learning it, and
   f) Teaching language and culture through role playing.

2. Since recent learning theory suggests that getting attention so that the message will be received is perhaps more important than reinforcement or reward, educational technology is particularly important. Getting attention seems to be largely a function of exposing one to stimuli which are moderately discrepant from expectation. The methods teacher's use of media in the methods class could set an example. Possible suggestions would include the establishing of a cultural
island in the foreign language classroom. In this total immersion situation all sorts of educational technology properly used could mean total involvement of the pupils and, hopefully, the getting of attention in such a way as to arouse the desire to achieve.

3. Making self-study easier. The methods students can engage in the micro-teaching of peers or pupils and become more self-analytical by using audiotape or videotape playback and an observation system. Later they might, in turn, play back an audiotape of a discussion by their own high school pupils. Educational technology can help give the person new information about himself and break up his conventional ways of thinking about himself. This kind of revision in his self picture is needed if he is to incorporate a stronger need to achieve into himself.

Problem 2: Eliciting responses and original ideas

A. Implications for professional laboratory experiences

1. Observation via videotaped episodes along with use of Galloway's nonverbal observation system and the Flanders or Moskowitz verbal system.

2. Observation via film, audiotape or closed-circuit television.

3. Direct observation in the school.

4. Participation in the school (teacher aide, "bit" teaching).
5. Tutoring of individual pupils.

6. Participation—micro-teaching of pupils, with and/or without videotape playback.

7. Participation—leadership activities in the community (recreational, social, camp, and so forth).

8. Micro-teaching focused on
   a) training in the control of participation in the classroom,
   b) training in the use of frames of reference,
   c) training in statement analysis and questioning techniques,
   d) training in which types of questions to ask and when and in what patterns,
   e) training in extending and using learners' ideas,
   f) training in clues and promptings to give,
   g) training in how much and what kind of structuring to do for the learner,
   h) training in how to lift levels of thought,
   i) training in what kinds of praise to use.

B. Implications for other than professional laboratory experiences

1. Suggestions and discussion regarding the following:
   a) accepting one-word answers,
   b) building on one-word answers,
   c) realistic expectations with respect to student achievement at the various levels,
   d) positive attitude, commendations and gestures on the part of the teacher,
   e) building confidence by asking for group response first, then individual, calling on the better students first, and so forth.
Problem 3: Relating theory to practice

A. Implications for professional laboratory experiences

1. Videotape episodes of
   a) a real master teacher,
   b) a methods student or student teacher micro-teaching pupils.

2. Indirect observation via film, closed-circuit television, one-way glass (using an observation system).

3. Direct observation in the classroom.

4. Micro-teaching—its very structure encourages a combination of theory and practice.

5. Participation—"bit" or exploratory teaching.

6. Tutoring an individual pupil, then teaching him in a small group and later in a normal-sized class.

7. Simulation—provides life-like learning situations in which theory and practice are joined. (Examples: micro-teaching of peers, teaching problems laboratory, and so forth)

B. Implications for other than professional laboratory experiences

1. Discussions with local high school teachers as guests.

2. Discussions involving high school students, high school teachers, and foreign language consultants.
Problem 4: Developing desirable and realistic foreign language course objectives at various levels

A. Implications for professional laboratory experiences

1. Indirect observation—in schools. Use of videotape, film, and filmstrip to portray passage of time. A series of edited videotaped episodes for viewing of consecutive classes to show continuity and the attainment of long-range objectives and the observation of classes at different levels and in a variety of schools to give the methods student a well-rounded view of a total language sequence.

2. Direct observation—in schools and in the community.

3. Participation—teacher-assistant type.


5. Use of Interaction Analysis or other observation system to help methods students to be more precise in stating their instructional objectives.

B. Implications for other than professional laboratory experiences

1. Practice in writing educational objectives which are behavioral according to Mager's criteria.

2. Experience in writing a unit or a portion of a program.

3. Sessions with guest speakers such as local foreign language consultants, chairmen of foreign language departments in the high school, high school administrators, and state supervisors.
Problem 5.5: Developing materials

A. Implications for professional laboratory experiences
   1. Direct observation—in the schools.
   2. Indirect observation—in school setting.
   3. Viewing of videotaped micro-teaching sessions to dis­
      cover student reactions to a variety of instructional
      materials used at various levels.
   4. Participation in the school and community.
   5. Developing of small packages to be used in a classroom
      situation while keeping in mind learning theory and
      substantive verity. Methods student's visiting of
      contrasting schools and situations and working with a
      high school teacher—perhaps the same teacher he
      worked with as a sophomore or junior and will be work­
      ing with as a student teacher. Sitting in grocery
      stores, churches, and so forth to get the feel of the
      community. (This experience in selecting activities
      and writing programs for them should help him to be
      more confident when he has to write up plans and ac­
      tivities for a school year. This procedure may be a
      combination of an audiovisual tutorial and programmed
      instruction.)
   6. Tutoring of individual pupils.

