INFORMATION TO USERS

This dissertation was produced from a microfilm copy of the original document. While the most advanced technological means to photograph and reproduce this document have been used, the quality is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original submitted.

The following explanation of techniques is provided to help you understand markings or patterns which may appear on this reproduction.

1. The sign or "target" for pages apparently lacking from the document photographed is "Missing Page(s)". If it was possible to obtain the missing page(s) or section, they are spliced into the film along with adjacent pages. This may have necessitated cutting thru an image and duplicating adjacent pages to insure you complete continuity.

2. When an image on the film is obliterated with a large round black mark, it is an indication that the photographer suspected that the copy may have moved during exposure and thus cause a blurred image. You will find a good image of the page in the adjacent frame.

3. When a map, drawing or chart, etc., was part of the material being photographed the photographer followed a definite method in "sectioning" the material. It is customary to begin photoing at the upper left hand corner of a large sheet and to continue photoing from left to right in equal sections with a small overlap. If necessary, sectioning is continued again — beginning below the first row and continuing on until complete.

4. The majority of users indicate that the textual content is of greatest value, however, a somewhat higher quality reproduction could be made from "photographs" if essential to the understanding of the dissertation. Silver prints of "photographs" may be ordered at additional charge by writing the Order Department, giving the catalog number, title, author and specific pages you wish reproduced.

University Microfilms
300 North Zeeb Road
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106
A Xerox Education Company
TUCKER, David Greer, 1940-
THE EFFECT OF A SIMULATION TREATMENT ON
ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOR OF STUDENT TEACHERS
AND THEIR INNER-CITY CLASSROOM PUPILS.
The Ohio State University, Ph.D., 1972
Education, teacher training

University Microfilms, A XEROX Company, Ann Arbor, Michigan
THE EFFECT OF A SIMULATION TREATMENT ON ATTITUDES
AND BEHAVIOR OF STUDENT TEACHERS AND THEIR
INNER-CITY CLASSROOM PUPILS

DISSERTATION

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

By
David Greer Tucker, B.A.

* * * * *

The Ohio State University
1972

Approved by

Adviser
Faculty of Curriculum and Foundations
PLEASE NOTE:

Some pages may have
indistinct print.
Filmed as received.

University Microfilms, A Xerox Education Company
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am grateful to the many individuals who assisted me in completing this study.

In particular, I wish to express my sincere appreciation to the following:

Dr. Donald P. Cottrell, my supervisor, for his insight, encouragement, guidance and understanding during my doctoral program as well as the writing of the dissertation;

Dr. Donald P. Cruickshank, whose knowledge, expertise, and attention to precision and style of expression increased the quality of the study reported;

Dr. John J. Kennedy, Dr. Tom O. Maguire and Mr. Vic Muller, whose statistical advice enabled me to improve the data analysis and gain more insight into the meaning of the results;

Dr. David Ryans, for permission to use the Classroom Observation Record for the study;

Mrs. Phyllis Rolphe, the coordinator of elementary student teaching assignments, and the college supervisors involved in the experiment, who gave freely and earnestly of their time and energy to make the experiment successful;

Dr. Larry Bowen, for taking valuable time from his graduate studies to direct the simulation treatment;

Dr. Donald P. Anderson, Associate Dean of the College of Education of The Ohio State University for timely administrative cooperation and assistance, without which the experiment could not
have taken place;

The Columbus Public Schools, especially Mr. Gerald Norman without whose cooperation and assistance the study could not have been initiated;

Miss Judy Toupin, for her dedicated continuous assistance in putting together and typing the rough draft;

Mr. Bernard Masters and Mr. David Jeffares, for proofreading and giving advice on the final draft;

Mrs. Lynn Studholme, whose excellent typing and understanding of form made the final draft pleasing to the eye;

My wife, Patty, whose patience, understanding and encouragement through the months made the whole effort manageable;

My parents, whose constant encouragement, faith and confidence through earlier years helped me to undertake this work.
VITA

April 21, 1940........ Born - San Jose, California

1960-1961........ English and Spanish Teacher, The Chilean-North American Cultural Institute, Viña del Mar, Chile

1961-1962........ English and Spanish Teacher, The Peruvian-North American Cultural Institute, Arequipa, Peru

1964............. B.A., Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah

1963-1965........ Teaching Assistant, Instructor, Department of Romance Languages, Missionary Language Institute, Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah

1965-1966........ Spanish Teacher, Wm. S. Hart High School District, Newhall, California

1966-1967........ Experienced Teacher fellow, NDEA Title III, M.A. program in Instructional Systems Technology Chapman College, Orange, California; Spanish Teacher, Buena Park Elementary School District, Buena Park, California

1967-1968........ Spanish Teacher, Assistant Dean of Boys, Berkeley Public Schools, Berkeley, California

1968-1970........ Research Associate, The Office of the Dean of Education, Teaching Associate, Department of Curriculum and Foundations, Student Teaching Supervisor, College of Education, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

1970.............. Assistant Professor of Education, Department of Secondary, Adult and Higher Education, Teachers College, Ball State University, Muncie, Indiana

1970.............. Assistant Professor of Education, Department of Elementary Education, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada
PUBLICATIONS


FIELDS OF STUDY

Major Field: Teacher Education and Curriculum Development, Professors Donald P. Cottrell, Leonard O. Andrews and Herbert L. Coon

Studies in Foreign Language Education. Professor Frank Otto

Studies in Higher Education. Professor Everett Kircher

Studies in Educational Administration. Professor Donald P. Anderson
TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</td>
<td>ii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VITA</td>
<td>iv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF TABLES</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF FIGURES</td>
<td>xii</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chapter

I. THE PROBLEM, ITS NATURE AND SIGNIFICANCE. 1

Introduction
Statement of the Problem
Hypothesis
Significance of the Study
Limitations
Definition of Terms

II. BACKGROUND AND RELATED RESEARCH 14

Education in the Inner-City

Students and Schools
Existing Attitudes of Teachers in Inner-City Schools
Recommended Teacher Attitudes for the Inner-City

Teacher Education for the Inner-City

Experimental Programs

Hunter College Project 120
Coppin State College Project
Human Relations Institutes
The Preface Plan

Recommendations for Inner-City Teacher Education Programs

Simulation in Teacher Education

Simulation Defined
Simulation Applications in Teacher Education Programs
Advantages of Simulation

Summary

III. METHODOLOGY ............................................. 72

Design for Testing the Consequences of the Hypothesis

Abbreviation Key for the Design

Instrumentation for Testing the Hypothesis
Instrument Description and Rationale

Confidence Scale
Classroom Observation Record
Student Teacher Interest Survey
Behavioral Measure
Reaction to Simulator Training
Perceived Effects of Simulation Training

Statistical Techniques and Procedures
Selection and Placement of Experimental Subjects

Population
Sample
Placement of Student Teachers

Selection of Judges for Rating Classroom Behavior During Student Teaching

Duties and Responsibilities of Judges
Training of the Supervisors
Supervisor School Assignments

The Simulation Vehicle and Treatment

Problems of the Inner-City
Description of the Simulator
  The Simulated Setting
  General Objectives
  Simulation Materials
  The Physical Setting
  The Treatment Schedule
  The Simulation Director

IV. RESULTS OF THE INVESTIGATION. ....................... 106

Test of Null Hypothesis I
Chapter

Test of Null Hypothesis II
Test of Null Hypothesis III
Test of Null Hypothesis IV
Test of Null Hypothesis V
Reactions to Simulator Training
Perceived Effects of Simulation Training
Summary

V. DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS ................................................. 142

Self-Perceived Confidence of Student Teachers
Classroom Behavior Traits of Student Teachers and their Classroom Pupils
Employment Aspirations of Student Teachers
Experimenter Observation of the Simulation Treatment

VI. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

AND IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION. .................. 154

Summary
Conclusions
Recommendations for Further Research
Implications for Teacher Education

APPENDICES

A. ................................................................................................. 168
B. ................................................................................................. 178
C. ................................................................................................. 180
D. ................................................................................................. 182
E. ................................................................................................. 184
F. ................................................................................................. 186
G. ................................................................................................. 188
H. ................................................................................................. 190
I. ................................................................................................. 199
J. ................................................................................................. 201

viii
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOURCES CONSULTED</td>
<td>219</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Results of Supervisor Training in Using the Classroom Observation Record</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Supervisor and Student Teacher School Assignments</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Simulation Treatment Schedule</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Means and Standard Deviations of Student Teacher Self-Rated Confidence Scale Scores Grouped According to Supervisor Assignments at Two Test Times</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Group x Supervisor x Test Time Analysis of Variance Summary for Student Teacher Self-Rated Confidence Scale Scores</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Cell Means for Combined Test Time Scores of Student Teachers on the Self-Rated Confidence Scale Grouped According to Supervisor Assignment</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Group Main Effects of Student Teachers on Combined Test Time Confidence Scale Scores Grouped According to Supervisor Assignment</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Group Main Effects of Student Teacher Self-Rated Confidence Scale Scores at Two Test Times</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Group Cell Means of Student Teacher Self-Rated Confidence Scale Scores at Two Test Times</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Cell Means and Standard Deviations of Supervisor Ratings of Student Teachers Classroom Confidence on the Classroom Observation Record</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Supervisor x Group Analysis of Variance of Supervisor Ratings of Student Teacher Classroom Confidence on The Classroom Observation Record</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Cell Means of Supervisor Ratings of Classroom Behavior of Inner-City Pupils Under Student Teachers on the Classroom Observation Record</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Group x Supervisor Analysis of Variance Summary of Supervisor Ratings of Inner-City Classroom Pupil Behavior on the Classroom Observation Record</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TABLE</td>
<td>PAGE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Cell Means of Supervisor Ratings of Student Teacher</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom Personal-Social Behavior on the Classroom Observation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Record</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Group x Supervisor Analysis of Variance Summary of Supervisor</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratings of Student Teacher Classroom Personal-Social Behavior on the</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom Observation Record</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Cell Means of Student Teacher Expressed Desire to Teach</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In Inner-City Schools on the Student Teacher Interest Survey</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Group x Supervisor x Time Analysis of Variance Summary of</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Teacher Scores on the Student Teacher Interest Survey</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Attendance Results of Student Teachers at the Job Opportunities</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Results of Student Teacher Reactions to Simulator Training -</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part I</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Results of Experimental Student Teacher Reactions to Simulator</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training - Part II</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Results of Experimental Student Teacher Reactions to Simulator</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training - Part III</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Results of Experimental Student Teacher Reactions to Simulator</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training - Part IV</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Results of Experimental Student Teacher Reactions to Simulator</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training - Part V</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# LIST OF FIGURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FIGURE</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Simulation Laboratory Setting.</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Group x Supervisor Interaction for Combined Test Time Scores of Student Teachers on the Confidence Scale Grouped According to Supervisor Assignment</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Comparison of Group Cell Means of Student Teacher Self-Rated Confidence Scale Scores at Two Test Times</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER I
THE PROBLEM, ITS NATURE AND SIGNIFICANCE

Introduction

Preparing teachers to work in inner-city schools is one of the unsolved dilemmas of teacher education. Where such programs have been initiated, little substantial or empirically validated research has been carried out in their support.¹ Methods of helping teachers to meet the many and difficult challenges of ghetto classrooms are noticeably absent from most teacher education programs, or where employed, are unrealistic. Support for this contention comes in part from a survey of ten major teacher education institutions which revealed the lack of realistic and quality preparation for teachers of urban youth.²

Although teacher preparation for the inner-city encompasses a wide array of instructional and interpersonal skills, the area of attitudinal and aspirational factors has been found to be a crucial prerequisite to all teacher performance.³ Green has posited that


teacher educators as well as teachers need to improve their knowledge of, and attitudes toward, disadvantaged youth. Crow, Murray and Smythe have emphasized the importance of teacher attitude as a base for cognitive as well as emotional and social development. The inner-city teacher's basic attitudes would seem to be the key to his ability to teach effectively.

Of particular significance for the inner-city teacher is a feeling of confidence in his own ability to deal with problem situations in an alien setting. Without confidence in dealing with the inner-city milieu there is little chance for teaching success. Self-confident teachers with positive attitudes toward the culturally distinct setting they are about to enter would be more likely to encourage similar attitudes and behavior among their students.

Teacher attitudes about the inner-city often affect their aspirations to teach there. A NEA survey of a cross-section of American teachers revealed that only three percent desired a position

---

4 Green, "Crisis in American Education".


in an inner-city school. Coupled with the problem of initial recruitment are high rates of staff turnover.

. . . staff turnover in slum schools in nearly every urban complex lend credence to the assertion that a more adequate type of training is needed by those assigned to such institutions.

The question remains as to how training programs might help teachers to develop attitudes, aspirations and feelings of confidence, appropriate for the inner-city classroom. Chandler discussed the emphasis on a combination of theory and practice provided in a program of Advanced Study for Teachers. In this summer institute various experiences were provided for the inner-city teacher participants. Video-tapes, films, music and art forms to be used in teaching, role playing, individualized readings, small group and one-to-one discussions with youth gangs proved to be among the more successful experiences.

Project 120 at Hunter College in New York was offered in conjunction with student teaching in the inner-city as an option in the college's regular teacher education program. Part of the project involved student teachers becoming acquainted with inner-city community

---


9Robert D. Strom, Teaching in the Slum School (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books Inc., 1965), p. 32.

life, its values and resources.  

A summer workshop, called The Preface Plan has been conducted at The Ohio State University to orient beginning inner-city teachers. The significant parts of this program were talks with in-service resource teachers from inner-city schools, home visits and instruction of small groups of inner-city children.

Inherent in all of these experimental projects were identification and direct exposure to inner-city school problems. These experiences were provided in the interest of developing attitudes of acceptance and understanding and cultivating feelings of confidence among beginning inner-city teachers.

Recently, the technique of simulation has been studied as a means of involving student teachers in similar activities to those described above. Research findings have indicated significant implications for the use of simulation in helping change teacher attitude and classroom behavior. 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. Vlcek discovered that teacher trainee confidence in ability to teach was increased through classroom simulator experience. Students at Indiana University in Project Insite reported:

... that the simulation materials contributed greatly to their understanding of the practical problems facing the classroom teacher.

Cruickshank's Teaching Problems Laboratory revealed that:

... the students who underwent simulator training experienced significantly fewer teaching problems as reported by their supervising teachers than did control group students.

Moreover the simulator was found:

... to be at least as effective as an equal period of student teaching in the areas of attitude change, confidence, teaching behavior, and amount of time needed to assume full teaching responsibility as a student teacher.

The simulation experiments discussed above have been concerned


17 Ibid.
with many of the same attitudes and behaviors described as being crucial for inner-city teachers. It is important to note, however, that these simulation experiments were not conducted in conjunction with inner-city schools and disadvantaged children. It would seem necessary to investigate the technique of simulation as a means of achieving similar kinds of results in the culturally unique setting of the inner-city.

The *Inner-City Simulation Laboratory*\(^{18}\) was developed for the specific purpose of preparing teachers for the inner-city. Its organization and structure are similar to those of the *Teaching Problems Laboratory* which has been tested for attitude and behavior change. However, the reference system and population with which the *Inner-City Simulation Laboratory* concerns itself is culturally distinct. This simulator has not been the focus of any experimental research which could determine its effectiveness and optimal use. The broad goal of this study was to ascertain the effect of a simulation treatment consisting of the *Inner-City Simulation Laboratory*, on attitudes and behaviors of student teachers and their inner-city classroom pupils during student teaching. The research was designed, in accordance with previous research on classroom simulation carried out in conjunction with pre-service teacher education.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of the study was to determine the effectiveness of a simulated inner-city classroom treatment in helping student teachers (1) to feel self-confident in coping with and solving problems common to teaching in the inner city, (2) to display confidence in actual classroom teaching performance, (3) to exhibit desirable personal-social traits in classroom behavior, (4) to positively affect classroom behavior traits of pupils taught during student teaching, and (5) to express and display a desire to seek a teaching position in the inner-city.

Hypothesis

To experimentally test the problem, the following hypothesis and related consequences were formulated:

If an experimental group of student teachers participate in a simulated inner-city classroom during and in lieu of the first two weeks of a ten week student teaching period, and a control group spends ten weeks student teaching exclusive of the simulation treatment, then:

(C1) experimental student teachers will perceive themselves to be more confident in solving critical teaching problems of the inner-city;

(C2) experimental student teachers' classroom behavior will be judged to be more confident;

(C3) classroom pupils taught by experimental student teachers will exhibit a greater degree of positive classroom behavior;

(C4) experimental student teachers will display a greater degree of positive personal-social traits in classroom behavior; and,
(C5) experimental student teachers will express and display more interest in seeking a teaching position in the inner-city.

Significance of the Study

In the final analysis, the value of this study was to be determined by its contributions to the improvement of teaching and learning in inner-city elementary schools. Educators readily agree that purposeful learning and teaching are generally preceded and accompanied by certain traits and attitudes. The onus of this study was on revealing the effectiveness of a simulation method in helping prospective inner-city teachers to develop these attitudes and traits, and in turn, positively affect classroom pupil behavior.

Simulations have been found to involve participants with little attention given to the outcomes expected. This study attempted to answer specific empirically tested questions about teacher and pupil attitudes and behavior. Moreover, the results were taken from actual student teaching as well as the simulation experience itself.

Any significant results will serve as a validity measure for the published Inner-City Simulation Laboratory used in a prescribed manner and under specified conditions. An advantage of using such a widely disseminated and standardized vehicle is the capability of easy

and accurate replication of this study with different populations and with added or different dimensions of behavior.

Limitations

Several apparent circumstances could have affected the design and scope of the investigation and possibly the credibility of the findings. These limitations are explained below.

Sample Size. -- A total of forty-two student teachers and student teaching places, that met the requirements of the experimental design, were made available by the Office of Field Experiences of The Ohio State University College of Education and the Columbus Public Schools.

Validity of Supervisor Ratings. -- Because funds were not available to contract independent observers it was necessary to use normally assigned student teaching supervisors. The dual role of such supervisors could possibly affect objective rating of experimental subjects.

A related problem was the consequent inability to keep supervisors unaware of which students were experimental and which were control group members. This lack of a "second blind" may have produced a rater expectancy and subsequent bias in the supervisors' ratings.

Reliability of ratings. -- College supervisors were carefully trained to rate student teachers and classroom pupils on prescribed criteria to test the experiment's hypothesis. This evaluation took place during the final two weeks of the student teaching period. Immediately prior to the two week evaluation period the supervisors were known to be reliable in their assessments. Nevertheless, it is possible that over
a period of two weeks, during which there was no training or reliability check, there may have been some deviation in supervisors' assessments. Such deviations were made apparent in the statistical analysis of the data.

Validity of instruments. -- Supervisors and student teachers were forced to rate each item of the various instruments even though they may have felt none of the available answers were appropriate, or that there was a need for clarification of particular items.

Simulation director bias. -- The attempt was made to strictly program and control the behavior of the simulation director during the experimental treatment. However, the personal-social traits, mannerisms and teaching style of the director were anticipated to be a possible source of contamination. If such were the case, all subjects receiving the experimental treatment would share the same intrasession history, under the simulation director, and thus possibly have sources of similarity other than the prescribed treatment.

Subject interaction. -- Although control and experimental groups were placed in different schools, thereby eliminating formal interaction of the two groups, invariably, students, most of whom had gone through the same preparation program for three and a half years, were bound to have some interaction outside of formal classroom activities.

Absence of evaluation by school personnel. -- School personnel would have more direct contact with student teachers and more opportunities to observe their teaching performance than university supervisors.
However, it was decided not to request such participation because of concessions already being asked of the schools, and existing attitudes of teachers and administrators about students and teachers being subjected to tests, rating scales or inventories from university personnel.

Cooperating teacher influence. -- No attempt was made to determine the influence of cooperating teachers on student teacher attitude and behavior in the classroom.

**Definition of Terms**

**Classroom Pupils.** -- Students in the inner-city elementary classrooms of the Columbus Public Schools assigned to the experiment.

**Control Student Teachers.** -- Twenty-one randomly selected elementary student teachers who completed ten weeks of regular student teaching in inner-city schools and did not participate in the simulation treatment. Two student teachers from this group dropped out of student teaching leaving nineteen students in the group for data analysis.

**Co-operating Teacher.** -- A regular classroom teacher employed by the Columbus Public School Board to whom student teachers were assigned for practice teaching activities.

**Critical Teaching Problems of the Inner-City.** -- Thirty-four problem areas developed from a list of ninety-six problems identified by 287 inner-city teachers in fourteen cities of America. These problem
areas formed the basis for the **Inner-City Simulation Laboratory**
developed by Donald Cruickshank and comprised the simulation treatment
for the study.

**Experimental Student Teachers.** -- Twenty-one elementary student teachers
who were randomly selected to participate in the simulation treatment
during and in lieu of the first two weeks of student teaching period.
The following eight weeks were spent student teaching in inner-city
classrooms.

**Experimenter.** -- The investigator and author of this research.

**Incidents.** -- The thirty-four problems from the **Inner-City Simulation
Laboratory** that were either on film, written or role-played during the
simulation treatment.

**Inner-City Schools and Classrooms.** -- Schools and classrooms chosen from
those made available by the Columbus Public Schools which were determined
to be eligible for Title I funds and therefore determined to be
disadvantaged. Such eligibility is further explained in Chapter III.

**Inner-City Simulation Laboratory (ICSL).** -- Materials, developed by
D. R. Cruickshank *et al* and published by Science Research Associates,
which re-create an inner-city elementary school. Participants assume
the role of a teacher and are given opportunities to identify and solve
thirty-four classroom problems. The Laboratory is explained in detail
in Chapter III.
Simulation. -- A life-like imitation of an inner-city classroom wherein prospective teachers are presented with and given opportunities to solve typical critical teaching problems of inner-city teachers.

Simulation Director. -- A former inner-city teacher and administrator enrolled in graduate study, employed to administer the simulation treatment in accordance with instructions set forth in Chapter III of this research.

Simulation Treatment. -- The administration of the Inner-City Simulation Laboratory to the experimental group of twenty-one student teachers during and in lieu of the first two weeks of the student teaching period in accordance with the hypothesis and objectives of the study.

Student Teaching Period. -- The ten weeks of the regular student teaching block for the winter quarter from January 6 through March 16, 1970.

Supervisor. -- The person employed by the University who was responsible for the supervision and co-ordination of activities between the student teacher and co-operating teacher. He was responsible for assigning pass or fail grades and the rating of each student teacher using the Classroom Observation Record. 20

20 See Appendix A.
CHAPTER II

BACKGROUND AND RELATED RESEARCH

Determining the effect of a simulated inner-city classroom treatment on attitudes and behaviors of student teachers and their classroom pupils was the major purpose of the study.

The review of literature, which serves as a background for the investigation of the problem, is divided into three major parts. Part one begins with an examination of the inner-city child and his school environment, followed by a description of what are reported to be the existing attitudes and aspirations of inner-city teachers. In conclusion, recommended teacher attitudes for the inner-city are presented.

Part two is an examination of experimental preparation programs for inner-city teachers together with recommendations for improving and extending such programs.

Part three investigates the technique of simulation as it has been applied to teacher education. Experimental programs and their results are examined, followed by a discussion of the advantages of simulation and its importance in teacher education.

Education in the Inner-City

Students and Schools

Research characterizes the inner-city as being "noisy, over-
crowded, underfurnished, disorganized, perhaps rat and vermin infested
and in need of major repairs.¹ There are few materials in the home
which help the child to develop perceptions and skills which
contribute to readiness for school. Because of a lack of a male
model, mental and physical illness, alcoholism, drug addiction, and
violence, children do not learn to value personal belongings and/or
middle class values such as reliability and hard work. Aspirations
remain at a low level because no one expects the child to become
anything different from what his past has afforded him and he expects
little more for himself or from life.²

However, Robert Weaver emphasized the importance of not
stereotyping the environment of the inner-city dweller. There exists
a wide range of values and a variety of behavior patterns. Some are
households with female heads and are stable nonetheless; others may
use poor grammar but adhere to high moral standards; still others
evidence all the attributes of middle class behavior and are dedicated
to its values, if not recipients of its financial rewards.³

The schools of urban America have become repositories for
disadvantaged children. This fact has been reflected in the increasing
proportion of such students found living in large cities over the past
twenty years. This figure increased from one in ten in 1950, to one in

¹Gertrude Noar, "Teaching the Disadvantaged" in What Research
Says to the Teacher (Washington, D.C.: NEA, Dept. of Classroom Teachers,

²Ibid.

³Robert C. Weaver, The Urban Complex (New York: Doubleday and
three in 1960, to an estimated one in two in 1970.\(^4\)

Generally, these schools reflect the social and economic deprivation of the ghetto communities in which they are situated. The state of inner-city schools was reported in the President's Panel on Educational Research and summarized by The Ohio State University Advisory Commission to the Columbus Public Schools.

'By all known criteria the majority of urban slum schools are failures.' In rendering this indictment they note five current school problems which illustrate the forementioned: (1) the severe scholastic retardation which progressively worsens as children grow older, (2) a dropout rate which exceeds fifty percent, (3) fewer than five percent of this group enrolling for some form of higher education, (4) deteriorating I.Q. scores, and (5) a distressing picture of adolescents leaving school ill-prepared to lead a satisfying life or be successful participants in the community.\(^5\)

Much of the reason for the declining of inner-city children's academic ability as they progress chronologically in school is due to their growing alienation from the institution. Rioux has indicated this to be one of the major handicaps of schools in depressed areas. Schools are viewed by the disadvantaged to be cold institutions which do not recognize or satisfy their needs.\(^6\)


Implications supporting this fact are found in Feshbach's experiment. Children from disadvantaged areas were placed in a clinical school setting with advantaged children. The disadvantaged children placed similar values on academic attainment but experienced greater anxiety regarding school related matters than advantaged children. Both groups of children attending the Clinic School made significantly greater gains in achievement than did the other groups. Post-testing showed that by just placing the disadvantaged children in a more congenial atmosphere they scored higher in achievement and with less anxiety and greater vocational aspirations than in initial testing.7

Several writers have written emotional commentaries about the school life of ghetto children. The Way It's Spozed To Be by James Herndon, 36 Children by Herbert Kohl and Death at an Early Age by Jonathan Kozol vividly describe the frustrating failure of inner-city schools to meet the emotional and educational needs of ghetto children.

