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EXPERIENCES WITH CHILDREN.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SUCCESSFUL STUDENT
TEACHING AND PRE-STUDENT TEACHING
EXPERIENCES WITH CHILDREN

by
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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
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Abstract

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SUCCESS IN STUDENT TEACHING AND EXPERIENCES WITH CHILDREN PRIOR TO STUDENT TEACHING

By Emilio Edualino

The purpose of this study has been to determine the relationship between experiences with children prior to student teaching and success in student teaching.

A check list was used to find out how much experience with children student teachers have prior to student teaching. The hours of experience while they were in high school and in college, the role they played, and the extent of supervision they had while gaining those experiences were considered. Success in student teaching was determined primarily through a rating scale. Other measures of success used were a satisfaction - dissatisfaction scale and a check list of problems perceived by students during their student teaching.

By using the Pearson product moment correlation, the multiple correlation, and the Fisher t distribution, significant positive relationships were found to exist between:

1. Success in student teaching and church related experiences with children during high school years; and,
2. Satisfaction with student teaching and hours of experience with children.

Significant negative relationships were found to exist between:

1. Hours of experience with children and frequency of occurrence of problems related to instructional methods and understanding of objectives in particular school subjects; and,
2. Hours of experience with children and degree of difficulty of problems related to school discipline and adjustment to children.

Insignificant relationships were found to exist between:

1. Success in student teaching and the role which students played as they gained experiences with children; and,
2. Success in student teaching and the extent of supervision students had as they gained experiences with children.

The following conclusions are supported by the data gathered in this study based on the particular students included in the sampling:

1. Students who have had experiences with children in church related activities during their high school years are more successful as student teachers than those who did not have these experiences.

2. The more the hours of experience a student has with children prior to student teaching, the less frequent is the occurrence of problems related to instructional methods and understanding of objectives in particular school subjects.
3. Students with more hours of experience with children prior to student teaching find it easier to solve their problems on school discipline and adjustment to children than those students who have fewer hours of such experience.
4. The more hours of experience the student has with children prior to student teaching, the better satisfied he is with his student teaching.
5. The role which the student plays and the extent of supervision he gets as he gains experiences with children prior to student teaching do not influence his success, his satisfaction, or the problems he perceives as a student teacher.
6. Aside from these specific findings, the number of hours of experience with children has generally no significant relationship with a student teacher's success, his satisfaction, and the problems he perceives in student teaching.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Student teaching has been the subject of many discussions, papers, treatises and dissertations. Earlier investigations on this subject emphasized the observation of the teacher's methods and techniques of imparting subject matter to children. Most of the more recent ones have emphasized that pre-student teaching experiences of student teachers with children are of value in their pre-service training. Not much research, however, has been done so far to explore further this hypothesis. It has only been during the past decade that interest in the contributions of such experiences toward success in student teaching and teaching in the service has been manifest.

The first public normal school in the United States recognized the value of such pre-student teaching experiences with children. This can be seen in its general plan of organization and procedure as described by Cyrus Pierce in a letter to Henry Barnard on January 1, 1841. The letter says in part:

Once or twice each term, I take the ~~whole~~ Normal School with me into the model school room, and teach the model school myself, in the presence of the pupils of the Normal School, they being listeners and observers. In these several ways, I attempt to combine, as well as I

can, theory and practice, precept and example.¹

Direct experiences in teacher education

Educators of teachers have always been aware of the values that can be gained from the students' direct experiences with children prior to student teaching as attested by the growth of laboratory schools organized to provide student teachers the opportunity to observe, participate and teach. This is further evidenced by the fact that teacher training schools began to use public schools for laboratory purposes in addition to the campus schools.²

The greatest impetus came when, in 1948, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education revised its standards pertaining to laboratory experiences in teacher education and embodied these standards in its 1948 Yearbook. Among other things, it says,

Students preparing to teach in the elementary and secondary schools of this country should have continuous contact with children and youth throughout their pre-service education. . . . such direct experiences should not be confined to the classroom situation but should include participation in all phases of the teacher's responsibilities - in the classroom, in the total school program, in the community, both as a citizen of the community and a teacher in the community, and in such other activities as are designed to improve the professional understandings and abilities of teachers.³

¹ Association for Student Teaching, Functions of Laboratory Schools in Teacher Education, 35th Yearbook (Lock Haven, Penn.: the Association, 1955), 2-3.

² Ibid., 5.

³ John G. Flowers (ed.), School and Community Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education (Oneonta, New York: American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1948), 15-39.

Finally, it might be important to point out the position held by the editors of the 1956 publication of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

Not all experiences need be direct. Vicarious experiences may contribute much. Only through vicarious experience can one understand the past or the remote in distance. By selecting only the most relevant experience of others, one is able to accelerate and broaden his experience. However, one weakness of vicarious experience is that it is usually limited to the intellectual aspects of life. It usually fails to involve the emotional and kinetic factors which play such an important role in behavior. Direct experience involves the total organism; vicarious experience involves only a part.¹

Types of experience

Direct experiences with children are of several types. They include: (1) work experiences, (2) field experiences, (3) September field experiences, (4) cadet teaching, and (5) student teaching. A detailed discussion of these and other types of experiences will be presented in Chapter Two.

Curtis and Andrews say that "student teaching is generally regarded as the most important single experience in any teacher education program." Further on, they say that to the prospective teachers, "there are two major reasons for the great importance of student teaching: it is something real and practical, and success in student teaching has a lot to do with getting a job and with success

¹Donald P. Cottrell (ed.), Teacher Education for a Free People (Oneonta, New York: The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1956), 183-184.

on the job."¹

Student teaching is thus of vital importance to the student teacher. They want to be successful. Wingo and Schorling say that "it is probably not an overgeneralization to say that motivation to succeed is higher in the course in student teaching than in any other single course taken as a part of professional training."² Ullman says that the best single measure of teaching success is success in student teaching.³

In the same vein, the 35th Yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching regards student teaching as

traditionally the most important step in the preparation of a teacher. There the student has the opportunity to try himself out in practice. He attempts to use all that he has previously learned in working with a group of young people in a classroom. He may have had little or no previous experience in a school. He may have been fortunate enough to have had wide and varied contacts with children in a carefully planned program of professional laboratory experiences. For some students, the teaching experience marks the end of their pre-service professional preparation. For others, further work in methods, professional seminars, or direct experiences may follow student teaching. For each student, whatever his background or prospects, student teaching marks an important milestone and, as such, is the focus of a great deal of anticipation, and apprehension, and general concern.⁴

¹Dwight K. Curtis and Leonard O. Andrews, Guiding Your Student Teacher (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954), 1.

²G. Max Wingo and Raleigh Schorling, Elementary-School Student Teaching (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1955), 1.

³Roy R. Ullman, The Prognostic Value of Certain Factors Related to Teaching Success (Unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, University of Michigan, 1929).

⁴Association for Student Teaching, 3.

Because it is of great importance for a student to succeed in his student teaching experience, efforts should be made to help during his pre-student teaching training to prepare himself so he would achieve this success.

The problem

This study is concerned with these general problems:

1. To determine the relationship between experiences of student teachers with children prior to student teaching and success in student teaching in the elementary school.
2. To determine the relationship of these experiences with children with the degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the students with their student teaching experience.
3. To find out if these experiences would make a difference in the problems perceived by the student teachers during their period of student teaching.

Specifically, this study seeks answers to the following questions:

1. Are students with relatively more hours of experience with children prior to student teaching more successful as student teachers than those with fewer hours?
2. Is the role played by the student (observer, active participant, leader) as he gains these experiences with children a factor in his success as a student teacher?

3. Are students who were supervised as they gained these experiences more successful as student teachers than those who were not supervised?
4. What types of experiences with children are most conducive to success in student teaching?
5. What types of experiences with children are least conducive to success in student teaching?
6. Are students with siblings more successful as student teachers than those without siblings?
7. Are married students with children of their own more successful as student teachers than married students who do not have children and single students?
8. Are students with more experiences with children better satisfied with their student teaching experience than those with less experiences?
9. Are students with siblings better satisfied with their student teaching experience than those without siblings?
10. Are married students with children better satisfied with student teaching than married students who do not have children and single students?
11. Do experiences with children prior to student teaching have any relation with the frequency with which students meet problems during student teaching?
12. Is there any relation between experiences with children prior to student teaching and the degree of difficulty of the problems that the student teacher meets?

13. How are the total hours of experiences with children prior to student teaching related to the frequency of occurrence of the type of problems which student teachers meet?
14. How are the total hours of experiences with children related to the degree of difficulty of the types of problems that student teachers meet?

Need for this study

This study may be of value in the improvement of the curriculum in institutions for teacher education, especially in the enrichment of the professional courses offered prior to student teaching. If experiences with children prove significantly related to success in student teaching, it might help the students gain success in their pre-service teaching if such experiences are included as part of their professional and academic courses in college. It may also guide these schools in the supervision of field experiences of their students, particularly with regard to meeting the students' individual needs and determining their readiness for the student teaching experiences.

The subjects for this study

Only those students doing their student teaching during the fall semester, 1956-57, at the University of Michigan, are included in this study. There were 136 students during this semester. Of this total, ten were elim-

inated, because they were atypical. One was older and seven carried more hours for student teaching, than the others. The only two male students enrolled were also excluded. The fact that these two are males might have an effect on their success if compared with female students. All the students included in this study were student teaching in one of these levels: kindergarten, or first through sixth. Their distribution according to grade level taught is as follows:

Junior Kindergarten.	2	Third Grade	18
Kindergarten	12	Fourth Grade.	17
First Grade.	24	Fifth Grade	17
First & Second, Comb.. . . .	2	Sixth Grade	12
Second Grade	22	Total	126

One hundred two students were single and twenty-four were married. Of the latter, six had one or more children. The students' ages ranged from nineteen to twenty-four years. Fifty had one or more older siblings; forty-three had one or more younger siblings; sixteen had both older and younger siblings; one had a twin sister and an older and a younger sibling; sixteen had no siblings.

These students were assigned to the following schools for their student teaching:

Ann Arbor Schools:

Angell School

Bach School

Burns School

Eberwhite School

Haisley School

Jones School

Mack School

Northside School

Park School

Perry School

Stone School

Pittsfield Village School

Saline Elementary School

University Elementary School

Ypsilanti Schools:

Chapelle School

Estabrook School

Central School

Willow Run Schools:

Edmondson School

Simonds School

Foster School

Ross School

Holmes School

Spencer School

The instruments used in this study¹

The check list of experiences of student teachers with children prior to student teaching.--This list was devised by the writer from those suggested in the 1948 report of the subcommittee on standards and surveys created by the committee of the American Association of Teachers Colleges.² The experiences were grouped into the following seven general categories:

1. Scouting activities
2. Church activities

¹See Appendix

²Flowers, 64-143.

3. YMCA or YWCA activities
4. Activities in high school
5. Other community activities
6. Activities in connection with professional courses
in college
7. Other college activities

Appropriate examples of experiences were included under each category, with blanks left for those activities that were not in the list but with which the student teacher might have had experience. The student was requested to indicate in this check list three things: (1) the total hours he devoted to each activity listed while in high school and after leaving high school; (2) the role he played (whether he was an observer, an active participant, a leader, or all of these three); and (3) whether or not he was supervised while engaging in these activities.

The check list of problems for student teachers.--

This check list was developed from the problems submitted by students practice teaching at the University of Michigan during the years 1954-55 and 1955-56. The students were requested to submit one or two outstanding problems they encountered in their student teaching, and these served as bases for discussions in their weekly seminars. The problems were grouped under six categories:

1. Problems related to school discipline and adjustment
to pupils
2. Problems related to understanding the philosophy

and objectives of the school

3. Problems related to the use of textbooks and other instructional materials
4. Problems of administrative routine, reports, special duties, etc.
5. Problems of adjustment to other teachers and to the community
6. Problems related to instructional methods and objectives in particular subjects

Specific problems were listed under each category, with blanks provided for those problems of student teachers which were not in the list.

The students were requested to check two things on this list: (1) the frequency of occurrence of each specific problem listed, and (2) the degree of difficulty of each problem that occurred.

The satisfaction - dissatisfaction scale.-- This was a scale used by the Coordinator of Directed Teaching at the University of Michigan to determine the degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the student teacher with his assignment. The scale ran from very well satisfied to very dissatisfied. The student checked whichever he felt best described his attitude and indicated some reason for his reaction.

The check list of student teacher's performance.-- This is an appraisal sheet designed for student self-ratings and teacher ratings of student teacher performance. It is

intended for use in the first conference which the supervising teacher has with her student teacher, and again toward the end of the term when the supervising teacher gives the student teacher his final grade. For purposes of this study, only the final rating was considered. No attempt was made to determine the reliability and validity of this measure of success.

The rating scale adapted from Tyler.¹--This rating scale lists some behavioral characteristics on which the supervising teacher is to check on a scale from 1 to 10 her evaluation of the student teacher's performance. The qualities or characteristics are grouped into four categories:

1. Personal relations with pupils and teachers
2. Command and ability to use subject matter
3. Use of teaching procedures
4. Class management

Tyler used this form in making his study of the prediction of student teaching success from personality inventory at the University of California. He made an attempt to determine the reliability of this measure. From a statistical analysis of the ratings, he found that the correlations among the four behavioral characteristics varied from .60 to .79. The reliability, based on two ratings on each criterion for each subject, "if they could be determined, would be in excess of .70" He, however, found it difficult

¹Fred T. Tyler, The Prediction of Student-Teaching Success from Personality Inventories (Berkeley, Calif.: University of California Press, 1954), 237-238.

to obtain a suitable measure of reliability because the students usually had been rated on both occasions by a single supervisor. There is some probability that the "halo effect" had operated in these ratings.¹

Procedure used in this study

The check list of experiences of student teachers with children prior to student teaching.--The questionnaire on pre-student teaching experiences was given to student teachers in the second week of December, 1956, during the class meeting time of their group seminars. About a half hour was allowed for their reactions to this questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered in six separate seminar groups.

The students were asked to indicate on the left hand columns of the questionnaire the total number of hours they had had contact with children on each type of activity listed during their senior high school years and after leaving high school. The hours during their high school years were to be listed on one column and those after leaving high school were to be listed on another column. Whenever it was difficult to remember the exact number of hours, they were asked to make a close estimate.

They were then asked to indicate the role they played, that is, whether they observed, participated, or

¹Ibid., 239-240.

led the group, or if they played any two or all of these roles, in which case they checked those roles they played. It was therefore possible to check all of the three roles indicated. A student was an observer if he simply watched the situation; he was an active participant if he was one of the group; and he was a leader if he originated ideas and organized plans for others.

On the same sheet they were asked to check the nature of supervision they received as they engaged in the activity. Responsibility to another person such as a leader, a teacher, or a superintendent was an indication of some sort of supervision. If they were pretty much on their own, they were to check no supervision.

The data gathered from this questionnaire were carefully reviewed. In some instances where there seemed to be duplication of entries, the information was checked individually with the student concerned. The total number of hours spent for each category of activities was found by adding the individual entries in each specific activity under that category.¹ Separate sums were added for each specific column, that is, a total was found for hours while in high school and another for hours after leaving high school. Then a total for the hours while in high school was found by adding the sub-totals for each category. The same was found for hours after leaving high school. A grand total was found by adding the sub-totals of hours for both high

¹See Appendix

school and after leaving high school. These totals were recorded on 8" x 5" cards.

The number of times each role was checked independently was counted for each category, and also for all the categories. Where two or more roles were checked for an activity, each combined role was counted separately and totals for each set of combinations were also found for each category and for all categories. It was possible to make four different combinations of roles: (1) observer and participant, (2) observer and leader, (3) participant and leader, and (4) observer, participant and leader. In addition to the three independent roles, that is, observer, participant, and leader, there is a total of seven different roles. For purposes of quantifying the data on roles played, arbitrary values were given each of these seven roles. The following values were assigned:

observer. . . . 1	observer and participant. . . . 3
participant . . 2	observer and leader 4
leader 3	participant and leader. . . . 5
observer, participant and leader. . . . 6	

The number of times each of the seven roles was played was then multiplied by the arbitrary value thus assigned. The products obtained were added and the sum was recorded on the cards already referred to in the preceding paragraph.