B. Implications for other than professional laboratory
   experiences
   1. A workshop approach to the developing of materials.
2. Sessions with guest speakers who are specialists in developing materials, revising instructional materials, and creating supplementary units.

3. Laboratories which make it possible for the student to instruct himself in the production of materials and/or to develop the necessary skills in the operation of equipment. (Example: the Audio Visual Self-Study Center at Northeastern Illinois State College)

Problem 5, 5: Solving teaching-learning problems

A. Implications for professional laboratory experiences

1. Direct observation and participation—in the schools and in the community.

2. Simulation—for exposing methods students to a variety of potential solutions to particular problems and to the possible consequences of their problem-solving behavior.

3. Indirect observation via film, closed-circuit television, audiotape, videotape and one-way glass followed by discussion.


5. Tutoring of individual pupils.

6. Using of audiotapes and videotapes of unrehearsed activities.

7. Viewing of critical incident films to develop a basis for decision-making. Discussion of films.
B. Implications for other than professional laboratory experiences

1. Teachers from local high schools as guests to discuss their problems with the methods class.

2. Suggestions in the areas of referring to professional sources, sharing of information, and professional responsibility.

It would seem that the problem of individual differences is very much related to many other areas and may be reflected in the high ranks of all of those items which rank above it as the number 7 problem.

In Bennie's survey of beginning teachers "meeting individual differences among pupils" ranked first. In the Richings study the problem was also found to be a major one. We probably know more about individual differences and do less about them than we do in any other area of schooling. It does not appear that individually prescribed instruction will have swept the country before the middle or even end of this decade. The potentialities of nongrading, team teaching and modular scheduling have not yet been realized. Perhaps we will have to pay more attention to the single human being in the learning setting. Even with the recent display of alienation we are often still unwilling to give the student any authority, any responsibility or any real role in planning.

The activities of the college student should probably be moving more and more out into the schools and the community, and he
should be working with the high school teachers earlier in a more
flexible preparation program. As we provide more individualization at
the prospective teacher level we may produce teachers who are more
likely to provide for more of the same at the pupil level. Certainly
little if any use has been made of programmed learning materials in
the college methods classes. Programmed learning sequences might be
used in such areas as constructing a teaching unit. The use of simu­
lation and controlled observation via videotape episodes followed by
discussion, as well as clinical experiences, should be helpful in try­
ing to identify and meet individual differences. Tutoring of pupils
as individuals and in small groups, exploratory teaching and other
forms of participation should also prove beneficial.

Problem 8 deals with location and use of resources within the
community and will probably be remedied to a great extent if and when
the activities of the college student move more and more out into the
schools. Teacher aides in assisting the classroom teacher might well
have to find solutions to problems by locating materials and resources
in the community as well as in the school or school system.

Anticipating student reactions to various teaching behaviors
is problem 9. Use of well-edited videotape episodes followed by dis­
cussion would be one of the ways in which the reactions of students
might be depicted. Direct and indirect observation as well as partic­
ipation in the form of "bit" teaching or tutoring should prove help­
ful.

Preparing audiovisual aids appeared as problem 10. Some of
the activities suggested for developing materials would also apply
here. The actual preparation may be the function of a special workshop or a workshop approach in the methods course. Some institutions of higher learning now provide special courses in this area. We need the most effective teacher-made audiovisual aids we can get as well as all that educational technology can contribute in order to convey information simply and vividly, arouse attention, create and sustain an achievement-oriented mood, stimulate fantasy, encourage participation and make self-study easier. The teacher will have to arrange all of these educational aids in a meaningful way, but once he succeeds he will stand a much better chance of alleviating need number 1, that of motivation and holding pupil interest.

We will move toward a general design which incorporates professional laboratory experiences in such a way as to contribute most to satisfying the students' needs and solving their problems. The general design will be projected for a teacher education institution which serves a large metropolitan area such as Cook County. Many of the high-priority problems as indicated by the results of the survey now become critical objectives for the methods course and, consequently, hold certain implications for the use of professional laboratory experiences in such a course. The design cannot be too rigid if we are to individualize experiences. With a wide range of professionally and expertly designed experiences from which to choose, individual needs can best be met by a large number of general designs or a general design which provides for many alternative paths to the goals specified. Improved experiences would call for a joint effort of schools and colleges in the design phase. We would have to be able
to relate a series of experiences so that a pattern of planned scope, sequence and continuity could be provided in order to bring about integrated programs of experiences. Cooperative school-college ventures would be vital in making the programs effective.

Each methods course would define itself differently, and there would be no one specific model, since the types of experiences required would depend on the goals and tasks of the particular individuals and the group. The organization of the laboratory experiences for each group, and, in fact, each individual, would differ.

Professional educators representing different philosophies, institutions and situations should move toward generating general designs and sharing their thinking in this regard. These cooperative efforts would be especially valuable in moving toward a competent theoretical base. The alternative paths or different types of experiences could be evaluated sooner with a consortium approach.