This failure of inner-city schools is further underscored in the account by Luvern Cunningham, Dean of Education at The Ohio State University, of his one week sojourn as principal of an inner-city Junior High School. The curriculum is described as "archaic, out-moded, irrelevant and unimportant in the minds of the kids who are there".

Cunningham observed few classrooms where there was excitement relative to learning.  

Existing Attitudes of Teachers in Inner-City Schools

The problems related to social and economic deprivation which are prevalent in the inner-city are vast, complex and distinct from what most teachers have previously experienced. A majority of white middle class teachers who go into the inner-city have twenty years or more of training and culture which is antithetical to much of the culture they will find in the slum schools.

Much of the problem seems to be a result of social class variations between students and teachers; a clash of life styles and moralities.

Middle class teachers despite their desire to be helpful to the culturally deprived child, and despite their best intentions often get bogged down because they cannot transcend their own value system to meet that of the children.  

New teachers are especially unprepared for the culture shock of the inner-city classroom. Their preconceived notions of the pending dangers of the "blackboard jungle" build up in them a sense of fear and

---

8Luvern Cunningham, "Hey Man, You Our Principal?" Viewpoints; Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, XLVI (May, 1970), 12-15.

insecurity about the slum school. These feelings undermine the teacher's confidence and he becomes frustrated with what seem to be overwhelming problems. Beginning teachers' initial attitudes about children and their environment cannot be underestimated.

Whether they experience instructional success and personal gratification depends mainly on the aspirations and attitudes they bring to the classroom.

The attitudes teachers bring to inner-city classrooms and the determinants of such attitudes have been discussed by several writers. Havighurst reports the perplexity of the value gap between middle class teachers and inner-city students to be more involved and difficult than the knowledge and skills gap. Greenberg indicates that the attitudes teachers bring to inner-city classrooms are reflections of the fact that the white majority in our society, by virtue of a superior position of status, wealth and power has maintained feelings of superiority, righteousness and prestige over all minority groups especially Negroes, Puerto Ricans, Mexican Americans and American Indians.


11 Strom, "Teacher Aspirations and Attitude" in Teacher Behaviors, ed. by Strom, p. 22.


13 Herbert M. Greenberg, Teaching with Feeling (Toronto: MacMillan Co., 1969), p. 188.
Inner-city teachers, generally from a middle class background, often develop negative attitudes toward the ghetto children who are their pupils. These attitudes are specified in studies such as Gottlieb's. Eighty-nine elementary teachers in six public schools situated in the inner-city of a mid-west industrial community were involved. A checklist of thirty-three adjectives was provided and teachers were instructed to choose those which came closest to describing the outstanding characteristics of the children with whom they were working.

Four out of five adjectives chosen most frequently by white teachers to describe their Negro pupils were negative, and described the black students as being talkative, lazy, high strung and rebellious. Gottlieb's findings infer that white teachers are critical and pessimistic in their evaluations of Negro students because their own backgrounds are so dissimilar and alien from those of their students. 14

Often, inner-city students tend to become stereotyped as children of low ability by their teachers. Ravitz describes the results.

... the children were not expected to learn very much; the teacher expended little energy on anything but maintaining order and bemoaning her lot, the children fulfilled the low expectation which reinforced the original assumption to prove the teacher was right. 15

Teachers caught in this failure pattern produce it throughout the year


as they need an excuse for their failure to understand and relate to their students.

Some teachers establish low expectations and anticipate failure, and, true to the Mertonian *(sic)* self-fulfilling prophecy, find an increasing rate of failure.\(^{16}\)

Kenneth Clark in his book *Dark Ghetto* attacks the concept of "culturally deprived" primarily because its acceptance has caused, among administrators and teachers, a pervasive expectation of failure by the Negro slum child.\(^{17}\) Clark's conclusions are not based upon results of any experimental study designed to test the validity of his theory. He has documented his conclusions with references to case studies where teachers' and administrators' expectations of the disadvantaged student's ability to achieve, were high.

Clark cites the case of Junior High School #43 located on the edge of Harlem. This school, typical of those in inner-city settings, was selected to participate in a pilot demonstration guidance program. No revolutionary educational methods were introduced during the project. Emphasis on discipline was lessened and emphasis on teaching skill was increased. Communication between administration and teachers was improved and a number of special teachers and guidance workers were added to the staff.

---


The results after three years were noteworthy. Six times as many students went to college, the drop-out rate was reduced from fifty percent to twenty-five percent, and the average student gained 4.3 years in reading scores as compared with 1.7 years during an equal time period prior to the implementation of the program.\(^{18}\)

Clark attributed the resulting changes in achievement level and percentage of those choosing to continue their education to a shift in attitude and expectation towards students by teachers and administrators. He did not mention other factors apart from the special program which may have affected the results (i.e. the rate of change of black students going to college during the same three years in other parts of the nation, or the events of that period which undoubtedly affected attitudes of school people.)

Clark also cited the Banneker Project in St. Louis, Missouri to illustrate his theory. Banneker Elementary School District has the highest percentage of black students in the city. In St. Louis, groupings in public Schools is based on a three track system according to I.Q. and achievement scores. Scores for students in the Banneker district placed seven percent in the highest track and forty-seven percent in the lowest. The median I.Q. was 90.5, while twelve percent of the students had an I.Q. of below 79.

A program designed to upgrade these students concentrated on the attitudes of teachers and administrators. While aware of low achievement scores, teachers were urged to treat all children as if they had superior ability. No attempt was made to introduce new curriculum content or instructional methods. No change was made in

\(^{18}\)Ibid., p. 142.
the disadvantaged social and economic background of the children. The emphasis was on changing the expectations and perspectives that the teachers and administrators held in regard to the students.

The results were encouraging. Children achieving at track one level increased from seven to twenty-two percent, while the number of those assigned to track three was reduced from forty-seven to approximately eleven percent of the total group. Median I.Q. was raised almost ten points. 19

However, initial gains made during the first three years of the project were not maintained in subsequent years. It seems possible that the Hawthorne Effect may have contributed to the initial success of the program.

Nevertheless, both case studies Clark outlines tend to support his contention that slum children learn more effectively when there are serious and confident efforts to teach them. Further confirmation of this contention has recently been found in experimentally designed research.

Rosenthal and Jacobson found that teachers' expectations affect the intellectual development of their students. Intelligence tests, with reasoning and verbal component measures, were administered to eighteen classes of children about to enter grades one through six in a south San Francisco school. Teachers were given the false information that the test could predict potential "spurters" and were given names of several children who were expected to make unusual gains in

19Ibid., p. 144.
intellectual ability. Twenty percent of the total group were randomly chosen as the experimental "spurters" groups and in reality were no different than the other children regarding their tendency to increase their intellectual ability.

After a year, teachers described their students. The experimental group was rated as having a better chance of being successful in later years, as being happier, more curious and more interesting than the children in the control group. Experimental group members gained an average of twelve I.Q. points as compared to an average gain of eight points by the control group.\(^20\)

While these results are certainly significant, the experiment has been the subject of some criticism. Robert Thorndike notes that the mean score for the reasoning part of the basic I.Q. testing instrument for the first grade is considerably lower than that which might be expected to be produced by chance factors alone.\(^21\) He does not indicate whether the fault would appear to lie in the instrument itself, or in its administration.

Nevertheless, at present, this experimental research represents the most complete study of the relationship between teacher attitude and expectation and student performance. Recent emphasis of education programs aimed at helping disadvantaged children has been on over-


coming child-centered handicaps through remedial work and cultural enrichment. Rosenthal and Jacobson's research suggests that deficiencies in urban education might well rest within the educational system itself and particularly might be attributed to attitudes of teachers toward inner-city children.

The importance of teacher expectation in determining pupil achievement, particularly, in inner-city school settings, has been expressed by various authors. Robert Strom quotes John Niemeyer, president of Bank Street College in New York, as contending that teachers' low expectations of inner-city children is a major cause of low achievement among these youngsters. Edmund Gordon has spoken of the need for the teacher of the disadvantaged to believe that they can learn, and that he can create the necessary conditions for learning.

Disadvantaged students are those who suffer most from teachers' lack of understanding and inability to assess their own attitudes in relation to the students. Smith et al have suggested that a teacher is likely to interpret a disadvantaged student's aggression and negative feelings, which come as a result of feeling unwelcome, as inability to maintain self-control.

22 Strom, Teaching in the Slum School, p. 33.


Teachers' career aspirations have been found to be greatly affected by their negative expectations of pupils. Groff's study involving 294 teachers in sixteen schools serving Negroes and Mexican Americans revealed findings which reflected the lack of attitudinal readiness among teachers serving inner-city schools. Teachers themselves accounted for the high turnover of teachers as follows:

- Forty percent - pointed to "peculiarities" in the personalities of culturally disadvantaged children as the major cause,
- Thirty-seven percent - listed deficiencies in the administration or organization of the school,
- Twenty-two percent - named shortcomings of the teachers themselves, which included the lack of understanding and acceptance of disadvantaged children, discipline, and large classes.25

Evidence of teacher dissatisfaction once he has begun to teach in the inner-city is reflected in a study of teacher mobility in fifteen American cities. It was reported that seventeen percent of the teachers had been in a ghetto school for one year and sixty-three percent in their present position for five years or less. The proportion of teachers remaining after five years dropped off radically.26

In most metropolitan school districts having urban and suburban components teachers do not consider the desirable jobs to be

---


in the inner-city. As a consequence, the slum schools often tend to be repositories for incompetent or problem teachers, or a stopover or stepping stone to the suburbs for more competent teachers. Strom indicated that in school districts which are predominantly suburban, teacher openings are readily filled and teacher turnover is minimal. In contrast, inner-city districts are often at a loss to fill teaching positions with qualified personnel and teacher turnover is extremely high. 27

A study by Herriot and St. John found similar evidence of dissatisfaction and accompanied lack of teaching success among inner-city teachers. 28 The study was based on an analysis of the nature, background, attitudes, aspirations and competence of teachers in suburban schools.

An extensive survey was conducted by means of distributing a questionnaire to over 500 principals and 4500 teachers in 490 schools in forty-one American cities. The schools surveyed, were divided into four social class categories. Of particular relevance for this discussion are the findings about teachers in schools of the lowest socio-economic quartile.

In reference to experience, the lower the socio-economic status of the school, the more brief is the total years of experience of the teachers employed there. In addition, teachers in lower class schools have been at their assignments for a shorter period of time than

27 Strom, Teaching in the Slum School, pp. 30-31.

teachers in higher socio-economic districts.

These findings are related to the career aspirations of urban teachers. The lower the socio-economic status of the school, the smaller the proportion of teachers who desire to remain in their present school. The percentage of teachers desiring to remain in their present school is sixty-eight percent for high socio-economic districts as compared with forty-nine percent of teachers in low socio-economic districts.

Job satisfaction or dissatisfaction was identified in the questionnaire by fourteen separate items. The respondents scaled their choice to indicate very, moderately, or slightly satisfied or dissatisfied. Nine of these items referred directly to the teacher's present teaching situation. On eight out of nine items, expressed job satisfaction was less for teachers in lower class schools than in higher class schools and on seven of the items the difference was statistically significant at the 0.05 level.

Teacher morale was assessed by measures completed by both principals and teachers. Morale of teachers in lower socio-economic schools was significantly lower than morale in higher socio-economic schools on ten of the thirteen measures.

Teacher competence was judged by the reporting of both principals and teachers. Competence was measured on questionnaire items relating to teacher commitment, interest, innovative methods, discipline, planning and motivation. The findings revealed significantly lower levels of teacher competence for staffs in lower
class schools. Principals rated eighty-five percent of teachers in the highest quartile of school socio-economic status as being highly competent, while sixty-nine percent of teachers in the lowest quartile of school socio-economic status were rated as being highly competent by their principals. A similar relationship was found when teachers' competence was rated by their colleagues. Teachers in high socio-economic areas were consistently rated as more competent than those in lower socio-economic areas. The differences were significant on six out of eight items.

In conclusion, the Herriot and St. John study revealed that inner-city teachers are less experienced than teachers elsewhere, have a lower morale than teachers in middle class schools, are generally dissatisfied with, and anxious to move from their present school and are judged, by both principal and teaching colleagues, to be less competent than teachers in middle class schools. 29

The consequences are predictable. Many teachers, in the inner-city against their preference, leave at the first opportunity. Novice teachers, with similar negative attitudes, move in and wait their turn to be promoted out of the ghetto school, or leave teaching all together. 30 Some writers suggest higher salaries to attract good teachers to inner-city schools and to encourage them to remain there. 31 However, most

29 Ibid.
31 Conant, Slums and Suburbs, p. 68.
authors cited appear to find the problem rooted in human relationships rather than inadequate incentive salaries.

Recommended Teacher Attitudes for the Inner-City

It has long been acknowledged that no matter what else a child learns, he learns the teacher. Whether the children accept or reject what the teacher teaches depends, to a large extent, on their perception of him. If he is seen as a fair and understanding individual with genuine concern, it would be reasonable to assume that his teaching would be more readily acceptable to students. Moreover, his positive attitudes and confident behavior would serve as a valuable model and students in turn may be more likely to develop those characteristics. Such alterations of pupil behavior promise increased and more meaningful learning, as well as more positive attitudes towards self and others.

The identification of teacher attitudes that alleviate classroom problems indigenous to inner-city schools has been attempted by several writers. Elizabeth Eddy has concluded:

All the unresolved issues in urban education and the slum pupil are those of how human beings relate to each other so that the educational task may occur.32

Other writers have suggested ways in which "human" relationships between middle class teachers and their inner-city students might be developed.

Above all, disadvantaged children, even more than others, need to know that the teacher accepts them and wants them in the room. They need special assurances from the teacher who, if necessary should go out of his way to make them know they belong to the group and that the school is for them.33

This approach, however, should not confuse sympathy with empathy.

To be sure we want teachers who are sympathetic and who are ready to accept their students as individuals regardless of socio-economic level, but sympathy without understanding may be nothing more than sentimentality and sentimentality alone is inadequate preparation for teaching.34

Frederick Lewis expresses the same idea.

I venture to say the single most important quality for the teacher of the disadvantaged child is compassion. I use the term in its most general sense, without condescension, without pity, without sentimentality. It is sympathy in the sense that psychologists employ the term 'empathy'. It is selflessness that is intellectual as well as emotional.35

Teacher empathy and understanding for inner-city students should be based on a genuine acceptance and respect for disadvantaged children. Martin Buber has stated that real education involves "accepting (youth) before desiring to influence him".36

---

33 Noar, "Teaching the Disadvantaged", p. 21.


35 Frederick H. Lewis, "Teaching in a Depressed Area: Most Important Quality for the Teachers of Disadvantaged Children is Compassion," Clearing House, XXX (April, 1956), 497.

his "Teachers of the Poor: A Five Point Plan" listed "Building respect for disadvantaged children and their families", as the first point.

He emphasized that:

... the secret of respect for someone is to know his positives, his strengths. Unfortunately, too many who talk of respecting these children really see nothing to respect. The point is that you can't respect in a general way. To have genuine respect you must know the culture and its positives, you must appreciate how these people cope with their environment, and how coping with it, they have built their culture.37

This kind of genuine respect for ghetto children, and the acceptance of these children that can follow, could be nurtured if teachers were truly aware of, and understanding of, the problems of the ghetto community. Pearl, Burns and Foster writing of the attributes of effective teachers emphasized that:

The teacher must be able to understand the student's world. Teachers currently build barriers between themselves and students because they have been provided with inadequate theory and outmoded concepts. Students are eager to learn, and they cease to grow only when informed that they are intellectually incompetent, not useful to the classroom and intruders in the educational process.38

Reinforcing these ideas Gordon indicated that the educator who is to work with minority group youngsters must have a greater appreciation of values indigenous to the younger and at the same time try to blend these values into those of the greater society. "The intelligent adult must learn to live in both worlds." He stated further


38 Smith, Teachers for the Real World, p. 8.
that in order for significant progress to take place, persons offering
guidance to these children must "be sensitive to some of the social-
psychological problems that may derive from the status of these students
in the school."  

The amount of relating and responding between teacher and
students in any classroom is an indication of the classroom climate
and a measure of the communication that is taking place. Kornberg
listed personal qualities of teachers as prerequisite to a classroom
climate which encourages relationships, not alienation. Those
characteristics listed are: directness, self-assurance, respect for
students, enthusiasm and consistency.

Classroom communication is based on a measure of trust between
both teachers and students. On the teacher's part this trust is built
upon his own self-confidence coupled with confidence expressed in the
abilities of his students. Sergeant declared self-confidence to be
an important product of self-awareness, that the inner-city teacher
needs to trust himself to try new ideas and meet problems head on.

---

39Edmund Gordon, "Counseling the Disadvantaged: Avenues to

40Leonard Kornberg, "Meaningful Teachers for Alienated Children,"
in Education in Depressed Areas ed. by Passow, p. 276.

41Barbara B. Sergeant, "Teaching and Teacher Education for Urban
Disadvantaged Schools," Journal of Teacher Education, XVI (June, 1965),
168-69.
Snider went one step further proposing that the teacher must not only reflect an attitude of faith and confidence in himself, but must be able to project these attitudes to the children. 42

Teacher self-confidence and faith in the children will be reflected in actual student performance. According to Gordon, the teacher's hope and expectation that socially disadvantaged children can learn will be catalytic enough to create the necessary conditions to permit effective learning. This teacher is one who, Gordon said, will have the attitudinal capacity and be open, ready and qualified to direct experimentation and innovation in directed learning. 43

Much of the literature investigated equated the self-concept of the teacher with that of the student. Because of the low self-concept of the typical slum youngster there seems to be even more pressing a need for a confident teacher in the inner-city classroom. Klopf felt there is a critical need for developing an awareness of self and strengthening of the self-concept in both the teacher and the child. 44

Self-confidence has been notably absent in new inner-city teachers. The problems involving contrary life styles, values, mores and culture are reflected in the classroom and cause many beginning

42 Margaret A. Snider, "Teaching and Teacher Education for Urban Disadvantaged Schools," *Journal of Teacher Education*, XVI (June, 1965), 159-61.

43 Edmund Gordon, "Desired Teacher Behavior", p. 28.

teachers to feel defeated and dissatisfied with their jobs.\textsuperscript{45}

Confidence has been reported to be of extreme psychological significance as a teacher begins his career in such an alien and threatening environment.\textsuperscript{46}

The literature expressed the need for open, well-adjusted, confident and mature individuals who aspire to teach in inner-city schools. The question remains as to how to identify and prepare such individuals. Moreover ways must be found to encourage them to accept and retain inner-city teaching jobs.

\textbf{Teacher Education for the Inner-City}

\textbf{Experimental Programs}

A number of attempts have been made to provide some form of special preparation for teachers of the disadvantaged. Efforts to change prejudiced attitudes through a greater awareness and understanding of the inner-city milieu and to develop self-confidence through direct experiences with inner-city problems and people have usually been incorporated into such programs. Projects have involved both pre-service and in-service preparation. In this section some of these programs are discussed, based on the following classifications:


\textsuperscript{46}Sergeant, "Urban Disadvantaged Schools", p. 168-69.
participants, goals, design and format of the project, and evaluation of its success.

**Hunter College Project 120.** A seemingly effective experimental program involved the enrichment of the student teaching segment of a college education course. Project 120 is offered to volunteers at Hunter College in New York who have qualified for student teaching. Practicum experience is provided in an inner-city school under the direction of regular student teaching supervisors and a special project co-ordinator.

One aim of the program is to help inner-city schools in New York City recruit and retain teachers to work with disadvantaged students. Students enrolled in the project are led to a greater understanding of the dynamics of slum living and how to cope with classroom behavior which is a result of living in such an environment. The program, through evaluation of its innovative aspects, seeks to explore factors that will improve teacher education for these schools.

Every effort is made to familiarize the student with the community to dispell any fears and prejudices the student may have about disadvantaged areas and their inhabitants. The project co-ordinator is available as a supportive guide and counselor for student teachers.

The results of the program indicated that a large number of Project 120 graduates are still teaching at the schools where they student-taught four years previously. At Junior High 120 where the project began twenty-three out of ninety-five teachers are project
graduates. In addition, project graduates teaching in schools involved in the program have been helpful in the orientation of each year's incoming student teachers. Although many Project 120 graduates have remained in inner-city teaching positions, no evidence was given which supported the fact that their tenure was due to their background training.

*Coppin State College Project.* A one year undergraduate teacher education program at predominately Negro, Coppin State College, has been set up to prepare volunteer teachers for the inner-city. The first participants were nineteen lower middle class volunteers. As the volunteers were, in a large measure, counterparts of their prospective students in terms of racial origin and residential proximity, it was hypothesized that rapport between teachers and students could be readily established.

The program was designed to offer special courses in educating the disadvantaged. Lectures were open to community residents who were invited to share in the teacher education program. A campus laboratory school was used to prepare the volunteers for their student teaching experience in three inner-city elementary schools.

Evaluations of the program by the participants indicated a general consensus that it was useful and worthwhile. However, criticism was leveled at the biased sample of inner-city students in the college's laboratory school. This would seem to stress the importance

---

47Schueler, *Project 120, A Special Student Teaching Program.*
of a true background model which could actually contain or simulate the inner-city school and its environment. 48

Human Relations Institutes. During the summer of 1965 seventy-five training institutes were held at major university campuses. The institutes, funded by the U.S. Office of Education, provided four major learning experiences. These included: (1) an understanding and appreciation of the historical, cultural, social, psychological and economic origins and background of typical inner-city residents, (2) the introduction of special materials and methods for inner-city classroom instruction, (3) some form of sensitivity training with varying emphasis on self perception of others and group dynamics based on participatory group experiences, and (4) a practicum with disadvantaged children from a nearby inner-city elementary school. In some cases, field trips to inner-city communities were also held.

The workshop sessions can be described in more detail by examining specific examples. At Northwestern University a seven week institute for Advanced Study for Teachers, Principals and Supervisors of Disadvantaged Youth was conducted. Emphasis of the program was on combining theory and practice through lectures, field trips, viewing and evaluating films and video-tapes, small group and one-to-one discussions with members of a Chicago youth gang, study of music and art forms useful in teaching, role playing and individualized reading.

Among the seven objectives of the institute were: to increase

the participants' abilities to develop within each pupil a sense of his own worth and potentiality, to encourage a spirit in teachers which will not admit to a hopeless situation, and to sharpen insights into the limited experimental backgrounds of disadvantaged pupils and educational problems resulting therefrom. 49

Recommendations suggested at the end of the Northwestern Institute were that: (1) specialists from various fields (especially the social and behavioral sciences), and also from schools systems and appropriate agencies and organizations should participate in planning and conducting institutes for teachers of pupils from underprivileged backgrounds, (2) evaluation should be an integral part of the workshops and should answer the basic question, "Did the experience prepare the teachers to teach disadvantaged pupils?", (3) follow-up activities should be planned so that a continuing and supportive relationship be maintained between the university, school systems and the inner-city teachers. 50

At Hunter College the summer Human Relations Institute for inner-city teachers was conducted with forty-five participants chosen from over 700 applicants. 51 Each applicant was rated on teaching

49 Chandler, "Teachers for Disadvantaged Youth", p. 77.

50 Ibid., p. 78.

experience, academic record, principal's recommendations, the interest expressed by the principal in making use of the teacher's institute experience, and a statement by the applicant about how he intended to use the experience. The format of the Hunter College sessions were structured in accordance with the general principles concerning learning experiences the institutes were to provide, as outlined above.

The immediate results of the institute were measured by both objective and subjective tests. Two objective measures were administered before and after the institute. The first instrument was comprised of a series of statements describing incidents involving minority group members. The respondent selected a statement he thought would most accurately describe the feelings of the person involved. A comparison of before and after scores showed a clear, but not statistically significant, trend in the desired direction.

The second objective instrument attempted to determine changes in two variables: (1) willingness to be open about one's feelings with students, colleagues and superiors and, (2) willingness to give these persons feedback about one's own feelings about them. The results of comparing before and after scores showed measures of both variables to be statistically significant in the desired direction.52

A subjective measure of the immediate results of the institute was also used. At the end of the institute participants re-evaluated a questionnaire they had completed at the beginning of the project. The results of the re-evaluation supported the findings of the

52 Ibid., p. 250-251.
objective instruments.

A definite weakness of the institutes was the lack of follow-up research to determine the effect of institute participation on teacher classroom performance. The need for this kind of research gave rise to Project Aware. This program was supported by the U.S. Office of Education. It attempted to gather data on the operation of the institutes through visits to institute sites, interviews with staff and participating teachers and follow-up classroom observation.

One of the preliminary findings was that eighty-one percent of the participants asked for more emphasis in the instructional content part of the institute on strategies, techniques and materials for practical application of new insights into teaching behavior in the inner-city classroom. A problem restricting the realization of such a program is the lack of pedagogical certitude about formulae for teaching disadvantaged persons. Nevertheless, one of the Project Aware recommendations was that there be more experimentation and research to develop such formulae. Another recommendation was that there be more research and evaluation with respect to experiential learnings by teachers of the disadvantaged under sensitive and creative supervision.54

53 William C. Kvaraceux, "Programs for the Disadvantaged: Promise or Pretense?" National Elementary Principal XLV (February, 1966), 59-64.