In the same manner, the nature of supervision was recorded on the cards. The number of times the columns supervised and not supervised were checked were added for

each category. When both were checked after an activity, they were counted separately. There were therefore three entries on the card for this part of the questionnaire - a total for supervised, another for the not supervised, and a third for both supervised and not supervised. For purposes of this study, arbitrary values were given each entry. Not supervised was given a value of 1, supervised was given a value of 2, and supervised and not supervised was given a value of 3. The total for each entry was then multiplied by the value assigned to it. The products were added and the sum entered on the cards.

Tyler's rating scale.¹--This scale was used primarily because it was hoped that it would discriminate better among students than does the check list of student teacher performance being used at the University of Michigan. In the directions for its administration, the supervising teachers were asked to use the scale only for those students whom they would grade A or B. Five students who received C as their final grade in student teaching based on the check list of student teacher performance were not rated on this scale. For purposes of this study, a 0 value was given to these latter students.

This scale was sent three weeks before the end of the semester to the supervising teachers together with the check list of student teacher performance. The supervising teacher was requested to check on a scale from 1 to 10 the

¹Ibid.

degree of superiority of the student teacher in each of the twenty-one behavioral characteristics included in this scale. An average was found for each of the four categories in the scale and a total average for all the categories was computed. These averages were recorded in the cards already referred to, and served as the index of each student's success in student teaching. Five characteristics were listed under the first general category - personal relations with pupils and teachers; four under the second category - command and ability to use subject matter; five under the third category - use of teaching procedures; and seven under the fourth category - class management.

The rating of each student teacher revealed by this scale was compared with the total hours of experiences of the student with children prior to student teaching.

The University of Michigan check list of student teacher performance.--Supervising teachers indicate the final grades for student teachers on this form in letters A to C. There are a number of specific behaviors which the student teacher and the supervising teacher are supposed to check during the cooperative evaluation period and a final rating is indicated by the supervising teacher.

As explained in the preceding section, this evaluation form was sent to the supervising teachers three weeks before the end of the semester. Since the ratings are given in letters, it was necessary to assign arbitrary values to each letter grade. For purposes of this study, the follow-

ing values were assigned:

A+ 7	B 3
A 6	B- 2
A- 5	C+ 1
B+ 4	C 0

The values thus derived for each student teacher were compared with the total hours of experience of each student teacher with children prior to student teaching.

The questionnaire of problems met by student teachers.--During the second week of January, 1957, the check list of problems met by student teachers was administered to the students teachers during their seminar meetings. About six half-hours were devoted to administer this to the six seminar groups.

The check list indicated four degrees of frequency of occurrence - always, often, occasionally, and seldom; and four degrees of difficulty - most difficult, quite difficult, not hard, and easy. The number of times each degree (of frequency and of difficulty) was checked was counted for each category and the sums were recorded on the cards. Sums were also found for all categories.

It was assumed that the best student teachers would be aware of more problems, and would perceive these problems as more complex and more difficult to solve than the poorer students. Accordingly, the following values were assigned to the degrees of frequency and difficulty:

<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Value</u>	<u>Difficulty</u>	<u>Value</u>
Always.	4	Most difficult.	4
Often	3	Quite difficult	3
Occasionally.	2	Not hard	2
Seldom.	1	Easy.	1

The number of times each degree was checked was multiplied by the value of that degree and the sum of these products was found for each category. Sums of these products were also found for all categories. An average index for each category and for all categories was found by dividing the sum of these products by the total number of problems given for each category and for all categories respectively.

The average indices for each category and for all categories were compared with the total hours of experiences of each student teacher with children prior to student teaching.

The satisfaction - dissatisfaction scale.---This scale was administered to the student teachers at the same time the check list of problems was given out. It was assumed that a good student teacher will be better satisfied with his student teaching than the poorer student. The following values were therefore given to each point on the scale:

<u>Satisfaction scale</u>	<u>Value</u>
Very well satisfied.	6
Reasonably well satisfied.	5
Some satisfaction.	4

Only a little satisfaction. . . 3

Dissatisfaction scale

Only a little dissatisfaction . 3

Some dissatisfaction. 2

Very dissatisfied 1

An index of satisfaction was found by averaging the value of degree of satisfaction and that of dissatisfaction as checked by the student teacher. This index was compared with the student's total hours of experiences with children prior to student teaching.

The methods used in making the comparisons

The Pearson product-moment correlation.¹--The statistical technique used for describing the linear relationships called for in this study is the product-moment correlation coefficient.

The test of significance of the obtained r.--The 5 percent level of significance is usually the accepted level for testing the significance of r. The obtained r is compared with the r value required at this level in a given table of values of r at the 5 % level of significance.² If the obtained r is equal to or exceeds this required r value, then it might be concluded that the r is significantly different from zero, and that the hypothesis that there

¹Allen Edwards, Statistical Analysis for Students in Psychology and Education (New York: Rinehart & Co., 1946), 79-99.

²Quinn McNemar, Psychological Statistics (New York:

exists some linear relationship between the two variables may therefore be accepted.

To handle any sampling errors for r , the Fisher transformation formula from r to z is used. The z value of the obtained r is found in any table of transformation of r to z . The t -value at the 5 percent level for N 120 is approximately 1.96 where N is the number of pairs. The two obtained values of Z are then transformed back to r by using the transformation table from z to r , giving the obtained r a lower and an upper limit.¹ These two values are the confidence limits for the population correlation coefficient which may fall within these limits at the 95 percent level of confidence.

Comparing the means of two scores.²-- The formula for finding the t -ratio was used in comparing the means of the groups used in this study. The obtained t is compared with the t -value required for the N at the P_{05} found in a table of distribution of t .³ If this obtained t is equal to or exceeds the t -value required, then it may safely be assumed that the observed difference in the means of the two groups is significant. Otherwise, this difference could have occurred only by chance, or as a result of sampling

John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1949), 55-59; 225-226; 348.

¹Ibid., 123-124; 348; 349.

²Ibid., 225-226.

³Ibid., 352.

variation.

Multiple correlation.¹--The square root method of finding the multiple r was used. To test the significance of this obtained r_m , the F-ratio was used. If the F obtained is equal to or exceeds the F -value in a table of F distribution, then the multiple r is significant and may prove the null hypothesis to be false.²

Organization of this report

This chapter has been devoted to the description of the study, the instruments used and how these were used.

Chapter Two will present a summary of related studies on student teaching. A brief resume of current trends in teacher education with special emphasis on the professional sequence will constitute the first sections of this chapter. Studies on teaching efficiency and on professional laboratory experiences and teacher education programs will be included.

Chapters Three and Four will present the data gathered from the instruments used in this study, and the interpretations of these data.

Chapter Five will present the general summary of the findings.

¹Paul S. Dwyer, "The Square Root Method and Its Use in Correlation and Regression," Journal of American Statistical Association, XL, No. 232, Pt. I (December, 1945), 493-503.

²McNemar, 355.

The last sections of this report will include the samples of the instruments used and other materials pertinent to the study.

CHAPTER II

SURVEY OF RELATED MATERIAL

The importance of direct experiences in teacher education has been pointed out in the preceding chapter. The awareness of this has resulted in more provisions of opportunities for such experiences in the curricula of institutions for teacher education. Because of its pertinence to this study, a detailed analysis of the ways by which these schools make such provisions will be given in the first sections of this chapter. The last sections will deal with the student teaching performance and studies related to it.

It might be worthwhile to give a brief statement of principles to govern professional laboratory experiences and the criteria of a high quality experience. The special committee of the American Association of Teachers Colleges gives the following principles to govern student teaching: (1) the nature and extent of professional laboratory experiences should be planned in terms of the abilities and needs of the student; (2) professional laboratory experiences should be cooperatively developed by the student and his advisers; and (3) the professional program should be so designed as to afford opportunity for responsible partici-

pation in all of the important phases of the teacher's activity, both in and out of school.¹

If experiences are planned, they will more likely meet the needs of the students and be in accord with their abilities. Cottrell lists the following criteria of a high quality experience:

1. It should be challenging.
2. It should provide for involvement.
3. It should provide for guidance and assistance.
4. It should provide for intellectualization.
5. It should be satisfying.²

Shift in emphasis from teacher
to children

It was also noted in the first chapter that the experiences prior to student teaching consisted traditionally of observations of model teachers in model or training schools. Generally, the point of emphasis in these two types of experiences was the teacher - her techniques and methods of teaching. Any participatory experience was limited to the classroom duties of the teacher, such as taking the roll, collecting lunch money, erasing the board, setting the tables and chairs straight, correcting test papers,

¹ John G. Flowers (ed.), School and Community Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education (Oneonta, New York: American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1948), 164-172.

² Donald P. Cottrell (ed.), Teacher Education for a Free People (Oneonta, New York: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1956), 192-197.

passing and collecting materials, etc.

Cottrell notes, however, that this emphasis has now shifted to the children.

The early "practice teaching" aimed primarily at transmitting to the prospective teacher the skills and techniques that the master teacher has acquired. The word "training" is no longer used in connection with teacher preparation. Training connotes the unreasoned acceptance of a pattern.¹

Further on, the same writer says,

the earlier programs of teacher preparation assumed that learning-teaching was a relatively simple process which could be learned by imitation. It was assumed that there was a correct method of teaching, that the expert teacher could demonstrate this method, and that the student could adopt the method as his own. This approach emphasized the development of special skills and techniques.²

A later approach to teacher education shifted the emphasis to the opposite extreme - study of the basic principles of teaching and applying them in future situations, without any actual application at the time of learning. This approach emphasized the study of abstract generalizations and principles.

But learning and doing are necessarily parts of a single act. Accordingly, the new emphasis on direct experiences with children focuses on the fact that in order to be able to work effectively with children the teacher must not only know what has been learned about their nature and behavior - that is, theory, but he must also be able to recognize the significance of those generalizations in the

¹Ibid., 190.

²Ibid., 190-191.

behavior of children and be able to take appropriate action.

With this shift in emphasis from the teacher to the children came about an increased interest in the need for providing more and better planned professional laboratory experiences for prospective teachers. Today, experiences with children are provided even for seniors in some high schools. The academic and professional curricula in many institutions for teacher education now include professional laboratory experiences in an attempt to make the courses more meaningful to the students. Then there are those institutions which provide more opportunities for these experiences after the student teaching assignment has been completed. A more detailed description of these experiences will follow.

Experiences prior to student teaching

That there has been a growing interest in the need for providing direct experiences with children prior to student teaching is attested by the facts revealed in a study of a special committee of the American Association of Teachers Colleges reported by Flowers in 1948. Among the findings of this committee are the following:

1. Opportunities for professional laboratory experiences prior to student teaching are relatively uncommon.
2. In most situations professional laboratory experiences prior to student teaching emphasize observation. This observation activity has these features indicated

by the data:

- a. Most often done as a part of professional courses - seldom in connection with academic courses.
 - b. Generally done in class groups - infrequently on the basis of individual assignments.
 - c. Usually confined to school situations, and, in most cases, to the campus school.
 - d. Usually guided by the laboratory school teacher.
3. There is experimentation in the direction of providing for active participation in professional laboratory experiences prior to student teaching. This movement is accompanied by:
- a. provision for more time in the program for laboratory activities.
 - b. inclusion of such activities in general education courses.
 - c. planning in terms of individual needs and abilities.
 - d. provision for a wider range of activities.
4. The amount of time required in professional laboratory experiences prior to student teaching differs widely among member institutions, some reporting none and others indicating as many as 350 clock hours.
5. More opportunities are provided in elementary education programs than in curricula for secondary teachers.¹

¹Flowers, 66-67.

Experiences with children as part of the high school program.--Several high schools have been experimenting with the idea of offering an exploratory teaching experience to their high school seniors. This course is usually called the cadet teaching course.

Generally, the purpose of this course is two-fold: (1) to serve as a readiness program for teacher education, and (2) to offer the able students a chance to explore their interests and aptitudes in teaching. Indirectly, it also helps guide students who are unable out of teaching. Students who take this course are selected for their scholarship, personality, leadership qualities and maturity. In some schools they may elect this for one semester, in others for two semesters. They report to a neighboring school for one class period daily either on the first or last period of the class day.

One such offering is described by Hahn of Sheyboygan, Wisconsin. Among the purposes of the course is

to have a semester's opportunity to observe and work in a practical classroom situation so that the cadet would be in a much better position to relate the theory that he would get in college to the previous experience that he had gained in the classroom. It was hoped that the program would carry into the college program and make for greater effectiveness of the college program of teacher education.¹

The cadets are given opportunities to observe classrooms, help children with their work in school such as seatwork,

¹ National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, Lay-Professional Programs to Secure and Retain Qualified Teachers (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1954), 45-50.

checking papers, current events, reading and telling stories, etc. They attend all faculty meetings and parent teacher association meetings. In addition, they attend subject classes in "Cadet Teaching" where a number of units of study are offered to prepare them so that they might profit the most from their work experience.

At Indianapolis the experiences of cadet teachers include observation of class routines, methods of teaching and administration of tests, and participation in preparing materials, giving individual help, reading stories to the class, etc.¹

In some high schools, only students who belong to the upper quarter of the class scholastically, are encouraged to enrol for cadet teaching.² Other bases for selection of students for this course are leadership abilities, character and maturity.

Participation in organizations like Future Teachers of America also provide opportunities for experiences in leadership and working within an organization besides those which they provide for working with children.

The September field experience.--Ohio State University has developed a general school exploratory experience as

¹"Cadet Teaching at Indianapolis," Educational Research Bulletin, XXXII (January, 1953), 171.

²A. Traenkenschuh and F. Liebbe, "High School Students Explore Teaching," Childhood Education, VII (December, 1950), 173-175; also, H. Frick, "A Cadet Future Teacher Program," NEA Journal, XLIV (April, 1955), 234-235; also, C. E. Crum, "Exploratory Cadet Teaching Handbook," Teachers College Journal, XXVI (December, 1954), 34-46.

one phase of professional preparation for teaching. This is commonly known as the September Field Experience. Students are assisted in arranging with schools to spend two or three weeks full-time during the month of September living and working in schools of their choice. Originally intended for sophomores, juniors and seniors also take advantage of this type of experience today. Some repeat the experience voluntarily.¹ Among the specific things which students are able to observe through this type of experience are: (1) how rapport is developed within a class group, (2) how planning is started, (3) how standards of group control are established, (4) how pupil recording system is set up, (5) what routine matters are involved at the beginning of the school year, (6) what organization of materials and equipment is necessary prior to the opening of school, and (7) what contacts with parents may be expected at the beginning of the school year.² This is especially important, because student teachers have little opportunity to observe these classroom activities in their regular student teaching periods. The notes they take on their observations become the bases for discussions in their professional courses.

Community experiences.--It is increasingly recognized that the school should take an active part in the function-

¹L. O. Andrews, "School Exploratory Experiences for Prospective Teachers," Educational Research Bulletin, XXIX (September, 1950), 147-157.

²M. A. McGlasson, "September - a Golden Month in Teacher Education," Educational Administration and Supervision, XLI (April, 1955), 229-233.

ing of the community of which it is a part. It is important that student teachers understand the community and the many educational agencies that affect the lives of boys and girls.

The 33rd Yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching gives four advantages which such experiences offer the student teachers.

First, the student may develop an exceptional understanding of the fact that the school is only one of the many educational agencies that affect the lives of children and youth. . . . Second, the student may gain increased understanding of the interaction of groups and forces that make a community. Third, the student may learn of the ways that agencies other than the school define their goals and proceed with their educative tasks. The student may gain insights along these lines that help him to more effectively evaluate the educative goals and processes of the school. Fourth, direct experiences provided by the work assignment promote the growth of the individual.¹

Community experiences may be a part of the work of both professional and academic courses. Professional courses like child psychology, the child: his nature and needs, and the community, can become more functional by placing the student in situations where they assume responsible roles in working with children and young people of various ages and backgrounds. The social sciences can also become more functional by actual participation in social groups in actual life.²

Not all opportunities for experiences with community

¹Association for Student Teaching, Facilities for Professional Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education, Thirty-third Yearbook of the Association (Lock Haven, Penn.: the Association, 1954), 46.