It seems that it would be better to have various professional educators develop simple general designs whose components could be tested than to expend time and energy in developing models which are so elaborate that most institutions will not be able to implement them. This writer presents one such simple general design.

General Design for the Foreign Language Methods Course

I. Assumptions

A. Learning is changing; therefore, our world needs teacher education institutions, teachers and students in whom acceptance
of positive change, that is, the continuing learning process, is an outstanding characteristic.

B. Experiential learning will meet this societal need. In this type of learning the person is very much involved. It is self-initiated learning. It is learning that makes a difference in the individual's behavior, in his actions, in his attitudes and in his personality.

C. A teacher cannot be expected to facilitate experiential learning in his own classroom if his own learning is not of this type.

II. Purposes of the General Design

To provide the prospective teacher with the opportunity to:

A. Contribute meaningfully to the design and development of the methods course.

B. Develop his problem-solving ability by being exposed to various problems as well as to a number of possible solutions to these problems.

C. Demonstrate his ability, under both simulated and live conditions, to effect changes in the behavior of pupils that reflect outcomes desired for them, especially in the area of the four basic skills.

D. Develop the ability to state the behavioral objectives of foreign language instruction at the various levels.

E. Develop the ability to evaluate student performance as well as his own.
III. The Climate for the Experiential Learning Process in the Foreign Language Methods Course

A. The prospective teacher must have the opportunity to be face-to-face with a problem which is meaningful to him.

B. The methods teacher should be a real person in the sense that he should meet his students on a direct person-to-person basis.

C. The methods teacher should accept the student, prize his feelings, opinions and potentialities, and display a basic confidence in the student's capacity to learn and perform.

D. The methods teacher has the ability to empathize with his students.

E. The methods teacher must provide resources for learning—lab equipment, tools, supplies, opportunities for observation and participation, written resources, personal contact with individuals whose work can contribute to learning, and so forth. The methods teacher will have to organize resources in an imaginative manner and make them easily and psychologically available if he is to be effective.

IV. Suggested Methods, Procedures, Activities and Organization Contributing to Experiential Learning in the Methods Course

A. Inquiry and self-criticism: Methods students are allowed to discover problems. They may be given two minutes to prepare a pattern drill for presentation on television. Let them have the experience first, then give them the information they prove they need. When they make the right moves,
reinforce. Teacher demonstration as well as analyzing what the student did can come after the fact. The methods student who performed criticizes himself in accordance with what the pupil did, and the methods teacher does some guiding. Peers and pupils also criticize. The student reteaches using the same material then reteaches using new material. Students learn to criticize incisively. This self-criticism method helps them create a format for themselves no matter where they may go to teach.

B. Participative learning: The methods teacher creates such a climate in the classroom that students feel that it is their course and that they can build the learning experiences in such a way as to meet their own goals and needs. The teacher maximizes student involvement so that the student may achieve a high degree of independence and self-confidence. Relevance of the course is also assured in this way.

C. Learning through simulation: A complex situation is simulated and the students take the roles of those participating in the event, thus having to make professional judgments and decisions.

D. Programmed instruction: The prospective teacher can use short "plug-in" programs to fill in his own gaps. Involvement in the developing of programs of instruction or small packages should help him understand the learning process of his pupils.
E. The teacher creates an atmosphere of mutuality the first day by indicating that they are all teachers together and will help each other by getting up and teaching for one another on television. What they do from then on will depend on what happens in the televising.

F. The methods students could televise with a group of high school students. The high school teacher might work for the university and bring the students to the campus or they might go out to the high school or both.

G. The methods students might want to "adopt" pupils and help them by tutoring them as compensation for their time in televising.

H. The composition of the group would be flexible. It might consist of six high school teachers, six methods students and five paid university assistants. Four methods students might work with one pupil, four or sixteen.

I. The methods instructor might bring various possible textbooks for the course the first day of class. The students might examine them in class and then take them home. At the next meeting of the class the students would be asked to select a text and tell why. The methods instructor would furnish guidance with respect to criteria for selecting a text for the course. They might all discuss the criteria. The student actually helps tear the book apart so that he will be in a better position to get the most out of it.
Implications for Teacher Education

Barring system breaks within teacher education it is probably safe to assume that teacher education will continue primarily under the aegis of colleges and universities in increasingly urban settings. Program-influencing forces will include liberal arts college specialists in disciplines or interdisciplines and specialists in professional education whether organized in departments, schools, colleges or other ways. These programs may be influenced in changing ways by such institutions as federal government, state departments of education, professional associations, unions and certification bodies. An important additional influencing force will be the prospective teachers themselves, for the voices of the students will be heard. Future teachers will be asked more and more what experiences they feel are most helpful to them. At The Ohio State University the prospective teachers of modern foreign language indicated that they considered the foreign language methods course to be the most helpful course in their entire college career. They were referring to a specific course which included many opportunities to micro-teach. Many prospective teachers are requesting experiences involving opportunities to teach in front of peers and high-school-age students.