54 Ibid.
The Preface Plan. During the summer of 1966 an experimental project involving training to increase the competence and confidence of teachers newly assigned to schools in low income neighborhoods was initiated at The Ohio State University.\textsuperscript{55} Robert Strom has suggested that the summer after graduation and just preceding the teacher's first classroom experience is a crucial period of time for specific preparation for the slum school assignment.\textsuperscript{56}

Twenty-one teachers (nine with no previous experience) participated in the six-week workshop called the Preface Plan. The workshop included a wide variety of activities. Visits were arranged with resource teachers from schools where the new teachers would be working. Lectures were presented on poverty, the lower class family, the self-concept and motivation. Films were viewed, home visits were made in the ghetto community and juvenile court sessions were attended.

Participants expressed more confidence about beginning their inner-city teaching assignments at the end of the workshop than they had at its commencement. They particularly valued their direct experiences with the disadvantaged. During the next school year monthly in-service meetings were held. The resource teachers, building principals and the project director observed each teacher's classroom and offered help with any problems.

The instructional effectiveness of workshop participants was

\textsuperscript{55}Strom, \textit{The Preface Plan}.

\textsuperscript{56}\textit{Ibid.}
not compared with a control group. However, at the end of the school year nineteen of the teachers in the program were ranked by their principals as average or better. Evidence of attitude change toward an inner-city teaching assignment was also noted. After the first year of inner-city teaching, twenty out of twenty-one Preface Plan participants elected to teach in a low income school as compared with eight who had volunteered to teach there at the outset of the experience.

The major conclusion that can be drawn from the above review is the need for further and more complete research directed toward improving preparation programs for teachers of the disadvantaged. Evaluation of the forementioned programs was often of a subjective nature. In addition, the design of some of the programs did not facilitate the strict control of variables which may have provided a more valid assessment of the effectiveness of the training methods used.

Recommendations for Inner-City Teacher Education Programs

The implications for teacher education programs appeared to be clear. The Task Force of the National Institute for Advanced Study in Teaching Disadvantaged Youth suggested:

One of the basic tasks of those responsible for designing programs of teacher education is to work out ways to help the trainee become aware of his attitudes, and to provide situations that will cause the trainee to reflect upon his attitudes and effect
changes in them.  

In discussing the kind of pre-service preparation that would help to orientate future inner-city teachers for their work the Task Force stated:

The teaching of poor children does not require unique skills, . . . it does require broad life experiences which few middle class teachers have had. . . . It is necessary for the teacher to face his personal problems squarely and to include in his program of preparation experiences to shock him into the realization of his prejudices and show him how to deal with them.  

Goldberg offered the following which enlarges and clarifies this idea.

Since a considerable portion of teaching style derives from attitudes and values, teachers of disadvantaged children would need in addition to cognitive learnings experiences through which to come emotionally close to the feelings, the anxieties, the aspirations of slum children and through which to examine their own feelings and reactions. 

Strom added emphasis to the special needs of inner-city teachers and the importance of certain kinds of training.

There are indigenous to slum school assignments certain difficulties which require special training for the teacher. Yet unlike the social worker and other members of the supportive staff who are trained in urban sociology, teachers often lack knowledge which might increase the relevance of instruction, the length of their tenure and the degree of their satisfaction.

57 Smith, Teachers for the Real World, p. 90.
58 Ibid., 11.
60 Strom, Teaching in the Slum School, p. 32.
Langberg and Freedman concluded that teacher training institutions need to find an effective format in which:

... the diminuation (SIC) of projected fears of hostility, the aversion of certain sensitivities and guilts, and the verbalization and reduction of anxieties can occur.61

From their study they concluded that it was equally important to

... provide an effective interpersonal technology including perhaps a repertoire of responses to categories of disciplinary and disruptive situations. 62

Rationale for such a behavioral approach to the problem was based upon the ability of the aspiring teacher to select from available alternatives in such situations.

Riessman outlined general principles whereby teachers would receive training in his five point plan which would be applicable to any materials designed to prepare teachers for the inner-city. They are:

(1) Where possible, teachers themselves, (master teachers, consulting teachers), should do the training or group leading. . .

(2) Training that is provided close to the operations in which it will be utilized will be most effective. . . . trainers should visit the classrooms, observe the teachers closely, and discuss problems and suggestions with them in considerable detail. . .

(3) A group or team approach should be a central feature in the training with a strong emphasis on building esprit de corps in the groups. . .


62 Ibid., p. 40.
(4) Full participation of the trainees should be intensively solicited with regard to encouraging them to formulate their needs, the way they see their problems, and their suggestions for meeting these problems. Hence small teacher meetings should be organized to discuss (and role play) ways of meeting classroom difficulties...

(5) In order to have the training become a part of the neuromuscular make-up of the trainees, a variety of techniques should be instituted: supervisory conferences, role-playing films, demonstrations, quizzes, intense brief reading, small group discussions, lectures, debates and the writing of a paper.63

Riessman based this methodology on the principle that people learn through a variety of styles (role playing, films, etc.) and that in a training period of short duration it is necessary to provide as much active practice and involvement and feedback as possible in order to internalize the material.

Such training and use of special materials and techniques was advocated by the Task Force of the National Institute for Advanced Study in Teaching Disadvantaged Youth.

There is perhaps as much a need for the development of extensive amounts of diagnostic and instructional materials for attitudes as for training in the techniques of teaching. Such materials are needed at the earliest moment to be incorporated into teacher education programs.64

Importance was given to the

. . . studying (of) actual behavioral situations and interpreting them with the concepts which are to be learned and subsequently used in teaching.65

63 Frank Riessman, "Teachers of the Poor", pp. 413-415.
64 Smith, Teachers for the Real World, p. 90.
65 Ibid., p. 51.
These situations would be held **in situ** or reproduced in a realistic manner through audio and video tapes and would cover all aspects of home, street, playground and classroom situations, of committee meetings and interviews. Such a collection is referred to as "protocol materials" and would include all grade levels, socio-economic settings and teaching procedures.

The following items are a summary of what the literature and experimental program results described as the methods and means to help teachers acquire those attitudes deemed necessary for teaching in the inner-city. Only those items which can specifically be utilized in the university classroom before actual teaching experience, were enumerated.

1. Active participation of involvement of trainees in solving classroom problems should be encouraged.

2. Training modes and materials which duplicate as nearly as possible the actual environment where the teachers will be working should be provided.

3. Supervisors, consultants, or master teachers should hold demonstrations, conferences, and group discussions with trainees throughout the laboratory experience. (They should be the same personnel who later work with student teachers in the actual classroom or community.)

4. Supervisory personnel should observe behavior of prospective teachers and, where possible, formally evaluate participation and performance of teachers.
(5) Role plays and games to help trainees discover ways of dealing with classroom problems should be frequently used.

(6) Films and/or video tapes can provide more realistic problem solving opportunities.

(7) Intense brief readings will give students useful knowledge on which to base their discussion and solutions to problems.

(8) Writing a paper of individual impressions and conclusions of experiences will provide trainees with an opportunity to synthesize and crystallize thinking and attitudes.

(9) Opportunities to concentrate on psychological, sociological and cultural problems of the inner-city rather than purely specific subject matter will give novices confidence about the milieu which they are about to enter.

(10) In safe atmosphere for controlled and systematic study trainees may practice skills and problem solving without fear of reprisal.

(11) Prospective inner-city teachers should be provided with proven classroom problems from which a repertoire of responses can be formulated.

(12) Some form of sensitivity training with varying emphasis on self perception of others and group dynamics based on participatory group experiences will sharpen trainees' awareness and ability to understand and empathize with differing values and points of view.

(13) Use of actual inner-city informants (i.e. teachers, students, parents, etc) will make pre-service training
more realistic and interesting.

A fact that is becoming increasingly recognized is that education programs preparing teachers for inner-city school assignments should provide experiences so that pre-conceived prejudices about inner-city teaching could be lessened. How can such experiences be provided for and structured within existing teacher education programs? In part, the problem seems to be one of providing experiences in inner-city classroom problem-solving whereby a practical application of theory could occur. Foshay talked of techniques being used in "bridging courses" which would relate academic subjects to practical teaching. Students would solve professional problems through the use of simulation, such as the case method, films, role-playing, games and the like.66

Simulation in Teacher Education

Simulation Defined

This growing emphasis on laboratory experiences which would act as intermediaries between theoretical course work and practice teaching for prospective teachers has brought to the forefront an old training technique known as simulation. Many definitions exist for the term and the technique has been employed at various levels of sophistication. An operational definition for training personnel is:

... the imitation of reality described in behavioral terms and delineated by detailed task descriptions of what is to be simulated and to what specific end the simulation will serve.67


A definition which more closely relates to the problem of the study states simulation to be:

... the creation of realistic models to be operated by participants in order to provide them with problem solving experiences related to their present or future work.68

Focusing on teacher education simulation has been defined as:

... a total picture of a complex situation (which) requires the student to make professional judgments and decisions -- to utilize his best understandings and principles as a basis for decision making in choosing and designing certain teaching behaviors which he would employ in this particular teaching situation.69

For this study the definition of simulation was:

A life-like imitation of an inner-city classroom wherein prospective teachers are presented with and given opportunities to solve typical critical teaching problems of inner-city teachers.

Simulation Applications in Teacher Education Programs

Several experimenters have used simulation techniques in teacher preparation programs. Simulation treatments have consisted of the use of a variety of materials singly or in combination as dictated by specific needs. These include: films, role-plays, recordings, discussions, transparencies and printed materials such as written

---

68 Cruickshank, Problems of Beginning Teachers, p. 2.

incidents, cumulative records, courses of study and the like.

Hershey et al experimentally compared two methods of teaching the application of principles of educational psychology to teaching practice; (1) off-campus trips for classroom observation and (2) on-campus simulated teaching experiences. Subjective ratings revealed that students felt classroom observation had more general benefit on their development as teachers although the simulated teaching experience was rated more helpful in mastering certain teaching skills.\(^70\)

Although the work by Hershey et al appeared to be employing the technique of micro-teaching (i.e. certain teaching skills were to be mastered), equal emphasis was given to the use of psychological principles and concepts as bases for using the teaching skills.\(^71\) This vicarious process of putting to use such knowledge and understanding touches on the domain of simulation.

Other investigators have used simulation as a method of instruction to develop teaching skills in specific subject fields. Utsey et al used simulation materials in a procedure to train reading teachers in the use of the Informal Reading Inventory to assess a child's reading level. Initial testing indicated that students using this method were able to assess reading levels with more accuracy than teachers with an average of more than eleven years of experience. Film simulations were found to be a useful tool for establishing referents

\(^70\)Gerald L. Hershey, Loraine V. Shepard, and John D. Krumboltz, "Effectiveness of Classroom Observation and Simulated Teaching in an Introductory Educational Psychology Course" Journal of Educational Research, LVIII (January, 1965), 233-236.

\(^71\)Ibid., p. 234.
common to instructors and student teachers.  

Role simulations for pre-service science teachers has been developed by Urbach. Called the Science Inquiry Laboratory Simulation, it is used to give science methods students opportunities to practice inquiry and pseudo inquiry laboratory teaching methodology. Students work together in pairs and within larger teams of four to six directed by the simulation. The laboratory session is followed by intensive debriefing and student practice teaching exercises.

Applications of simulation to teacher education programs have also been carried out in a more general sense to prepare students to become more effective teachers. Many of these investigations have been conducted in conjunction with student teaching.

Studies at the Learning Systems Institute at the College of Education of the Michigan State University dealt with equipping students with simulated experiences for making sound decisions in the classroom. Subjective implications were that the technique could be employed in teacher training to sharpen student teachers' ability to draw from available clues in the classroom setting and to make decisions which would produce desired results.


73Cruickshank, "Simulation in Preparing School Personnel", p. 20 quoting Floyd Urbach, "Science Inquiry Laboratory Simulation".

At Indiana University, Project Insite, an experimental five year internship teacher education program utilized integrated simulations during an "Acroclinical Semester". This semester provided a highly concentrated and compressed educational experience including educational methods courses and student teaching. Simulation was used as one of the teaching and learning processes at propitious times throughout the semester. Very often simulations were put together for specific incidents or problems. The flexibility was advantageous for planned situations, but there was no indication that the background model was validated.

Simulations were used in four categories: (1) instructional activities and problems, (2) discipline or behavioral problems, (3) relationships with professional and non-professional staff, and (4) parent-teacher relationships.75

Students report that the simulation materials contributed greatly to their understanding of the practical problems facing the classroom teacher.76

As an outgrowth of the Project Insite work a more structured set of simulation materials were developed under the auspices of the Center for Innovation in Teacher Education at the Indiana University and with the co-operation of an inner-city elementary school. The simulation package consists of multi-media materials to provide the

76 Ibid., p. 86.
board context of the general community in which the school is situated, background history of the school, comparative information to contrast this inner-city school with a middle-class suburban counterpart, and materials to relate critical incidents and episodes which the classroom teacher encounters. The purposes of the simulator are to help teachers develop better decision making capabilities and to help prospective teachers identify those principles and/or guidelines that make for effective human relations.77

A classroom simulator developed by Kersh at Oregon provides students with the opportunity of practicing new behaviors so as to experience the feeling of being a teacher. The simulation materials are named "Mr. Land's Sixth Grade" and are designed so that student teachers come to a special laboratory facility for individualized instruction under the supervision of an experienced teacher. Multiple projection techniques are used to present participants with episodes to which the participants react on the basis of information gained from the film and from background materials such as cumulative records. The participant is then shown a possible consequence of his decision as another short film projects the pupils' predicted reaction. This feedback film was made up from what a jury of experts determined to be the most representative student reaction in the classroom. Since no more than three feedback alternatives are available the number of

77 Edward G. Buffie, "Project Simulation" (Bloomington, Indiana: Center for Innovation in Teacher Education, School of Education, Indiana University, n.d.), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)
accepted alternatives to a given episode are limited. The choice of films is determined on the spot by the instructor. Participants actually interact with the children on a film for a total of five to ten hours.  

Research with the Kersh simulator was undertaken to determine principles and skills of using simulation materials for pre-service education of elementary teachers. To evaluate transfer of standards taught in simulation into practice during student teaching, Kersh developed a questionnaire to be completed by supervising teachers. The evaluations of classroom performance of students who had received simulation treatment were compared with evaluations of students who had not received the treatment. The results indicated that although simulation training had no measurable effect on actual student teaching, students who underwent training were judged to be ready to assume full responsibility for a new class three weeks earlier than students who had not received the simulator training.  

The finding that there was no measurable learning transfer between the simulation and student teaching would appear to be greatly affected by the fact that a one year period elapsed between the two events. As Kersh pointed out, "it is quite possible the year's interim preparation also involved the same standards." It would appear that

---

79 Kersh, Further Studies, p. 71.
80 Ibid.
if the simulation had been offered just prior to student teaching, its transfer effects could have been more accurately determined. It is possible that a year's course work and preparation would dilute otherwise significant effects of the treatment.

Experiments were also conducted with the Kersh simulator to determine the dimensions of realism required in the simulation procedures. Variables studied as possible contributors to fidelity in simulation were the size and motion of the projected image.

Findings indicated that the small projections result in higher post-test scores than life size (realistic), displays. The results from experiment two indicate no significant difference in post-test scores between subjects who enacted and subjects who verbalized their responses. The result supports the theory that classroom simulation can be adapted to individualized or group paced instruction where the projections are less than life size and responses are described. 81 Twelker investigated the effects of two types of prompts on learning and transfer of responses to problems of management and communication in the classroom simulation facility developed by Kersh. Results indicate that giving prompts that guided subsequent responses made learning more efficient in terms of sessions required for learning, number of trials required to meet the criterion and adequacy of the first response in training on each problem as compared with not giving prompts. The presentation of prompts that helped identify stimulus

81 Ibid., p. 31.
features to be responded to in the simulation had no effect on learning or transfer.

Implications were: (1) simulation may be a powerful vehicle for teaching principles of instruction or classroom management and control because it supplies common referents, and (2) future classroom simulations need not require students to respond to simulated problems as though they had no principles on which to base their actions since presentation of standards of behavior has a positive effect on learning rate and, in some cases, transfer. 82

Teaching Research has, as an outgrowth of Kersh's work, developed a two phase simulation designed to help participants "become more effective classroom managers and thus better teachers". During Phase One students, by means of an exercise book and film-tape presentation on an audascan projector, react to the manner in which the teacher manages the classroom. The participant chooses a preferable teacher behavior from two filmed alternatives, writing it along with his rationale for choosing it in his exercise book. In programmed learning fashion the participants check their written responses with those contained on the following pages in their exercise books. At a later stage participants see films of how the class would react to the different teacher behaviors. 83


In Phase Two, students are given opportunities to apply the principles learned in Phase One through comparing their responses with those made by "expert teachers" to the same incident. Ultimately, the film shows the probable response of children to the reaction of the "expert teacher", and participants re-analyse the incident having the benefit of knowing how the expert would respond. It was interesting to note that the materials offered the best or "expert" answers to teaching problems. There would appear to be a danger in arming teachers with an arsenal of right answers which might be taken to be generalizable to all teaching situations and suitable to any teaching style and/or teacher personality.

A study by Charles Vlcek investigated the effect and transfer value of a classroom simulator technique using the Kersh Classroom Simulation. Experimental and control groups were randomly selected from junior level elementary students in the College of Education at Michigan State University. The experimental group received nine hours of simulated classroom treatment prior to student teaching while the control group received only an orientation session.

The study sought to determine (1) the effect of a classroom simulation in providing teacher-trainees with experience in identifying and solving classroom problems before student teaching; (2) the transfer value of classroom simulator experience to solving problems
encountered during student teaching; (3) the effect of the simulator training on student teacher's self-confidence in ability to teach.

The simulator replicated a sixth grade classroom by means of "life-like" projections in sound and motion. Problems and feedback sequences were repeated until the teacher trainees elicited the desired response from students in the simulated class.

A post-test was given to both groups after experimental subjects completed simulator training. The experimental group members were significantly better able to cope with simulated classroom problems and were aware of more principles used in solving such problems.

The transfer effect of simulation experience to performance during student teaching was measured by trained observers, university co-ordinators and classroom supervising teachers. The student teacher's awareness of classroom problems, response to problems and application of principles in solving these problems were measured independently by the three groups of evaluators. There was no significant support for the contention that teaching performance of experimental group members reflected a transfer of learning from the simulator experience.

Determination of the effect of the simulation of student teacher's self-confidence in their ability to teach was measured by use of a confidence scale. Findings indicated that student teachers receiving simulation training did exhibit a significantly higher level of confidence in their ability to teach than did student teachers not receiving the training.85

85Charles W. Vlcek, "Assessing the Effect and Transfer Value of a Classroom Simulator Technique."
Bogniard found similar growth in confidence in ability to teach after simulation treatment among a group of home economics education students. This study was concerned with determining the feasibility of using simulation techniques to introduce home economic education students to student teaching.

Simulated classroom incidents were prepared that dealt with problems of classroom management and communication. The prospective teacher's ability to detect, diagnose and resolve the simulated classroom problems was measured. In addition, the student teacher's self-confidence level was determined both before and after participating in the simulation treatment.

Statistical comparisons of pre-test and post-test scores indicated significant positive change in student teachers' ability to assess classroom problems and provide the desired response to solve such problems. Ratings on the confidence scale also showed significant growth in student teacher's self-confidence.\(^{86}\)

Of particular interest to those concerned with constructing education programs for inner-city teachers were Vlcek's and Bogniard's findings regarding confidence. Student teachers' self-confidence in their ability to teach was increased through participation in simulation experience prior to student teaching. Self-confidence has been described as an essential pre-requisite for successful teaching in the inner-

\(^{86}\) Jane N. Bogniard, "The Development and Use of Simulation Techniques in a Pre-Service Program for Prospective Student Teachers" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, 1969).
The Teaching Problems Laboratory, a simulator developed and tested by Cruickshank, was designed to help teacher educators and their students wed theory to practice. The simulation gives student teachers a chance to practice a wide array of decision making processes through materials and media that create a fictitious but life-like elementary school. The classroom interaction may be stopped, taken apart and examined systematically in a non-threatening atmosphere.

In the Teaching Problems Laboratory each participant assumes the role of a fifth grade teacher and through role-plays, films, recordings, individual written responses and small and large group discussions, works through what have been identified to be significant and typical problems of the classroom. In comparison to the Kersh simulation, the Teaching Problems Laboratory is not limited in the amount of feedback responses. Participants working alone at first and then in small groups can derive any number of responses to the problems. This group activity also provides opportunities for confrontations and differences of opinion. As a consequence a repertoire of responses is developed by each participant to fit his own needs and teaching style.

In research with materials which were developed into the Teaching Problems Laboratory, Cruickshank investigated the effect

87 Supra, p. 41-43.

of participation in simulation treatment in lieu of the first two weeks of student teaching. Forty students in each of two semesters were randomly assigned to either an experimental group which would participate in the Teaching Problems Laboratory prior to student teaching or to a control group which would take student teaching exclusive of the simulation experience. It was found that:

... the students who underwent simulation training experienced significantly fewer teaching problems as reported by their supervising teachers than did control group students.\(^89\)

In addition the simulation treatment proved,

... to be at least as effective as an equal period of student teaching in the areas of attitude change, confidence, teaching behavior and amount of time needed to assume full teaching responsibilities.\(^90\)

Cruickshank has developed another set of simulation materials which are similar to the Teaching Problems Laboratory regarding methods, media and principles used, but designed specifically to deal with critical teaching problems of the inner-city. This simulator, known as the Inner-City Simulation Laboratory, was the treatment vehicle for the present study and was discussed in Chapter III.

**Advantages of Simulation**

Simulation techniques promise to provide more relevance to teacher education preparation programs by wedding theory to classroom

\(^{89}\) Cruickshank, Problems of Beginning Teachers, p. 102.

\(^{90}\) Ibid.
practice. Research has supported the contention that students who demonstrate acquisition of knowledge on paper and pencil tests transfer these learning outcomes to real life situations. Simulation has shown promising results for increasing this transfer.

Cruickshank reiterated the feelings of many contemporary teacher educators of a general disappointment with the shortcomings of student teaching and other forms of laboratory experiences. Simulations make the material relevant to the student by involving him in a decision making situation using skills and knowledge that would not normally be applicable until his first teaching experience. Such involvement serves as a stimulus for further learning.

The possibility of simulation experiences taking the place of a part of student teaching is of crucial significance as, (1) colleges reach their maximum size and overburden schools with continuously heavier demands for student teaching spaces; and, (2) as more and earlier field experiences are offered to prospective teachers. Simulation provides a setting which is near reality but without the

---


93 Donald R. Cruickshank, "Teacher Education Looks at Simulation: A Review of Selected Uses and Research Results" (Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, n.d.), p. 25. (Mimeographed).
constraints of the normal classroom. By means of video tape, teaching behavior and the classroom can be systematically studied and analysed.

The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), recently included in its new Standards of the Accreditation of Teacher Education, a section describing the possibilities and advantages of simulated experiences.

Clinical teaching involves the student in the diagnosis and 'treatment' of the individual problem, under the guidance of an experienced teacher. Because it is now possible to simulate many of these situations or to display a selection of real problems electronically... it is now feasible to give much effective clinical experience outside the classroom.94

The standard established by the NCATE requires that the professional studies component of each curriculum in a teacher education program include experiences such as those described in the above statement in order for the college in question to be accredited.

One of the AACTE Teacher Education and Media Project workshops in teacher education was on simulation. The following possible advantages and application of simulation settings for teacher education were included:

(1) Provides intensive focused opportunities to study and to analyse critical teaching problems which may not occur during student teaching or other pre-service activities.

(2) Increases student interest in the professional education sequence.

(3) Provides opportunities for unfettered problem solving free of censure and failure.

(4) Shortens the required student teaching or internship requirement.

(5) 'Opens' teaching behavior.

(6) Decreases teacher problems, thereby reducing teacher failure and turnover.

(7) Aids in teacher recruitment and selection as a situational test.

(8) Orientates beginning teachers.

(9) Provides guided in-service experiences for teachers experiencing difficulties.

(10) Permits classroom teachers to analyze their own classroom behavior.

(11) Substitutes for student teaching or internship settings when they are not available.

(12) Stimulates research regarding teaching problem solving behavior, or the prediction of teaching behavior from behavior in a simulated setting.\(^{95}\)

Rogers felt that simulation forces the student to be completely involved in the teaching or learning act and compels him to shoulder the responsibility for the consequences of his own decisions and actions.

Such experiences would appear to develop a positive type of learning rather than a negative critical type of thinking. . . . Students learn to work with a problem rather than at it.\(^{96}\)

---


Simulations provide a practice setting which permits the prospective teacher to practice problem solving in an almost life-like situation, but without the children in the real classroom being required to act as guinea pigs. Similarly, the simulation participant is not in a threatening situation for which there is no second chance or opportunity to look at a decision objectively and together with other problem solvers. The controlled simulation not only gives all students guaranteed experiences, but the resultant interchange is a type of sensitivity training where participants react to each other as teachers and human beings. 97

Applications of simulation are being developed in counselor training, professional negotiations, and other areas of education, however, the countless possibilities of this technique have just begun to be researched. Investigation of teacher education programs revealed that various proposals for laboratory experiences involving techniques such as simulation have been the subject of experimentation, but little has been accomplished in integrating them into ongoing programs for all prospective teachers. The importance of such experiences was evidenced in a statement by the Commission of Education for the Teaching Profession of the National Association of the State Universities and Land Grant Colleges. The Commission listed as one of its five major recommendations:

... that systematic use of technology be encouraged

97 Donald R. Cruickshank, "Teacher Education Looks at Simulation", p. 27.
especially in the construction of laboratory and clinical experiences to provide controlled practice of individual and clustered teaching skills.\textsuperscript{98}

The value of simulation as one of these laboratory experiences was stated by Cunningham:

My personal view of simulation is that it is the most promising single innovation . . that we have available today. Much, indeed most, of its potential remains to be achieved; we have only begun to invent appropriate means for its usage.\textsuperscript{99}

Cruickshank summed up the potential for simulation in teacher education:

It is appropriate that simulation materials should take their place alongside the many other means that college teachers, school principals, and supervisors use to present the real world of teaching to both pre-service and in-service teachers. There can be no serious opposition to the concept of simulation; the real issue is whether or not such experiences may be used effectively to shift the behavior of the user and thereby improve teaching.\textsuperscript{100}


\textsuperscript{99} Luverna L. Cunningham, "Simulation and the Preparation of Educational Administrators" (paper presented at the University Council on Educational Administration International Intervisitation Conference, University of Michigan, October, 1966), p. 27.