²Flowers, 107-119.

groups are found in the regular curriculum offerings of the teacher training schools. Through volunteer programs, student participation in such activities are provided. Women's League Service Programs, community centers, nursery schools, girl scouts, boy scouts, camping, YMCA, all offer opportunities for prospective teachers to have experiences with children in community settings.

The following principles are suggested to guide college non-school agency cooperative programs:

1. The needs of all groups involved in the working relationship must be evaluated and met.
2. All community laboratory programs must be adequately supervised.
3. Supervisor, student, and agency representatives should engage in cooperative planning and evaluation.
4. The selection of non-school agencies to participate in the teacher education program is the responsibility of the teacher education institution.
5. Student experiences in non-school agencies should be related to the basic professional objectives.¹

Experiences as part of academic courses.--Direct experiences as functional parts of academic courses have been referred to several times in the preceding sections.

Jorgenson and Lueck describe the efforts of a teacher in providing a class of prospective teachers with the the opportunity of actually practicing techniques of inter-

¹Association for Student Teaching, 33rd Yearbook, 47-53.

viewing. The interviews were discussed in class.¹

Flowers describes a course in American History and Government offered at State Teachers College, Oneonta, New York, which includes such experiences as interviewing the mayor, having group conferences with social workers, investigating current problems in the county, holding political meetings with the chairman of each of the parties popular in the community, visiting the State Legislature in session and interviewing with representatives.²

In the area of health, there are numerous possibilities for professional laboratory experiences. Planning and operating health clinics, carrying out needed recreational activities in the community, study of diet and nutrition in the community, and study of community health problems are only a few examples of activities where students can observe, participate, or lead.

In the same manner, the study of inter-group relations can very well be extended beyond the classroom into the community. Direct experiences can be provided by having students study, observe, and participate or lead in improving intergroup relations. Such a study would not only increase the students' understanding of the problems involved and ways of solving them, but also contribute to a needed

¹M. Jorgenson and W. Lueck, "Teaching Student Teachers in Interviewing," Teachers College Journal, XXV (December, 1953), 30-31.

²Flowers, 103.

concept of the role of education in today's society.¹

Experiences as part of professional courses.--The report of the special committee of 1948 reveals the fact that most of the professional laboratory experiences students get are arranged as parts of their professional courses. However, most of these experiences had been confined to observation and participation. Another criticism is that the principle of continuous contact is not in operation, because only one or two periods are allotted to these two types of activities - one course for observation and a separate course for student teaching. "Less concentrated and more extended contacts in laboratory situations might better meet the need for continuous study of learners and teaching-learning situations."² Then too, there is the tendency to overlook the need for relating these experiences with the other courses, thus making each course discrete with little or no carry over to parallel or later related experiences. There is a need for more direct contact with learners which will allow for more continuous work in a teaching-learning situation.

To meet this need, some colleges have been experimenting with various types of professional sequences where a careful selection and organization of experiences provide for continuity. Four guides for selecting experiences to be included in the professional sequence are suggested by

¹Ibid., 105.

²Ibid., 65-68.

Stratemeyer:

1. Experiences in the professional sequence should be selected and organized with reference to performance responsibilities -- teaching situations to be met and educational problems to be solved -- rather than logical subject matter relationships per se.
2. There should be integration of all areas of education as needed in dealing with situations.
3. So that experiences will be as meaningful as possible, the way in which the student faces a problem at the time of study should be the starting point.
4. Experiences in professional education should be selected and guided so as to lead to the building of basic educational principles and their use in a variety of situations.¹

Jacobs suggests three approaches to curriculum organization: (1) the separate course approach, (2) the area-problems approach or the use of integrated courses, and (3) professional seminar and practicum approach, where the program consists of a continuous experience with problems and issues of education as the prospective teacher encounters them in carefully planned laboratory experiences.

According to him, the phases of a comprehensive developmental program should consist of the following: (1) introductory and background learning experiences which are considered essential to optimum development of student as

¹Cottrell, 150-156.

a professional person, (2) student teaching which grows out of the introductory and background experiences of a direct nature to afford experiences in working with children and youth in actual school situations and to highlight areas of strength as well as weaknesses to the student and the staff, and (3) integrative and evaluative phase, tailored to student's individual needs as defined by the student, his adviser and the supervisors.¹

The New York State teachers colleges are using block courses in the areas relating to the learner and his curriculum. Opportunities for continuous contacts with children in teaching-learning situations during the four year college preparation are made available as part of professional courses.²

Experiences during student teaching

Student teaching is the busiest and most profitable experience in a student's program of pre-service training. It is an opportunity to gain practical teaching experience under expert supervision. It gives the student a chance to learn about the actual work of a teacher in the classroom, on the playground, in the special activities of the school,

¹J. Jacobs, "Sixth Annual Workshop in Teacher Education," North Central Association Quarterly, XXVIII (January, 1954), 318-349.

²Cottrell, 161. For more descriptions of experiences as part of professional sequence, see also pp. 158-165 of Cottrell; also Flowers, 73-102 and 105-139.

and in the community. It enables the student teacher to gain insight into the teacher's relations with other school workers.¹

Concepts of student teaching.--McGill thinks of student teaching as an experience that permits student teachers to encounter broad and practical experiences and provides desirable interplay between the individual and normal environment so as to produce professional growth. It should be broadened to include not only normal classroom tasks but also those duties and responsibilities which are of an extra-class nature and a sample of all things regular teachers need to do in and out of classrooms.²

Place of student teaching in the total program.--The study made by the committee of the American Association of Teachers Colleges showed that the first semester of the senior year is the point in the professional curriculum where student teaching is most frequently placed. Some institutions have this in their junior year, while a few offer student teaching in the sophomore and freshman years. It was, however, revealed in the same study that where student teaching is offered in the sophomore or freshman years, this phase of the pre-service training of teachers is carried in either two or more assignments, that is, students

¹ J. U. Michaelis and P. R. Grim, The Student Teacher in the Elementary School (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953), 1.

² McGill, "Laboratory Experiences in Programs of Teacher Education," Educational Forum, XVI (March, 1952), 361-367.

do student teaching more than once.¹

The trend is for full-time responsible teaching from the beginning, first with small groups, then with the whole class. The pattern reported by the Committee is that of one hour per day for a period of from 12 to 18 weeks.² There is, however, another trend, that where the student reports for student teaching one-half day for a period of from 9 to 18 weeks. This seems to be a compromise between the short one-hour daily and the full-time practices.

At Brigham Young University, student teaching is extended over a period of twenty-four weeks daily on a half-day basis.³ At Western Washington College the student spends four days a week in the classroom and one day on the campus, during the period for the first student teaching assignment. The second student teaching assignment is for all day.⁴ Oppelt recommends five days full-time teaching, with a Saturday seminar.⁵

There arises the question as to which is the best pattern to be followed. According to Flowers, the basic issue is which experience provides best for the growth of

¹Flowers, 146-147.

²Ibid., 151.

³Association for Student Teaching, Curriculum Trends and Teacher Education, Thirty-second Yearbook (Lock Haven, Penn.: The Association, 1953), 72-73.

⁴Ibid., 74-76.

⁵J. Oppelt, "Students Spend Entire Quarter as Cadet Teachers," Nation's Schools, XLV (June, 1950), 48.

the prospective teacher. This cannot be resolved on the basis of time alone, "since the quality of experience is the really important factor."¹ Botner says that more time alone will not guarantee effective student teaching experiences. "Longer daily assignments, especially full-time teaching, offer the greatest possibilities for the student teacher to have the total experience of the teacher in the service."² Student teaching should continue until there is evidence that competence has been established.

Types of experiences.--Student teaching should give students opportunities to get acquainted with the school plant, the school program, service and personnel facilities, the work of consultants, with school administration, with cooperative curriculum work in school, with parent teacher activities, guidance and personnel departments, and with the work of school custodians.

Ordinarily students go through observation and participation before responsibility is given them for teaching classes. However, it is recognized that there are levels of insight involved in any activity. What one sees in a situation depends upon his background. The individual differences among students do not allow for any exact allocation of experiences nor an indicated sequence to be followed by all students. It is important that there must be oppor-

¹Flowers, 152-153.

²T. Botner, "Extensive - Intensive Student Teaching: Which is Most Effective?" Education, LXXIII (June, 1953), 612-617.

tunity to share in the major activities of the teacher both in and out of the classroom. Nevertheless, the quality of student teaching experience is as important as, if not more important than the range of experiences. Readiness for experiences and individual differences should therefore be considered in planning with students their experiences.

Some of the more commonly reported experiences of students during their student teaching are the following:

1. As a student of children:

planning with children

seeking counsel of specialists in learning to

understand children

participating in student government

providing leadership during lunch hour

adjusting learning to their individual differences

working in child guidance clinic

visiting their homes

evaluating their progress

2. As a student of teaching:

observing other teachers

receiving guidance

developing music skills

developing skills in physical education

keeping records of experiences

3. As a co-worker and a teacher:

participating in administrative procedures

teaching for other students

gaining knowledge in curriculum planning and materials

taking part in field trips

teaching the children all the subjects found in the elementary school

guiding extra-curricular activities

sponsoring clubs

4. As a professional person:

observing and participating in faculty meetings

attending other professional meetings

working on faculty committees

observing and participating in parent conferences

taking part in seminars

participating in school and community activities

having working relationships with outside agency

In colleges where two or more student teaching assignments are given, the experiences during the first student teaching include observation, discussion and participation in the teacher's duties, actual teaching responsibilities, learning needed skills, exploring, preparing and using teaching materials, committee work, planning with supervisor, and evaluating. The second student teaching gives the student teacher more opportunities for the above experiences. In addition, he also makes a more detailed study of children, assists or participates in parent conferences, observes other grades in school, and visits off-

campus schools.¹

The campus laboratory school.--Campus laboratory schools were originally conceived to provide a place where students can observe children and master teachers teach, and do their student teaching. The growth in the population of teacher education institutions has limited the use of these schools for student teaching purposes. In some institutions, only one student is assigned to a laboratory school teacher at a time.² This does not mean, however, that the use of such schools for professional laboratory experiences and other purposes has diminished. In fact, the importance of the campus laboratory school has been greatly enhanced because it gives prospective student teachers continuity in their experiences with children through the four years of college life.³ It is in the campus laboratory school where students are able to have most of their pre-student teaching experiences with children.

Tanruther states the role of the campus laboratory school as follows:

1. It provides a rich and challenging program of living and learning for the children it serves.
2. It exemplifies the best in education for children as

¹Association for Student Teaching, 1953, 75-76.

²Association for Student Teaching, 1955, 21 ff.

³F. R. Park, "The Atmosphere of the Laboratory School," Educational Administration and Supervision, XXXVI (November, 1950), 396-402.

a means of demonstrating to prospective teachers just what a good school is like.

3. It becomes an integral part of the community it serves and shares in the improvement of community living.
4. It shares in providing professional laboratory experiences during each year of the student's college education.
5. It shares in providing opportunities for experimentation and research.
6. It shares in providing for the successful induction of beginning teachers.
7. It shares in providing professional leadership in the areas served by the college.¹

The off-campus laboratory school.--With the increase of enrollment in teacher education institutions and the corresponding increase of responsibilities of campus laboratory schools, came the need for increased use of public schools for professional laboratory experiences. Other factors contributing to the importance of public schools for professional laboratory experiences are:

1. The desire to make programs of teacher education realistic. The public school is thought of as a typical school, and is therefore turned to by those desiring realistic situations in the laboratory.
2. The financial problem involved in building campus

¹Park, 396-402.

schools is a factor which can be done away with by using the public schools.¹

Such schools, called off-campus cooperating schools, have therefore special functions. The 34th Yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching gives the following as their functions:

1. To challenge the student teacher; to arouse his curiosity, strengthen his initiative, and challenge him to action by presenting him to an opportunity to test his understanding and his skills.
2. To involve the student teacher in responsible participation.
3. To provide guidance and assistance to the student teacher as he learns through experience.
4. To provide opportunity for the student to intellectualize his experience.
5. To provide a chance for success.²

Experiences after student teaching

Purposes of post-student teaching experiences.--

Many institutions for teacher education have been experimenting with the plan of giving student teachers more experiences with children after the student teaching phase of their training. The purposes of such professional laboratory

¹ Association for Student Teaching, Off-Campus Student Teaching, Thirtieth Yearbook (Lock Haven, Penn.: The Association, 1951), 26-27.

² Association for Student Teaching, 1955, 45-49.

experiences are: (1) to permit students to do more intensive work in areas of special interest, (2) to make it possible for students to strengthen their shortage areas, and (3) to help them gain in a new overview of the larger school situation and to study the interrelationships of its various parts.¹

Such a program includes a variety of possible experiences from which a student may select with guidance those which best meet his needs. Some of these needs are:

1. Need for wider contacts in total school situations.
2. Need to learn more about the role of education in a community and the relationship between the socio-economic status of community groups and the school program for children and youth.
3. Need to widen experiences because of confusing philosophies.²

Hale suggests the use of observation after the teaching period to reinforce principles, devices and ideas. This will enable the student to see more clearly than he could before student teaching the strengths and weaknesses of the principles, devices and procedures of teaching developed during the training period. He says that "studying and trying to solve neatly pigeon-holed case problems in a methods course affords little, if any, insight into actual

¹Flowers, 199.

²M. Lindsey, After Student Teaching, What?" Education, LXXIII (June, 1953), 630-635.

classroom problems, conditions and situations.¹

Evaluating the experiences with children

Ultimately, the purpose of evaluation in teacher education is the growth of the person and the improvement of the teaching-learning situation. Vander Werf says that

before authentic growth can take place . . . the perception of the person must change. . . . Normally, growth in teachers can be encouraged only in an atmosphere of freedom to learn and inquire, by the behavior of stimulating leadership, and in cooperative attacks upon problems of mutual and significant concern.²

The purposes of evaluation of student teaching are as follows: (1) to help the college appraise the effectiveness of its program prior to student teaching, (2) to secure evidence for an administrative grade, (3) to furnish data for the prospective employer, (4) to identify weaknesses to be overcome and strengths to be enhanced, and (5) to help the student to know what achievements others believe he has made at the time of appraisal. According to Patterson,

the focal point for a program of evaluation of student teaching is helping the beginner to become something more than a good or better student teacher. The inclusive purpose is to start him on the road to becoming a student of teaching: an objective, critical student of himself as a teacher and of the educative process as a vital part of the democratic way of living.³

¹G. Hale, "Is Student Teaching Meaningful?" Journal of Business Education, XXX (January, 1955), 190.

²L. Vander Werf, "The Evaluation of Teaching," American School Boards Journal, MXXXIII (October, 1956), 27-30.

³A. Patterson, "The Essentials of a Program of Evaluation and Measurement of Student Teaching," National Business Education Quarterly, XXIII (December, 1954), 5-9.

The evaluation of student teaching should be considered in terms of the type of teaching exhibited, as well as in terms of general classroom efficiency, since student teaching is the culmination of a professional program rather than mere mechanical routine.¹ What to evaluate should depend upon the kinds of schools we need in our democracy, what these schools should do for boys and girls and for their community, our conception of how learning takes place, whether the desired learnings are thought of primarily as skills or as broad concepts and understandings, and what values we wish to evaluate. The student teacher should participate in the identification and definition of these values, even to the point of proposing that he be evaluated in terms of some performance that is of peculiar significance to him.²

Inlow poses three problems in the evaluation of the student teacher's experiences: (1) who should evaluate, (2) what should be evaluated, and (3) how evaluation can be accomplished most effectively.³

It is also recognized that there are factors beyond the control of the student teacher which may affect his performance. Patterson says that

¹L. Harding, "A Note to Student Teachers on the Supervision and Evaluation of Their Work," Educational Research Bulletin, XXX (March, 1951), 57-63.

²Patterson, XXIII, 5-9.