In many colleges students are participating in curriculum planning. In various colleges the foreign language requirement is being dropped or substantially reduced, and, in time, similar treatment may be expected at the high school level. This trend has led to some thinking in terms of core programs. At a time when there is much emphasis on relevancy the core program should be considered, since it
represents an effort to relate the program to life problems and student interests. Major problems here would include lack of research and materials for an interdisciplinary approach, lack of competent teachers to teach with the plan, the fact that the minds of teachers and curriculum people are conditioned to specialized areas, the high degree of organization needed to bring two or more specialized subjects together and problems related to credits and transcripts. Interdisciplinary programs with supportive coursework as opposed to courses which are additive in nature are now being considered at various levels of education. There is a general consensus that a core curriculum could be implemented in most colleges of education, and several kinds of integrated programs have been mentioned in this study. It is probably safe to assume that prospective teachers who have participated in a core curriculum implemented by the teacher education institution would be in a better position to teach in a core program in high school than those who have had no experience of this type. This type of program would call for optimum cooperation of teacher educators and would suggest the question as to how the foreign language methods specialist could function best and most uniquely in such a setup. Ideally the methods specialist as well as other teacher educators would be involved throughout the teacher preparation program and would not be expected to simply put on a few finishing touches toward the end of the student's college career.

At a time when we are witnessing a trend toward even more specialization in various areas, we see a trend toward general supervision. This may be due to the cost factor, the lack of supervisors,
and the fact that with the use of observation systems the generalist can evaluate interaction even if he does not know the language. Many student teachers are being sent out to communities in which they live during the student teaching period. The generalist goes on a circuit to do the supervising. In this case the teacher educator does not function as a specialist in a certain subject-matter area such as foreign language. The various specialists should function at the most propitious places and times in the student's career in order to help him. This may mean that the foreign language methods specialist should play a role earlier in the preparation program by having various contacts with students in seminars held in conjunction with foundation courses, by helping in the individualizing of instruction in general methods courses so that the students can undertake projects in their respective fields, by cooperating with other teachers in the professionalizing of courses such as grammar review or applied linguistics, and by assisting in the professional laboratory experience program all along the way. For this reason one might wish to refer to a special methods component rather than to a special methods course as such. There may be specialization within the special methods component or course. In the case of the comprehensive methods class in which the instructor may not master all of the foreign languages involved, he may have the actual classroom teacher or master teacher of the particular language help him in person or have him make model or demonstration videotapes and also evaluate the student's performance on audiotape or videotape. The instructor may also have a specialist in reading include in his reservoir of materials videotaped depiction of successful
reading procedures as well as programs presenting problems posed for
discussion. The literature specialist could also make a contribution.

Trends with respect to expanded population, expanded enroll-
ments, the knowledge explosion and new social problems continue as
does the slow adaptation of teacher education to such fast-moving
social forces as technology. At times it seems that an educator-
industry-government complex composed of private corporations which
develop technologies may be needed. The implications here are for
teacher education which differentiates between what can be learned
through machines and what can be learned through the personal pres-
ence of teacher educators and liberal arts professors. The personal
presence of these individuals may take the form of individual and
group planning conferences, research planning, and field experience
leadership. Students may spend more time in laboratories reflecting
 technological developments. Students individually and in groups will
utilize film and videotape collections, computer-aided instruction,
simulation, models and various information and concept-oriented labo-
ratories. While the students may be on campus for these types of ex-
periences, it would seem that there is a trend toward a substantial
portion of the teacher education program taking place within public
school settings. The trend is to have the classroom teacher be both
a cooperating teacher and a supervisor. The special methods instruc-
tor loses control even in micro-teaching as this activity moves out in-
to the schools. University-related teacher education centers may be
included among educational park facilities. The implication here seems
to be that professional teacher educators may be working within
systems both as partners in the total educational enterprise and as teachers of pre-service and in-service teachers. In the public school setting, prospective teachers may experience evolutionary sequences beginning with observation and going through various levels of participation, including student teaching and possibly culminating in internship. Observation might take place in a variety of settings and participation might be planned to include upper, middle and lower income situations, largely urban and metropolitan, occasionally rural. The various specialists, including those in the foundation areas and special methods, may be concerned with both substantive content and field experiences in school and community. Instruction in the areas of foundations and theory and practice could be synchronized with observation and participation experiences. While some of the instructors in these areas might be engaged in research, others might have as their role the interrelating of issues and ideas with the school and community experiences being encountered by the prospective teacher.

The methods specialist may or may not serve as an adviser throughout a sequence of professional education and may participate in culminating seminars in which representatives of foundational areas of study, theory and practice, and the continuing counselor participate, perhaps in the school or perhaps in the university research and laboratory settings.