\textsuperscript{100} Cruickshank, "The Longacre School", p. 61.
Summary

Evidence has revealed that inner-city schools have failed to meet the educational needs of the children they serve. Part of the problem appeared to be in the lack of qualified and committed teachers for such schools. Beginning inner-city teachers, most often from "middle class" backgrounds are unprepared for the "culture shock" of the inner-city. The problems involving contrary life styles, values and mores are reflected in teacher attitudes and behavior.

A lack of confidence in their ability to cope with these unfamiliar problems causes many teachers to feel defeated and dissatisfied with their jobs. The result is a high rate of teacher turnover. Among those who remain, negative expectations of student achievement are prevalent. A self-fulfilling prophecy of student failure often is the result.

Teachers who teach in the inner-city must possess realistic and objective knowledge of the total environment of the child. Of singular importance is an understanding of the child's needs which might be fulfilled by the school. Such knowledge and understanding coupled with acceptance and empathy for the child are necessary elements in the development of teachers who would be optimistic and positive about the abilities of their students and committed to teaching careers in the inner-city. Teachers must have confidence in their own ability to teach disadvantaged learners.

Various attempts have been made to provide special preparation
for teachers of the disadvantaged. Projects have involved both pre-service and in-service training and have, for the most part, been appendages to on-going "conventional" teacher education programs. Goals of the experiments have generally been directed toward helping prospective inner-city teachers develop those characteristics and attitudes mentioned above. Emphasis was on direct exposure to the inner-city environment and experience with its inhabitants.

Results of the studies suggested that:

(1) Career commitment of teaching the disadvantaged was positively affected, 101

(2) A true representation of the inner-city had to be used as a background model for valid teacher preparation, 102

(3) Participants developed increased openness of feelings and communication with students and others, 103

(4) Participants were more confident about beginning inner-city assignments. 104

In many cases no attempt was made to measure outcomes and recommendations. Where evaluation was undertaken there often appeared to be a lack of empirical evidence to substantiate the findings. The tentative and subjective nature of the results emphasized the need for further investigation of ways of preparing teachers for the inner-city.

102 Reddick, To Improve Teachers.
103 Miller, "Human Relations Institute", pp. 243-256.
104 Strom, The Preface Plan.
Various organizations and individuals have posited ideal kinds of pre-service preparation for inner-city teaching. These recommendations underscore many of the elements contained in the above mentioned programs. In addition, they suggested methods and means whereby much of the field experience component might be accomplished in the laboratory setting of the university classroom.

Included were individual and group solving opportunities, training modes and materials which duplicate the inner-city environment, role-plays, games, films, video-tapes, recordings and intensive readings. A method which provides for these kinds of activities and media is simulation.

Experimental teacher education programs which have utilized simulation in conjunction with student teaching found that student teachers better understood the practical problems of classroom teachers and experienced fewer problems during student teaching. 105 Simulation was shown to be at least as effective, 106 and in some studies more effective, 107 than an equivalent period of student teaching in helping student teachers to assume full teaching responsibility earlier and exhibit more self-confidence in their ability to teach.

105 Cruickshank, Problems of Beginning Teachers, p. 102.
106 Ibid.
107 Kersh, Further Studies, p. 71; Vlcek, "Assessing the Effect and Transfer Value of a Classroom Simulator Technique."
Simulations provide the prospective teacher with guaranteed and controlled problem solving opportunities which may not occur during field experience. Of significance for inner-city teacher preparation is the life-like, yet non-threatening atmosphere that simulation can provide. The novice can deal objectively with critical teaching problems without fear of reprisal. A true background model will provide him with a realistic repertoire of problems for which he, together with other participants can derive solutions.
CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The major purpose of this study was to produce evidence that might provide a basis for answering the following questions.

(1) Can a simulation treatment enhance a student teacher's feelings of self-confidence in solving problems common to the inner-city school?

(2) Will such confidence be exhibited in actual teaching behavior in the inner-city classroom during student teaching?

(3) What will be the effect of such teacher candidates on classroom behavior of inner-city students they teach?

(4) Will the treatment cause student teachers' personal-social classroom attitudes to improve during student teaching in the inner-city?

(5) Can the simulation experience affect participants' aspirations to teach in the inner-city?

This chapter contains a description of the experiment developed to provide answers to these questions. Included are the experimental design, instrumentation, instrument description and rationale for testing each consequence of the hypothesis. A discussion of the statistical techniques, methods and procedures followed by a description of the simulation vehicle concluded the chapter.
Design for Testing the Consequences of the Hypothesis

The following is a statement of the hypothesis and related consequences, together with the experimental design used to test the consequences.

Abbreviation Key for the Design

R = Randomized selection of subjects

\( X_1 \) = Two week simulation treatment received exclusively by the experimental student teachers; the main independent variable under investigation in the study.

\( X_2 \) = First two weeks of student teaching received by the control student teachers in lieu of the simulation treatment

\( X_3 \) = Eight weeks of experimental student teachers' student teaching following the simulation treatment

\( X_4 \) = Eight weeks of control student teachers' student teaching following first two weeks of student teaching

0\(_1\) through 0\(_6\) = Test times of measures; each hypothesis was tested by a different measure.

The hypothesis for the study stated that:

If an experimental group of student teachers participate in a simulated inner-city classroom during and in lieu of the first two weeks of a ten week student teaching period and a control group spend ten weeks student teaching exclusive of the simulation treatment, then:

\( (C_1) \) experimental student teachers will perceive themselves to be more confident in solving critical teaching problems of the inner-city;
The experimental design for testing this consequence was:

\[ R \ x_1 \ 0_1 \ x_3 \ 0_2 \]
\[ R \ x_2 \ 0_3 \ x_4 \ 0_4 \]

\((C_2)\) experimental student teachers classroom behavior will be judged to be more confident;

The experimental design for testing this consequence was:

\[ R \ x_1 \ x_3 \ 0_1 \]
\[ R \ x_2 \ x_4 \ 0_2 \]

\((C_3)\) classroom students taught by experimental student teachers will exhibit a greater degree of positive classroom behavior;

The experimental design for testing this consequence was:

\[ R \ x_1 \ x_3 \ 0_1 \]
\[ R \ x_2 \ x_4 \ 0_2 \]

\((C_4)\) experimental student teachers will display a greater degree of positive personal-social traits in classroom behavior;

The experimental design for testing this consequence was:

\[ R \ x_1 \ x_3 \ 0_1 \]
\[ R \ x_2 \ x_4 \ 0_2 \]

\((C_5)\) experimental student teachers will express and display more interest in seeking a teaching position in the inner-city.

Two designs and two different measures were used to test this consequence:

(1) \[ R \ 0_1 \ x_1 \ 0_2 \ x_3 \ 0_3 \]
\[ R \ 0_4 \ x_2 \ 0_5 \ x_4 \ 0_6 \]
Instrumentation for Testing the Hypothesis

Two original instruments, a behavioral measure and one previously designed and validated rating instrument were used to test the consequences of the hypothesis.

Consequence 1, concerning student teachers' confidence about solving critical teaching problems of the inner-city teacher, was measured by an original instrument called the Confidence Scale.\(^1\)

Consequence 2 regarding student teachers' confidence displayed in classroom behavior was measured by supervisors' ratings on three sets of bi-polar adjectives on the Classroom Observation Record\(^2\) which deal with confidence.

Consequence 3, concerning classroom behavior traits of pupils taught by student teachers, was evaluated by using supervisors' overall ratings on four sets of bi-polar adjectives of the Classroom Observation Record which deal with attitudes of students manifested in classroom behavior.

Consequence 4, dealing with student teachers' personal social traits exhibited in classroom behavior, was measured by supervisors' overall ratings of the eighteen bi-polar adjectives of the Classroom Observation Record which concern teacher attitudes manifested in classroom behavior.

\(^1\)See Appendix H

\(^2\)See Appendix A
classroom behavior.

Consequence 5, involving student teachers' desire to seek out a position in an inner-city school was determined through two original tests designed for the study, The Student Teacher Interest Survey, and The Behavioral Measure.

Instrument Description and Rationale

Confidence Scale

The Confidence Scale is an original self-rated instrument developed by the experimenter specifically to measure student teachers' self-perceived confidence in being able to cope with problems which frequently occur in classrooms of inner-city schools.

The measure is a hybrid of two earlier ones, a list of ninety-six problem statements developed by Cruickshank, and a confidence scale developed by Vlcek and later modified by Cruickshank.

The Inventory is a collection of ninety-six problem statements which were found to be significantly frequent or severe for inner-city teachers. The decision to use the ninety-six problems as the content for the instrument was based on the fact that the research carried out to determine the incidents appeared to be the most complete and valid

---

3See Appendix I.

4Vlcek, "Effect and Transfer Value of a Classroom Simulator".

5Cruickshank, Problems of Beginning Teachers, pp. 196-203.

collection of actual day to day problems of inner-city teachers available.

To determine the problems, 140 teachers from inner-city classrooms in fourteen cities throughout the United States were randomly selected to provide the desired information for the instrument. For the most part the Inventory asked teachers to describe in detail the school incident that caused them the greatest concern each day for ten consecutive days. One hundred and eighty-four general statements were derived from the 1,000 critical incidents submitted by the teacher respondent. These 184 statements called the Teaching Problems Inventory, were submitted to 287 teachers of the fourteen original school districts. The respondents were asked to consider each of the 184 items and report (1) frequency of problem occurrence and (2) problem severity. By chi-square analysis to the .01 level of confidence, ninety-six of the 184 items were found to be significant on either the frequency or severity scale.

The rating scale used in the Vicek and Cruickshank studies consisted of four answer blocks labelled: very confident, confident, uncertain and very uncertain. This rating classification was adopted for this study. The four categories were placed next to each of the ninety-six problem statements so that subjects could express their existing level of self-confidence in solving each of the problems. Test-retest reliability of the Confidence Scale was conducted with two under-graduate student teaching methods classes a week apart. Internal consistency as measured by the Kuder Richardson 21 Formula was .916 for the first class and .946 for the second, indicating high
reliability.

Classroom Observation Record

The Classroom Observation Record and its Glossary is a rating guide made up of twenty-two continua having a range from one to seven and an N for not observable. For this study the N, for not observable, was eliminated. Each continuum is made up of bi-polar adjectives, four sets of which describe classroom student behavior and eighteen sets describing student teacher behavior. The Glossary simply defines the adjectives used for each continuum.

The instrument was used in its complete form to evaluate the classroom attitudes of the inner-city students and their respective student teachers during the experiment. The Classroom Observation Record has been chosen for this study because of its well established validity and acceptance among educational researchers. In addition, it directly and indirectly concerns the kinds of attitudes manifested in behaviors which appear to be of particular application to slum schools. The instrument was developed from "... (a) teacher behaviors frequently referred to in the literature and (b) significant behaviors of teachers generalized from reports of critical incidents." ⁷ "Critical incidents" were defined as "any observable teacher behavior or act which might make the difference between success or failure in

some specified teaching situations."\(^8\) Such incidents were made up from reports provided by teacher supervisors, training teachers, school principals, teachers, student teachers, and education students in a teacher-training institution. From more than 500 "critical incidents" submitted by participants, a list of twenty-five effective behaviors and twenty-five ineffective behaviors were found to be significant. No explanation was given as to the method by which the fifty behaviors were derived from the list of 500. The final instrument of twenty-two bi-polar adjectives consisted essentially of the list of fifty behaviors.\(^9\)

Items 15, 16 and 17 of the instrument were selected as a measure of confidence. Rationale for their use was based on definitions found in Roget's Thesaurus in which the adjectives were shown to be directly related to and indicative of confidence.

The Student Teacher Interest Survey

The original instrument was designed to measure changes in student teachers' first year job aspirations at pre, mid and post times during the student teaching period.\(^10\)

\(^8\)Ibid., p. 79.

\(^9\)Ibid., p. 81-83.

\(^10\)See Appendix I.
The mid-test was given at the end of the first two weeks of the period to observe any differences between the experimental and control groups after having received exclusive exposures to the simulation treatment and classroom student teaching experience respectively.

Originally the Student Teacher Interest Survey was to consist of the question, "Would you like to teach in the inner-city?" This was to be answered "yes" or "no" according to the existing feelings of the subject being questioned. The measure was then submitted to the scrutiny of a jury of two educational psychology professors, a teacher educator and an educational administrator. Based on the suggestions of the jury, the instrument was altered to permit degrees of choice regarding a subject's aspirations to teach in the inner-city. A second recommendation of the jury was that instructions to subjects answering the questionnaire include an "all other things being equal" clause so that choices would represent a hypothetical ideal teaching aspiration, not one based on real or immediate practical constraints, (i.e. family considerations, spouse's place of work, etc.).

Behavioral Measure

At the termination of student teaching both experimental groups were sent a letter inviting them to a meeting where inner-city job opportunities would be discussed and information regarding available positions would be offered. ¹¹ A letter was sent to numerous

¹¹See Appendix J.
urban school districts across the United States requesting the above information. Fifteen districts responded and their responses and applications were used as a basis for the meeting. Attendance of student teachers at the meeting was determined to be an indication of interest in seeking out a first year teaching position in the inner-city.

**Reaction to Simulator Training**

The *Reaction to Simulator Training* questionnaire was adapted from the one used in an earlier study by Cruickshank designed to be used with the *Teaching Problems Laboratory*. The nature, function and operation of the *Teaching Problems Laboratory* as a simulation vehicle are the same as those for the *Inner-City Simulation Laboratory*, therefore only minor changes needed to be made to render the instrument appropriate for this study.

The first part of the reactionnaire consisted of fourteen questions aimed at the student’s reactions to his involvement in the simulation, his assessments of its value and his suggestions for improvements. A second section required the student to write a paragraph on how he felt the simulation director affected the simulation treatment. Part three asked for the student's general reactions to the simulation experience. A fourth section asked for

---

12 See Appendix K.

suggestions as to how the simulator might be improved. Part five of the reactionnaire asked the students if their attitudes toward inner-city teaching concepts and people had changed over the two week simulation treatment period. Parts two to five were all open-ended questions. 14

Perceived Effects of Simulation Training

This instrument was also taken from the earlier Cruickshank study. 15 It was used with slight modifications and additions. The instrument consisted of seven open-ended questions which asked the student teacher to express his opinions and state his experiences concerning the effects of simulation on his teaching. 16

Statistical Techniques and Procedures

The statistical techniques and procedures in terms of the research hypothesis are described below.

Consequence 1 deals with differences in levels of self-perceived confidence of experimental and control student teachers in solving inner-city teaching problems as measured by the ninety-six item Confidence Scale. The analysis of the difference in levels of confidence was carried out by using a $2 \times 4 \times 2$ factorial analysis of variance representing the two experimental groups of student teachers, the four supervisors, and the two separate testing periods. Repeated

---

14 See Appendix L.
15 Ibid., pp. 210-211.
16 See Appendix M.
measures were performed on factor three.

The testing times were at the end of a two-week and a ten-week period. The purpose of this was (1) to test for any differences in self-confidence between the groups after exposure to two weeks of simulation treatment or an equal time period spent student teaching, (2) to examine the overall comparison of the control and experimental groups, the former having received ten weeks of student teaching and the latter, two weeks of simulation and eight weeks of student teaching, and (3) to observe the difference between the two groups at the end of the experiment.

Consequence 2 deals with supervisors' assessments of experimental and control student teachers' confidence displayed in classroom behavior by means of three sets of bi-polar adjectives in the Classroom Observation Record which deal with confidence (items 15, 16 and 17). The analysis of the differences in ratings was a 4 x 2 factorial analysis of variance representing the four supervisors and the two experimental groups of student teachers.

Consequence 3 deals with specific classroom behavior of students taught by the student teachers as measured by the first four sets of bi-polar adjectives of the Classroom Observation Record (items 1 - 4). The analysis of differences in classroom student behavior was carried out by using a 4 x 2 factorial analysis of variance representing the

---

17 See Appendix A.

18 Ibid.
four supervisors and the classroom students of the experimental groups.

Consequence 4 deals with personal-social traits of the experimental groups during student teaching as measured by the last eighteen sets of bi-polar adjectives of the Classroom Observation Record.19 (items 5 - 22). This consequence required a 4 x 2 factorial analysis as was used in consequences 2 and 3.

Consequence 5 deals with student teachers' inner-city teaching aspirations and involves two measures: (1) the student teachers' response to the Student Teacher Interest Survey and (2) attendance at a meeting at which job opportunities to teach in the inner-city were presented.

For the first measure the student teachers were tested at three different times: just prior to the commencement of the experiment, two weeks after the experiment began and after the completion of the experiment. A 2 x 4 x 3 factorial analysis of variance was used to determine the outcome of this consequence representing the two experimental groups, the four supervisors and the three separate testing times.

The three testing periods were employed (1) to compare subjects' teaching aspirations after the two week simulation treatment or the equivalent two week period spent student teaching to their feelings at the outset of the experiment, (2) to compare any overall differences in subjects' aspirations during student teaching and (3) to observe any

19 Ibid.
differences between the experimental and control groups at the end of
the experiment.

A second measure of consequence 5, to verify whether
experimental subjects would be more likely to seek out a teaching
position in the inner-city, consisted of a head count of subjects from
each group who attended a voluntary job opportunities meeting. A chi-
square test of significance was used to determine the results.
Tests of the two measures served as cross checks in rejecting
or not rejecting the consequence.

All consequences of the hypothesis were tested at the 0.05 level
of confidence.

Selection and Placement of Experimental Subjects

Population

The population from which the sample was selected for this
study was the group of 224 senior elementary education students at the
Ohio State University eligible for, and indicating the intention to
student teach during the winter quarter of 1970.

Sample

Forty-two subjects were randomly selected from the above
population using a random number table. When written application to

[20] E. S. Keeping, Introduction to Statistical Inference
made for student teaching, students are given the opportunity to indicate a geographical preference of assignment. Of the sample of forty-two students, seven expressed a preference for an inner-city setting. These seven were randomly assigned to the experimental and control groups resulting in placement of four to the former and three to the latter group. The sample contained two males, each of whom was randomly assigned to a group. The remaining students in the sample were also randomly assigned so each group consisted of twenty-one subjects. During the first two weeks of the experiment two control student teachers dropped out of student teaching, leaving nineteen in the control group. 21

Experimental and control groups were randomly assigned to the four college supervisors in such a manner that each supervisor was assigned student teachers from both groups.

Placement of Student Teachers

An abstract of a research proposal was submitted to the Director of Field Experiences of the College of Education who forwarded it to the Columbus Public Schools with his recommendation for implementation.

Upon receiving approval of the Columbus Public Schools, 22 a meeting was held with the schools' Supervisor of Continuing Education

21 See Table 2, p. 96.

22 See Appendix F.
to designate student teaching stations and cooperating teachers for the study. The school district assigns priorities to certain schools in accordance with Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, which authorizes federal funds to bring better education to disadvantaged youth. Priorities range from I to V, the lower numbers indicating greater need and incidence of poverty among families within the school district. 23

Forty-two acceptable student teaching stations were located within nine schools with priority designations I through IV. The reason for the limited number was that those inner-city schools which qualified as acceptable for the purposes of the experiment had accepted a maximum of eighteen student teachers for any one academic quarter during the three years prior to the quarter in which the experiment took place. An increase in student teaching spaces involved finding additional teachers in the above mentioned schools who would qualify and volunteer their services as cooperating teachers. Schools were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups so that the student teaching positions were evenly divided between the two groups. Student teachers, in turn, were randomly placed in schools corresponding to their group membership.

A letter from the Supervisor of Continuing Education for the schools was sent to principals of the cooperating schools. This

23 For more information on eligibility for Title I funds see Guidelines Special Programs for Educationally Deprived Children: U.S. Office of Education Publication OE-35079. Also see ESA, Title I Program Guide #36 dated April 14, 1967.
served as a form of introduction of the experimenter and indicated the agreements and support of the experiment provided by the School Board central office.  

Personal calls and visits were made to five principals who were to receive the experimental group of student teachers, apprising them of the study and the fact that the student teachers would arrive two weeks late to their assignments. Because of the nature of the above mentioned letter from the Supervisor of Continuing Education, no attempt was made to conceal the purpose of the study from the experimental school principals. Rather, the research was explained to them with the request that cooperating teachers and student teachers not be told of the nature of the experiment or of the fact that they were being compared with another equivalent group. Neither principals nor teachers in control group schools were apprised of the study since no deviation from their normal procedure would be involved.

Selection of Judges for Rating Classroom Behavior During Student Teaching

Adherence to strict qualifications and training for those persons using the Classroom Observation Record to observe and assess teachers was emphasized by Ryans, the author of the instrument.  

---

24 See Appendix G.

addition, the nature and purpose of the present study necessitated that those who were to assess teacher-pupil classroom behavior have experience teaching in inner-city schools. The following are some of the qualifications listed by Ryans. Others were left out because they were impossible to observe or measure.

(1) Previous experience in teaching the disadvantaged, and supervising elementary student teachers,
(2) Enrollment for graduate study in areas such as educational psychology, educational supervision, educational administration or teacher education,
(3) Representation of both sexes,
(4) Familiarity and interest in teacher behavior, its analysis and assessment,
(5) Willingness to set aside personal biases and to employ an objective approach to the dimensions of teacher behavior selected for this study,
(6) Above average general ability.

A major source of the information obtained in testing the hypothesis was observed classroom attitudes of classroom students and student teachers. Ideally, this evaluation would be carried out by uninterested persons assigned the sole responsibility of uncontaminated and objective classroom observation. Such raters would spend equal periods of time observing each student teacher, avoiding any personal interaction with them. They would be "blind" to the experimental treatment and to which experimental group subjects were assigned. In addition, student teachers would be rated independently and at different
times by different judges.

Because funds were not available to contract such individuals, it was necessary to use student teaching supervisors. The plan for the experiment and the list of supervisor qualifications were presented to the elementary student teaching coordinator of the Faculty of Education of The Ohio State University to determine if there were four supervisors who qualified as judges and were willing to volunteer the extra time and involvement to carry out the experiment. Two males and two females, all graduate students, who appeared to meet the requirements were selected by the student teaching coordinator. Because of their previous experience and existing interest in inner-city teacher education, all four agreed to participate in the study.

Due to the nature of their duties, supervisors were not able to comply fully with the requirements set forth above. Namely, it was necessary for them to interact with student teachers and render unequal amounts of time and help as the need arose. Because of their commitments other than the experiment, supervisors did not have sufficient time to assess experimental students for whom they were not directly responsible. It was assumed that supervisors involved in the experiment would interact with each other at times. However, they agreed not to exchange information regarding the evaluations used in the experiment except during the training sessions where rater reliability was established. Lastly, it was impossible to employ a "double blind" as the supervisors had to know which subjects were arriving late to their classroom assignments. Also, the cooperation
of the supervisors was needed to keep experimental student teachers ignorant of their own part in the experiment, and thereby lessen the possibility of a Hawthorne Effect.

Duties and Responsibilities of Judges

The following was required of the Supervisors in addition to the regular job of student teaching supervision in the elementary education department.

(1) Student teachers were to be treated equally and evaluated without regard to which experimental group they belonged.

(2) Visits and time spent with individual student teachers were, in so far as possible, to be equally divided between the two experimental groups.

(3) Remarks or allusions to the experiment or comparisons of groups and people were to be avoided.

(4) Attention was to be given to assure that cooperating teachers followed the student teacher schedule pertaining to their student teacher. This was especially important during the last two weeks when student teachers and classroom pupils were to be rated by the supervisors using the Classroom Observation Record.

(5) Additional coordinated visits to the student teachers as well as extra student teacher evaluations using the

\[26\] See Appendices C and D.
Classroom Observation Record would have to be made.

(6) Various meetings with the Experimenter would have to be attended.

Training of the Supervisors

In order to prepare the supervisors for their assignments, the following meetings and seminars were conducted:

(1) An orientation meeting to appraise supervisors of the job requirements and behavior stipulations listed in the preceding section.

(2) Individual supervisor briefings with the Experimenter to review the Classroom Observation Record and the accompanying glossary. Supervisors were instructed not to complete actual written evaluations using the instrument until the last two weeks of the student teaching period. Rather, they were to study the Glossary at length to be aware of the attitudes exhibited by student teachers during the first eight weeks of the experiment.

(3) Weekly seminars of the four supervisors with the Experimenter to discuss problems and assure consistent procedure.

(4) A seminar immediately prior to the last two weeks of the student teaching period to train supervisors in the use of the Classroom Observation Record and the Glossary and discuss problems involved in direct observation and assessment.
a. At this training seminar supervisors and the Experimenter simultaneously observed films which emphasized specific attitudinal characteristics of classroom teachers and students\(^{27}\) and made independent evaluations using the Classroom Observation Record.

b. The supervisors and Experimenter discussed observations after each film was completed to compare evaluations and to clarify the bases for assessment contained in the Glossary.

c. Additional simultaneous observations and evaluations were conducted by the supervisors and the experimenter followed by further consultation until it appeared that evaluations were compatible.

d. At the conclusion of the seminar a final inter-rater reliability was established using a classroom teaching film which had not been shown previously. Table 1 shows the results of the ratings of the four supervisors and the Experimenter. Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficients were computed to estimate reliability. Prior to the seminar .70 was specified to be the minimum acceptable correlation coefficient between each of the supervisors and the Experimenter on ratings.