³G. Inlow, "Evaluating Student Teacher Experiences," Journal of Educational Research, XLV (May, 1952), 705-714.

the groups of children with whom student teachers work and the school situation itself present differences that influence the performance of the student teacher. The interrelatedness of these influences affect not only the quality of performance but also the kinds of behavior exhibited by the student teacher.¹

A summary of this discussion may best be presented in the following principles of evaluation:

1. Evaluation of student teaching must give attention to all aspects of teaching competence.
2. Values must be clarified because they determine the kind of teaching which will be emphasized as evaluation is carried on.
3. Evaluation of student teaching must be done cooperatively.
4. Evaluation is a continuous process and must be operative throughout the entire program.
5. Evaluation is a part and parcel of the student teaching process and must not be viewed as a separate, discrete aspect.
6. Evaluation of student teaching must be carried on in a variety of teaching-learning activities in which teaching competence is observable.
7. Self-evaluation leading to increasing self-direction is an essential feature of sound evaluation.
8. Evaluation is effective to the extent that sound principles of learning are used in the program.
9. A variety of appraisal instruments, techniques, and devices should be used.
10. Evaluative instruments and techniques should be selected in accordance with the needs that exist at a given time.
11. Comprehensive records are needed to assure intelligent interpretation of evidence gathered through evaluation.²

¹Patterson, XXIII, 5-9.

²Association for Student Teaching, The Evaluation of Student Teaching, Twenty-eighth Yearbook (Lock Haven, Penn.):

The student teaching performance

Student teaching performance has been described in a variety of ways. Some use has been made of rating scales similar to the one used in this study, check lists, achievement tests, inventories, self-evaluations, and pupil evaluations to measure student teaching success. Because these instruments have been designed to measure the student teacher's performance, it will be necessary to include in this discussion a definition of teaching efficiency and the factors related to teaching ability. A brief review of studies using these and other instruments to predict or measure success in student teaching will also be included.

Most of the studies on student teaching have been those which make an attempt to predict success in this activity with scholarship, intelligence, personality, and standardized tests, as predictors. No specific study using experiences with children prior to student teaching as a predictor has been reported. The literature in this latter area is mostly a survey of actual practices in institutions for teacher education. This has been reported by Flowers to whom extensive reference was made in the previous sections.

Teaching efficiency.--Barr thinks about teaching efficiency in three ways: (1) in terms of character and personality traits - the qualities of a person, (2) in terms

of desired competencies, performances, ability to do, and (3) in terms of behavior controls - knowledges, generalized skills, attitudes, interests, and ideals. Efficiency may thus be defined or estimated from studies of the teacher's performance, activities or behavior, studies of the qualities of a person, and studies of pupil growth and achievement.¹

The subject of teacher effectiveness is to be thought of as a broad field of research in which studies on many aspects and many details are required. It is not to be thought of as consisting of any single, fixed pattern of behavior. It is seen to involve the determination of relationship between teacher behavior and changes in the behavior of pupils, in the operation of school, and in the community interaction.² The study of teacher effectiveness must assume the possibility of different patterns of effectiveness for different kinds of teachers, pupils, educational programs or situations and the possibility of a variety of patterns of effective teaching for any given pupil-teacher-educational program combination. This is the multi-dimensional concept of teacher effectiveness.³ The problem of predicting teach-

¹A. S. Barr, "The Measurement and Prediction of Teaching Efficiency," Journal of Experimental Education, XVI (June, 1948), 203-283.

²N. Gage and J. Orleans, "Guiding Principles in the Study of Teacher Effectiveness," Journal of Teacher Education, III (December, 1952), 294-298; also, H. Remmers, et al., "Second Report of the Committee on Criteria of Teacher Effectiveness," Journal of Educational Research, XLV (May, 1952), 641-648.

³Remmers, 641-648.

er effectiveness is one of predicting that a student teacher will, when he becomes a teacher, produce certain changes in pupil behavior. To predict teacher effectiveness, it is necessary to relate teacher behaviors and characteristics to the effects of these and in turn on the effects of these on the pupils. Any treatment of data on teacher effectiveness should take into account the following intervening variables: kinds of pupils, nature of school program, and situational factors.

Barr believes that the identification and definition of teacher competencies is yet by no means satisfactory. The ultimate criteria, according to him are the changes which take place in the behavior of the pupils. The problem is to relate the teacher's performance to changes in pupil behavior.¹ Orleans identifies several difficulties in doing this: (1) measurement of changes in pupil behavior, (2) controlling the variables other than teacher performance which may affect pupil growth, (3) isolating the influence of the behavior of a single teacher, (5) classifying the teachers and pupils, and (6) educational goals to be dealt with.²

The factors related to teaching ability.--In the light of the preceding discussion, it would be well to look into the factors related to teaching ability that have been identified by researchers in this field. What is a good

¹Cited on Orleans and Gage, 294-298.

²Ibid.

teacher? Symonds says that "the desirable teacher is one for whom teaching satisfies deep wishes, who finds teaching interesting, and who is as interested or more interested in the boys and girls she teaches as in the subject she teaches them."¹ Crow says that a good teacher must continue to be a learner; know how to motivate; and be able to develop pupil self-control, direct pupil study, maintain pupil interest, measure achievement, and stimulate thinking. He must possess to a certain degree some personal qualities such as good health, intelligence, good speech, integrity, emotional stability, and courtesy. He must be able to get along with people, do creative thinking, and have a sense of humor. He must have a good democratic orientation, an objective and analytical attitude, a sense of social responsibility, an appreciation of the scientific method, an enthusiasm for teaching as a profession, and a pride in the profession he has chosen.²

According to Barr the major bases for judgments of competence are classroom management, instructional skill, personal fitness for teaching, scholarship, effort toward improvement, interest in work, pupils, patrons, subjects taught, and ability to cooperate.³

¹P. M. Symonds, "Reflections on Observations of Teachers," Journal of Educational Research, XLIII (May, 1950), 688-696.

²L. D. Crow, "Evaluation in Teacher Education," School and Society, LXXVII (May 21, 1953), 276-278.

³Barr, 203-283.

The California Council on Teacher Education defined six roles of the teacher, as determined by the groups with whom the teacher has contacts, as follows:

1. As a director of learning
2. As a counselor and guidance worker
3. As a mediator of culture
4. As a member of the school community
5. As a liaison between school and community
6. As a member of the profession

The competencies demanded for each role were defined in the Albany Conference in 1954.¹

Studies on social factors and teaching ability show no definite direction of relationship between these two variables. Brookholder made a study to determine the relationship of social factors to teaching ability. He found that the direction of relationship was negative in some aspects, positive in others and in still others, there was no indication of direction.² Rolfe found that the correlation between social attitudes and teaching ability was low.³

Studies generally show some positive relationship between personality factors and teaching ability. Witty

¹National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, Factors in Teaching Competence. (Washington D. C.: The Commission, 1954), 8-9.

²W. Brookholder, "The Relation of Social Factors to Teaching Ability," Journal of Experimental Education, XIII (June, 1945), 191-205.

³J. Rolfe, "The Measurement of Teaching Ability," Journal of Experimental Education, XIV (September, 1945), 52-71.

listed twelve traits most commonly mentioned by 12,000 children from grades two to twelve, with cooperativeness, democratic ~~attitude~~ and kindness and consideration for the individual ranking first.¹ Morris² and Odenweller³ found high correlations between personality traits and success in teaching. Rolfe also concluded in his study that personality seems to possess a positive relationship with good teaching.⁴ Retan found that more stable persons are successful teachers.⁵ In Erickson's study of teaching ability, he found low correlation between the several temperament, personality and achievement variables with teaching success, such as principal's ratings of teachers, supervisor's ratings, teachers' self-ratings and pupil ratings.⁶ On the other hand, Hearn found high correlations between specific traits and general teaching competence.⁷

¹P. Witty, "An Analysis of the Personality Traits of the Effective Teacher," Journal of Educational Research, XL (May, 1947), 662-671.

²E. Morris, Personality Traits and Success in Teaching (New York: Col. Univ.), Contr. to Education, No. 342.

³A. Odenweller, Predicting the Quality of Teaching (New York: Col. Univ.), Contributions to Education.

⁴Rolfe, 52-71.

⁵G. Retan, "Emotional Instability and Teaching Success," Journal of Educational Research, XXXVII (October, 1943), 135-141.

⁶H. Erickson, "A Factorial Study of Teaching Ability," Journal of Experimental Education, XXIII (September, 1954), 1-39.

⁷A. Hearn, "The Relationship between Specific Traits and General Teaching Competence," Educational Administration and Supervision, DCL (December 1953), 500-503.

LaDuke¹ and Rotsker² found significant relationships between intelligence quotient and teaching success. However, Pyle found a correlation of only .03 between intelligence and teaching ability.³

Findings on studies of relationships between teaching experience and training and success in teaching also show no definite direction. Young found that persons with degrees and more experience are usually rated higher in their teaching efficiencies than those without either degree or experience. He based his conclusions on ratings of teachers by principals.⁴ On the other hand, Meriam,⁵ Anderson,⁶ and Hendrickson⁷ all found that the correlation between scholarship and training and teaching success is generally low. They estimated teaching success on the supervisor's or principal's ratings of teachers.

¹C. LaDuke, "The Measurement of Teaching Ability," Journal of Experimental Education, XIV (September, 1945), 75-100.

²L. Rotsker, "The Measurement of Teaching Ability," Ibid., XIV (September, 1945), 6-51.

³W. Pyle, "The Relationship between Intelligence and Teaching Success," Educational Research Bulletin, XXIX (September, 1950), 147-157.

⁴F. Young, "Some Factors Affecting Teaching Efficiency," Journal of Educational Research, XXXIII (May, 1939), 649-52.

⁵J. Meriam, Normal School Education and Efficiency in Teaching (New York: Col. Univ., 1905), 1-152.

⁶H. Anderson, "Correlation between Academic Achievement and Teaching Success," Elementary School Journal, XXXII (September, 1931), 22-29.

⁷E. Hendrickson, "Comparison of Ratings of Voice and Teaching Ability," Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXIV (February, 1943), 121-123.

Shannon found that teaching skill, discipline, and personality contribute most to teaching success, while knowledge, community relations, and classroom management contribute least.¹

The prediction of success in student teaching.--Many researchers have also made studies but without conclusive results on the relationship between success in student teaching and such other factors as intelligence, college scholarship, and the student's personality.

Broom found that of three factors - intelligence, scholarship and professional knowledge, intelligence correlated highest with the rated teaching ability of the student teacher.² Major also found that academic rating above a certain critical point is not significant to such a degree that it can be used as a criterion for forecasting teaching success.³

Michaelis and Tyler made a study of the predictive value of the Heston Inventory in student teaching. They found confidence, sociability, and personal relations to be correlated significantly with success in student teaching.⁴ Page and Travers found no relationship between adjustment

¹J. Shannon, "Elements of Excellence in Teaching," Educational Administration and Supervision, XXVII (March, 1941), 168-176.

²M. Broom, "The Predictive Value of Three Specified Factors for Success in Practice Teaching," Educational Administration and Supervision, XV (January, 1929), 25-29.

³C. Major, "The Influence of Academic Standing Upon Success in Student Teaching," Educational Research Bulletin, XXXII (March, 1953), 66-67.

scores derived from the Munroe Check List and the category of behavior for elementary education students. They said, however, that the supervisory descriptions of outstanding characteristics of the student as a classroom teacher did not constitute criteria of effectiveness, but were reflections of the supervisory value judgments and concepts of desirable and undesirable student teacher behavior.¹

Mead and Holley compared the various items of the rating scheme to find those most closely correlated with the results secured in practice teaching so that a more adequate system of rating might be devised. They found that general scholarship is slightly correlated with practice teaching grade, general methods courses are correlated to a high degree with success, and very little or no correlation at all exists between success in student teaching and the amount of work completed in the subject to be taught, the instructor's opinion on student's familiarity with subject, the instructor's opinion of the student's probable teaching success, and mental test results.²

To conclude this discussion, the following quotation

¹J. Michaelis and F. Tyler, "Diagnostic and Predictive Value of the Heston Inventory Used in Student Teaching," Journal of Teacher Education, I (March, 1950), 40-43.

¹M. Page and R. Travers, "Relationship between Rorschach Performance and Student Teaching," Journal of Educational Psychology, XLIV (January, 1953), 31-40.

²A. Mead and C. Holley, "Forecasting Success in Practice Teaching," Journal of Educational Psychology, VII (October, 1916), 495-497.

from Ryans is pertinent:

. . . successful teaching . . . (is) contributed to by many qualities of the individual, intellectual and personal. Prediction of teaching ability based on any one or few of these related factors are not likely to prove encouraging to those concerned with teacher selection and placement.¹

Studies on the evaluation of student teacher's performance.--There have been a few studies on the evaluation of the student teacher's performance. Several factors enter into this evaluation. Some of these are personality factors, social perception, acceptability by pupils, by peers, and by the student teacher himself, and the supervising teacher's perception of the student teacher.

Bond studied the ratings received by the student teachers in each characteristic on a rating scale, especially on those characteristics in which students needed most improvement. He found that student teachers rated consistently higher in personality factors and lowest in qualities of professional competence. He says that

this raises considerable doubt about the wisdom of including ratings of personal factors as a major part of the total appraisal of student teachers. . . . Emphasis in final evaluation should be placed upon successes in specific behaviors inherent in teaching.²

He also found that students are low in their ability to conduct classroom activities so as to secure cooperation of

¹D. Ryans, "The 1941 Administration of the National Teacher Examination," School and Society, LIV (October 25, 1941), 361-368.

²J. Bond, "Strengths and Weaknesses of Student Teachers," Journal of Educational Research, XLV (September, 1951), 11-22.

pupils. They were lowest in achieving discipline and in creative ability.¹

Gronlund made a study to determine the relation between accuracy of social perception and teaching effectiveness. He defines social perception as the degree to which an individual's judgment of social acceptability of others agree with his actual social acceptability as measured by a sociometric test. He found an apparent lack of relation between social perception and teaching effectiveness. It seemed to him that there is a relation between sociometric status and teaching effectiveness, with the best students being most acceptable as teaching companions.² Smith found that student teacher's acceptance by children remained constant, and that acceptance by peers had no relationship to their acceptance in children's groups.³ Drawhorne found high correlations between ratings of teaching effectiveness and pupil and student-teacher interaction.⁴

Major made a study to determine how rating of student teachers varied and how this variation was related, if

¹Ibid.

²N. Gronlund, "Social Perception and Teaching Effectiveness," School Review, LXIII (May, 1955), 277-283.

³W. Smith, "Social Attraction Patterns between Elementary-School Children and Student Teachers: Sociometric Analysis," Journal of Educational Psychology, XLIV (February, 1953), 113-125.

⁴C. Drawhorne, "Relationship between Pupils and Student Teacher Interaction and Pupil Ratings of Teaching Effectiveness," Educational Administration and Supervision, XL (May, 1954), 283-296.

at all, to their academic records. He found a wide range in ratings of student teachers in subject teaching. The correlation between academic standing and success in student teaching was very low.¹

Pattishal says that critic teachers tend to rate highest those student teachers whom they perceive to be most like themselves in classroom practices, values, and attitudes.²

Summary

Student teaching has made advances towards better practices, thanks to the efforts of institutions of teacher education, of organized groups like the Association for Student Teaching and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, and of individuals who have been devoting their major interests to the improvement of teacher education programs. This chapter has described briefly developments along the following trends:

1. There has been a shift of emphasis in pre-student experiences from observation of the master teacher to study of children; from a study of the teacher's techniques to direct experiences with children at work and at play.

¹C. Major, "The Influence of Academic Standing Upon Success in Student Teaching," Educational Research Bulletin, XXXII (March, 1953), 66-67.

²E. Pattishal, Interpersonal Perceptions of Student Teachers and Critic Teachers (Unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, University of Michigan, 1950).

2. There is provision for direct experiences with children in actual school and community situations for high school seniors.
3. Continuous direct experiences with children throughout the college years of students in connection with both professional and academic courses have been provided for in the curricula of many institutions for teacher education.
4. Opportunities have been given for students to observe and participate in the total school programs through September experiences and other school and community experiences.
5. An increasing number of institutions now require longer periods for student teaching and offer more than one student teaching assignment than before.
6. Programs now include post-student teaching to round up the students' experiences with children.
7. More use is made of public schools for professional laboratory experiences.
8. A continuous search for better ways of evaluating student teaching and other professional laboratory experiences of students is being made.