The trend has been toward having the prospective teachers of modern foreign language study abroad, since Carroll and others have found this to be a beneficial experience for the student. The concern here has been mainly in the area of proficiency in the speaking of the
language. We might entertain the idea of observations and participa-
tions in language teaching-learning situations abroad. We should also
consider subsidized travel and study experiences abroad, paid involve-
ment working with youth in summer school and community projects and
apprenticeship in research and development with educators who are
carrying on studies or developing learning materials for the various
technologies. A more marked trend toward globalism might mean teach-
ing experiences abroad as well as even more extensive study for our
prospective teachers in modern foreign languages or in a core program
involving foreign language.

There have been various efforts at educational change which
have involved modification of subject matter content, organization,
methods, leadership, research and teacher personnel. We have seen
the FLES program of foreign language instruction in the elementary
school and organizational aspects such as team teaching, the non-
graded school and the core program. Examples of methodological
change include language laboratories, educational television and pro-
grammed instruction. We have seen all kinds of programmatic changes
such as internship in place of student teaching, "Master of Arts in
Teaching" programs and revised undergraduate programs involving in-
creased laboratory experiences with children.

We need more research to determine whether the new programs
and ideas suggested are satisfactory in terms of effectiveness in
making a difference in the lives of the students involved. We might
ask whether the new effort helps realize our educational objectives
more fully or in less time or more lastingly than any other way.
This assumes that the procedure against which comparisons are being made has been previously shown to be the best available procedure. Perhaps we should raise a more profound question: Which resource or combination of resources (people, places, media) is appropriate for teaching what type of subject matter to what type of learner under what conditions (time, place, size of group, and so on) to achieve what purpose? Let us look at a few specific recommendations for further research.

**Recommendations for Further Research**

1. At the present time we cannot build models for the special methods course in which we can recommend with any empirical base how professional laboratory experiences should be used in such a course. No comprehensive theoretical base now exists for the use of professional laboratory experiences in the teacher preparation program. We need research directed to the question of the relative merits of different types of experiences and the effects of different amounts of time spent and various combinations of types. It is suggested that the purposes in the "Purposes of Professional Laboratory Experiences" section of this chapter be turned into testable hypotheses by future researchers. In fact, each purpose may lend itself to several hypotheses. Once these hypotheses have been tested the answers will enable us to move toward developing methods courses based on sound concepts. In this connection, more work needs to be done in the classifying of laboratory experience objectives.

2. It is recommended that work be started as soon as possible
in areas such as determining how and when simulation devices should be used in the professional laboratory experience program of prospective teachers of modern foreign language. The reasoning here is that the use of such devices might reduce considerably the amount of time spent in professional laboratory experiences and would provide greater assurance that the desired learnings have occurred. It seems that it would be desirable to design experimentation in collaboration with other institutions in order to attain necessary replications and applications and more variegated scope and design in an effort to learn the nature and range of application of simulation procedures and what type of simulation is most appropriate for the various types of learning and learner. Experiments need to be designed to find answers to questions such as those suggested here. Are some students "visual minded" so that they do especially well when visual or role-played simulated representations are used? Do some students need more repetition and examples to achieve the same accuracy as others? Are there some students who do not need this experience at all but who would profit from some other activity?

3. It is recommended that studies be made with respect to the use of programmed learning materials in the foreign language methods course. One might ask questions such as the ones suggested here. What effect will these two approaches (methods students exposed to live classroom teacher demonstrations versus audiovisual device self-instruction) have on the students' ability to prepare and/or use non-projected visuals? What effect will these two approaches (methods students exposed to traditional teaching methods versus use of
programmed learning materials) have on the students' ability to prepare teaching units? The use of programmed self-instruction in selected phases of the foreign language methods course might save time which could be used to better advantage in engaging in professional laboratory experiences. If this were our purpose, we would use a time analysis criterion. We might choose to use an attitudinal criterion in some cases. The prospective teacher would also gain much-needed experience in the use of programmed materials in this way.
Dear Modern Foreign Language Teacher:

As instructor of the special (foreign language) methods course at Northeastern, I am conducting a study in an effort to improve the special methods course by providing students with experiences that will more adequately meet their needs.

Your actual experience in teaching foreign language in the secondary school lends special importance to your judgments and opinions concerning the needs and problems of present and prospective teachers in your field, so your cooperation is vital to the success of this study. The fifteen to twenty minutes that will be required to answer the questionnaire are essential in providing the basic data for this study. Please note that almost every item has been structured so that responses can be indicated by simply checking categories. Feel free, however, to add any comments to qualify your answers.

Your replies will be treated with strict confidence. Your name and answers will not be made public in any way. The combined responses of the secondary teachers will be computed by IBM machines and general results will be reported. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to call me at the office (583-4050) or at home (478-0494).

Kindly fill out the four-page questionnaire and return it to me in the enclosed stamped, self-addressed envelope at your very earliest convenience.