---

### TABLE 1
RESULTS OF SUPERVISOR TRAINING IN USING THE
CLASSROOM OBSERVATION RECORD

Ratings made by Supervisors, (Sup. 1-4), and Experimenter, (Exp.), at the end of the training session.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Sup. 1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>Exp.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pupil Behavior</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teacher Behavior</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rating Range 1-7.
Resultant coefficients were .85, .81, .85, and .80, all well above the minimum specified level of acceptable correlation.

(5) A minimum of six observations of at least one hour to each of the student teachers, and an equal number of conferences with each experimental group. Rationale for the required number and length of classroom observations is that:

... research has revealed that one or two short visitations to classrooms have not paid off in terms of valid assessments of classroom behavior. Interaction of students and teachers must be seen over numerous visits and long periods of time in order for true judgments or evaluations to be made. 28

(6) Three evaluations of each student teacher during the last two weeks of the student teaching period; the first immediately after the training seminar based upon the supervisors impressions over the previous eight weeks of observation, the second during an actual observation of each student teacher during the last two weeks of the student teaching period and the third a composite of the first two assessments after the completion of the student teaching period. Rationale for the above procedure was based in part on Ryans' decision that the instrument lent

28 John Carroll, Foreign Language Seminar Series on Research, Lecture at The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, February 12, 1970.
itself to a "summing up" of specific behaviors in arriving at an assessment and that the assessment was standardized and controlled by the use of the Glossary and the training of the observers. 29

Another advantage of using the instrument over a period of time and as a "summing up" of classroom behavior is that by doing so there would seem to be less danger of the halo effect. Although raters were required to rate all of the characteristics on the instrument, they would have ample opportunity to observe all of these traits in classroom behavior and would not be forced to rate factors of which there seemed to be no evidence for judgment. The reason for only using the evaluations during the last two weeks of the experiment was twofold: (a) because the experimental group, having arrived two weeks later to the actual classroom than the control group, would not be taking over the class until the final two weeks of the student teaching period, 30 and (b) limited time of supervisors permitted only one intensive training seminar. 31

---


30 See Appendix E.

31 Ibid., p. 5. (Ryans found that after a short period of time assessments of observers were likely to show divergence without occasional retraining.)
Supervisor School Assignments

Supervisor assignments as shown in Table 2 were determined at random so that each assignment contained both experimental and control group schools.

The Simulation Vehicle and Treatment

Problems of the Inner-City

The Inner-City Simulation Laboratory re-creates an inner-city elementary school in which thirty-four typical classroom problems are presented to participants on film, through role plays, as a playlet, as a written incident or a combination of two or more of these techniques.

The thirty-four problems were derived from the larger list of ninety-six referred to previously. To arrive at the thirty-four incidents to be used for the simulation vehicle the ninety-six problems were further analysed. Problems were selected which were reported by at least one-third of the teachers as being either frequent, severe or both, until the forty-five most significant ones were identified.

By combining those of the forty-five incidents which were similar, the list was reduced to thirty-seven. The thirty-four incidents used in the laboratory were taken from the thirty-seven problems.³³

---

³² Cruickshank, Inner-City Simulation, Director's Guide.

³³ See Appendix N.
### TABLE 2

**SUPERVISOR AND STUDENT TEACHER SCHOOL ASSIGNMENTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supervisor Assignment</th>
<th>Sup I</th>
<th>Sup II</th>
<th>Sup III</th>
<th>Sup IV</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Experimental Schools</strong></td>
<td>Douglas</td>
<td>Lincoln Park</td>
<td>Clearbrook</td>
<td>Felton</td>
<td>Windsor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of student teachers assigned</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of student teachers dropping out</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total number of Experimental group completing student teaching</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Control Schools</strong></td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>Livingston</td>
<td>Weinland Park</td>
<td>Kent</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of student teachers assigned</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of student teachers dropping out</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total number of Control group completing student teaching</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Description of the Simulator

The Simulated Setting. -- The simulated Thomas Edison Elementary School was a reconstruction of a typical elementary school setting in one of the large city school districts. Every activity and necessary data from the orientation procedure of new teachers to cumulative record cards for a sixth grade were studied, duplicated and organized to produce the reality of the school. The film and filmstrips used are of an actual inner-city school with real personnel and students acting out the incidents. Every possible precaution was taken to assure the model school would, as nearly as possible, provide for the participants a highly realistic inner-city classroom. Participants assume the role of Pat Taylor, a sixth grade inner-city teacher and on occasion have opportunities to role-play other important characters of the inner-city school environment.

General Objectives. -- The general objectives of the simulated experience were; (1) to have participants assume the role of a teacher and other related figures of the inner-city school and community; and (2) to provide participants with as many opportunities as possible to identify, analyze and attempt to solve typical problems of the inner-city classroom. These activities were carried out first by individuals, then small groups and finally by the group at large.

Simulation Materials. -- Participants were provided with a Data Book which contained all of the materials and aids normally available to teachers. Included in the book were; (1) the Faculty Handbook with community information etc., (2) the Response Guidelines which suggest considerations and activities for the participant as he engages in
resolving the problem situations, (3) bibliographical references relating to each incident, (4) sociometric data for the class, and (5) supplemental data such as psychological reports, letters, and discipline records for many of the children in the simulated class.

These materials were easily removed from the data book so that the participants could work with them in conjunction with each pupil's cumulative record folder. Such a folder, about each child, was provided for the participants.

The Physical Setting. -- The simulation was conducted in a large classroom which accommodated the individual and group requirements as shown in Figure 1.

The Treatment Schedule. -- In order to complete the treatment within a two-week period, an average of three to four problems were covered each day as shown in Table 3. Approximately one and three quarter hours were devoted to each problem. After presentation of a problem, participants were given forty-five minutes to react individually using pre-determined questions from the Data Book. 34

Following individual analysis of and reactions to a problem, participants interacted and reacted to each others solutions in small groups of four or five for fifteen minutes. Finally, participants met as one large group, to pool their feelings about the problem. In both small and large groups participants were often directed to role play situations and some incidents were initially presented through pre-planned participant role play.

34Cruickshank, Inner-City Simulation Data Book.
FIGURE 1

SIMULATION LABORATORY SETTING

2. Table with 16 mm projector, filmstrip machine and tape recorder.
3. Participant's tables: four participants at four tables and five at one.
4. This half of the room contained tables and chairs and was used together with simulation room by participants for small group discussions. This provision eliminated distractions, permitting groups to carry on activities more effectively.
**TABLE 3**

**SIMULATION TREATMENT SCHEDULE**

| Day 1/am | INCIDENT 2 | pm INCIDENT 4 |
| Day 2/am | INCIDENT 3 | pm INCIDENT 5 |
| Day 3/am | INCIDENT 6 | pm INCIDENT 8 |
| Day 4/am | INCIDENT 10 | pm INCIDENT 12 |
| Day 5/am | INCIDENT 14 | pm INCIDENT 16 |
| Day 6/am | INCIDENT 18 | pm INCIDENT 20 |
| Day 7/am | INCIDENT 22 | pm INCIDENT 24 |
| Day 8/am | INCIDENT 26 | pm INCIDENT 28 |
| Day 9/am | INCIDENT 30 | pm INCIDENT 32 |
| Day 10/am | INCIDENT 34 | pm Administration of Confidence Scale, Student Teacher Interest Survey, and Reactions to Past Nine Days in Preparation for Student Teaching |
During the treatment and student teaching period the Experimenter did not interact with the experimental student teachers in any manner. The principal duties of the Experimenter were; (1) to train the student teaching supervisors, (2) to carry out the administrative details and preparations for the simulation, (3) to observe the simulation director's behavior and the overall treatment, and (4) to assure that the time schedules were followed.

The Simulation Director. — Attention was given to the role of the simulation director in an attempt to control the effect of his behavior on the participants. To eliminate experimenter bias, the Experimenter did not conduct the simulation laboratory nor did he interact with subjects in any way. Rather, an outside person was contracted to serve as the simulation director.

The individual selected was a doctoral student in education, a former elementary teacher and principal with experience in inner-city schools. Having been exposed to the Inner-City Simulation Laboratory as a co-director for in-service work in inner-city schools, the Director was familiar with the nature and operation of the laboratory. Such familiarity is recommended as a prerequisite for simulation directors. Roles for the director have been suggested for the Inner-City Simulation Laboratory. Summarized, those instructions are that the director will:

(1) not tell the participant what he should do or how he should do it,

---

(2) provide each participant with complete freedom and responsibility for problem solving and allow the participants' decisions and values to be judged by their peers,

(3) reinforce analytic and creative behavior,

(4) raise additional questions,

(5) focus, structure and restructure the group,

(6) ask for clarifications,

(7) mediate interchanges,

(8) encourage participation and interaction of all students,

(9) reassure when and where needed,

(10) help students assume and understand their roles,

(11) remind participants that the Inner-City Simulation Laboratory re-creates only the most severe and most frequently occurring problems of inner-city teachers,

(12) encourage participants to see humor, joy and satisfaction that can be found in incidents and environment,

(13) provide participants with interaction inventories, and to obtain peer perception of their behavior,

(14) rotate participants in small groups to prevent development of cliques, power groups or other social organizations detrimental to the goals of the study. 36

In accordance with the purpose and hypothesis of the study,

36 Ibid., pp. 18-19.
additional instructions were given to the simulation director as follows:

1. Reinforce reasonable solutions and responses to problems.
2. Reinforce behavior which reveals confidence in dealing with problems.
3. Reiterate alternatives and clarify where applicable.
4. Accentuate positive aspects of inner-city inhabitants and environment.
5. Encourage students to read books and articles relating to incidents and the inner-city in general.
6. Reinforce positive classroom behavior expectations of inner-city students, (i.e. that such students will be alert, responsible, confident and initiating versus apathetic, obstructive, uncertain and dependent).
7. Reinforce behavior which indicated interest in teaching in the inner-city,
8. Reinforce teacher behavior which represents the positive poles of the Classroom Observation Record.  

37 See Appendix A.
CHAPTER IV
RESULTS OF THE INVESTIGATION

In this chapter the results of the investigation are presented in two parts. The first section contains the findings from the major part of the study. The problem was to determine the effects of the simulation treatment on student-teachers' self-perceived confidence in solving teaching problems common in inner-city schools, confidence displayed in actual classroom behavior, personal-social traits exhibited during student teaching, and aspirations for their first teaching position. Behavior of classroom students taught by student teachers was also judged to determine any indirect effect of the simulation treatment on such inner-city students.

The opinions of experimental student teachers regarding their involvement in the simulation laboratory and their overall reaction to the effect of the treatment on student teaching are analyzed in part two.

For statistical testing purposes, the five consequences of the major hypothesis were converted into five separate null hypotheses. Analysis of variance techniques were used to analyze all but the last set of data concerning behavior of student teachers in seeking out an inner-city teaching position. For this data a chi-square technique was employed.
Due to the context requirements of the study and some drop-outs, there were unequal numbers of student teachers in the four groups under respective supervisors. Since these cells of student teachers were not significantly different for proportionality according to a chi square test of experimental/control student teachers versus supervisors at the .70 level, a weighted means technique was deemed appropriate for the analysis. For proportionate cell frequencies, the weighted means and the least squares solutions are identical. In the present case, the weighted means technique provided an excellent approximation to the least squares solution.

Null hypothesis I and the first set of data of null hypothesis V were analyzed by hand calculated three-way ANOVA's using the weighted means technique described by Winer.¹

Null hypotheses II, III and IV were analyzed by means of a two-way ANOVA computer program designed for situations with unequal cell numbers.² The program is based on the least squares technique described by Winer.³

---


³Winer, Statistical Principles, p. 224.
Test of Null Hypothesis I

Null hypothesis I: There is no difference between the experimental and control groups of student teachers in their self-rated ability to solve teaching problems of inner city schools.

To analyze the raw data provided by the ninety-six item Confidence Scale, a 2 x 4 x 2 factorial analysis of variance design was employed, representing the experimental and control groups of student teachers, the four supervisors and the two separate testing times. For Factor Three the same measure was repeated for two testing times. The ANOVA procedure provided for the testing of six sub-hypotheses in addition to the major null hypothesis stated above; their importance lay in determining the degree of generality of the conclusions derived from the major null hypothesis.

These sub-hypotheses are:

(A) There are no significant differences in self confidence of student teachers with different supervisors;

(B) there is no significant interaction between supervisors and the experimental groups;

(C) there are no significant differences in self confidence of student teachers across the time of the experiment;

(D) there is no significant interaction between the experimental groups and the times at which self confidence is measured;

(E) there is no interaction between the times at which self-confidence is measured and the individual supervisors; and

(F) there is no significant three-way interaction among the times at which self-confidence is measured, experimental groups and supervisors.

The data collected on the twenty-one experimental student
teachers and the nineteen control student teachers are summarized in Table 4. A summary of the ANOVA results is presented in Table 5.

The results of the ANOVA suggested that null hypothesis I be rejected ($P < 0.01$). The two groups appeared to be significantly different over the time of the experiment with the experimental group being more confident ($\text{mean} = 192.7$) than the control group ($\text{mean} = 215.9$). However, it was necessary to review this conclusion in light of the results of the six sub-hypotheses. Sub-hypotheses A, E and F were tenable at the 0.05 level, however B, C and D were rejected and therefore required further analysis to assess their implications for the major null hypothesis.

The observed group X supervisor interaction (sub-hypothesis B) was further analyzed in Table 6. Table 7 summarizes the data in terms of group X supervisor cell means and Figure 2 is a graphic representation of the observed disordinal interaction.

A significant difference was observed between the experimental and control groups only for supervisor 2. The observed group X supervisor interaction was not expected on this set of data since the Confidence Scale is a student self-rating scale, not a supervisor rated scale. The implications and possible explanation of the observed behavior were discussed in Chapter V.

The second sub-hypothesis to be rejected, sub-hypothesis C, stated there would be no group differences between time 1 and time 2. This observed difference was qualified, however, by the nature of the observed time X group interaction (sub-hypothesis D). This significant
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Supervisor</th>
<th>Student teachers in cell</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Time 1</td>
<td></td>
<td>Time 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>200.5</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>211.3</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>173.0</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>180.3</td>
<td>41.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>194.0</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>270.2</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>155.8</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>178.5</td>
<td>34.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>178.3</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>207.1</td>
<td>48.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>221.6</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>229.4</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>244.4</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>229.4</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>202.2</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>199.6</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>197.5</td>
<td>43.9</td>
<td>194.8</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>217.4</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>214.3</td>
<td>28.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Average</td>
<td>196.9</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>210.5</td>
<td>90.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## TABLE 5

**GROUP x SUPERVISOR x TEST TIME ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE**  
**SUMMARY FOR STUDENT TEACHER SELF-RATED CONFIDENCE SCALE SCORES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Subjects (Ss)</td>
<td>78710</td>
<td>39</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groups (G)</td>
<td>10670</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10670</td>
<td>11.57**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisors (S)</td>
<td>18800</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>626.67</td>
<td>&lt;1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G x S</td>
<td>19728</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6576</td>
<td>7.13**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error between</td>
<td>29512</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>922.25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Ss</td>
<td>37310</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test times (T)</td>
<td>3690</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3690</td>
<td>5.87*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T x G</td>
<td>5090</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5090</td>
<td>8.1**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T x S</td>
<td>4882</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>427.33</td>
<td>2.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G x S x T</td>
<td>4134</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1378</td>
<td>2.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error within</td>
<td>20114</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>628.563</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>116020</td>
<td>79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Significant for $\alpha = 0.01$

* Significant for $\alpha = 0.05$
### TABLE 6

CELL MEANS FOR COMBINED TEST TIME SCORES OF STUDENT TEACHERS ON THE SELF-RATED CONFIDENCE SCALE GROUPED ACCORDING TO SUPERVISOR ASSIGNMENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Supervisor 1</th>
<th>Supervisor 2</th>
<th>Supervisor 3</th>
<th>Supervisor 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>205.9</td>
<td>176.7</td>
<td>232.1</td>
<td>167.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n = 21)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>225.5</td>
<td>236.9</td>
<td>200.9</td>
<td>196.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n = 19)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE 7

GROUP MAIN EFFECTS OF STUDENT TEACHERS ON COMBINED TEST TIME CONFIDENCE SCALE SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO SUPERVISOR ASSIGNMENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group Main Effects</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S 1</td>
<td>855.868</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>855.868</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S 2</td>
<td>9894.59</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9894.59</td>
<td>10.73*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S 3</td>
<td>2433.6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2433.6</td>
<td>2.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S 4</td>
<td>2012.556</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2012.556</td>
<td>2.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>29512.0</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>922.25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant for $\alpha = 0.05$
FIGURE 2

GROUP x SUPERVISOR INTERACTION FOR COMBINED TEST TIME SCORES OF STUDENT TEACHERS ON THE CONFIDENCE SCALE GROUPED ACCORDING TO SUPERVISOR ASSIGNMENT
interaction is further analysed in Table 8 which shows the group main effects at time 1 and time 2. Table 9 summarizes the data in terms of cell means. Figure 3 is a graphic representation of the interaction.

The results reported in Table 8 indicated that although the two groups were different at Time 1 ($P < 0.01$), they were not significantly different at Time 2. This observation had notable implications for null-hypothesis I which was initially rejected. It is apparent that although groups appeared to be different in the overall analysis, at the end of the experimental period (Test Time 2), they were not. The large difference observed at Test Time 1 was sufficient to cause the rejection of Null Hypothesis I. However, the implications and limitations of these observations were discussed in greater depth in Chapter V.

**Test of Null Hypothesis II**

Null hypothesis II: There is no difference in the supervisor ratings of the experimental and control groups' confidence exhibited in classroom behavior during student teaching in the inner-city.

Four supervisors rated the 40 subjects' behavior in the classroom using the Classroom Observation Record. Of the 22 sets of bi-polar adjectives comprising the Classroom Observation Record, 18 concern teacher behavior. Of these, three are singled out as measuring confidence displayed by the teacher in classroom performance. These are items 17, 18 and 19. Hypothesis II was tested in terms of the supervisors' ratings

---

4 See Appendix A.
### TABLE 8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group Main Effects</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>at Time 1</td>
<td>15240.29</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>15240.29</td>
<td>193.8**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time 2</td>
<td>512.51</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>512.51</td>
<td>&lt;1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>49626</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>775.41</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Significant for $\alpha = 0.01$

### TABLE 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Time 1 Mean</th>
<th>Time 2 Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental (n = 21)</td>
<td>178.3</td>
<td>207.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control (n = 19)</td>
<td>217.4</td>
<td>214.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
FIGURE 3

COMPARISON OF GROUP CELL MEANS OF STUDENT TEACHER SELF-RATED CONFIDENCE SCALE SCORES AT TWO TEST TIMES
on these three sets of bi-polar adjectives.

The analysis was carried out in terms of a $4 \times 2$ ANOVA representing the four supervisors and the two experimental groups. This procedure provided for a partial check on inter-supervisor similarity and intra-supervisor consistency. The factorial analysis provided for the testing of two sub-hypotheses (A and B) in addition to the major null hypothesis:

(A) There is no significant difference in ratings of groups having different supervisors;

(B) there is no interaction between the groups and the supervisors.

Table 10 is a summary of the data collected on supervisor confidence ratings of the experimental and control subjects. The ANOVA is summarized in Table 11.

The results of the analysis reported in Table 11 indicated a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in confidence exhibited in classroom behavior as rated by the four supervisors. There are no significant differences either for supervisors or for group X supervisor interaction. Therefore, sub-hypotheses A and B appear tenable and the second major null hypothesis is rejected. According to this measure, the simulation treatment appeared to have a significant effect on student teachers' confidence exhibited in classroom behavior as judged by the supervisors.
### TABLE 10

**Cell Means and Standard Deviations of Supervisor Ratings of Student Teacher Classroom Confidence on the Classroom Observation Record**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supervisor</th>
<th>Student Teachers in cell</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Student Teachers in cell</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental (n = 21)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Control (n = 19)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td></td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td></td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE 11

**Supervisor x Group Analysis of Variance Summary of Supervisor Ratings of Student Teacher Classroom Confidence on the Classroom Observation Record**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F-ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>76.38</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>76.38</td>
<td>4.53*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between supervisors</td>
<td>65.19</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21.73</td>
<td>1.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group x Sup Interaction</td>
<td>21.87</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.29</td>
<td>&lt; 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error within</td>
<td>539.49</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>16.86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>702.93</td>
<td>39</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant for $\alpha = 0.05$
Test of Null Hypothesis III

Null hypothesis III: There is no significant difference in supervisors' ratings of classroom behavior of children taught by either the experimental or control group.

The same two-way ANOVA design utilized in testing null-hypothesis II was used for supervisor ratings on the first four bi-polar adjectives of the Classroom Observation Record concerning classroom pupil behavior. Similarly, the design generated two sub-hypotheses:

(A) There is no significant difference in ratings of classroom students having different raters (supervisors); and

(B) there is no interaction between the groups of classroom students and the raters.

Table 12 is a summary of the data describing the four supervisor evaluations of classroom students taught by experimental and control groups. The 4 x 2 ANOVA on these data is summarized in Table 13.

As shown in Table 13 the major hypothesis as well as the sub-hypotheses stated above were not significant at the 0.05 level. Thus null hypothesis III, that there is no difference in supervisors' ratings of children taught by either experimental group, is not rejected. There appeared to be no significant difference in behavior of inner-city pupils taught by either experimental group of student teachers.

Test of Null Hypothesis IV

Null hypothesis IV: There is no difference in student teachers' personal-social traits as exhibited in classroom behavior.

The analysis of these data was of the same nature as in the previous sets. Four supervisors rated experimental and control group
TABLE 12
CELL MEANS OF SUPERVISOR RATINGS OF CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR OF INNER-CITY PUPILS UNDER STUDENT TEACHERS ON THE CLASSROOM OBSERVATION RECORD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supervisor</th>
<th>Student Teachers In Cell</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Student Teachers In Cell</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td></td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td></td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 13
GROUP x SUPERVISOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARY OF SUPERVISOR RATINGS OF INNER-CITY CLASSROOM PUPIL BEHAVIOR ON THE CLASSROOM OBSERVATION RECORD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>107.15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>107.15</td>
<td>4.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groups within Supervisor</td>
<td>194.05</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>64.68</td>
<td>2.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group x Sup. Interaction</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.17</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error between</td>
<td>853.2</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1169.9</td>
<td>39</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
behavior using the last eighteen bi-polar adjectives of the Classroom Observation Record. The raw data provided by these judgments are summarized in Table 14.

A two-way ANOVA provided for the testing of two sub-hypotheses identical to those of null hypothesis II:

(A) There is no significant difference in ratings of groups having different supervisors; and

(B) there is no group by supervisor interaction.

The two-way ANOVA is summarized in Table 15.

These two sub-hypotheses appear tenable. Thus null hypothesis IV, that there is no difference in supervisor ratings of personal-social classroom traits of the experimental and control group student teachers, is not rejected.

**Test of Null Hypothesis V**

Null hypothesis V: There is no difference between the experimental and control groups' expressed and displayed desire to seek a teaching position in the inner-city.

This hypothesis was tested in terms of two sets of data, (1) the subjects' responses to a questionnaire, the Student Teacher Interest Survey and (2) attendance at a job-seeking session, the Behavioral Measure, where inner-city teaching positions and opportunities were presented.

With respect to the first measure, the subjects were tested on three occasions, (1) just prior to the commencement of the study, (2) two weeks into the study, and (3) after completion of the ten week experiment.
### TABLE 14

CELL MEANS OF SUPERVISOR RATINGS OF STUDENT-TEACHER CLASSROOM PERSONAL-SOCIAL BEHAVIOR ON THE CLASSROOM OBSERVATION RECORD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supervisor</th>
<th>Student Teachers In Cell</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Student Teachers In Cell</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>104.75</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>102.67</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>87.4</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>95.4</td>
<td>25.4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>87.0</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>108.33</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>91.0</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td></td>
<td>102.5</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td></td>
<td>91.4</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE 15

GROUP x SUPERVISOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARY OF SUPERVISOR RATINGS OF STUDENT TEACHER CLASSROOM PERSONAL-SOCIAL BEHAVIOR ON THE CLASSROOM OBSERVATION RECORD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>1222.6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1222.6</td>
<td>2.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groups with different sup.</td>
<td>739.8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>246.6</td>
<td>&lt;1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sup. and groups</td>
<td>270.1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>90.0</td>
<td>&lt;1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error between</td>
<td>13735.8</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>429.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15968.3</td>
<td>38</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A 2 x 4 x 3 factorial analysis of variance with repeated measures on the third factor was conducted to allow comparison of the three variables. The procedure provided for the testing of six sub-hypotheses:

(A) There is no significant difference in teaching aspirations of subjects with different supervisors;

(B) there is no interaction between supervisors and experimental groups;

(C) there is no significant difference in teaching aspirations of the student teachers across the time of the experiment;

(D) there is no interaction between the groups and times at which aspirations are measured;

(E) there is no interaction between the times at which self-confidence was measured and the individual supervisors; and;

(F) there is no interaction between groups, subjects and supervisors.

The data collected on the two experimental groups of student teachers are summarized in Table 16. The statistical analysis of the data from Table 16 is summarized in Table 17.

None of the F-ratios in the ANOVA were significant at the 0.05 level. Therefore null hypothesis V and its sub-hypotheses are not rejected. There appeared to be no differences between the groups in expressed desire to teach in the inner-city.