Teaching efficiency may be discussed and measured in terms of the qualities of the teacher, his performance, and the changes wrought in pupils under his guidance. Of these, the last is the most difficult to gauge.

Studies show either low correlations or no definite

direction of relationship between teaching effectiveness and the qualities and the performance of the teacher. There are several reasons for these, among which are the indiscriminating instruments used for discerning the qualities of the teacher and his performance and the unreliable measures of pupil growth, the difficulty of isolating the influence of a single teacher on the pupils, the lack of direction of educational goals, and the difficulty of classifying teachers and pupils.

Successful teaching is contributed to by many qualities of the teacher. Teaching effectiveness may be predicted more accurately if the individual is considered as a whole -- socially, intellectually, and emotionally. As soon as studies have qualified these characteristics, institutions for teacher education will be in a better position to select better qualified teachers and graduate better teachers.

CHAPTER III

EXPERIENCES WITH CHILDREN PRIOR TO STUDENT TEACHING AND SUCCESS IN STUDENT TEACHING

It was explained in Chapter One that the questionnaire on experiences of student teachers with children prior to student teaching called for three major kinds of information - hours of experience, role played by the student teacher, and the supervision or lack thereof that he received. It was believed that the first type of information would reveal the quantity of experience and the two other kinds would help gauge the quality of the experience. Both the quantity and quality of experience need to be considered in making any generalization concerning the relationship between experiences with children and success in student teaching.

The first section of this chapter will make an analysis of the facts revealed in the responses to this questionnaire and their relationship to success in student teaching as measured by the rating scale adapted from Tyler. The second section will make an analysis of the same facts and their relationship to the degree of satisfaction of the student teachers with their student teaching.

Experiences and ratings in student teaching

The types of experiences of the student teachers.--

It must be pointed out at the outset that most students who plan to enter into elementary school teaching must have had some previous experiences with children. This is revealed in the responses to the questionnaire on experiences of student teachers. While there was a time limit given as to when the experiences should have been engaged in to be counted, all of the students indicated some hours of work or play with children in one or more of the types of activities listed. However, there was quite a large range as to the total number of hours of experiences the different students had. This is clearly shown in Figure I. While this graph is extremely skewed, the fact still remains that more than four fifths of the students had 250 or more hours of experiences with children prior to student teaching. Reference will be made to this fact again in making the interpretations of this study.

Table I presents a more detailed information on the hours of experiences for each type of experience listed in the questionnaire.¹ It is interesting to note that there is consistently a greater percentage of students reporting experiences with children during their high school than their college years. Slightly more than a third of the students reported no experiences in connection with their

¹All tables referred to in this discussion are found in the Appendixes.

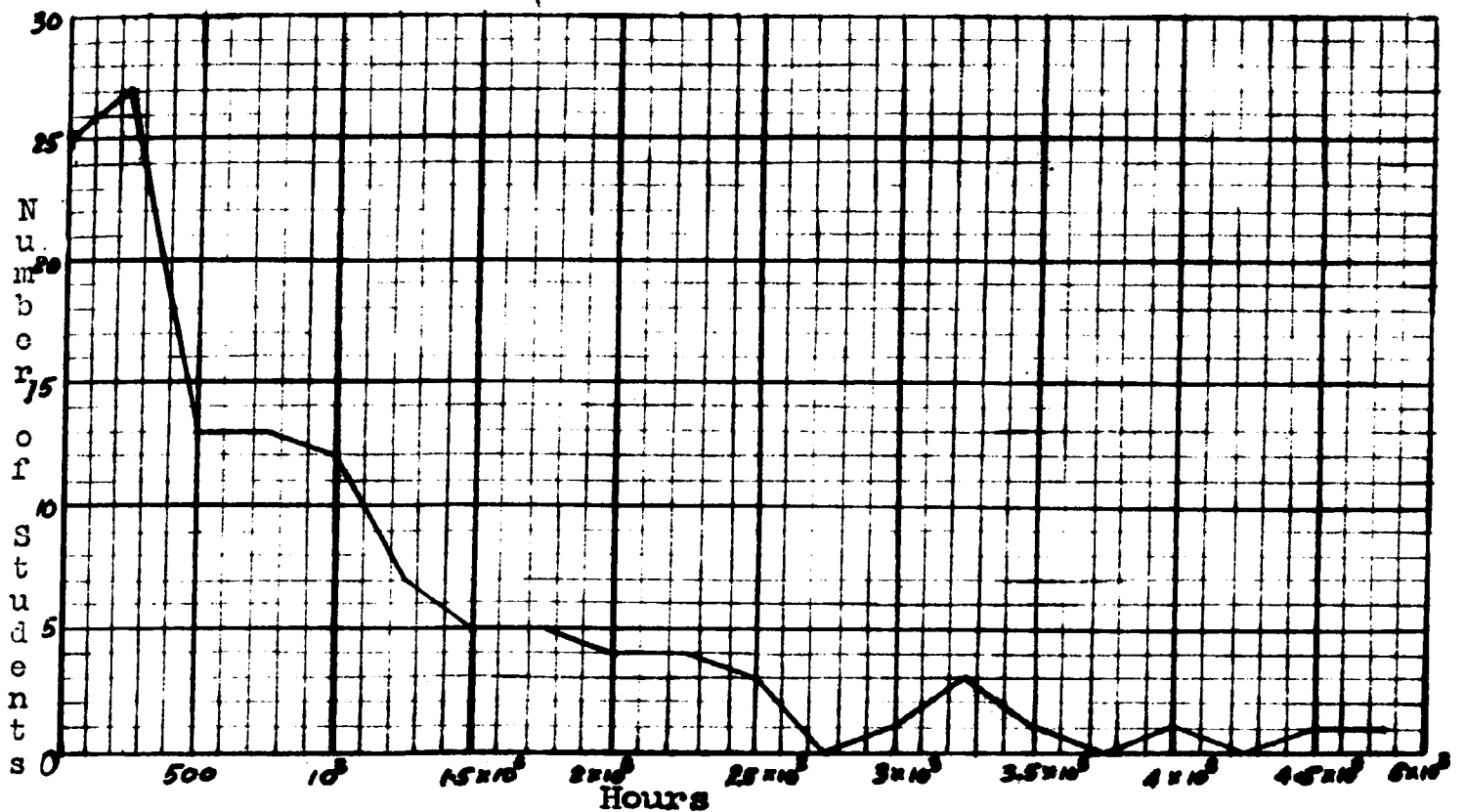


Figure 1.-Percentage of population sample and their total hours of experience

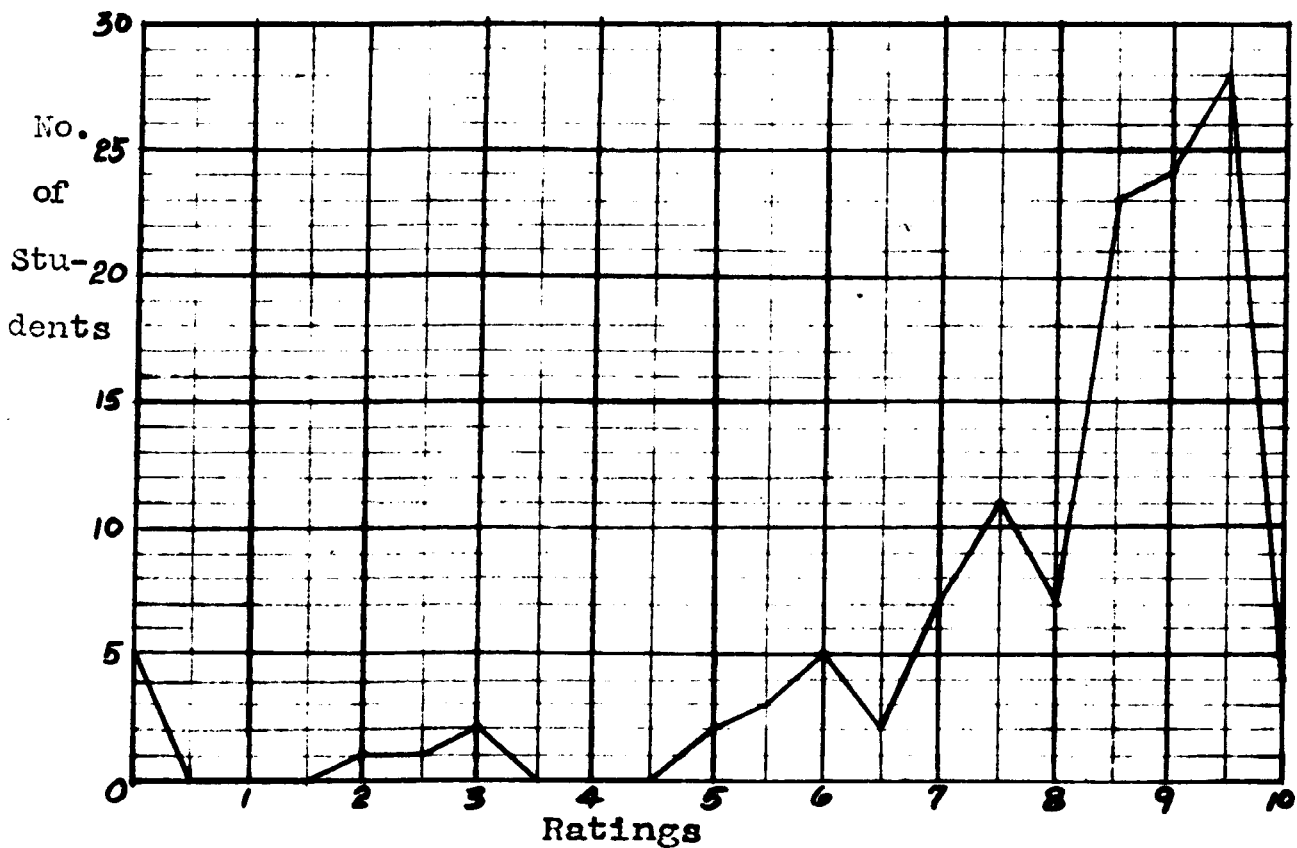


Figure 2.-Percentage of population sample and their ratings in student teaching

college courses. This seems unusual, because it is a general practice for methods courses instructors to require a certain number of hours of observation and participation in regular classrooms. Of course, some of the students could have reported this experience as other college activities.

The common type of activity under Community Activities reported as providing experience with children was baby sitting. In fact this was the only community experience for most students. Many of them could have reported more hours if they were allowed to include their baby sitting experiences as far back as they could remember.

Experiences which the students gained as they worked or played with their siblings were not counted. Neither were those experiences which the married students have had with their own children. An analysis of the ratings and satisfactions of these groups of students is given in a later section of this chapter.

The ratings of the student teachers.-- The average rating of each student based on Tyler's Rating Scale was computed. Figure 2 presents these ratings in a graphic form. It will be noticed that more than half of the students got an average rating of 85 or above. Four students got perfect ratings (100), and five got 0 ratings (or were not rated on this scale). The skewness of these results apparently arose because supervising teachers rated the students on this scale thinking that they would be taken into consideration in determining final student teaching

marks.

The final student teaching marks of the students were converted into their numerical scores as explained in Chapter One.¹ These and the ratings derived from the rating scale adapted from Tyler were then correlated. The r found was .566. This is significant above the 5 percent level. The coefficient of alienation was computed to be only .624. These two instruments therefore do not measure the same things. However, there is a high probability that either of the two scales would give the same results when used with the same students. For this reason, the rating scale based on Tyler is the only one used in computing the correlations used in this study.

To give a general view of the relationship between ratings in student teaching and total hours of experience, these two variables were plotted in a scattergram.² The same device was used to show the relationship between role scores and ratings and supervision scores and ratings. Figures 3, 4, and 5 show these scattergrams.

It is apparent that there can be some relationship between the two variables included in each of these diagrams. They all tend to be skewed heavily on one side. It is most difficult to draw any linear correlation between the variables. The next section will explain further just what these correlations are and their predictive values.

¹See pages 16-17.

²Figures 3, 4, and 5 are found in Appendix C.

Individual correlations between each of the three dimensions of experience with success and satisfaction with student teaching will be analyzed. Multiple correlations among these three dimensions with success and satisfactions will also be presented in a later section.

The relationship between total hours of experience with children and success in student teaching.--It is generally believed that experience is basic to learning. Since student teaching is basically working with children, these experiences should be an important factor to success in this phase of pre-service training. As a corollary, one might say that added experience would mean more success in student teaching. How important these experiences are to success in student teaching is one of the problems of this study.

The correlation coefficient between the total hours of experience with children and success in student teaching is given in Table 2. This r (.161) is not significantly different from zero at the 5 percent level of significance.

To check this, the t -value was determined. Confidence limits were computed for the r obtained, by the process of converting the r to z and then the resulting z back to r . At the 95 percent level of confidence, the confidence interval falls between $-.015$ and $.3266$. For this particular sampling, therefore, the number of hours of experience with children prior to student teaching is not significantly related with success in student teaching.

The mean ratings of students with the highest number of hours were then compared with those with the lowest number of hours. About a fourth of all the students were included in each group. The purpose of this was to find out if number of hours of experience made any difference in the ratings of the students. The data in Table 9 shows this comparison.

The mean rating of the highest group is considerably higher than that of the lowest group. But the t-value obtained for this mean difference is still too low to make the difference significant at the 5 percent level. The mean difference could therefore be attributed to chance. It did not matter whether the student teacher belonged to the group with the highest hours of experience or to the group with the lowest hours since the mean difference is not significantly different from zero.

Role scores and ratings in student teaching.--The second dimension of experience tested was the role score. The coefficient of correlation between role scores and ratings in student teaching is very low (.023), as can be seen in Table 2. This correlation coefficient is not significantly different from zero.

The mean rating of those students who obtained the highest role scores was compared with that of those students who obtained the lowest role scores. About a fourth of the students were included in each group. This comparison is presented in Table 9. While those who are in the high group

obtained higher mean rating than those in the low group, this difference in favor of the high group is not significantly different from zero either. Since the results are both insignificant at the 95 percent level, this sampling study shows that success in student teaching is not related significantly to role scores based on experiences with children prior to student teaching, as measured by these instruments.

Supervision scores and ratings in student teaching.--

The coefficient of correlation between supervision scores and ratings is given in Table 2. It can be seen that a relationship between these two variables may exist, but it is too low to be significantly different from zero. The confidence limits obtained with an r of .061 are -.115 and .2336 at the 5 percent level of significance. This has 0 within its range. This shows that the obtained r could have been due to chance.

A comparison of the mean ratings of those students with the highest supervision scores and those with lowest supervision scores was also computed. While the difference between the two means favored the high group, the obtained t does not reach the t -value required to make the difference significant at the 5 percent level. This difference could therefore be attributed to chance and this result does not prove the hypothesis that the degree of supervision is related to success in student teaching.

It may therefore be said that degree of supervision of experiences with children prior to student teaching is

not significantly related to ratings in student teaching.

Types of experiences and ratings in student teaching.--To find out which types of experience could have contributed most to success in student teaching, comparisons were made between the ratings of those students who had certain types of experience with those who did not have them. The types are those given in the questionnaire. The result of this comparison is presented in Table 22. The first thing that may catch the eye is the fact that in seven cases the mean ratings of those without experiences came out higher than those with experience. This accounts for negative obtained t's for these types of experiences. However, these negative obtained t's were too low to be significant at the 5 percent level. They could be attributed to chance, and they could not prove that the lower means obtained by these groups of students were due to the particular experience.

Of the obtained t's, only one is significant beyond the 5 percent level. The obtained t is 2.475 and the required t-value at the 5 percent level is only 1.96. Most of the activity reported under this type of experience for both high school and college years is teaching Sunday school for 1 hour a week, throughout the year.

All the other obtained t's, even if they are positive, do not reach the t-value required for 5 percent level of significance. The mean deviations could therefore be attributed to chance and the types of experiences described do not discriminate between the ratings obtained by the

students.