Your cooperation is very much appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

Bonnie B. Busse
Assistant Professor of Spanish

BBB/bb

Enclosures

P.S. Abbreviations and definitions of terms used in the questionnaire may be found on the other side of this sheet.
ABBREVIATIONS:

CCTV . .  Closed-Circuit Television
Exprcs. . . Experiences
F.L. (f.l.) . . Foreign Language
No. . . . Number
PA’s . .  Problem Areas (for Beginning Modern Foreign Language Teachers)

DEFINITIONS OF TERMS:

Micro-teaching. A teaching encounter scaled down in class size and class time (usually limited to one to five students and lasting from five to twenty minutes) with predetermined objectives stated for the particular micro-teaching session.

Professional laboratory experiences. All those contacts with children, youth and adults in school and community, including observation, participation, teaching and other leadership activities which make a direct contribution to an understanding of basic concepts and principles as well as individuals and their guidance in the teaching-learning process. (This study is concerned primarily with pre-student teaching professional laboratory experiences.)

Student teaching. A period of guided teaching when a college student assumes increasing responsibility for directing the learning of a group or groups of learners over a period of consecutive weeks.

Peers. Fellow college students or fellow teachers.

Pupils. High school age students (grades 9-12).

Observation. Those opportunities provided for college students to see teaching, learning and all manner of community activities without necessarily becoming involved in the on-going activity itself.

Participation. Those experiences of the college student in which he takes an active part, under direction, in an on-going teaching, learning or other community activity. Also defined as all those activities along a continuum between observation and full responsibility for teaching or directing the activities of a group in a school or other community agency.

General methods. The adaptation of learning content to the learner without reference to the nature of the content or learner involved. (Example: Principles and Techniques of Secondary School Teaching.)

Special methods. The ways by which a teacher may adapt a given field of subject matter to a given group of learners for the purpose of effective learning. In this study "special methods" refers to the courses in which students have an opportunity to study the methodological and professional problems connected with teaching one or more foreign languages. (Examples: The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages; The Teaching of French.)
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#### I. Intensity of Problem during the first year.

*(Check Degree.)*

- None
- Minor
- Moderate
- Major
- Not all PA's

Check those you feel we OR LEAST AS YOUR SPECIA OR NOT TREA Not all PA's.
### Problem Areas for Beginning Modern Foreign Language Teachers

**I. Intensity of Problem during the First Year.**

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**II. Check those Needs (PA's) which you feel were Most Satisfactorily or Least Satisfactorily Met by Your Special (f.l.) Methods Course OR NOT TREATED therein. (Note: Not all PA's need to be checked.)**

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**III. Recommendation RE Treatment of This Problem Area in future special (f.l.) methods courses.**

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(a)</th>
<th>(b)</th>
<th>(c)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Note | (Check one.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(a)</th>
<th>(b)</th>
<th>(c)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>Minor</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please turn over to Page 2
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROBLEM AREAS (referred to as PA's)</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>Minor</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>Major</th>
<th>Not all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21. Making homework assignments</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Review &amp; correction of assignments</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Location and use of resources</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) within the school/school system</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) from professional sources</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) within the community</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Evaluation of textbooks &amp; materials</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Developing materials</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Preparing audio-visual aids</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Using audio-visual aids</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Use of electronic equipment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(language lab, tape recorder, etc.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Developing desirable &amp; realistic f.l. course objectives at various levels</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. Need for training in self-criticism, analysis, &amp; discussion with peers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Anticipating student reactions to various teaching behaviors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Relating theory to practice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Developing of self-confidence as a teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. Understanding of student feelings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. Recognizing teaching-learning problems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. Assessing these problems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. Solving these problems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Eliciting responses &amp; original ideas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. Understanding of pupils &amp; problems of the inner city, outer city or suburbs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. Analysis &amp; comparative value of various methods</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### I. INTENSITY OF PROBLEM during the first year. (Check Degree.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Needs</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>Minor</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>Major</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### II. Check those NEEDS (PA's) which you feel were MOST SATISFACTORILY OR LEAST SATISFACTORILY MET BY YOUR SPECIAL (f.l.) METHODS COURSE OR NOT TREATED therein. (Note: Not all PA's need to be checked.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Needs</th>
<th>Most Satisfied</th>
<th>Least Satisfied</th>
<th>Not Treated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### III. RECOMMENDATION RE TREATMENT OF THIS PROBLEM AREA in future special (f.l.) methods courses. (Check one.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ex-</th>
<th>In-</th>
<th>Include</th>
<th>Emphasize</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please go to Page 3.
1. Language(s) you presently teach: a. French; b. German; c. Russian;
   
2. Please indicate your experience in each of the following areas:
   a. Is the foreign language you presently teach your native language? Yes
   b. Number of years teaching language(s) presently taught before September 1
   c. Number of months spent in foreign country of language(s) taught: ______ mont
   d. Did you attend an N.D.E.A. F.L. Summer Institute? Yes; No. When
   e. Workshops, Fulbright, N.D.E.A. academic year, etc. (Please indicate spor
   
3. Please list your academic major and minor subject areas, institution granti
   a. B.A. or B.S.: (Circle.) Major(s) ______; Minor(s) ______
   b. M.A., M.S. or M.A.T. Major(s) ______; Minor(s) ______
      (Circle one.)
   c. Other: (Please specify.) ______
   