A second measure on hypothesis V, to verify that neither group of student teachers was more likely to seek out a teaching position in the inner-city, consisted of a head count of subjects from each group who attended a voluntary job opportunities meeting. Attendance figures are shown in Table 18. Thirteen of the experimental student teachers and seven of the control came to the meeting. A chi-square test of
TABLE 16

CELL MEANS OF STUDENT TEACHER EXPRESSED DESIRE TO TEACH IN INNER-CITY SCHOOLS ON THE STUDENT TEACHER INTEREST SURVEY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Student Teachers Supervisor in cell</th>
<th>Time 1</th>
<th>Time 2</th>
<th>Time 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>2.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>2.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>2.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Average</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>2.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 17

GROUP x SUPERVISOR x TIME ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARY OF STUDENT TEACHER SCORES ON THE STUDENT TEACHER INTEREST SURVEY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Subj. (Ss)</td>
<td>25.77</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>2.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group (G)</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>2.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Superv. (S)</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>2.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G x S int.</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>1.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error between</td>
<td>17.17</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>0.536</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Subjects (Sa)</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test time (T)</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.225</td>
<td>&lt; 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G x T</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.125</td>
<td>&lt; 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S x T</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.183</td>
<td>&lt; 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G x S x T</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.417</td>
<td>&lt; 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error within</td>
<td>31.03</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>0.485</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61.07</td>
<td>119</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 18
ATTENDANCE RESULTS OF STUDENT TEACHERS AT THE JOB OPPORTUNITIES MEETING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental Student Teachers</th>
<th>Control Student Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absent</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total N</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The relationship between group membership and attendance is not rejected. The observed value of $\chi^2$ is 2.506. The critical $\chi^2$, for 1 degree of freedom, is 3.84 ($P = 0.05$). This confirms the conclusion drawn from the previous measure, and suggests that there was no difference in the groups regarding the display of behavior to seek an inner-city teaching position.

Reactions to Simulator Training

At the end of the two week simulation treatment the experimental group of student teachers were asked to respond to the experience using the instrument "Reactions to Simulator Training". Part I of the questionnaire consisted of differential choice answers to each of fourteen questions. Parts II-V consisted of open-ended questions.

5See Appendix L.
The student teachers' responses to the questions in Part I are summarized in Table 19. Without exception the students expressed enjoyment in participating in the training, involvement in the simulated situations and more confidence in their ability to solve inner-city classroom problems after simulation training. Student teachers stated that simulation had helped them to develop methods of coping with inner-city classroom problems and that they would all recommend simulation training to their friends. Most of the group termed the simulation more valuable than the first two weeks of student teaching.

Student teachers found the simulation realistic, valuable and meaningful. All but two of them stated that simulation made the material more meaningful than if it had been presented through lectures. Concerning the structure of the simulation most of the student teachers were in favor of group use of the simulation materials and indicated that groups of six students were too small and groups of forty or more participants, too large.

Part II of the "Reactions to Simulator Training" questionnaire was an open-ended question, "How do you feel the Simulation Director affected the simulation experience?" Students provided an overwhelming consensus that the simulation director positively affected the simulation experience. The experimental student teachers' reactions to the director's personal characteristics and his contributions to the simulation both in terms of process and content are listed in Table 20 as they were classified by the Experimenter.

Part III of the questionnaire asked the question, "How do you feel about the simulation experience?" The student teachers presented
## Table 19

RESULTS OF EXPERIMENTAL STUDENT TEACHER REACTIONS TO SIMULATOR TRAINING - PART I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Average*</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I enjoyed receiving training in the classroom simulator.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The classroom simulator was realistic &quot;life-like&quot;.</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>a-b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I felt as though I was involved in the situation.</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>a-c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The discussions were valuable in developing own concepts.</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>a-b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I believe that the simulator experience was meaningful in its relation to real inner-city classroom problems.</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>a-b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I feel that my experience in the classroom simulator will help me have more confidence in solving inner-city classroom problems.</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>a-b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I believe that my experience in the inner-city classroom simulator has helped me develop methods of coping with inner-city classroom problems.</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>a-b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. The inner-city classroom simulator made the material more meaningful than if it had been presented in lectures.</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>a-d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I believe that the classroom simulator experience should be provided on an individual basis.</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>a-d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I believe the classroom simulator experience should be provided to smaller groups (up to six students).</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>b-d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I believe the classroom simulator experience could be provided to an entire class (40-60 students) just as effectively.</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>c-d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I would recommend classroom simulator experiences to my friends.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I believe the inner-city classroom simulator was as valuable as the first two weeks of student teaching.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>a (two &quot;not sure&quot;)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. The classroom simulator would be as effective without a director.</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>c-d</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Assume:  
  a = 4, b = 3, c = 2, d = 1.

* 4 = Optimum.
### TABLE 20
RESULTS OF EXPERIMENTAL STUDENT TEACHER REACTIONS TO SIMULATOR TRAINING - PART II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students' feelings about the role of Simulation Director</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Personal Characteristics:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>warm, wonderful, sensitive, enthusiastic, inspirational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Contributions to the Simulation Process:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bolstered confidence in students' expression of ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>discouraged irrelevance in discussions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>facilitator of relaxed atmosphere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mediator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>guide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>discussion leader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>motivator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>provoked questioning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tended to disdain student's ideas*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Contributions to Simulation Content:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>offered own experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>offered alternatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>looked at problems from different perspective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gave concrete consequences of proposed ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tended to step out of strict role but this was seen as beneficial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* This was the only negative comment.
varied but unanimously positive comments. The experience was described as worthwhile, enjoyable and helpful. Student teachers stated that they were more aware of ways of dealing with inner-city classroom problems and the consequences of using such methods after simulation. They also indicated that they were generally more confident in their ability to solve inner-city classroom problems. A summary of the student teachers' responses to this question is provided in Table 21.

Part IV of the questionnaire asked for the student teachers' suggestions as to how the simulation treatment might be improved. A number of student teachers expressed the opinion that more time was needed for simulation; there were too many incidents and they were rushed through too quickly. Four student teachers described the sessions as too strenuous. Several student teachers suggested a wider variety of techniques be used in presenting the incidents. They particularly felt that role-playing of incidents was valuable and five of the group specifically suggested that more opportunities to role-play be provided for in the simulation treatment. Other ideas for change were generally individually based. Student teachers' responses to Part IV are summarized in Table 22.

Part V asked the question, "Has your attitude towards inner-city teaching concepts and people changed over the past two weeks?" Thirteen student teachers replied in the affirmative. Two indicated some change had occurred in their attitudes. Five indicated no change had occurred in their attitudes. One student teacher did not respond to the question. The changes in attitudes, as explained by the student teacher respondents, are summarized in Table 23.
TABLE 21

RESULTS OF EXPERIMENTAL STUDENT TEACHER REACTIONS TO SIMULATOR TRAINING - PART III

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student teachers' feelings about his simulator experience</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Most helpful, valuable, worthwhile and enjoyable</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Became aware of inner-city classroom problems</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taught ways of dealing with inner-city classroom problems, consequences of such actions, and possible alternatives</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidence gained for actual inner-city classroom problem-solving</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examined feelings and possible behavior, free to express own feelings, broke down mechanical reacting, self-insight</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taught to evaluate others' thoughts and suggestions; relating and listening to others improved</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Became involved with real and relevant problems</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All education students should be required to participate in simulation treatment</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarified vague notions; organized own beliefs</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group discussions of solutions stimulating</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Made good friends</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Looked forward to each session</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role-playing valuable</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Optimum number of participants</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 22

**RESULTS OF EXPERIMENTAL STUDENT TEACHER REACTIONS TO SIMULATOR TRAINING - PART IV**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suggestion</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>More time for simulation, too many incidents, rushed through problems too quickly</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sessions too exhausting</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More variety in presentation of incidents needed</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More role-playing of incidents</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More background material required for some incidents</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Order of incident presentation should be changed</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficult for a Negro student to relate to Pat Taylor</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More stress should be placed on racial problems</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More reading to accompany simulation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promptness for participants should be stressed</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There should be more &quot;pushing&quot; from the director</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There should be smaller groups</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There should be more large group &quot;airing&quot; of opinions after small group discussions</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More Negroes and men needed in the group</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No suggestions offered for improvement</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 23
RESULTS OF REACTIONS TO SIMULATOR TRAINING - PART V

Student teachers' perceptions of their own attitude changes toward inner-city teaching concepts and people after simulator training.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reported Attitude Changes</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>More aware of inner-city classroom problems</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More confident in dealing with inner-city classroom problems</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More sensitive to inner-city classroom problems</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More sympathetic to inner-city classroom problems</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Better prepared for student teaching</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More apt to consider teaching in the inner-city</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More optimistic about changes in education</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Some Attitude Changes Reported</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inner-city teaching more challenging than previously thought</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More understanding of inner-city classroom problems; direct experience will improve this understanding</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No Attitude Changes Reported</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Had previous contact with inner-city problems; did develop more understanding through simulation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always interested in inner-city problems; simulation increased awareness of problems</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No attitude change but more understanding of inner-city problems</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No attitude change but lost &quot;fear&quot; of teaching in the inner-city</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No attitude change in teaching concepts for the inner-city, but greater knowledge of inner-city problems and more confidence to deal with them</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No Response Given to the Question</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Perceived Effects of Simulation Training

On March 12, 1970 after completion of student teaching, experimental group student teachers were asked to complete a questionnaire on the perceived effects of simulation training. The open-ended questionnaire was designed to probe the effects of the simulation training on the student teachers' inner-city school experience, to evaluate their reactions to the simulation training and to determine their opinions regarding its lasting effects. The responses to each of the seven questions that comprised the questionnaire are summarized below.

1. How valuable was your simulation experience to you during student teaching?

Most comments were positive concerning the value of simulation in regards to subsequent student teaching. Several student teachers indicated that the simulation treatment had made them more aware of inner-city school problems. Four student teachers stated specifically that simulation was a useful way of building students' confidence prior to student teaching. Three student teachers stated that simulation made them aware of the inner-city's school child need for respect and acceptance. Two of the group stated that they were better able to cope with classroom problems because of their experience in dealing with the same kind of problems during simulation. Two student teachers felt the simulation treatment was of no real value. They stated that they

---

6 See Appendix M.
received little realistic help in handling inner-city classroom problems from the simulation experience.

2. How would you compare the relative values of student teaching and the simulation experience?

All of the respondents considered student teaching to be a more valuable and worthwhile learning experience than the simulation treatment. However, many of the students suggested that simulation was a good starting point and introduction for student teaching. A number of student teachers suggested that more learning occurred during student teaching because of the preparation for the experience that simulation had provided. In expressing an opinion which was in contrast to the general consensus, one student stated that she had learned nothing new in simulation while she had learned much during student teaching.

3. How valuable do you consider your simulation experience as a contribution toward making your first year of teaching successful?

Nineteen students stated that simulation would be contributory toward a successful first year of teaching. Two students stated that simulation would be of no value in this regard, simulation would be forgotten once in the classroom. Among those student teachers who did see simulation as valuable the opinion was expressed that it broadened one's view of teaching and made one more thoughtful about solutions to classroom problems. Others suggested that the preparation simulation provided softened the shock of beginning to teach in an inner-city school setting. Another student teacher suggested that simulation helped to develop a feeling of confidence about first year teaching.

4. How does the value of simulation compare to other experiences
you had in the OSU teacher education curriculum?

All but one of the student teachers replied that it was one of the most valuable experiences in their teacher education program. Several student teachers stated that it was the most valuable curriculum experience offered. Five cited it as most valuable with the exception of student teaching. Student teachers suggested that simulation was far more stimulating than most curriculum courses. They enjoyed the discussion with others and the high level of participation of all students. One student teacher stated that simulation was too idealistic as were all the education courses at The Ohio State University.

5. Please comment on placement, conduct and content of simulation.

Six student teachers replied that the placement was ideal and offered no suggestions for improvement. Four suggested that a longer time period be allotted to the simulation treatment. Two suggested that the simulation should be given earlier in the teacher education program. One student teacher suggested that simulation should not be a part of the student teaching block. Another specifically stated that it was a good idea to combine simulation training with student teaching. One suggestion was that simulation treatment be given both before and after student teaching.

Eight student teachers stated specifically that the conduct of the simulation was well done and they could suggest no needs for improvement. They cited the freedom allowed to the participants as a positive part of the training and noted that the resulting personal interaction was very beneficial. Those student teachers who did make
suggestions for improving the conduct of the treatment called for
a greater variety of procedures in approaching problems and the use of
real inner-city school children to role play the various incidents.

Six student teachers stated that the content of the simulation
was very appropriate and applicable as it was constituted. Others
stated that the inclusion of a behavior control workshop would have been
useful. One student teacher suggested that simulation presented a
stereotyped situation which was not entirely realistic when compared
with the real situation.

6. Did simulation training make a difference to your student
teaching?

Eighteen student teachers replied in the affirmative; three in
the negative. Six stated specifically that they felt more confident
about their ability to handle inner-city classroom problems. However,
one student teacher stated that this confidence could not necessarily
be equated with actual skill in handling classroom problems. Several
student teachers stated that, after simulation, they were more aware of
inner-city problems and consequently were better prepared to enter the
inner-city milieu. A number of student teachers stated that during
student teaching they used problem solving alternatives they had been
made aware of in the simulation training.

7. Did the simulation training affect your attitude towards
inner-city schools and youth?

Not all of the student teachers answered this question directly.
Of those student teachers who did answer directly thirteen indicated
their attitudes had changed and five indicated that their attitudes had
not changed. However, of these five student teachers, two stated that
while their attitudes had not changed they were more knowledgeable about inner-city problems after participating in the simulation treatment. Attitude changes that were reported by the student teachers were: the ability to see inner-city children as unique individuals, more sensitivity regarding inner-city residents and their problems and more compassion and understanding toward inner-city people.
Summary

The purpose of this chapter has been to present the results of the investigation. The first part was devoted to an analysis of the results of tests measuring student teachers' self-perceived confidence, confidence and other personal social traits displayed in classroom teaching behavior, aspirations for a first teaching position, and behavior of classroom pupils taught by the student teachers. In the second part, opinions of the experimental student teachers regarding involvement in the simulation and its effects on student teaching were analyzed.

Over the time of the experiment there was a difference between the experimental and control groups of student teachers in self-perceived confidence to solve teaching problems of inner-city schools. Due to the great difference between the groups at the first test time (after the first two weeks), an overall comparison of the two groups showed a significant difference at the 0.05 level. Although the experimental group perceived itself to be more self-confident after two weeks of exclusive simulation training than the control group having two weeks of classroom teaching experience, at the end of the total ten week student teaching block the two groups were not significantly different. Therefore in the last analysis, Null Hypothesis I, that there was no difference between the groups of student teachers in self-perceived confidence, is not rejected. An unexpected interaction between the experimental groups and one of the supervisors appeared to affect the outcome of the hypothesis.
Null Hypothesis II, that no difference would exist in the supervisor ratings for either experimental group of student teachers in classroom confidence was rejected. The supervisors rated the experimental group of student teachers more confident using items 17, 18 and 19 of the Classroom Observation Record.

Null Hypothesis III concerned the differences in supervisors’ ratings of classroom behavior of pupils taught by student teachers. The probability of the groups being different was 0.054 which was very close to being significant.

Null Hypothesis IV dealt with the differences in personal-social traits of student teachers in the classroom. Analysis showed that the groups differed at the 0.10 level. Although the null hypothesis was not rejected at the chosen level of significance, the results indicated a trend towards a difference between the two groups of student teachers as in Hypothesis III.

Null Hypothesis V, concerning student teachers’ expressed and displayed desire to seek a teaching position in the inner-city, was not rejected as (1) there were no significant differences between the groups of student teachers on the Student Teacher Interest Survey; and (2) a significantly greater number of either group attended the voluntary job opportunities meeting at the end of the experiment.

Student teacher reactions to simulator training taken immediately after the two week treatment, Reactions to Simulator Training, were for the most part very positive. Without exception, experimental student teachers expressed enjoyment in the training, involvement in the simulated incidents and more confidence in their ability to solve inner-
city classroom problems after two weeks of simulation training. In general, student teachers felt that (1) the simulation director greatly affected the success of the treatment, (2) there were too many incidents which were rushed through too quickly, and (3) the treatment helped them develop more positive attitudes towards inner-city teaching concepts and people.

At the completion of student teaching, experimental student teachers were very positive about the value of simulation in regard to subsequent student teaching as evidenced by the Perceived Effects of Simulation Training questionnaire. Self-confidence was mentioned as being enhanced by the simulation, and generally student teachers felt that the treatment made them more aware of inner-city school problems. All of the respondents considered student teaching to be more worthwhile than the simulation treatment, but the general consensus was that the treatment was a good introduction for student teaching and made them feel more confident in their respective roles. Almost all of the experimental student teachers felt that simulation would contribute to the first year of teaching and felt that it was one of the most valuable experiences in their teacher education program. Several student teachers suggested that a longer time period be allotted to simulation type activities, possibly before and/or after student teaching. The majority of student teachers reiterated the earlier comment that the simulation treatment helped them develop a more positive attitude towards inner-city schools and youth.
CHAPTER V
DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to determine the effect of a two week simulation treatment on student teachers' self-perceived confidence, displayed in classroom behavior, personal-social traits displayed in classroom performance, and aspirations for a first year teaching position in the inner-city. In addition, the effect of student teachers on inner-city pupils' classroom behaviors during student teaching was to be determined.

In the following discussion, interpretations of the results of the experiment and student teacher opinionnaires analyzed in the preceding chapter were presented. Experimenter observations of the simulation treatment were also reported with particular emphasis given to the role and behavior of the Simulation Director.

Self Rated Confidence of Student Teachers

The first consequence of the hypothesis dealt with self rated confidence of student teachers in solving typical problems of inner-city teachers. The consequence was tested by means of the Confidence Scale, administered at the end of the two week simulation treatment in the case of the experimental group of student teachers, and after two corresponding weeks of regular student teaching for the control group
(Test Time 1). The Confidence Scale was administered a second time to both groups at the end of the ten week student teaching period (Test Time 2).

At Test Time 1 the experimental group expressed a much greater degree of self-confidence than the control group. The comparatively high degree of confidence expressed by experimental student teachers was probably due to the fact that the thirty-four incidents comprising the Inner-City Simulation Laboratory were derived from the ninety-six problems used in the Confidence Scale, and a major objective for the simulation participants was to discover as many solutions to such problems as possible.

The self-confidence expressed by experimental student teachers at the end of the simulation treatment was underscored by the results of the Reactions to Simulator Training questionnaire also taken at Test Time 1. Without exception, experimental student teachers expressed confidence about their ability to cope with types of problems to which they had been exposed during the treatment.

It appeared that two weeks of simulation probably caused student teachers to feel over-confident as there was a noticeable drop in the experimental group confidence from the end of the simulation treatment to the end of student teaching. However, the analyses of variance revealed a disordinal group by supervisor interaction which was taken into account in arriving at a plausible interpretation of the drop in experimental group confidence between the two test times. Experimental subjects under three of the four supervisors used in the experiment
rated themselves significantly more confident than did control student teachers under the same supervisors. However, in the case of the remaining supervisor, experimental student teachers rated themselves significantly less confident than corresponding control student teachers. Since the Confidence Scale is a self-rating scale, not an observer rated scale, such group by supervisor interaction was not expected to occur. That it did take place suggested that either the supervisor or the school environment or both affected the self-confidence of the student teachers concerned. In a statement about the school in which the experimental group was placed the supervisor reported that on the whole, the atmosphere was "somewhat threatening to the student teachers. . . and there was a lack of discipline and control on the part of cooperating teachers".\(^1\) He observed that the sister school in which the control students were placed had a "very positive climate for teaching, . . . the two schools could not have been more dichotomous if one had deliberately chosen them to be so."\(^2\)

Research has shown that cooperating teachers have a significant effect on student teachers in their classrooms. For example, Bills et al reported a highly significant correlation between cooperating teachers and their student teachers, in the area of openness as a behavior dimension. Moreover, they found no such correlation

---

\(^1\)Personal letter from the Supervisor.

\(^2\)Ibid.
between student teachers and college supervisors. Although the conclusion was conjecture, it seemed that the threatening atmosphere of the experimental school may have inhibited student teacher self-confidence and, therefore was a reason for the notable drop in their feelings as expressed on the Confidence Scale during student teaching. Similarly the school circumstances described above may have affected the overall results of no significant difference between the two groups of student teachers. If such was the case, and the school in question was abnormal or atypical, a larger sample of student teachers and schools may have reduced the error variance caused by this circumstance and altered the outcome of the results.

Perhaps the administration of a pretest using the Confidence Scale would have provided a broader information base from which to compare any group changes in self-confidence over the time of the experiment. However, to avoid possible pretest sensitization, no such test was administered. It is noteworthy that for personal reasons two student teachers from the control group dropped out of student teaching during the second week, prior to administration of the first test. A Confidence Scale pretest may have also revealed pertinent information as to the confidence level of these two subjects.

Classroom Behavior Traits of Student Teachers and Their Inner-City Classroom Pupils

Supervisors' overall ratings of student teachers' confidence

---

exhibited in classroom behavior were contrary to student teachers' self-perceived confidence ratings. Supervisor judgments revealed experimental subjects to be significantly more confident in classroom teaching behavior than control subjects. Since supervisors were not "blind" as to the make up of the experimental and control groups, a rater expectancy may have existed. This contention appears to receive support from the ratings of the supervisor mentioned above which showed experimental subjects to be more confident in classroom behavior than control subjects. Such judgments did not appear to be consistent with the supervisor's informal comments about the effect of the school on the experimental student teachers. Moreover, his conclusions were contrary to the negative self confidence ratings of the student teachers.

It should be remembered that supervisors were not aware that the three confidence items of the Classroom Observation Record were going to be singled out of the total list of eighteen items as a specific experimental measure. The confidence items alone revealed significant differences between the groups of student teachers whereas the eighteen teacher behavior items, as a group, did not.

Supervisors' ratings revealed no significant differences in personal-social traits of experimental groups of student teachers in classroom behavior. Similarly, classroom behavior ratings of inner-city pupils taught by experimental group student teachers were not significantly different than classroom behavior ratings of inner-city pupils taught by control group student teachers. Nevertheless, the
level of probability on both sets of data was very close to being significantly different. This trend together with the findings of significant differences in observed confidence between the two experimental groups of student teachers suggests the possibility that the two week treatment was not enough time to adequately reinforce all of the personal-social traits covered by the Classroom Observation Record. This contention is supported by the congruency of the behavioral objectives set forth for the Director and the experimental results concerning those objectives: *Vis a Vis*, the Director was instructed to reinforce student teacher behavior which characterized the three confidence items on the Classroom Observation Record. Secondly, he was to reinforce behavior which represented the remaining fifteen positive traits of the instrument. As was mentioned above, testing of the three confidence items revealed significant differences between the groups, but measurement of the eighteen items, even though the confidence items were included, revealed no significant differences.

Supervisors were required to judge all of the behaviors described on the instrument. If the two week treatment was too short to adequately reinforce all of the behavior traits on the Classroom Observation Record, as has been suggested, then the results could have been affected by a halo effect. According to Best, where raters have to judge many factors, on a number of which they may have little or no information, qualitative judgment may be carried from one category to
another.4 This effect together with the rater expectancy mentioned above may have contributed to the trend of higher ratings for experimental group student teachers and inner-city pupils. Despite these possible contaminations, the trend in self-perceived confidence and the significant difference in observed classroom confidence between experimental groups are supported by earlier research of Vlcek5 and Bogniard6. In both cases, simulation was found to cause significant growth in student teacher confidence. The result of no significant difference between experimental and control student teachers in social-personal traits exhibited in classroom teaching performance coincides with the findings of a study testing the Teaching Problems Laboratory. The conclusion was that classroom performance in student teaching did not appear to be significantly affected by simulation training.7

Employment Aspirations of Student Teachers

Consequence V stated that student teachers receiving simulation training would express and display a greater desire to seek a teaching

---

5 Vlcek, "Assessing a Classroom Simulator Technique."
6 Bogniard, "Use of Simulation for Student Teachers."
7 Cruickshank, Problems of Beginning Teachers, pp. 60-62.
position in the inner-city. In regard to expressed desire, the experimental and control groups were not significantly different, and there was no notable change in either group from one test time to the other as measured by the Student Teacher Interest Survey. Apparently, the simulation treatment had no effect on student teachers' desire to seek a teaching position in the inner-city.

The Student Teaching Interest Survey may have been unrealistic in asking student teachers to disregard real life situations which would affect any decision to take a teaching position. Moreover, student teachers were required to put their names on the three tests administered. This was done to obtain complete information needed for the analysis of variance procedure. Even though the instructions stated that the data would not be revealed to supervisors, cooperating teachers or university faculty members, student teachers may have still felt threatened by having to identify themselves. A consequent form of social acquiescence may have influenced their response. Part of this acquiescence may have been due to their fear of expressing negative employment aspirations regarding schools similar to the ones in which they were student teaching. If this were the case, perhaps a more honest reaction could have been obtained if the tests had been administered anonymously or if some other less obvious method of identifying the subjects had been employed.

Perhaps the true effects of the simulation treatment on student teachers' employment aspirations can not be measured after only eight weeks of student teaching. Results of programs reviewed in Chapter II which appeared to affect teachers' decisions to work in
Ghetto schools were determined after program participants had been exposed to at least one year of teaching in such schools. The conclusions were generally based on whether or not teachers remained in inner-city school positions they had taken following the particular training program. The effect of simulation on student teachers' employment aspirations may be more likely revealed after the first year of teaching when attitudes formed during student teaching would be magnified within an experiential perspective.