This sampling is not able to give any clue as to what type of experience is most or least conducive to success in student teaching. The one experience which seems to give some promise as being most conducive to success in student teaching is teaching Sunday school in connection with Church Activities.

Experiences with siblings and ratings in student teaching.-- There was no way of indicating in the questionnaire on experiences of student teachers with children, the hours of such experiences with siblings. The mean ratings of students with siblings were therefore compared with that of those who did not have siblings.

Table 10 shows that students without younger siblings had a higher mean rating than those with these siblings. The obtained t , however, did not reach the required t -value at the 5 percent level of significance. The deviation could therefore be attributed to chance, and experiences with younger siblings do not seem to be related to ratings in student teaching.

Much the same can be said of the mean differences between the ratings of those students with older siblings and those without these siblings. In the same table, we also find that the mean rating of these students with older siblings is lower than that of those without older siblings. This accounts for the negative obtained t . This obtained t , however, does not reach the required t -value at the 5 percent

level of significance. On the basis of this sampling, it cannot therefore be said that experiences with older siblings is significantly related to success in student teaching.

A small group of students had both older and younger siblings. Although in this group were only 16 cases, it was thought that a comparison of their mean rating with that of the rest of the group might be of value. The mean rating of this small group is higher than that of the rest of the sample, as can be seen in the same table. The obtained t for this mean difference, however, does not reach the t -value required at the 5 percent level of significance. This mean difference is not significantly different from zero. The deviation could be attributed to chance and the hypothesis that experiences with both older and younger siblings is related to success in student teaching is therefore rejected.

From these comparisons, it appears that experiences with siblings are not related to success in student teaching. The deviations shown in these samples could be attributed to chance.

Married teachers and ratings in student teaching.--

The same problem of recording arose in connection with the experiences of married student teachers with their own children if they have any. While the number of married student teachers was small, it was thought worthwhile to compare their ratings with that of the rest of the group.

Table II presents a comparison between the mean rating of the married student teachers with children with

that of the rest of the sample. While the mean rating of the married group was higher than that of the other group, the obtained t for this mean difference did not reach the t -value required at the 5 percent level of significance.

This table also presents a comparison between the mean rating of the married teachers who did not have children with that of the rest of the sampling. The mean rating of the married childless group is very much lower than that of the rest of the group. This mean difference gave a t which goes beyond the t -value required at the 5 percent level of significance. There is no way of determining the cause of this significant difference.

The difference between the mean rating of married but childless students and those married students with children is even larger. However, even if this mean difference is large, it does not give a t which reaches the required t -value at the 5 percent level of significance. This deviation could therefore be attributed to chance and this result does not support the hypothesis that married student teachers who have children are more successful student teachers than those who do not have children.

While it is highly probable that married teachers without children are less successful than married students with children and unmarried students, the above comparisons generally show that marriage does not have any significant relationship with success in student teaching.

Hours of experience and degree of satisfaction.--

The coefficient of correlation between total hours of experience with children prior to student teaching and degree of satisfaction with student teaching is .187 as given in Table 3. This is significant at the 5 percent level, with a 95 percent probability that the population r would be between .0127 and .3493. There is therefore a positive relationship between hours of experience with children and degree of satisfaction with student teaching.

The mean satisfaction scores of those students with the highest number of hours of experience was compared with that of the students with the lowest number of hours. This comparison is presented in Table 12. The obtained t is beyond the t -value required at the 5 percent level. There is therefore a significant difference in means between these two groups. For this particular sample, those students with the highest number of hours of experience with children prior to student teaching are more satisfied with their student teaching than those with the lowest number of hours.

These comparisons support the hypothesis that number of hours of experience with children prior to student teaching is positively correlated with the student's degree of satisfaction with student teaching.

Role scores and degree of satisfaction with student teaching.--Table 3 also shows the degree of relationship between role scores and degree of satisfaction. The r of .096 is too low to make this relationship significantly different from zero. The fact that the confidence limits

include both positive and negative values corresponds with the fact that the population r does not differ, at the 95 percent confidence level, significantly from zero.

A comparison of the means of the satisfaction scores of those students with the highest role scores and that of those with the lowest role scores is presented in Table 12. The obtained t for the mean difference does not reach the t -value required at the 5 percent level. The mean difference obtained could therefore be attributed to chance, and it is not significantly different from zero.

The two groups just described are significantly different enough to have yielded valid differences in the mean satisfaction scores of the two groups if this mean difference had been significant at the 95 percent confidence level.

These comparisons therefore accept the null hypothesis that the role played by the student teacher as he gains experiences prior to student teaching does not make a difference in the degree of his satisfaction with student teaching.

Supervision scores and degree of satisfaction with student teaching.--The relationship between supervision scores and degree of satisfaction is also very low, as can be seen in Table 3. The obtained r is only .081 and this is not significant at the 5 percent level. The fact that the confidence intervals include zero shows that the population r may not differ significantly from zero. If there is

any relationship between these two variables, then it can only be very slight.

The mean difference in satisfaction scores between those students in the upper quartile in their supervision scores and those in the lower quartile was also computed. The obtained t did not reach the t -value required at the 5 percent level of significance. Table 12 shows that this mean difference could be attributed to chance and that the degree of supervision is therefore not related to satisfaction with student teaching.

These data therefore reject the hypothesis that degree of supervision of the experiences of student teachers with children prior to student teaching makes a difference in the degree of satisfaction of the students with student teaching.

Siblings and degree of satisfaction with student teaching.-- It was not possible to determine with accuracy the supervision score of students with siblings. Comparisons were therefore made between the degree of satisfaction of those students who had siblings and those who did not have siblings. It was assumed that a student who had one or more siblings would experience a degree of supervision in working or playing with them. Table 13 shows a comparison between the mean satisfaction scores of those who had younger siblings and the rest of the sample. The obtained t was small. It did not reach the required t -value for the 5 percent level of significance. The mean difference could then be attributed

to chance.

Table 13 also shows a comparison between the mean satisfaction score of those who had older siblings and those who did not have. The difference in mean between the two groups indicate some negative relationship between these two variables, but this difference is also small. The obtained t did not reach the t -value required at the 5 percent level of significance. Such a mean difference could therefore be attributed to chance.

This table also shows the mean difference in satisfaction scores between those who had both younger and older siblings and the rest of the sample. Here again, the relationship indicated is negative, but the difference in mean between these two groups gives a t which is quite small. It did not reach the t -value required at the 5 percent level. Such difference could therefore be attributed also to chance.

These comparisons show that the presence of siblings has no relationship with the degree of satisfaction of student teachers with their student teaching.

Marriage and degree of satisfaction.--Table 14 shows the difference in mean satisfaction scores between those who were married and had children and those who were single or who were married but did not have children. While the mean satisfaction score of the single and childless group came out lower than that of the married with children group, thus showing some degree of positive relationship, this difference did not yield a t which quite reached the t -value

required at the 5 percent level of significance. This mean difference could therefore be attributed to chance.

Table 14 also shows the mean difference in satisfaction score between those married student teachers who did not have children and those who were either single or were married but did have children. The mean difference shows some positive relationship, but this difference in favor of the single or married with children group did not yield a t which reached the t -value required at the 5 percent level. This mean difference could therefore be attributed to chance.

The same table shows a comparison of the satisfaction scores of those who were married and had children with that of those who were married but did not have children. The difference came out in favor of those who had children as being more satisfied with their student teaching as shown by the higher mean for this group. But this difference did not yield a t which quite reached the t -value required at the 5 percent level. This again shows that children in the family may have only a very slight relationship, if at all, with the degree of satisfaction of the student teachers with their student teaching.

All of these comparisons point out the fact that the presence of children in the family may only be very slightly related to a student's degree of satisfaction with student teaching.

Summary

Relationships between the three dimensions of experience and ratings of students.--Multiple correlations among the three dimensions of experience and ratings were computed. The computations are shown in Table 23. The multiple r (r_m) did not yield an F which reached the F -value required at the 5 percent level of significance. While there is some indication of a relationship between these three dimensions of experience and ratings in student teaching, the data gathered from this particular sample do not show that this relationship is significantly different from zero. It might therefore be concluded that the relationship between experiences with children prior to student teaching and ratings in student teaching is very low.

Relationship between the three dimensions of experience and degree of satisfaction with student teaching.--Table 24 presents the multiple correlations between the three dimensions of experience and degree of satisfaction of students with their student teaching assignments. The multiple correlation coefficient yielded an F which did not reach the F -value required at the 5 percent level of significance. While there is an indication of a positive relationship between experience and degree of satisfaction, this relationship is not significantly different from zero. It might therefore be concluded that experiences with children prior to student teaching are only slightly correlated with the degree of satisfaction of students with their student teaching.

CHAPTER IV

EXPERIENCES WITH CHILDREN PRIOR TO STUDENT TEACHING AND PROBLEMS MET DURING STUDENT TEACHING

The returns on the Check List of problems met by the student teachers showed a wide range in both frequency of occurrence of the problems and the degree of their difficulty. The mean number of problems checked was 32.35; the range was from 5 to 62. There were only 62 problems listed and while blanks were provided for additional problems, no student teacher added any problems to the list.

An index of frequency of occurrence of problems for the whole group was computed. The number of problems for each degree of difficulty was multiplied by the value of that degree and the products added, as explained in Chapter One. The index was determined by dividing the sum of these products by the number of problems in the list (62). The index found was 1.756, and this tells that for most students, most of the problems came up just about occasionally.

An index for the degree of difficulty of the problems listed was determined in the same manner. The index found was 2.894, and this tells that for most students, most of the problems were not quite difficult to solve.

This chapter will present a more detailed analysis of the relationships between experiences with children prior to student teaching and the frequency of occurrence and degree of difficulty of problems which student teachers meet in their student teaching. Linear relationships between the variables will be analyzed first. Then multiple relationships among the various variables will be discussed.

Experiences with children and
frequency of occurrence of
problems

Hours of experience and frequency of problems.--One dimension of experience is total hours spent in the activity. Table 14 presents the linear relationship between hours of experience and average frequency of occurrence of problems. There is an indication of negative relationship, but the test of significance of the obtained r shows that this degree of relationship is not significant at the 5 percent level.

The mean frequency of occurrence of problems of the students with the greatest number of hours of experience was compared with that of the students with the lowest hours. About one-fourth of the students belonged in each of these groups. The group with the highest hours has a lower mean than the other group, but the t test showed that the obtained t did not reach the t -value required at the 5 percent level of significance. The difference in the means of the two groups could be attributed to chance. The data shown in Table 15 therefore reject the hypothesis that students with

the most hours of experience with children would meet fewer problems in their student teaching.

These two comparisons show that while there is a general tendency for the students with more hours to meet fewer problems, the results are not significant enough to meet the 5 percent level and therefore the hypothesis that hours do not have any relationship with the frequency of occurrence of problems in student teaching is still tenable.

Role scores and frequency of problems.--Table 4 also shows the relationship between role scores and average frequency of occurrence of problems in student teaching. While the obtained r shows a negative relationship, this r does not meet the test of significance at the 5 percent level. Role scores, therefore, do not have any significant relationship with frequency of occurrence of problems.

A comparison of the means of average frequency of occurrence of problems between the group with the highest role scores and that with the lowest role scores is also given in Table 15. The obtained t is very insignificant, **although** the difference in means between the two groups favors the higher group with fewer problems.

These data therefore show that the role played by the student teacher as he gained in his experiences does not have any significant relationship with the frequency by which problems occur in his student teaching.

Supervision scores and frequency of problems.--The obtained r between supervision scores and frequency of

occurrence of problems is also very insignificant. It gives confidence limits of $-.212$ and $.135$, and since this confidence interval includes both positive and negative values, the null hypothesis, that is, that there is no relationship between the two variables, is accepted. Table 4 also shows this relationship.

Table 15 also gives a comparison of the mean frequency of problems between the group with the highest supervision scores and that with the lowest supervision scores. While the students with highest supervision scores have a higher mean than that of the other group, this mean difference is not high enough to yield the t-value required at the 5 percent level of significance. This also proves that there is no relationship between supervision scores and frequency of occurrence of problems in student teaching.

Ratings and frequency of problems.--Table 6 shows a negative relationship between ratings and frequency of occurrence of problems. However, the obtained r is too small to make this relationship significant at the 5 percent level. Ratings and frequency of problems do not seem to have any relationship as shown by this sample.

Satisfaction and frequency of problems.--Table 6 also shows the relationship between degree of satisfaction and frequency of occurrence of problems. It can be observed that this relationship is negative, or the higher the satisfaction score, the lower the frequency of problems. However, the obtained r is not high enough to meet the 5 percent level

of significance. This result therefore leads to the acceptance of the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between average frequency of occurrence of problems and degree of satisfaction with student teaching.

Siblings and frequency of occurrence of problems.--

A comparison of the mean average frequency of occurrence of problems between the group of students who have younger siblings and that of those who do not have younger siblings is given in Table 16. The group with younger siblings has a higher mean than the other group. But this observed difference in mean is not big enough to yield the t-value required to meet the 5 percent level of significance. This mean difference could therefore be attributed to chance.

This table also shows that students who have older siblings have a lower mean frequency of occurrence of problems than those who do not have older siblings. The mean difference is also too small to yield the t-value required to meet the 5 percent level of significance. This mean difference could therefore be attributed to chance.

Table 16 also shows that students with both older and younger siblings have a lower mean frequency of occurrence of problems than the rest of the group. The obtained t, however, is not high enough to meet the 5 percent level of significance. This observed difference in means between the groups is therefore not significantly different from zero.

These comparisons show that the presence of siblings in the family does not have any significant relationship with

the frequency of occurrence of problems to students during student teaching.

Marriage and frequency of occurrence of problems.--

Table 17 is a comparison of the means of the frequency of occurrence of problems of students who are married and have children and the rest of the sample. The married student teachers who have children have a lower mean frequency than the rest of the sample. But the difference in means between the two groups is not significant enough to yield a t equal to or exceeding the t -value required at the 5 percent level of significance.

On the other hand, a comparison of the means of frequency of occurrence of problems between the married students who do not have children and the rest of the group shows that these married students have a higher mean than the others. This mean difference, however, is also small. It gives a t which does not quite reach the t -value required at the 5 percent level of significance. This comparison is also shown in Table 17.

This table also shows that the mean frequency of occurrence of problems of single students teachers who do not have siblings is lower than that of the rest of the group. The mean difference, however, is also small. The obtained t is smaller than that required for the 5 percent level of significance. This difference could therefore have occurred because of sampling variations.

Table 17 also shows that the group of married students

who have children have a lower mean frequency of occurrence of problems than those who are married but do not have children. While the observed difference is quite large, it is not large enough to yield a t which would meet the 5 percent level of significance. This difference could therefore be attributed to chance.

These comparisons all show that marriage does not have any significant relationship with the frequency of occurrence of problems to students during student teaching.

Experience and frequency of types of problems.--The questionnaire of problems met by students listed the problems under six major types. It was thought worthwhile to find out which of these types of problems was significantly related to experiences with children prior to student teaching. The linear relationships are shown in Table 7.

A quick look at the table will show that, generally, negative relationships exist between the two groups of variables. This could be interpreted to mean that experiences and all the types of problems listed would have some kind of relationships. The problem is to determine if the obtained r 's are significant enough to support the hypothesis that no relationship exists is untenable. The test of significance will help to determine this.

A comparison between the obtained r 's and the r required at the 5 percent level shows that only the r between problems classified as type F and the average frequency of occurrence of problems is significant at this level. All

the others are too low to be significant at the 5 percent level. It may therefore be safely concluded that total hours of experience is significantly related with the frequency of occurrence of Type F problems that arise during student teaching.

Type F problems are those related to instructional methods and understanding of objectives in particular school subjects. The direction of relationship is negative. This may be interpreted to mean that the more hours of experience a student has had prior to student teaching, the less frequent would he meet this type of problems during his student teaching.

Experiences with children and difficulty of problems

Hours of experience and difficulty of problems.--

Table 5 shows the linear relationship between hours of experience and average degree of difficulty of problems. The negative relationship may be interpreted to mean that the more hours of experience a student teacher had, the easier the problems would be for him. The obtained r , however, is not high enough to indicate that the hypothesis of no relationship is untenable.