4. When did you take the special (foreign language) methods course? (Please or
   a. Before; during; after the general methods course, in 19. (24a,
   b. Before; during; after student teaching, in 19. (26a,
   c. After receiving the B.A. or B.S. degree: Yes; No; In 19. (26
   d. After receiving the M.A., M.S. or M.A.T.: Yes; No; In 19. (32
   e. After some regular teaching experience: Yes; No; In 19. (32
   f. If you took two special (f.l.) methods courses, please indicate for Cours
   
5. Please check the "major" language of all the special methods students who we
   methods course as well as your own "major" language:
   a. French; b. German; c. Russian; d. Spanish; e. Italian; f.
   b. If you took two special methods courses, circle (in a.) the major langua
   
6. Did your special (f.l.) methods course prepare foreign language teachers for
   secondary school only, or were both groups enrolled in the same class? (Ple
   a. Elementary; b. secondary; c. both. //Course No. II: a. elementary
   
7. Do you have any suggestions for improving the special (f.l.) methods course? 
   of the course you would like to see retained, modified or added, including s
   as your recommendations as to when the course(s) should be offered in the se
   etc., will be greatly appreciated.)
PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL DATA SHEET

a. French___; b. German___; c. Russian___; d. Spanish___; e. Other: (Please specify.) (12a,b,c,d,e)

in each of the following areas:

Recently teach your native language? Yes___; No____. (14a, 14b)
Age(s) presently taught before September 1969: 2 years___; less than 2___. (16a, 16b)
Sign country of language(s) taught: ___ months/Travel; ___ study; both__. (18a,b,c)
Summer Institute? Yes___; No____. Where? U.S.____; abroad____. (20a,b,c,d)
When? 19____; 19____.
academic year, etc. (Please indicate sponsor, type, duration, year(s).)

and minor subject areas, institution granting the degree and year degree was obtained.

Major(s)________; Minor(s)________; Institution________; 19__. (22a)
Major(s)________; Minor(s)________; Institution________; 19__. (22b)

(22c)

Do you have foreign language) methods course? (Please check all items needed and fill in the blanks.)

COURSE NO. II

The general methods course, in 19__. (24a,b,c)
Student teaching, in 19__. (26a,b,c)
S. degree: Yes__; No____; In 19__. (28a,b)
. or M.A.T.: Yes__; No____; In 19__. (30a,b)
Experience: Yes__; No____; In 19__. (32a,b)
(34a,b,c)
(36a,b,c)
(38a,b)
(40a,b)
(42a,b)
(44a,b,c,d)
(46a,b,c)
(48a,b,c,d)
(50a,b,c)
(52a,b,c)
(54a,b,c)

of all the special methods students who were enrolled with you in the same special

"major" language:

Hassian___; d. Spanish___; e. Italian___; f. Latin___; Other: ___________. (44a,b,c,d)

in courses, circle (in a.) the major language of all students in Course II. (46a,b,c)

course prepare foreign language teachers for the elementary school only, the

other groups enrolled in the same class? (Please check.)

(50a,b,c)

 improving the special (f.l.) methods course? (All comments regarding features

see retained, modified or added, including specific learning experiences, as well

en the course(s) should be offered in the sequence, composition of class membership,

Please turn over to Page4.
8. How helpful were the pre-student teaching professional laboratory experiences your special (foreign language) methods course(s) only? (Please check one of the three rating columns if you have had any experience of that type.) (In the Estimated Number of Experiences (EST'D. NO. of EXPRCS.) section please check the approximate number of experiences you have had in that category in conjunction with your special (foreign language) methods course(s) only.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPES OF PROFESSIONAL LABORATORY EXPERIENCE</th>
<th>RATING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not Helpful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Direct (first-hand) observation—in schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) in the foreign language area</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) in other subject area(s)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Indirect observation (film, video or audio-tape, CCTV, etc.)—school setting only</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Direct observation—community (non-school)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Indirect observation—community (non-school)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Participation—teacher-assistant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) instructional—whole class only</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) non-instructional</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Tutoring of individual pupils</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. Participation—micro-teaching of pupils</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) with videotape playback</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) without videotape playback</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. Participation—teaching of peers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) with videotape playback</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) without videotape playback</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Participation—leadership activities in the community (recreational, social, camp, etc.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j. Use of Interaction Analysis or other observation system</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k. Experiences with pupils from contrasting schools and communities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l. Other: (Please specify.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
9. How helpful were all the pre-student teaching professional laboratory experiences you had in your college career EXCEPT those had in conjunction with your special (f.l.) methods course? Check number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXPERIENCE</th>
<th>RATING</th>
<th>EST'D. NO. of EXPRCS.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not Helpful</td>
<td>Moderately Helpful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not Helpful</td>
<td>Moderately Helpful</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Non—in schools
- Video or audio-toting only
- (non-school)
- (non-school)
- Ears
- k
- Activities in the
  (ial, camp, etc.)
- or other
- contrasti