The results of the Behavioral Measure which tested student teachers' actual behavior in seeking a job in the inner-city supported the findings of the Student Teacher Interest Survey. Although there was no significant difference in the number of student teachers from either group at the job opportunities meeting, attendance figures indicated a strong trend toward significant difference in favor of the experimental group. The fact that only one meeting was held may have affected attendance. Two subjects from the experimental group and one from the control group voluntarily mentioned to their supervisors that they would have come to the meeting if it had been scheduled at a different time.

Experimenter Observation of the Simulation Treatment

During the simulation treatment, the experimenter assumed the role of silent observer of the behavior of the Director and the participants. From the outset of the treatment the Director assumed a strong leadership role and maintained it throughout the two week period. Although care was taken to prepare the Director for his role,
observation of his behavior during the course of the treatment revealed that his role performance was not precisely in accordance with the objectives of the treatment. While the Director was often able to enlarge upon the directives without substantially deviating from their general nature, a number of times he behaved contrary to prescribed instructions. These departures were characterized by the Director's tendency to lead and sometimes take over the discussion. He would relate personal experiences, tell stories and offer opinions regarding the problems being discussed. On several occasions during the large group sessions, the Director apparently realized he was not adhering to his assigned role and made remarks to that effect during the sessions with the students. This was evidenced in the written comments of some of the experimental student teachers when they noted that the Director, at times, appeared to step out of what he conveyed to them to be his "strict" role.

The Director often seemed to guide student teachers to decisions of his own invention rather than encouraging them to formulate their own solutions to the simulated incidents. The convincing and powerful manner in which the Director expressed himself undoubtedly had an effect on the experimental student teachers. Testimony of this was reflected in their written remarks in response to a question about the part played by the Director during the simulation treatment. Almost without exception, they commended the Director's leadership style and teaching

---

8 See p. 124 and Table 20.
methods and mentioned him as being a positive factor in the success of the simulation experience.

It seems possible that the Director's behavior during the first two weeks of the experiment could have confounded the treatment variable. If this were the case, experimental student teachers shared this source of similarity as well as that of the treatment. The director variable might have then formed the basis of a rival hypothesis to explain any group differences and the trend of the experimental results.

Although it was not within the scope of the present study to measure the influence of the Director's behavior on the outcome of the experiment, it was evident that his behavior was an important factor in determining how the simulation treatment was received by the participants and perhaps the degree of attitude and behavior change experienced by them.

A most prevalent problem observed during the simulation treatment was the lack of time to deal adequately with the problem incidents in the depth they seemed to require. A few of the experimental student teachers mentioned in their written comments the limited time allotted to the discussion of the incidents. The Director often ended up having to hurry through the incidents to keep up with the predetermined schedule. With many of the vignettes, it was necessary to cut off discussion just when it was becoming most productive, and the crux of the problem was being attacked. Much of this problem appeared to be due to the expanded role assumed by the Director. In spite of the limited time problem, most experimental student teachers felt that the simulation treatment, as conducted, was one of the most valuable courses in their teacher
education program. Similarly, the Experimenter observed that although the role assumed by the Director was not completely in accordance with the one preplanned for him it appeared to have a positive effect on the student teachers exposed to the treatment.
CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH
AND IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine the effect of a simulated inner-city classroom treatment on attitudes and behaviors of student teachers and inner-city classroom pupils during student teaching.

In order to determine the attitudes and behaviors to be tested, opinions of prominent writers and experimental inner-city teacher preparation programs were examined. Desirable attitudes which could be manifested in behavior included warmth, understanding, kindliness, compassion, responsiveness and empathy. The literature also emphasized the need for teachers of the disadvantaged to be enthusiastic and broad with a mature integrated knowledge of the psychological, social-cultural aspects of the inner-city milieu. They were to be optimistic and positive about their student's capability to succeed. Confidence was repeatedly mentioned as a prerequisite characteristic for teachers in order to engender similar kinds of traits in classroom pupils. Regarding general attitudes towards teaching in the inner-city, it was found that ways were needed to help teachers aspire to teach in such settings, not to use them as temporary stepping stones to the suburbs, but to willingly seek them out as career positions.
Teacher education research and programs employing the technique of simulation were reviewed to ascertain if attitudes and behaviors identified as being important for beginning inner-city teachers could be enhanced through exposure to a simulated inner-city classroom. Although experimental teacher education programs utilizing simulation existed, no testing results had yet been reported. However, various other teacher education studies revealed promising results concerning teacher attitude and behavior changes attributable to a simulation treatment. Many of these attitudes and behaviors were similar if not identical to those mentioned above as being necessary for the inner-city teacher. As a result of the review of literature, these personal-social attitudes manifested in classroom behavior as well as aspirations to teach in the inner-city were determined to be crucial attitudes which might be facilitated through simulation training. The Inner-City Simulation Laboratory was selected as an appropriate vehicle in which prospective inner-city teachers might develop these attitudes and behaviors. This simulator is similar in its conceptual approach and technique to other simulators which have been found to be effective in shaping certain attitudes and behaviors of student teachers. A pre-arranged two week treatment schedule recommended for use with the simulation materials and utilized in previous research studies was adopted for the investigation.

In addition to the research which had been done with simulation, the nature of the technique in giving participants opportunities to work at problems in a setting which was in so far as possible designed to duplicate reality, seemed to be most appropriate in preparing teachers for inner-city schools.
The following hypothesis consisting of five consequences was formulated:

If an experimental group of student teachers participate in a simulated inner-city classroom treatment during and in lieu of the first two weeks of a ten week student teaching period, and a control group spends ten weeks in student teaching, exclusive of the simulation treatment, then:

(C1) experimental student teachers will perceive themselves to be more confident in solving critical teaching problems of the inner-city school,

(C2) experimental student teachers' classroom behavior will be judged to be more confident,

(C3) classroom pupils taught by experimental student teachers will exhibit a greater degree of positive classroom behavior,

(C4) experimental student teachers will display a greater degree of positive personal-social traits in classroom behavior, and

(C5) experimental student teachers will express and display a greater desire to seek a teaching position in the inner-city.

Consequence one was tested using the Confidence Scale, an instrument developed for the study. It was administered after the first two weeks and at the end of the experiment. Consequences two through four were tested by means of college supervisor ratings on the Classroom Observation Record taken during the last two weeks of student teaching. Consequence five was tested by means of The Student Teacher Interest Survey, administered at the beginning, after two weeks and at the end of the experiment, and the Behavioral Measure which showed student attendance at a job opportunities meeting after the completion of student teaching.

Forty two student teachers were randomly selected from the
senior elementary education students of The Ohio State University at Columbus, Ohio and randomly assigned to control and experimental groups. Control student teachers reported directly to their student teaching assignments for the full ten week student teaching period. Experimental student teachers reported for the first two weeks of the student teaching period to a room at the university where they were exposed to the simulation treatment, and the remaining eight weeks were spent in inner-city school student teaching assignments. Classrooms and pupils used for the study were located in schools determined to have the greatest incidence of poverty among families in the city in accordance with Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

Only the results of the test of consequence two revealed a significant difference between the experimental and control groups of student teachers. Experimental student teachers were judged to exhibit more confidence in classroom teaching. Although the results of the tests of the remaining consequences did not achieve statistical significance at the 0.05 level, a noteworthy trend favoring the experimental student teachers and their inner-city classroom pupils was evidenced.

Student teacher reactions to the simulation treatment and their perceptions of its effect on student teaching were highly favorable. They regarded the simulation treatment as a valuable preparation for student teaching in inner-city schools and felt that the Director made an important contribution to the success of the experience.

Observations of the Experimenter during the simulation were
that the Director expanded on and deviated from the prescribed role assigned to him and therefore may have been a variable of undetermined influence on the results of the experiment.

Conclusions

The following conclusions were derived from the results of the study.

1. Student teachers who received the two week simulation treatment in lieu of and during the first two weeks of student teaching were judged by their supervisors to have exhibited more confidence in classroom teaching during the remaining eight weeks of student teaching in the inner-city than student teachers who had spent the entire ten weeks in their inner-city student teaching assignments, exclusive of the simulation treatment.

2. When followed by eight weeks of student teaching, the two week simulation treatment was at least as effective as an equal period of inner-city student teaching experience in the areas of student teacher self perceived confidence, personal-social traits exhibited in classroom performance, effect on inner-city pupil behavior in the classroom and aspirations to seek a teaching position in an inner-city school.

3. Experimental student teachers' written comments about the simulation treatment indicated that it was highly beneficial as preparation for student teaching in inner-city schools.

4. Experimenter observations revealed the experimental student teachers to be deeply involved and highly motivated by the simulation
treatment.

5. Experimental student teachers' written comments and Experimenter observations indicated that the Simulation Director was of major influence in the apparent success of the treatment. Deviations from the role prescribed for him during the treatment may have indeterminably affected the results of the study.

Recommendations for Further Research

In a study of this nature the implications of the specific material are bound up in the recommendations. Consequently the following notions are a synthesis of implications and recommendations for further testing of the Inner-City Simulation Laboratory or similar simulation methods for preparing teachers for inner-city schools. In the interest of conciseness and since detailed discussions in support of the recommendations are found in previous chapters of the study, the following suggestions are offered in succinct point form.

1. The treatment of this study should be replicated in different inner-city environments using larger samples of student teachers and inner-city classrooms. Such procedure would compensate for any abnormal or atypical situations which may unrealistically affect the results of the study.

2. The treatment used in the present research should be tested experimentally using judges other than personnel who are directly involved with student teachers and inner-city classroom pupils. Due to (1) the nature of their duties and intimate relationships with student teachers and (2) their knowledge of experimental group make up and
conditions, college supervisors may have experienced a form of rater expectancy when making comparisons of student teacher and pupil classroom behavior traits. In a study such as the one being reported, raters should be chosen from persons other than those who are aware of such experimental conditions and group make-up. If rater expectancy were to be eliminated, disinterested observers who have no other connection with the experiment than to rate student teachers and classroom pupils at specific times would have to carry out the task.

3. Administration of the ICSL at various phases of and for different periods during preparation programs for prospective inner-city teachers should be tested. Twelker suggested that the length of simulation training may be an important factor in determining its effectiveness for teachers.\(^1\) Two weeks appeared to be a short period for student teachers to adequately assimilate the amount of material covered in the thirty-four simulated incidents and experience significant attitude and behavior change. Cruickshank suggested that the Classroom Observation Record may be too broad to detect the effects of a two week treatment on student teachers.\(^2\) Prospective teachers with little or no teaching experience or exposure to the inner-city milieu appear to need even more time to develop appropriate attitudes and teaching behavior and try out their ideas and feelings in a safe


\(^2\)Cruickshank, Problems of Beginning Teachers, p. 94.
environment. To facilitate this actualization process, various treatment schedules should be adapted and experimentally tested. One possibility would be to intersperse the simulated incidents through a student teaching period or internship experience. Another alternative might be a regular term or semester course offered immediately prior to student teaching. For experimental testing purposes an advantage of offering the simulation at some other time than in lieu of part of student teaching would be the lessening of a possible Hawthorne Effect on participating school personnel. Such persons would not be alerted to the fact that their students or schools would be involved in an experimental situation since there would be no deviation from the regular student teaching pattern or time table. Such knowledge of experimental conditions is especially important in terms of rater expectancy if ratings made by school or university personnel are to be used in obtaining valid research results. If the ICSL is to be used during a relatively short treatment period, it would be advisable to employ fewer incidents which concentrate on fewer attitudes and behaviors.

4. The effectiveness of the ICSL in terms of affecting student teacher attitude and behavior should be tested using different director participation roles. If a director is assigned an active role in the simulation treatment, his influence on the attitudes and behavior of the participants may be of major proportion. The measurement of the director variable is of utmost importance in distinguishing the director effect from the true-effect of the simulation materials. The behavior
of such a person must be carefully prescribed and objectively
delineated so that any deviations from the role can be observed and
measured. The degree of generalizability and replicability of a
treatment, where an actively participating director is used, depends
upon such measurement. This contention is supported by Twelker who
reported that in experiments in classroom simulation at Teaching Research,
more variance was contributed by instructor differences than by
treatment variables. ³ Similarly, Cruickshank posited that the role of
simulation director may be significant in increasing the overall
effectiveness of simulation materials. ⁴ To determine the director
effect, several simulation treatments, each with a different director
role, might be conducted. Another alternative would be to design two
simulation treatments, one with an active director and one run by the
simulation participants with no director assistance.

5. An experiment should be conducted wherein the long term
effects of a simulation treatment on teacher attitudes and performance
in inner-city schools could be determined. Bracht and Glass pointed out
that a treatment effect which is not observed immediately after the
administration of the treatment is often observed at a later time after

³Paul A. Twelker, "Simulation: What is It? Why is It? (Paper
read at ASCD Conference in San Diego, California, April, 1968), p. 32.

⁴Cruickshank, Problems of Beginning Teachers, p. 110.
the completion of the experiment. Regarding simulation training, Cruickshank suggested the possibility that the true effect of such exposure on student teachers would not become apparent until the first year of teaching. The most meaningful effect of simulation on student teachers may not be directly attributable to the treatment. If the treatment helps teachers at the outset of their teaching experience to exhibit positive attitude and behavior change, then their later teaching performance and attitudes would be more apt to be similarly affected. Longitudinal measurement would be of particular benefit in the area of teacher employment information, where teacher retention and job history could be observed.

6. In future experimentation involving the ICSL, a variety of outside resources should be utilized. The author of the ICSL has suggested the use of guest panelists, teachers, parents and others from the inner-city environment. The simulator may be made more interesting and realistic if such persons were utilized in role plays, or as resource people and discussion leaders. As is true for the instructor variable, care must be exercised in measuring the effect of such individuals on the treatment variable.

7. Since the ICSL was developed to be used as an inservice workshop as well as a preservice preparation method, its effectiveness


6Cruickshank, Problems of Beginning Teachers, p. 97.

7Cruickshank, ICSL Director's Guide, p. 4.
in helping experienced teachers to cope with teaching problems of the inner-city should be determined. Another possibility for testing would be with teachers who had previous teaching experience, but who were to be assigned for the first time to an inner-city school. The simulation treatment could be administered outside regular school hours during the school year or in the form of a summer course immediately preceding the inner-city school assignment.

8. The ICSL should be tested as a screening or selection device for inner-city teachers. Gafga concluded that behavior can be observed effectively in a simulated setting which would be indicative of later behavior exhibited in student teaching.8 This contention should be tested in terms of predicting teacher attitudes and behavior for inner-city student teaching settings. Positive results would provide valuable information for obtaining the most adequate teachers for ghetto schools. The need for such a device is underlined by the amount of teacher turnover and dissatisfaction expressed by inner-city teachers.

9. The author of the ICSL suggested that the vehicle might be used in conjunction with the Teaching Problems Laboratory which represents "a more middle class setting".9 Students would then have opportunities to compare and contrast values, mores and life styles of the inner-city environment with those of the "normal" school setting.


In such a study two treatments might be administered, one employing the ICSL alone and the other using it in combination with the Teaching Problems Laboratory.

10. A consequence of the hypothesis of this research which should be further tested concerns the effect of teachers who have received the simulation treatment, on their inner-city classroom pupils. The trend towards significant difference between the two groups of classroom pupils in this study indicated that simulation may have an important effect on inner-city classroom pupils by way of the teacher. A study should be undertaken which provides for the testing of attitudes and behavior and for more concentrative observation and judgement of classroom pupils.

Implications for Teacher Education

The significant finding of the study was that exposure to a two week simulation treatment was more effective than the same period of time spent in actual student teaching in helping student teachers to be more confident during subsequent student teaching in inner-city classrooms. In addition, the simulation treatment was at least as effective as inner-city student teaching experience in causing student teachers to express feelings of self confidence, display positive personal-social traits in classroom behavior and aspire to teach in an inner-city school. In light of the evidence that new teachers have been found to be lacking in confidence and unprepared for the cultural reality shock of ghetto schools, these findings, especially the former one, offer important implications for inner-city teachers as well as teacher education programs in general. One implication is that direct
experience alone may not be the most educationally, psychologically, or administratively sound method of preparing teachers to cope with the often unfamiliar and threatening circumstances encountered in an urban ghetto school. Many experiences which have been thought to be possible only in the inner-city classroom can be validly simulated in a university classroom with resultant attitude and behavior changes equivalent to or more positive than those in the actual teaching situation. This is not to say that simulations will replace direct experience, rather the technique may be a valid substitute for a part of that experience. Such use of simulation is especially valuable in light of the many limitations and difficulties encountered when inner-city schools and classrooms are used for the training of teachers.

Almost all of the experimental student teachers felt that the simulation treatment was one of the most valuable courses they had taken in their university program. The success of simulation as a teaching device may be an indication that the technique can be effectively used to make other coursework in the program more realistic, meaningful and enjoyable to the learner. The use of simulation can help bridge the gap between the subject matter and methods of university courses to the real world of teaching.

A broad implication of the study is that simulation can be as effective as direct experience in helping teachers to feel and display desirable attitudes and behaviors for teaching in unfamiliar or culturally distinct settings. The fact that the attitude and behavior changes occurred in the most economically deprived areas available in
Columbus, Ohio may indicate that simulation could be used to prepare teachers for other environments or milieus which are different from what most teachers know. Future laboratories might simulate Indian, Spanish American and other such ethnically distinct environments. Similarly, the technique may prove useful in preparing teachers to live and teach in completely alien cultures in foreign countries. This aspect is especially pervasive and timely as more educators travel and work abroad. Also, in this regard, "becoming bi-cultural" simulations might well be integrated into foreign language education programs at all levels of instruction.

The aforementioned are but a few of the implications which simulated experiences hold for teacher education programs; the realization of the vast potential of the technique depends upon continued exploration and developmental refinement.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PUPIL BEHAVIOR</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>REMARKS:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Apathetic</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Obstructive</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Uncertain</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Dependent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TEACHER BEHAVIOR</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. Partial</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Autocratic</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Aloof</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Restricted</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Harsh</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Dull</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Stereotyped</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Apathetic</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Unimpressive</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Evading</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Erratic</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Excitable</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Uncertain</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Disorganized</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Inflexible</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Pessimistic</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Immature</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Narrow</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
GLOSSARY
(To be used with classroom observation record.)

Pupil Behaviors

1. Apathetic-Alert Pupil Behavior

Apathetic
1. Listless.
2. Bored-acting.
3. Enter into activities half-heartedly.
4. Restless.
5. Attention wanders.

Alert
1. Appear anxious to recite and participate.
2. Watch teacher attentively.
3. Work concentratedly.
4. Seem to respond eagerly.
5. Prompt and ready to take part in activities when they begin.

2. Obstructive-Responsible Pupil Behavior

Obstructive
1. Rude to one another and/or to teacher.
2. Interrupting; demanding attention; disturbing.
3. Obstinate; sullen.
4. Refusal to participate.
5. Quarrelsome; irritable.
6. Engaged in name-calling and/or tattling.
7. Unprepared.

Responsible
1. Courteous, co-operative, friendly with each other and with teacher.
2. Complete assignments without complaining or unhappiness.
3. Controlled voices.
4. Received help and criticism attentively.
5. Asked for help when needed.
6. Orderly without specific directions from teacher.
7. Prepared.

3. Uncertain-Confident Pupil Behavior

Uncertain
1. Seem afraid to try; unsure.
2. Hesitant; restrained.
3. Appear embarrassed.
4. Frequent display of nervous habits, nail-biting, etc.
5. Appear shy and timid.
6. Hesitant and/or stammering speech.

Confident
1. Seem anxious to try new problems or activities.
2. Undisturbed by mistakes.
3. Volunteer to recite.
4. Enter freely into activities.
5. Appear relaxed.
4. Dependent-Initiating Pupil Behavior

**Dependent**
1. Rely on teacher for explicit directions.
2. Show little ability to work things out for selves.
3. Unable to proceed when initiative called for.
4. Appear reluctant to take lead or to accept responsibility.

**Initiating**
1. Volunteer ideas and suggestions.
2. Showed resourcefulness.
3. Take lead willingly.
4. Assume responsibilities without evasion.

Teacher Behaviors

5. Partial-Fair Teacher Behavior

**Partial**
1. Repeatedly slighted a pupil.
2. Corrected or criticized certain pupils repeatedly.
3. Repeatedly gave a pupil special advantages.
4. Gave most attention to one or a few pupils.
5. Showed prejudice (favorable or unfavorable) towards some social, racial, or religious groups.

**Fair**
1. Treated all pupils approximately equally.
2. In case of controversy pupil allowed to explain his side.
3. Distributed attention to many pupils.
4. Rotated leadership impartially.
5. Based criticism or praise on factual evidence, not hearsay.

6. Autocratic-Democratic Teacher Behavior

**Autocratic**
1. Tells pupils each step to take.
2. Intolerant of pupils' ideas.
3. Mandatory in giving directions; orders to be obeyed at once.
4. Interrupted pupils although their discussion was relevant.
5. Always directed rather than participated.

**Democratic**
1. Guided pupils without being mandatory.
2. Exchanged ideas with pupils.
3. Encouraged (asked for) pupil opinion.
4. Encouraged pupils to make own decisions.
5. Entered into activities without domination.
7. **Aloof-Responsive Teacher Behavior**

**Aloof**

1. Stiff and formal in relations with pupils.
2. Apart; removed from class activity.
3. Condescending to pupils.
4. Routine and subject matter only concern; pupils as persons ignored.
5. Referred to pupil as "this child" or "that child."

**Responsive**

1. Approachable to all pupils.
2. Participates in class activity.
3. Responded to reasonable requests and/or questions.
4. Speaks to pupils as equals.
5. Commends effort.
7. Recognized individual differences.

8. **Restricted-Understanding Teacher Behavior**

**Restricted**

1. Recognized only academic accomplishments of pupils; no concern for personal problems.
2. Completely unsympathetic with a pupil's failure at a task.
3. Called attention only to very good or very poor work.
4. Was impatient with a pupil.

**Understanding**

1. Showed awareness of a pupil's personal emotional problems and needs.
2. Was tolerant of error on part of pupil.
3. Patient with a pupil beyond ordinary limits of patience.
4. Showed what appeared to be sincere sympathy with a pupils' viewpoint.

9. **Harsh-Kindly Teacher Behavior**

**Harsh**

1. Hypercritical; fault-finding.
2. Cross; curt.
3. Depreciated pupil's efforts; was sarcastic.
4. Scolds a great deal.
5. Lost temper.
6. Used threats.
7. Permitted pupils to laugh at mistakes of others.

**Kindly**

1. Goes out of way to be pleasant and/or to help pupils; friendly.
2. Give a pupil a deserve compliment.
3. Found good things in pupils to call attention to.
4. Seemed to show sincere concern for a pupil's personal problem.
5. Showed affection without being demonstrative.
6. Disengaged self from a pupil without bluntness.
10. Dull-Stimulating Teacher Behavior

**Dull**

1. Uninteresting, monotonous explanations.
2. Assignments provide little or no motivation.
3. Fails to provide challenge.
4. Lack of animation.
5. Failed to capitalize on pupil interests.
6. Pedantic, boring.
7. Lacks enthusiasm; bored acting.

**Stimulating**

1. Highly interesting presentation; gets and holds attention without being flashy.
2. Clever and witty, though not smart-alecky or wise-cracking.
3. Enthusiastic; animated.
4. Assignments challenging.
5. Took advantage of pupil interests.
6. Brought lesson successfully to a climax.
7. Seemed to provoke thinking.

11. Stereotyped-Original Teacher Behavior

**Stereotyped**

1. Used routine procedures without variation.
2. Would not depart from procedure to take advantage of a relevant question or situation.
3. Presentation seemed unimaginative.
4. Not resourceful in answering questions or providing explanations.

**Original**

1. Used what seemed to be original and relatively unique devices to aid instruction.
2. Tried new materials or methods.
3. Seemed imaginative and able to develop presentation around a question or situation.
4. Resourceful in answering question; had many pertinent illustrations available.

12. Apathetic-Alert Teacher Behavior

**Apathetic**

1. Seemed listless; lanquid; lacked enthusiasm.
2. Seemed bored by pupils.
4. Seemed preoccupied.
5. Attention seemed to wander.
6. Sat in chair most of time; took no active part in class activities.

**Alert**

1. Appeared buoyant; wide-awake; enthusiastic about activity of the moment.
2. Kept constructively busy.
3. Gave attention to, and seemed interested in, what was going on in class.
4. Prompt to "pick up" class when pupils' attention showed signs of lagging.
13. Unimpressive-Attractive Teacher Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unimpressive</th>
<th>Attractive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Untidy or sloppily dressed.</td>
<td>1. Clean and neat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Inappropriately dressed.</td>
<td>2. Well-groomed; dress showed good taste.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Drab, colorless.</td>
<td>3. Posture and bearing attractive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Posture and bearing unattractive.</td>
<td>4. Free from distracting personal habits.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Possessed distracting personal habits.</td>
<td>5. Plainly audible speech; good expression; agreeable voice tone; good inflection.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Mumbled; inaudible speech; limited expression; disagreeable voice tone; poor inflection.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
16. **Excitable-Poised Teacher Behavior**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Excitable</th>
<th>Poised</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Easily disturbed and upset; flustered by classroom situation.</td>
<td>1. Seemed at ease at all times.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Hurried in class activities; spoke rapidly using many words and gestures.</td>
<td>2. Unruffled by situation that developed in classroom; dignified without being stiff or formal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Was &quot;jumpy;&quot; nervous.</td>
<td>3. Unhurried in class activities; spoke quietly and slowly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Successfully diverted attention from stress situation in classroom.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

17. **Uncertain-Confident Teacher Behavior**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Uncertain</th>
<th>Confident</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Appeared timid and shy.</td>
<td>2. Undisturbed and unembarrassed by mistakes and/or criticism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Appeared artificial.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Disturbed and embarrassed by mistakes and/or criticism.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

18. **Disorganized-Systematic Teacher Behavior**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disorganized</th>
<th>Systematic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. No plan for class work.</td>
<td>1. Evidence of a planned though flexible procedure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Unprepared.</td>
<td>2. Well prepared.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Objectives not apparent; undecided as to next step.</td>
<td>3. Careful in planning with pupils.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Explanations not to the point.</td>
<td>5. Had anticipated needs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Held discussion together; objectives apparent.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
19. Inflexible-Adaptable Teacher Behavior

**Inflexible**
1. Rigid in conforming to routine.
2. Made no attempt to adapt materials to individual pupils.
3. Appeared incapable of modifying explanation or activities to meet particular classroom situations.
4. Impatient with interruptions and digressions.