Table 18 shows that students with the greatest number of hours of experience have a lower mean difficulty of problems than those with lowest number of hours of experience. This mean difference, however, is not large enough to yield

a t that equals or exceeds the t -value required for the 5 percent level of significance. The difference may therefore be attributed to chance. Hours of experience may therefore be said to have very little or no relationship with the degree of difficulty of problems encountered during student teaching.

Role scores and difficulty of problems.--Table 5

shows a negative relationship between role scores and the average degree of difficulty of problems encountered during student teaching. This could mean that the higher the role score, the less difficult would the problems be. But the obtained r is too small to be significant at the 5 percent level. The null hypothesis of no relationship between role scores and degree of difficulty of problems is therefore still valid.

In Table 18, the students with the highest role scores and those with the lowest role scores were compared as to mean degree difficulty of their problems. While the mean difference favors the highest group with a lower mean difficulty, this difference is not large enough to yield a t that meets the 5 percent test of significance. This mean difference could therefore be attributed to chance and the null hypothesis that population means are not affected by role scores is still tenable.

From these computations, it may therefore be concluded that roles played by students as they gained in experiences with children prior to student teaching have no significant

relationship with the degree of difficulty of problems which the students meet in their student teaching.

Supervision and difficulty of problems.--The linear relationship between the degree of supervision and the degree of difficulty of problems is also shown in Table 5. The obtained r is positive, but this r is too small to be significant at the 5 percent level. The population r is therefore zero, or, there is no relationship between the degree of supervision and degree of difficulty of problems encountered during student teaching.

Table 18 also shows the comparison of the mean difficulty of problems of those students with the highest supervision scores and those with the lowest supervision scores. The difference favors the group with the lowest supervision scores with a lower mean difficulty, but this difference is very small. The obtained t does not quite reach the t -value required at the 5 percent level of significance.

From these data, it might be safely concluded that the degree of supervision of students as they gained in experiences with children prior to student teaching has no relationship with the degree of difficulty of the problems which the students meet in their student teaching.

Ratings and difficulty of problems.--Table 6 shows a negative relationship between the ratings which students obtained in the scale adapted from Tyler and difficulty of problems encountered during student teaching. This could mean that the higher the rating is, the lower is the average

difficulty of problems. But the obtained r is too small to make it significant at the 5 percent level. Obviously, ratings do not have any significant relationship with the degree of difficulty of problems which the students meet in their student teaching.

Satisfaction and frequency of problems.--Table 6 shows a negative relationship between the degree of satisfaction and degree of difficulty of problems. This would mean that the higher the satisfaction score, the lower is the average difficulty of problems which the student teachers meet. The obtained r is significant even beyond the 1 percent level of significance. It may safely be concluded therefore that there ~~exists~~ a significant relationship between satisfaction with student teaching and the degree of difficulty of the problems which students meet in their student teaching.

Siblings and difficulty of problems.--The comparison of the means of those students with younger siblings and those who do not have younger siblings is shown in Table 19. While the mean of the group with younger siblings is higher than that of the other group, the mean difference is not significantly different from zero. The obtained t does not reach the t -value required at the 5 percent level of significance. The presence of younger siblings has therefore no relationship with the degree of difficulty of problems in student teaching.

This table also shows that students with older

siblings have a lower mean average difficulty of problems than the rest of the group. This could mean that they find problems easier to solve than the other students. But the observed mean difference is not high enough to be significant at the 5 percent level. The obtained t does not reach the t -value required at the 5 percent level of significance. This mean difference could therefore be attributed to chance.

In this table we also see that students with both younger and older siblings have a much higher mean difficulty of problems than the rest of the group. While the mean difference is quite large, it does not yield a t which exceeds the t -value required to make this difference significant at the 5 percent level. This mean difference could therefore be attributed to variation in sampling or to chance.

These computations therefore show that the presence of siblings in the family has no relationship with the degree of difficulty of the problems which the students meet in their student teaching.

Marriage and difficulty of problems.--The mean of the average difficulty of problems which students who were married but did not have children, were compared with that of the rest of the group. The married group had a higher mean than the rest of the sample. This could be interpreted to mean that these married students who did not have children find problems more difficult than did the rest of the group. But the mean difference is still low. The obtained t does not reach the t -value required to make this difference

significant at the 5 percent level. This mean difference could therefore be attributed to chance. Table 20 shows this comparison.

In this table, a comparison is also made in the means of the average difficulty of problems of those students who were married and had children with the rest of the group. The difference is in favor of the married with children group. But this difference is also too small. The obtained t does not reach the t -value required at the 5 percent level of significance. This mean difference could therefore be attributed to chance and the hypothesis that the population means do not differ is still tenable.

This table also shows a comparison of the means of those married students who had children and those who did not have children. The difference favors highly the married with children group, as can be seen by the large difference between the two means. But this difference is not large enough to be significant at the 5 percent level. The obtained t does not reach the t -value required at this level of significance. This mean difference could therefore be attributed to chance, and the population means do not differ between married students who had children and those who did not have children.

From these computations, it might safely be concluded that marriage has no significant relationship with the degree of difficulty of problems which students meet in their student teaching.

Experience and degree of difficulty of types of problems.--Linear relationships were computed between hours of experience and the average degree of difficulty of each type of problem in the problem list. These relationships are shown in Table 8.

All the types except Type D show negative relationship with experience. The positive relationship obtained in Type D is indeed very small. It is too small to be significantly different from zero. Type D problems are those related to administrative routine, reports, special duties, etc.

Of those showing negative relationships, three are quite insignificant at the 5 percent level. These are the obtained r 's for Types, B, C and E problems. They are problems related to understanding the philosophy and objectives of the school, those on the use of textbooks and other instructional materials, and those of adjustment to other teachers and to the community. It might be said therefore that hours of experience could be insignificantly related with these three types of problems.

Two types of problems are significantly related to hours of experience prior to student teaching. These are those problems related to school discipline and adjustment to children and those related to instructional methods and objectives in particular school subjects. The negative r 's obtained for these two groups of variables could be interpreted to mean that the higher the hours of experience with

children, the lower is the degree of difficulty of problems encountered in student teaching. The obtained r 's for these two groups of variables are significant at the 5 percent level. Their confidence limits show that the population r could fall within $-.024$ and $-.359$ for Type A problems and within $-.12$ and $-.349$ for Type B problems. It might safely be concluded therefore that hours of experience are significantly related with problems related to school discipline and adjustment to children and those related to instructional methods and objectives in particular school subjects.

Summary

Multiple correlations were computed for the different variables. Table 25 shows that the multiple r between hours of experience and the frequency of occurrence and difficulty of problems is not any higher than the linear relationships between the variables taken separately. To test the significance of this obtained multiple r , the F test was used. The obtained r_m yielded an F which is lower than that required at the 5 percent level of significance. It might therefore be concluded that hours of experience do not have significant relationship with the frequency of occurrence and degree of difficulty of problems which students meet during their student teaching.

Table 26 shows the multiple correlation between role scores and frequency and difficulty of problems met by the student teachers. The obtained multiple r is very low and

it yielded an F which did not quite reach the F value required at the 5 percent level of significance. It might therefore be concluded that the role which students played at the time they gained experiences with children prior to student teaching does not have any significant relationship with the frequency of occurrence and degree of difficulty of the problems which the students meet during student teaching.

Table 27 shows the multiple relationship between degree of supervision and frequency of occurrence and degree of difficulty of problems. The obtained r_m is also very low. The test of significance of this r gives an F value very much lower than that required to meet the 5 percent level. It might therefore be concluded that the supervision which students were given as they engaged in experiences with children prior to student teaching is not significantly related with the frequency of occurrence and degree of difficulty of the problems which the students meet during their student teaching.

Table 28 shows the multiple correlation between the three dimensions of experience and the average frequency of occurrence of problems. The obtained r_m yields an F which is lower than that required for the 5 percent level of significance. It might therefore be concluded that experiences with children prior to student teaching are not significantly related with the frequency of occurrence of the problems which student teachers meet in their student teaching.

Table 29 presents the multiple correlation between

experiences in terms of hours, role and supervision, and the average difficulty of the problems which student teachers meet. The multiple r is not high enough to meet the test of significance. It might therefore be concluded that experiences in terms of hours, role and supervision are not significantly related to the degree of difficulty of the problems which the student teachers meet in their student teaching.

The multiple correlation between the three dimensions of experience and the average correlation of the two criteria - frequency of occurrence and degree of difficulty of problems - was computed. Each of these two criteria was given a weight of one-half. An average was found by adding the two r 's and dividing the sum by 2. This then became the new criterion with which to correlate hours of experience, role and supervision. The data are presented in Table 30. The obtained multiple r is also very low. The test of significance yields an F which does not reach the F value required at the 5 percent level. The hypothesis that experiences with children prior to student teaching does not have any significant relationship with the problems which the students meet during their student teaching is therefore tenable.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

During the last decade, there has been a growing emphasis on direct laboratory experiences in teacher education. Realizing the importance of such experiences, many teacher-training institutions have exerted efforts to make their professional and academic curricula more functional by including in them opportunities for students to gain more and more experiences with children. In these institutions, experiences have been provided, if not throughout the four or five years of teacher training, at least during the larger part of the professional preparation.

The purpose of this study has been to determine the relationship between experiences with children prior to student teaching and success in student teaching. This relationship was analyzed from three dimensions of success: (1) the final ratings student teachers get on a rating scale adapted from Tyler, (2) the degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction of students with their student teaching, and (3) the frequency of occurrence and degree of difficulty of problems they encountered during their student teaching; and from three dimensions of experience: (1) hours of experience, (2) role played as students gained the experience, and (3) supervision or lack thereof of students as they

gained the experience.

Summary of findings

There were fourteen specific questions the answers to which were sought in this study. Chapters Three and Four gave detailed analyses of the data pertinent to these questions. The evidences revealed by the study are summarized below.

1. Are students with relatively more hours of experience with children prior to student teaching more successful as student teachers than those with fewer hours?

Finding: Students with relatively more hours of experience prior to student teaching are not more successful as student teachers than those with fewer hours.

2. Is the role played by the student (observer, active participant, leader) as he gains these experiences with children a factor in their success as student teachers?

Finding: The role played by the students as they gained experiences with children prior to student teaching is not a factor in their success as student teachers.

3. Does the supervision or lack thereof of students as they gain these experiences have any relationship with their success in student teaching?

Finding: Supervision or lack thereof of students as

they gained experiences with children prior to student teaching is not related to their success as student teachers.

4. (a) What types of experiences with children are most conducive to success in student teaching?

(b) What types of experiences with children are least conducive to success in student teaching?

Finding: In this study, the type of experience with children that promises to be most conducive to success in student teaching is that which is related to church activities. All the other types of activities are not significantly related to success in student teaching.

5. Are students with siblings more successful as student teachers than those without siblings?

Finding: Students who have siblings are not any more successful as student teachers than those who do not have siblings.

6. Are married teachers with children of their own more successful student teachers than those who do not have children or are not married?

Findings: Whether or not marriage has any significant relationship with success in student teaching is not conclusively shown in this study. There is, however, some evidence that married teachers who have no children are less successful as student teachers than married students with children and unmarried students.

7. Are students with more experiences with children better satisfied with their student teaching experience than those with less experiences?

Findings: Students with more hours of experience with children prior to student teaching are better satisfied with their student teaching than those with fewer hours. The role which students played and their supervision or lack thereof as they gained these experiences have a very insignificant relationship to the students' degree of satisfaction.

8. Are students with siblings better satisfied with their student teaching experience than those without siblings?

Finding: Students who have siblings are not any more satisfied or dissatisfied with their student teaching than those students who do not have siblings.

9. Are married students better satisfied with student teaching than those who were not married or did not have children?

Finding: Married students are not any more satisfied or dissatisfied with their student teaching than unmarried students.

10. (a) Do experiences with children prior to student teaching have any relation with the frequency with which students meet problems during student teaching?
(b) Is there any relation between experiences with children prior to student teaching and the degree of

difficulty of the problems that the student teacher meets?

Findings: Hours of ~~experience~~ with children prior to student teaching ~~are not significantly~~ related to the frequency of occurrence and degree of difficulty of problems students encounter during their student teaching. Neither the role these students played nor their supervision or lack thereof as they gained these experiences have any significant relationship with the frequency of occurrence and the degree of difficulty of problems they encounter in student teaching. Married students and students who have siblings do not differ significantly from other students in the frequency of occurrence or degree of difficulty of problems encountered in student teaching.

11. (a) How are the total hours of experience with children prior to student teaching related to the frequency of occurrence of each type of problems which student teachers meet?

(b) How are the total hours of experience with children related to the degree of difficulty of each type of problem that student teachers meet?

Findings: Generally, relationships between hours of experience with children prior to student teaching and the frequency of occurrence and degree of difficulty of problems encountered during student teaching

are quite insignificant. There is, however, a significant relationship between hours of experience and the frequency of occurrence and degree of difficulty of problems related to instructional methods and objectives in particular school subjects. The direction of relationship is negative, which could be interpreted to mean that the more hours of experience with children the student has, the fewer and easier will his problems on instructional methods and objectives in particular school subjects . There is also evidence that a significant negative relationship exists between hours of experiences

with children prior to student teaching and degree of difficulty of Problem Type A, which are problems related to school discipline and adjustment to children.

Conclusions

The findings based on the data gathered in this study and on the particular students included in this sampling would support the following conclusions:

1. Students who have had experiences with children in church activities during their high school years are more successful student teachers than those who did not have these experiences.
2. The more the hours of experience a student has with children, the less frequent is the occurrence of

problems related to instructional methods and understanding of objectives in particular school subjects.

3. Students with more hours of experience with children prior to student teaching find it easier to solve their problems on school discipline and adjustment to children than those students who have fewer hours of such experience.
4. The more the hours of experience a student has with children prior to student teaching, the better satisfied he is with his student teaching.
5. The role which the student plays and the extent of supervision he gets as he gains experiences with children prior to student teaching do not influence his success, his satisfactions, or the problems he perceives as a student teacher.
6. Generally, the number of hours of experience with children has no significant relationship with a student teacher's success, his satisfaction, or the problems he perceives in student teaching.

Discussion

This study reveals a significant relationship between success in student teaching and experiences in church activities during high school years. There are two possible explanations for this: (1) a student may gain more from an experience he voluntarily engages in than in that which he undergoes with some kind of compulsion or pressure, and (2)

a student may have an outgoing personality which may be responsible for his success, whether he has had experiences in this type of activity or not. How much influence either of these two has upon learning and / or success in student teaching could be a problem for a future study.

One of the findings of this study is that student teachers who have more hours of experience with children prior to student teaching are better satisfied with their student teaching than those who have fewer hours. If it is important that student teachers get satisfaction from their student teaching experiences, then the finding in this study could support a recommendation for the inclusion of more opportunities for experiences with children in teacher education programs.

Hours of experience with children are also related significantly with problems perceived by student teachers, particularly those related to instructional methods and understanding of objectives in particular school subjects, and on school discipline and adjustment to pupils. The more hours of experience the student teachers had with children prior to student teaching, the lower the frequency of occurrence of these problems, and the less difficult they were for the students. Apparently, the students gain from their experiences with children some insight into the methods and procedures of working with children. This finding would support a recommendation for the inclusion of more opportunities for experiences with children prior to

student teaching in teacher education programs.

The result of this study pointed out a serious difficulty in that the rating instrument used did not prove to be sensitive enough to discriminate student teaching performance. Future study of a similar nature might yield different results if a more sensitive instrument to measure success in student teaching is used. Because present instruments are not adequate, future studies should include the construction of more reliable and valid instruments to measure success in student teaching.

Using the personal approach where the supervising teachers are contacted individually, might get more discrimination than just mailing the rating scale. The researcher should take time to confer with each supervising teacher in charge of the student teacher to make her understand that the scale is not just a reflection of a grade but a search for existing individual differences.

Another difficulty that was encountered and no doubt influenced the results was that the raters had different standards and value judgments. Future studies should be designed to eliminate this shortcoming.