THANK YOU!
### APPENDIX B

**TABLE 17**

**CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES TO QUESTION 8a.2) ON DIRECT OBSERVATION IN SCHOOLS—OTHER SUBJECT AREA**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating of Experiences</th>
<th>Number of Experiences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1--3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 E</td>
<td>0 E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not + Moderately Helpful</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Helpful</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[
\chi^2 (1 \text{ df.}) = 3.44 \text{ (NS)}
\]

**TABLE 18**

**CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES TO QUESTION 8c. ON DIRECT OBSERVATION—COMMUNITY (NONSCHOOL)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating of Experiences</th>
<th>Number of Experiences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1--3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 E</td>
<td>0 E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not + Moderately Helpful</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Helpful</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[
\chi^2 (1 \text{ df.}) = 0.007 \text{ (NS)}
\]
### TABLE 19

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES TO QUESTION 8d. ON INDIRECT OBSERVATION—COMMUNITY (NONSCHOOL)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating of Experiences</th>
<th>1--3</th>
<th>4+</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not + Moderately Helpful</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Helpful</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square cannot be performed.

### TABLE 20

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES TO QUESTION 8g.1) ON PARTICIPATION—MICRO-TEACHING OF PUPILS (WITH VIDEOTAPE PLAYBACK)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating of Experiences</th>
<th>1--3</th>
<th>4+</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not + Moderately Helpful</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Helpful</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square cannot be performed.
### TABLE 21

**Chi-Square Analysis of Responses to Question 8g.2) on Participation—Micro-Teaching of Pupils (Without Videotape Playback)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating of Experiences</th>
<th>Number of Experiences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1—3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not + Moderately Helpful</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Helpful</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square cannot be performed.

### TABLE 22

**Chi-Square Analysis of Responses to Question 8h.1) on Participation—Teaching of Peers (With Videotape Playback)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating of Experiences</th>
<th>Number of Experiences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1—3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not + Moderately Helpful</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Helpful</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square cannot be performed.
### TABLE 23

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES TO QUESTION 8h.2)
ON PARTICIPATION—TEACHING OF PEERS
(WITHOUT VIDEOTAPE PLAYBACK)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating of Experiences</th>
<th>Number of Experiences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not + Moderately Helpful</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Helpful</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 (1 \text{ df.}) = .53 \text{ (NS)} \]
Chapter I


Chapter III


2. Ibid., p. 322.


8. Ibid., pp. 332-33.

9. Ibid., p. 386.

10. Ibid., pp. 52-53, 358-59.


20. Ibid.


Chapter IV


4. Ibid., p. 223.

5. Ibid., pp. 171-184.

6. Ibid., pp. 79, 96-100, 122, 139-40.

7. Ibid., pp. 231-33.


10. Ibid., pp. 48, 75, 107, 113.


15. Ibid., pp. 31, 70-72.

16. Ibid., pp. 9-12, 43-46.


19. Ibid., pp. 10, 85.

20. Ibid., pp. 93, 106-07.


27. Ibid., p. 270.


34. Letter from Dr. Robert C. Richardson, Coordinator of Student Field Experiences, Colorado State College, January 29, 1970.

35. Letter from Frank Keppeler, Chairman, Department of Foreign Languages, Colorado State College, February 6, 1970.


37. Letter from James Henkelman, Associate Professor, Mathematics and Education, University of Maryland Mathematics Project, University of Maryland, May 8, 1970.

Chapter V


5. Thomas D. Clemens, "Television and Teacher Education," San Jose, California: San Jose State College, 1956, 56pp. (Mimeographed.)

6. Television Project Study Report No. 1, California State Department of Education and San Jose State College, 1958, 214pp. (Mimeographed.)


17. David B. Young and Dorothy A. Young, "The Model in Use (Micro-teaching)," Theory into Practice, VII (December, 1968), 186-89.


20. Ibid., pp. 218-235.


33. Ibid., pp. 342-47.


35. Ibid., pp. 9-10.


50. Ibid., pp. 327-29.

51. Ibid., pp. 331-35.


60. Michael Herrick and Dora Kennedy, "Multilevel Grouping of Students in the Modern Foreign Language Programs," Foreign Language Annals, II (December, 1968), 200-04.

61. Edelfelt, ed., Innovative Programs in Student Teaching, p. 94.

62. Ibid., pp. 111-12.
Chapter VI


Chapter VIII


2. Flowers, School and Community Laboratory Experiences, p. 16.

3. Ibid., pp. 23, 26.

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Martin, William R. Letter received from William R. Martin, Assistant Coordinator, Office of Laboratory Experiences, University of Maryland, dated January 29, 1970.


Richardson, Robert C., Dr. Letter received from Dr. Robert C. Richardson, Coordinator of Student Field Experiences, Colorado State College, dated January 29, 1970.