**Adaptable**
1. Flexible in adapting explanations.
2. Individualized materials for pupils as required; adapted activities to pupils.
3. Took advantage of pupils’ questions to further clarify ideas.
4. Met an unusual classroom situation competently.

20. Pessimistic-Optimistic Teacher Behavior

**Pessimistic**
1. Depressed; unhappy.
2. Skeptical.
3. Called attention to potential "bad."
4. Expressed hopelessness of "education today," the school system, or fellow educators.
5. Noted mistakes; ignored good points.
6. Frowned a great deal; had unpleasant facial expression.

**Optimistic**
1. Cheerful; good-natured.
2. Genial.
3. Joked with pupils on occasion.
4. Emphasized potential "good."
5. Looked on bright side; spoke optimistically on the future.
6. Called attention to good points; emphasized the positive.

21. Immature-Integrated Teacher Behavior

**Immature**
1. Appeared naive in approach to classroom situations.
2. Self-pitying; complaining; demanding.
3. Boastful; conceited.

**Integrated**
1. Maintained class as center of activity; kept self out of spotlight; referred to class's activities, not own.
2. Emotionally well controlled.
## 22. Narrow-Broad Teacher Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Narrow</th>
<th>Broad</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Presentation strongly suggested limited background in subject or material; lack of scholarship.</td>
<td>1. Presentation suggest good background in subject; good scholarship suggested.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Did not depart from text.</td>
<td>2. Drew examples and explanations from various sources and related fields.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Failed to enrich discussions with illustrations from related areas.</td>
<td>3. Showed evidence of broad cultural background in science, art, literature, history, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Showed little evidence of breadth of cultural background in such areas as science, arts, literature, and history.</td>
<td>4. Gave satisfying, complete, and accurate answers to questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Answers to pupils' questions incomplete or inaccurate.</td>
<td>5. Was constructively critical in approach to subject matter.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX B

PERMISSION TO USE CLASSROOM OBSERVATION RECORD
Mr. David G. Tucker  
Research Associate  
143 Arps Hall  
College of Education  
The Ohio State University  
1945 North High Street  
Columbus, Ohio 43210

Dear Mr. Tucker:

Enclosed is a copy of The Classroom Observation Record. I am glad to grant permission to use this in whatever way you may wish in connection with your doctorate study.

Sincerely yours,

David G. Ryans  
Director

DGR:jri

Enclosure
APPENDIX C

CONTROL GROUP SCHEDULE
# Student Teaching Schedule

**Winter Quarter 1970**  
*Early and Middle Childhood Education*  
*College of Education*  
*The Ohio State University*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First week</td>
<td>1-7 to 1-3</td>
<td>High Level Participation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second week</td>
<td>1-14 to 1-20</td>
<td>Teach one-half of morning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third week</td>
<td>1-21 to 1-27</td>
<td>Teach other half of morning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth through seventh week</td>
<td>1-28 to 2-24</td>
<td>Teach all morning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eighth through tenth week</td>
<td>2-25 to 3-13</td>
<td>Teach all day</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Seminars

1-6 Museum Auditorium  10:00 A.M.  
3-16 Ramseyer Cafeteria  10:00 A.M.  

Each Tuesday student teachers will be excused at 12:00 P.M. to attend a 2:00 P.M. seminar on the O.S.U. Campus. 100 Hagerty Hall
APPENDIX D

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP SCHEDULE
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First and second week</td>
<td>1-7 to 1-20</td>
<td>Simulation Laboratory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third week</td>
<td>1-21 to 1-27</td>
<td>High Level Participation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth week</td>
<td>1-28 to 2-3</td>
<td>Teach one-half of morning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth week</td>
<td>2-4 to 2-10</td>
<td>Teach other half of morning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sixth and seventh week</td>
<td>2-11 to 2-24</td>
<td>Teach all morning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eighth week</td>
<td>2-25 to 3-13</td>
<td>Teach all day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>through tenth week</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seminars</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-6 Museum Auditorium</td>
<td>10:00 A.M.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-16 Ramseyer Cafeteria</td>
<td>10:00 A.M.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each Tuesday student teachers will be excused at 12:00 P.M. to attend a 2:00 P.M. seminar on the O.S.U. Campus. 100 Hagerty Hall
APPENDIX E

TIMETABLE FOR TOTAL EXPERIMENT
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DATE</th>
<th>1/6</th>
<th>1/7 - 1/19</th>
<th>1/20</th>
<th>1/21 - 3/13</th>
<th>3/13</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EXPERIMENTAL GROUP</td>
<td>Registration Orientation Administration</td>
<td>Simulation Treatment*</td>
<td>Administration of CS, STIS, and RST</td>
<td>Student Teaching Administration of COR</td>
<td>Administration of CS, STIS, BM and PEST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONTROL GROUP</td>
<td>Above</td>
<td>Student Teaching</td>
<td>Administration of CS and STIS</td>
<td>Above</td>
<td>Administration of CS, STIS, and BM</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**KEY TO INSTRUMENT ABBREVIATIONS**

- **STIS** - Student Teacher Interest Survey
- **CS** - Confidence Scale
- **RST** - Reactions to Simulator Training
- **COR** - Classroom Observation Record
- **BM** - Behavioral Measure
- **PEST** - Perceived Effects of Simulation Training Questionnaire

* See Simulation Treatment Schedule Table
APPENDIX F

LETTER OF APPROVAL FOR EXPERIMENT FROM COLUMBUS PUBLIC SCHOOLS
Mr. William R. Williams
Acting Coordinator
Student Field Experience Office
The Ohio State University
1945 N. High Street
Columbus, Ohio 43210

Dear Bill:

We have completed the analysis of the proposal entitled "The Effect of a Simulation Laboratory on Preparing Student Teachers for Assignments in the Inner City," as submitted by David Greer Tucker. I am pleased to report that we are in position to approve this proposal. We have notified Mr. Tucker by telephone and assured him that this written confirmation would follow.

Sincerely yours,

Joseph L. Davis
Assistant Superintendent
Special Services

JLD:vc

cc: Miss Hortensia Dyer
    Mr. Gerald Norman
APPENDIX G

LETTER FROM CENTRAL OFFICE SUPERVISOR TO SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
TO:

FROM: Gerald R. Norman, Supervisor, Continuing Education

SUBJECT: Placement of Student Teachers

DATE: December 4, 1969

Permit me to make a short introduction. As you probably noticed, my name appears on the student teaching forms which you submitted for the Winter Quarter. This is the result of transferring certain duties from the offices of Miss Dyer and Mr. Mayer to the office of Continuing Education. Such action releases Miss Dyer and Mr. Mayer for other very important tasks. I have been assured, however, that I shall have the advice of Miss Dyer and Mr. Mayer to draw upon. It is also realized that the task of placing student teachers, if it is to be successful, needs the cooperation of each principal. The contacts I have had with principals thus far have been excellent.

Appended to this communication you will find a research proposal which will be carried out by Mr. David Tucker who is located in the Division of Instructional Research at The Ohio State University. He needs the cooperation of certain elementary schools in the priority one through five categories to provide forty student teaching stations.

We have been assured by Mr. Tucker that teachers and students will not be subjected to tests, rating scales, or inventories. What he needs is 40 student teaching stations, that is all.

Mr. Tucker has a very exciting proposal. After studying the complete text of Mr. Tucker's study the Department of Evaluation and Research of the Columbus Public Schools endorsed the proposal and stated, "We believe that there may be implications for teacher preparation in this study which will in turn be of benefit to the system. It may also provide the system with a program to prepare not only pre-service teachers but experienced teachers for special assignments in the inner city."

Perhaps your school will be participating in this project. If you are a participant, Mr. Tucker has promised to meet with you in a group or at your school to explain the study further.

If this office can be of help, please feel free to contact us at 228-3821 extension 268.

GRN:fk
APPENDIX H

CONFIDENCE SCALE
Confidence Scale

Dear Student Teacher:

The following problems have been reported by inner-city teachers. The intention of this instrument is to find out your feelings of confidence about your ability as a student teacher to solve these problems.

Please read each item carefully.

If you feel very confident that you can solve this problem:

If you feel confident that you can solve this problem:

If you are uncertain that you can solve this problem:

If you are very uncertain that you can solve this problem:

Place an X under 1
Place an X under 2
Place an X under 3
Place an X under 4

Example: Dealing with rebellious children

List of Reported Problems

1. Having trouble eliminating repeated child absences or tardiness.

2. Audio-visual equipment either not available or not functioning properly.
3. Children arriving at school wet or staying home because of inclement weather.

4. Children associating with other children who are a poor influence.

5. Helping a child who comes from a disruptive or broken home.

6. Dealing with the child who is upset by some home incident before coming to school.

7. Knowing what to do about children who have been mistreated at home.

8. Helping a child with social adjustment problems.

9. Helping children who do not have adequate clothing.

10. Getting parents to cooperate on such matters as children's appearance, cleanliness, attendance, discipline, etc.

11. Explaining to parents that their children have serious school-related problems.

12. Students misbehaving when left unsupervised for short periods of time.

13. Handling discipline problems or disturbance caused by children not in my class.

14. Teaching children to share equipment.

15. Helping children who are afraid to leave school because they fear bodily harm by others.

17. Eliminating cheating, lying, or stealing.

18. Maintaining order while class is moving in halls.

19. Helping the child who daydreams most of the time.

20. Involving most students in class discussions (for example, not permitting one student to dominate the discussion).

21. Getting children to do their own work.

22. Children refusing or otherwise finding ways to get out of doing classwork.

23. Dealing with children who feel that teachers are against them.

24. Dealing with children who want attention and will do anything to get it.


26. Students eating or chewing gum in class.

27. Dealing with children who fake illness to escape punishment or to avoid schoolwork.

28. Helping children to line up properly.


30. Handling students who want to play disciplinarian for the rest of the class.
31. Dealing with classroom interruptions and disruptions of the normal schedule.

32. Helping children keep track of their school supplies and personal possessions.

33. Helping children settle down to work when they arrive in the morning or after transfer from another classroom.

34. Dealing with attachment by child to a teacher as a result of rejection and/or lack of affection at home.

35. Dealing with children who are extremely nervous or hypersensitive.

36. Getting children to keep clean and to take an interest in their personal appearance.

37. Child becoming very upset when he does not perform up to peer group expectations (for example, playing games in gym).

38. Dealing with children who do not care if they receive poor grades.

39. Dealing with children who are destructive of other students' property.

40. Handling children who won't obey teacher directions or orders.

41. Lack of materials in the home available to children for doing their homework or schoolwork (pencil, paper).

42. Lack of appropriate reading materials in the home.

43. Dealing with parents not interested in their children's classwork.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>very confident</th>
<th>confident</th>
<th>uncertain</th>
<th>very uncertain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44.</td>
<td>Having difficulty contacting parents and/or scheduling conferences.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45.</td>
<td>Handling child illnesses such as vomiting in classroom.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46.</td>
<td>Students throwing or shooting objects in class.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47.</td>
<td>Preventing one student from causing another student physical harm.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48.</td>
<td>Helping children who suffer from overcrowded, cramped home conditions (lack of space for study, poor sleeping arrangements).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.</td>
<td>Dealing with children who are limited or unsatisfactory.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50.</td>
<td>Dealing with children who have limited vocabulary and speech patterns.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51.</td>
<td>Helping children overcome fear of trying something new.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52.</td>
<td>Children copying misbehavior or inattentiveness of another child.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53.</td>
<td>Dealing with a child who rebels against the teacher.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54.</td>
<td>Getting students to do homework and classwork properly.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55.</td>
<td>Dealing with children who deliberately try to upset the teacher by misbehaving.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56.</td>
<td>Working with children with reading difficulties.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57.</td>
<td>Inability of children to express in writing what they can express orally.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58. Dealing with a constantly disruptive child.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59. Controlling outbursts of fighting, aggressiveness, or overcompetitiveness.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60. Students not paying attention during assembly and creating discipline problems.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61. Working with children who become frustrated and destroy their work or school equipment.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62. Child hitting another for no obvious reason.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63. Inability of children in differentiating between fact and fantasy.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64. Overcoming half-truths or misconceptions fostered by parental influence.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65. Getting students to use good manners when eating.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66. Children misbehaving when they go alone to the laboratory or to another class.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67. Dealing with children who don't listen to, remember, and follow instructions (tests, homework, etc.).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>68. Helping the class to maintain composure under unusual circumstances (fire drills, visitors in class, accidents).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>69. Helping children unprepared for grade-level work due to poor teaching methods in early grades.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70. Helping children to understand and practice acceptable classroom behavior.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71. Being too tired to operate efficiently.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72.</td>
<td>Finding methods to reduce restlessness during inclement weather.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73.</td>
<td>Unable to complete classwork scheduled for the day.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74.</td>
<td>Finding time for individual instruction.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75.</td>
<td>Being asked to perform tasks usually classified as &quot;professional&quot; duties (filling out survey reports, etc.).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76.</td>
<td>Children coming to school without proper food or sleep.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>77.</td>
<td>Children reading library books or drawing during a teaching period.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>78.</td>
<td>Determining whether students who claim they are ill are telling the truth.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>79.</td>
<td>Children messing their clothing and work area when using art materials.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80.</td>
<td>Handling children who are overdemanding of the teacher's attention.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81.</td>
<td>Helping children who are afraid of failure.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82.</td>
<td>Finding ways to encourage cooperation within the classroom.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83.</td>
<td>Integrating the isolated child.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>84.</td>
<td>Reaching the apathetic child.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85.</td>
<td>Helping a child realize his own capabilities and limitations.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>86.</td>
<td>Pupil being reluctant to talk with teacher concerning problems.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>87.</td>
<td>Dealing with children not motivated to work.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>88. Difficulty understanding attitudes and values of the child.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>89. Finding methods for teaching children who are immature, lack experience, or have low ability.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90. Having children do independent or group work quietly.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>91. Helping students who are inconsiderate of others.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>92. Dealing with problems created when it is necessary to change the seating.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>93. Dealing with an overpossessive child who demands more than his share (food, paper, toys, and other material things).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>94. Finding appropriate instructional materials and situations that deal with the child's background.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95. Dealing with parents who won't respond to teacher or school notes, messages, or report cards.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>96. Helping parents who say that they can't control their children at home.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very confident</th>
<th>Confident</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
<th>Very uncertain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX I

STUDENT TEACHER INTEREST SURVEY
STUDENT TEACHER INTEREST SURVEY

This survey is for research purposes only. It will not be used for student teaching evaluation nor will it be shown to your supervisor, cooperating teacher, or any faculty members. Your name will not be used in reporting results of the research.

The following statements are designed to obtain your honest feelings about teaching in the inner-city. Assume that you will teach next year and may teach wherever you wish. Do not consider special circumstances that usually might govern your situation like husband's work, location, salary, health, family or other such contingencies. Only consider your immediate interest in teaching.

Place an X in the square next to the statement which corresponds most closely to your present feelings.

☐ I am only interested in teaching in the inner-city.

☐ I am interested in teaching in the inner-city over other settings.

☐ I am interested in teaching in a setting other than the inner-city.

☐ I am only interested in teaching in a setting other than the inner-city.
APPENDIX J

LETTER TO STUDENT TEACHERS

REGARDING

SPECIAL INNER-CITY TEACHING OPPORTUNITIES MEETING
Dear

A Special meeting will be held on March 10, 1970 at 4:30 P.M. to 5:30 P.M. in the Assistant Dean's Office 143 Arps Hall, to provide information for securing teaching positions in urban elementary schools. Inner-City teaching opportunities both locally and throughout the nation will be presented and discussed.

If you are interested in seeking a teaching position in an inner-city setting, you are invited to attend this meeting.

Sincerely,

David Tucker
Coordinator
Inner-City Teaching Jobs
143 Arps Hall

DT:dw
APPENDIX K

LETTER TO SCHOOL SYSTEMS

OFFERING TEACHING POSITIONS

IN INNER-CITY SCHOOLS
January 19, 1970

Dear Sir:

In conjunction with the Early Middle Childhood Education Faculty of the College of Education of The Ohio State University I am conducting a research experiment involving 42 elementary student teachers who have received special preparation for teaching in the inner-city.

Part of the study is concerned with making available to these graduating seniors teaching opportunities and positions in urban schools.

Would you be so kind as to send several copies of relevant literature, applications and information about your district which would be helpful to these new teachers in locating teaching opportunities? Hopefully we can put you in contact with some excellent teacher candidates.

Any help and information you can give will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

David G. Tucker
Research Associate
143 Arps Hall
APPENDIX L

REACTION TO SIMULATOR TRAINING QUESTIONNAIRE
REACTIONS TO SIMULATOR TRAINING

This instrument is an attempt to determine your attitude toward your classroom simulator experience. Feel free to express your feelings toward the experience.

I. Please read the following statements about the classroom simulator and state your feelings about each statement by checking (✓) each statement below that expresses your sentiment.

1. I enjoyed receiving training in the classroom simulator.
   ___ a. Very much so
   ___ b. Somewhat
   ___ c. Not particularly
   ___ d. Not at all

2. The classroom simulator was realistic—"life-like."
   ___ a. Very realistic
   ___ b. Realistic
   ___ c. Not particularly realistic
   ___ d. Not realistic at all

3. I felt as though I was involved in the situation.
   ___ a. Very involved
   ___ b. Involved
   ___ c. Not particularly involved
   ___ d. Not involved at all
4. The discussions were valuable in developing my own concepts.
   _____ a. Very valuable
   _____ b. Valuable
   _____ c. Not particularly valuable
   _____ d. Not valuable at all

5. I believe that the simulator experience was meaningful in its relation to real classroom problems.
   _____ a. Very meaningful
   _____ b. Meaningful
   _____ c. Not particularly meaningful
   _____ d. Not meaningful at all

6. I feel that my experience in the classroom simulator will help me identify classroom problems.
   _____ a. Very helpful
   _____ b. Helpful
   _____ c. Not particularly helpful
   _____ d. Not helpful at all

7. I believe that my experience in the classroom simulator has helped me develop methods of coping with classroom problems.
   _____ a. Very helpful
   _____ b. Helpful
   _____ c. Not particularly helpful
   _____ d. Not helpful at all
8. The classroom simulator made the material more meaningful than if it had been presented in lectures.
   _____ a. Much more meaningful
   _____ b. More meaningful
   _____ c. Less meaningful
   _____ d. Much less meaningful

9. I believe that the classroom simulator experience should be provided on an individual basis.
   _____ a. Strongly agree
   _____ b. Agree
   _____ c. Disagree
   _____ d. Strongly disagree

10. I believe that the classroom simulator experience should be provided to smaller groups (up to six students).
    _____ a. Strongly agree
    _____ b. Agree
    _____ c. Disagree
    _____ d. Strongly disagree

11. I believe the classroom simulator experience could be provided to an entire class (40 to 60 students) just as effectively.
    _____ a. Strongly agree
    _____ b. Agree
    _____ c. Disagree
    _____ d. Strongly disagree
12. I would recommend classroom simulator experience to my friends.

_______ a. Strongly recommend
_______ b. Recommend
_______ c. Advise against
_______ d. Strongly advise against

13. I believe the classroom simulator experience was as valuable as the first two weeks of student teaching.

_______ a. More valuable
_______ b. Of equal value
_______ c. Somewhat less valuable
_______ d. Not valuable at all

14. The classroom simulator would be as effective without a director.

_______ a. Much more effective
_______ b. More effective
_______ c. Less effective
_______ d. Much less effective

II. Please write a brief paragraph about how you feel the Simulation Director affected the simulation experience. Cite examples which illustrate your opinion.
III. Please write a brief paragraph about how you feel concerning your simulator experience. If more space is needed, use the reverse of page.

IV. Please write a brief paragraph about how you feel the classroom simulator might be improved.

V. Has your attitude towards inner-city teaching concepts and people changed over the last two weeks?
APPENDIX M

PERCEIVED EFFECTS OF SIMULATOR TRAINING QUESTIONNAIRE
PERCEIVED EFFECTS OF SIMULATION TRAINING
QUESTIONNAIRE

Name: ___________________________ Date: ___________________________

Directions: Please answer the questions below in such a way that you evaluate your simulation training in respect to what lasting effects it had upon you and not in respect to how much you enjoyed it, were inconvenienced by it, or other such criteria concerned with emotional reactions to the experience. Expand upon your answer if you believe it will aid either in evaluating simulation training or can give further insight into how this training has an effect or fails to have an effect on your ability as a teacher.

1. How valuable was your simulation experience to you during student teaching?

____________________________________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________________

2. How would you compare the relative values of student teaching and the simulation experience?
   •

____________________________________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________________

3. How valuable do you consider your simulation experience as a contribution toward making your first year of teaching successful?

____________________________________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________________
4. How does the value of the simulation training compare to other experiences you had in the OSU teacher education curriculum?

______________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________

5. Please comment on the placement, conduct and content of the simulation training in the light of your increased experience.

______________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________

6. Did simulation training make a difference in your student teaching?
   No _______ Yes _______

   Please explain:

   ____________________________________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________

7. Did the simulation training affect your attitude towards inner-city schools and youth?

   ____________________________________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________
APPENDIX N

THIRTY-FOUR PROBLEM INCIDENTS
34 Problem Incidents

Incident 1  Phyllis Smith Asleep in Class
           Helping the child who comes to school without adequate food or sleep

Incident 2  Sidney Sam Strikes Out
           Helping a child with social adjustment problems

Incident 3  Marsha Wright Has an Excuse
           Child refusing or otherwise finding ways to get out of classwork

Incident 4  Hayward Clark's Fear of His Father
           Helping a child upset by some home situation

Incident 5  Wesley Briggs and the Class's Library Behavior
           Dealing with a rebellious child

Incident 6  Phyllis Smith's Hearing Problem
           Getting parents to take an interest in a child's health or appearance

Incident 7  Wesley Briggs Breaks Bradley Livesay's Watch
           Dealing with children who are destructive of other's property

Incident 8  Barry Parsons' and Mark Connors' Report Card
           Dealing with children who do not seem to care about poor grades

Incident 9  Conferences with Mrs. Parsons and Mrs. Connors (Follow-up to Incident 8)
Dealing with parents not interested in children's schoolwork

Incident 10  Stanley Jones Tests the Rules
   Dealing with children who want attention

Incident 11  Classroom Interruptions
   Dealing with classroom interruptions

Incident 12  Bo Green's mistreatment at Home
   Helping children who are mistreated at home

Incident 13  Q-Sort of Discipline Methods
   Determining satisfactory ways to discipline children

Incident 14  Mrs. Waters' Class Doubles Up
   Handling excessive large classes

Incident 15  Mort Coleman, Accept or Reject
   Helping emotionally disturbed children

Incident 16  Marsha Wright's Mother's Friend
   Getting children to do homework or classwork properly

Incident 17  Panel Report
   Finding time and ways to individualize instruction

Incident 18  Wesley Briggs Arrives Early
   Handling children who won't obey directions or orders
Incident 19  The Girls Club

Children associating with other children who are a poor influence

Incident 20  Ronald Thurgood and Stanley Jones Relate Parent Opinions

Dealing with parents who won't respond to report cards or requests for conferences

Incident 21  Craig Powers, Recess Roughneck

Child hurting another for no apparent reason

Incident 22  Sharon Stone Calls Debbie Walker a Thief

Helping children account for their personal possessions

Incident 23  Ability and Achievement Testing Techniques

Helping children realize their capabilities

Incident 24  Ellen Abrams' Nervousness

Helping children who are extremely nervous

Incident 25  Wesley Briggs Matches Ronald Thurgood

Dealing with children who feel that stealing, lying, gambling are acceptable

Incident 26  The School Census

Helping children listen to, remember, and follow directions

Incident 27  Sidney Sams Leaves the Room

Handling children who misbehave when left unsupervised for a short time
Incident 28  Bo Green Defends His Dialect
Helping students who have limited vocabulary or speech

Incident 29  Phyllis Smith's Absenteeism
Getting parents to cooperate on children's attendance

Incident 30  Mary Christian and Emma Morgan Discuss Assignments
Helping students to work independently

Incident 31  Wesley Briggs's Mother Asks for Help
Helping parents who can't control their children

Incident 32  Phyllis Smith Smells
Getting children to take an interest in their appearance and cleanliness

Incident 33  Sidney Sams, Daydreamer
Helping the child who daydreams most of the time

Incident 34  The Committee Assignment
Teaching children unprepared for grade-level work
SOURCES CONSULTED

Inner-City Education


Dlabal, John J., Jr., and Hanson, Robert L. "What Kind of Teacher for the Culturally Deprived?" Elementary School Journal, LXVII (January 1967), pp. 218-23.


Kvaraceus, William C. "Programs for the Disadvantaged: Promise or Pretense?" National Elementary Principal, XLV (February, 1966), 59-64.


Simulation


Cruickshank, Donald R. "Teacher Education Looks at Simulation: A Review of Selected Uses and Research Results," Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, n.d. (Mimeographed).


The Ohio State Advisory Commission on Problems Facing the Columbus Public Schools. Report of the Commission. Recommendations to the Columbus Board of Education. Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1969.


Utsey, Jordan; Wallen, Dale; and Beldin, H. O. "Simulation: A Breakthrough in the Education of Reading Teachers." Phi Delta Kappan, LXVII (June, 1966), 572-574.