One procedure might be to use just one person to rate all the subjects. Another possibility would be to use a composite score by three evaluators - the supervising teacher, the college supervisor, and a public school supervisor in charge of the area where the student teacher does his student teaching. A series of conferences with groups

of supervising teachers would also increase the possibility of having uniform standards and value judgments in rating student teachers. The researcher should press for a standardization of the scale during these conferences.

There was also the possibility that student teachers could have been more successful in particular school situations than in others. In other words, the school situations where the subjects used for this study did their practice teaching were not comparable. The use of selected schools, probably limited to just one or two, would tend to reduce possible influences that the kind of school situation might have played on the student teacher.

Another difficulty that came up in connection with the experiences with children was the **judging** of the quality of the experience. The writer tried to judge this quality on the bases of the role played by the student and the extent of supervision he got as he engaged in these experiences. There might be some qualitative characteristics of the experiences themselves. Perhaps a jury could be requested to go over the list of experiences such as that used in this study and give a value to each experience. The experiences might then be grouped into three or five levels, from high quality to low. This would help the researcher determine the quality of the experiences of the student teachers prior to student teaching.

A Questionnaire on Experiences With Children Prior to Student Teaching

Date _____

Total Hours		EXPERIENCES WITH CHILDREN				
in high school	after leaving high school	observer	active participant	leader	supervised	not supervised
1 Scouting Activities:						
	crafts, ceramics, plastic, wood, etc.....					
	arts: printing, designing, coloring, etc..					
	music, rhythms, orchestras, etc.....					
	folk dancing, square dancing, etc.....					
	field trips and excursions.....					
	organized games.....					
	reading and telling stories to children...					
	camping.....					
2 Church Activities:						
	teaching Sunday school, nursery school....					
	organized games.....					
	singing.....					
	committee work.....					
	reading and telling stories to children...					
3. YMCA or YMCA Activities:						
	gymnasium activities, swimming.....					
	table games.....					
	photography club.....					
	hiking.....					

crafts.....	:	_____	:	_____
music.....	:	_____	:	_____
arts.....	:	_____	:	_____
dancing.....	:	_____	:	_____
camping.....	:	_____	:	_____
		_____	:	_____
		_____	:	_____

4. Activities in High School:

cadet teaching.....	:	_____	:	_____
assisting or supervising at playgrounds...	:	_____	:	_____
future teachers of America.....	:	_____	:	_____
		_____	:	_____
		_____	:	_____

5. Other Community Activities:

care of neighboring children.....	:	_____	:	_____
supervision of playgrounds or playgroups..	:	_____	:	_____
work with delinquent children.....	:	_____	:	_____
work with children in libraries.....	:	_____	:	_____
assisting at clinics.....	:	_____	:	_____
social parties.....	:	_____	:	_____
camp counselling.....	:	_____	:	_____
tutoring.....	:	_____	:	_____
		_____	:	_____
		_____	:	_____

6. Activities in Connection with Professional Courses in College:

assisting in play periods.....	:	_____	:	_____
reading and telling stories to children...	:	_____	:	_____
supervising lunch for children.....	:	_____	:	_____
teaching arts and crafts.....	:	_____	:	_____
teaching songs to children.....	:	_____	:	_____
helping children with vocabulary building..	:	_____	:	_____
helping individual children or small groups with problems.....	:	_____	:	_____
taking children on excursions or trips....	:	_____	:	_____
helping children with programs and shows..	:	_____	:	_____
administering tests.....	:	_____	:	_____
directing social hour for children.....	:	_____	:	_____
taking charge of young people's meetings..	:	_____	:	_____
		_____	:	_____
		_____	:	_____

7. Other College Activities with Children:

_____	:	_____	:	_____
_____	:	_____	:	_____
_____	:	_____	:	_____
_____	:	_____	:	_____

APPENDIX A - 2

PROBLEMS OF STUDENT TEACHERS

To the Student Teacher:

On the form below are some problems encountered by student teachers. Will you indicate, first, how often these had troubled you, and second, the degree of difficulty of each? The terms may be roughly defined thus:

- Always - this problem crops up nearly every time you are in front of a class.
- Often - this problem may occur every second or third time you teach.
- Occasionally - this problem may bother you three or four times a month but not much more often.
- Seldom - the problem may cause you trouble once a month but not oftener.
- Most difficult - the advice and help of your supervising teacher is necessary to solving this one; you can't handle it alone.
- Quite difficult - you can handle this alone, but doing so requires quite a bit of thought and effort on your part.
- Not hard - this one is not quite easy, but it doesn't require a great deal of thought and effort.
- Easy - this one does not cause you any trouble; you can handle it without strain.

Check these in the proper columns on this form. If you have never met a problem listed, leave it unchecked. On the other hand, if the list does not include some of your problems, will you add these and evaluate them as you did the others?

Name of student teacher _____				Date _____				
P R O B L E M S								
Always	Often	Occasionally	Seldom		Most difficult	Quite difficult	Not hard	Easy
A. Problems related to school discipline and adjustment to pupils								
—	—	—	—	Securing wholesome relationships with children.	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Gaining the respect of children	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Approaching children on a more professional basis.	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Dealing with exceptional children . . .	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Becoming tense when with children . . .	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Getting interest and attention of children	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Securing response from children	—	—	—	—

always	Often	Occasion- ally	Seldom		Most difficult	Quite difficult	Not hard	Easy
—	—	—	—	Meeting the needs and providing chal -				
—	—	—	—	lenges to the whole class.	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Varying activities and time of learning				
—	—	—	—	to pace with varied capacities in class	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—

**B. Problems related to understanding
the philosophy and objectives of
school**

—	—	—	—	Disagreeing with the philosophy of the				
—	—	—	—	school	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Disagreeing with techniques and proce-				
—	—	—	—	dures used by the critic teacher . . .	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Using progressive methods in tradition-				
—	—	—	—	al classrooms.	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Conflict in ideas with the critic teacher	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Conflict with critic teacher about				
—	—	—	—	disciplinary methods , , ...	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Having to adhere to inflexible time				
—	—	—	—	schedules	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Inadequate knowledge regarding standards				
—	—	—	—	of behavior.	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Not knowing exactly what critic teacher				
—	—	—	—	expects	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Acquainting children with class routines	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Not knowing what is important and neces-				
—	—	—	—	sary and what can be neglected.	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Confusion due to presence of many stu-				
—	—	—	—	dent teachers in the room.	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Not knowing the extent of student				
—	—	—	—	teacher's authority	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Dual authority in the classroom , . . .	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Failure to apply principles and philo-				
—	—	—	—	sophy learned in college courses. . . .	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Responsibility without authority. . . .	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Lack of confidence in oneself	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—

**C. Problems related to the use of text-
books and other instructional materials**

—	—	—	—	Obtaining materials needed	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Thinking up a variety of seatwork. . .	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Lack of equipment in gym and playground	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Providing a variety of materials and				
—	—	—	—	activities to meet individual differences	—	—	—	—

Always	Often	Occasion- ally	Seldom		Most difficult	Quite difficult	Not hard	Easy
---	---	---	---	Providing materials for slow or rapid learners.	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	Using the library.	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	Using community resources.	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	Using audio-visual materials	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	-----	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	-----	---	---	---	---

**D. Problems of administrative routine,
reports, special duties, etc.**

---	---	---	---	Preparing reports	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	Attending to special assignments.	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	Taking children from homeroom to special room	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	Lack of time for organization	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	-----	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	-----	---	---	---	---

**E. Problems of adjustment to other
teachers and to the community**

---	---	---	---	Lack of professional communication with critic teacher	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	Getting along with critic teacher	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	Critic teacher does not offer suggestions	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	Critic teacher is extremely cold and unfriendly	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	Not being directed during student teaching	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	Inability to meet parents	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	Securing cooperation of parents	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	Asking permission of parents to refer child for psychiatric help	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	Getting along with other teachers in school	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	-----	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	-----	---	---	---	---

**F. Problems related to instructional
methods and objectives in particular
subjects**

---	---	---	---	Judging the amount of material to cover in a specified time	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	Presenting lessons in a stimulating manner	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	Integrating all parts of the curriculum ..	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	Planning, organizing, and presenting a unit	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	Handling complex social studies material .	---	---	---	---
---	---	---	---	Directing group work	---	---	---	---

Always	Often	Occasion- ally	Seldom		Most difficult	Quite difficult	Not hard	Easy
—	—	—	—	Planning a reading lesson	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Teaching reading	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Gaining familiarity with abilities of three reading groups	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Teaching a mentally deficient child how to read	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Teaching arithmetic	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Teaching spelling	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Teaching phonics.	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Becoming too specialized.	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Evaluating the results of teaching. . . .	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	_____	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	_____	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	_____	—	—	—	—

APPENDIX A - 3

Name of Student _____ Sex _____
Age on last birthday _____ years. Are you married? _____
How many brothers and sisters do you have? _____
Are they younger or older than you are? _____ Ages _____
If you are married, do you have any children? _____
How many? _____ Ages? _____

Indicate on the scales below the extent of your satisfaction and dissatisfaction with your assignment. Please relate some reasons for your reaction.

Satisfactions Scale

Very well Reasonably Some Only a little
satisfied satisfied satisfaction satisfaction

Dissatisfaction Scale

Very Some Only a little
dissatisfied dissatisfaction dissatisfaction

Reasons:

APPENDIX A - 4

University of Michigan CHECK LIST OF STUDENT-TEACHER PERFORMANCE

STUDENT TEACHER _____ TEACHER _____

LEVEL _____ DATE _____

This appraisal sheet is designed for student self-ratings and teacher ratings of student-teacher performance. It is intended for use in the first conference which the teacher has with her student and it is to be used again toward the end of the term when the teacher will make her final rating of the student's performance and discuss it in conference with the student herself before turning it in to the advisor in elementary education who will file it with the student's cumulative record in the School of Education Office.

PERSONAL HEALTH	: Vigorous	: Average	: Frail
HYGIENIC	: Well-established habits of health-protection of self and children	: Usually attends to health protection	: Inexcusably negligent
INTEGRITY	: Merits confidence	: Appears trustworthy	: Violates trust
PERSONALITY	: Well-liked by children	: Accepted	: Antagonizes children
	: Well-liked by adults	: Acceptable	: Antagonizes adults
	: Fun-loving	: Ordinarily appreciative	: No sense of humor
GENERAL BEARING	: Poised	: Impression satisfactory	: Careless of posture, awkward

DRESS AND
GROOMING

;	;	;
Careful, appropriate	Impression satisfactory	Careless inappropriate

VOICE

;	;	;
Interesting	Satisfactory	Colorless

;	;	;
Pleasant	Satisfactory	Unpleasant

CONTROL

;	;	;
Highly respected by the children	Commands usual respect	Unheeded

;	;	;
Predominately democratic	Not consistent in type of con- trol	Predominately authoritarian

;	;	;
Consistently positive, encouraging	Not a consistent practitioner of either positive or negative methods	Frequently negative and discouraging

;	;	;
Successfully manipulates environ- ment	Makes some use of opportunities for control through environment	Insensitive to opportuni- ties for con- trol through environment

;	;	;
Forestalls dan- gerous or dis- ruptive situations	Usually alert	Unable to meet emergencies

RESPONSIBILITY
FOR THE

;	;	;
Successfully estab- lishes and main- tains orderliness of the environment	Takes some responsibility	Negligent

ACADEMIC
COMPETENCY

Shows originality in arranging materials	Arrangements ordinarily attractive	Arrangements completely uninspired
Industrious, gets things done	Moderately efficient	Shirks work
Applies educational principles	Makes some application of educational principles	Fails to relate theory to practice
Uses good English	English ordinarily acceptable	Uses poor English
Very able and independent in finding and using source materials	Has some skill in finding and using source materials	Seems helpless when source materials are needed
Splendid understanding of child growth and development	Some understanding	Serious lack of understanding
Has good background of information	Adequate background	Serious lack of general information
Willing and able to apply the school's philosophy	Willing but unskilled in application	Unwilling to accept and apply the school's philosophy

HUMAN
RELATION

Very considerate of others	Ordinarily considerate	So inconsiderate as to be offensive
----------------------------	------------------------	-------------------------------------

	Warmly sympathetic	Ordinarily sympathetic	Unfeeling
COOPERATION	Always willing to help	Usually willing	Always needs persuasion
	Always backs up the teacher	Not consistent sup- porter of the teacher's policies	Works at cross purposes
	Eagerly works with children, helping them to succeed	Ordinarily helpful	Expects child- ren to do too much
FLEXIBILITY	Capable of objective self- appraisal	Acts on suggestion	Resists suggestion
	Anxious to learn	Ordinarily interested	Indifferent
	Very willing to listen and observe	Usually willing	Impatient, wants short-cuts
	Recognizes and skillfully ad- justs to individ- ual differences	Some skill in adjusting to individual differences	Fails to make allow- ances for differences
TIME SPENT IN CLASSROOM	Four hours per day throughout one full term of sixteen weeks	Four hours per day throughout summer ses- sion of six weeks	Two and one-half hours per day throughout one full term of sixteen weeks and one half hours per day throughout one full term of sixteen weeks

**GENERAL RATING
OF TEACHING
ABILITY**

:
Promises to
become a
superior
teacher

:
Likely to be just
an ordinary good
teacher

:
Seems
weak

SUPPLEMENTARY REMARKS:**SUGGESTED GRADE FOR STUDENT'S WORK IN DIRECTED TEACHING** _____

APPENDIX A - 5

RATING SCALE FOR THE STUDENT TEACHER

To the Supervising Teacher:

This rating scale assumes that you have a better than average or a superior student teacher. The degree of superiority varies with each of the behavioral characteristics listed below. Please evaluate your student teacher as accurately as possible on the form below, checking 10 for those characteristics that he possesses to an extremely high degree. It will be helpful to remember that not all people possess the same characteristics to the same degree, and a person who is generally good or superior may actually be quite low in one or more of the traits listed.

Name of Student Teacher _____

I. Personal relations with pupils and teachers

a. Willingness and ability to accept criticisms.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

b. Interest in, and understanding of children and their needs.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

c. Ability to gain the respect and liking of pupils.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

d. Tact in relationships.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

e. Promptness in keeping appointments.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

II. Command and ability to use subject matter

a. Mastery of subject.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

b. Background of related knowledge or experience.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

c. Intelligence in the choice of teaching materials.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

d. Organisation of teaching material.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

III. Use of teaching procedures

a. Skill in explanation, demonstration, and questioning.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

b. Skill in making the assignment.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

c. Direction of supervised study.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

d. Direction of pupil activity and work.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

e. Provision for individual needs.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

IV. Class management

a. Attention to pupils' welfare.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

b. Ability to get and hold attention.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

c. Ability to meet emergencies when they arise.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

d. Firmness and consistency in carrying out instructions.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

e. Provision of materials for class use.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

f. Attention to all records.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

g. Effectiveness in the use of time.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

APPENDIX A - 6

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN
School of Education

January 9, 1957

To: Supervising Teachers

From: Lowell Beach

This semester we are asking a little more from you in the way of evaluation. In addition to the regular evaluation form, we want you to fill in a second form and a questionnaire on problems of student teachers. These additional forms are a part of a study which we hope may improve our student teaching program. You are to check the second rating scale only if you have a better than average or superior student teacher (A and B students). Within this selected group considerable variation exists. The nature of this variation is what we wish to determine. If I can be of any assistance, please call me.

LWB: gb

enclosures

APPENDIX B

TABLE 1.- Summary of students' responses to questionnaire on experiences with children prior to student teaching

Type of Experience	Percent of Students Reporting Experiences			Percentage of Students not Reporting any Experience
	In High School	In College	Both	
Scouting activities . .	23.80	23.02	38.10	61.90
Church activities . . .	35.71	20.63	45.24	54.76
YMCA or YWCA activities	5.56	9.52	14.29	85.71
Other high school activities	23.02		23.02	76.98
Community activities. .	83.35	68.25	93.65	6.35
Activities related to college courses . .		65.87	65.87	34.13
Other college activities		14.29	14.29	85.71
Total.	86.50	88.02	100.00	0.00

APPENDIX C - 1

SCATTERDIAGRAMS SHOWING RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EXPERIENCE AND RATINGS OF STUDENTS

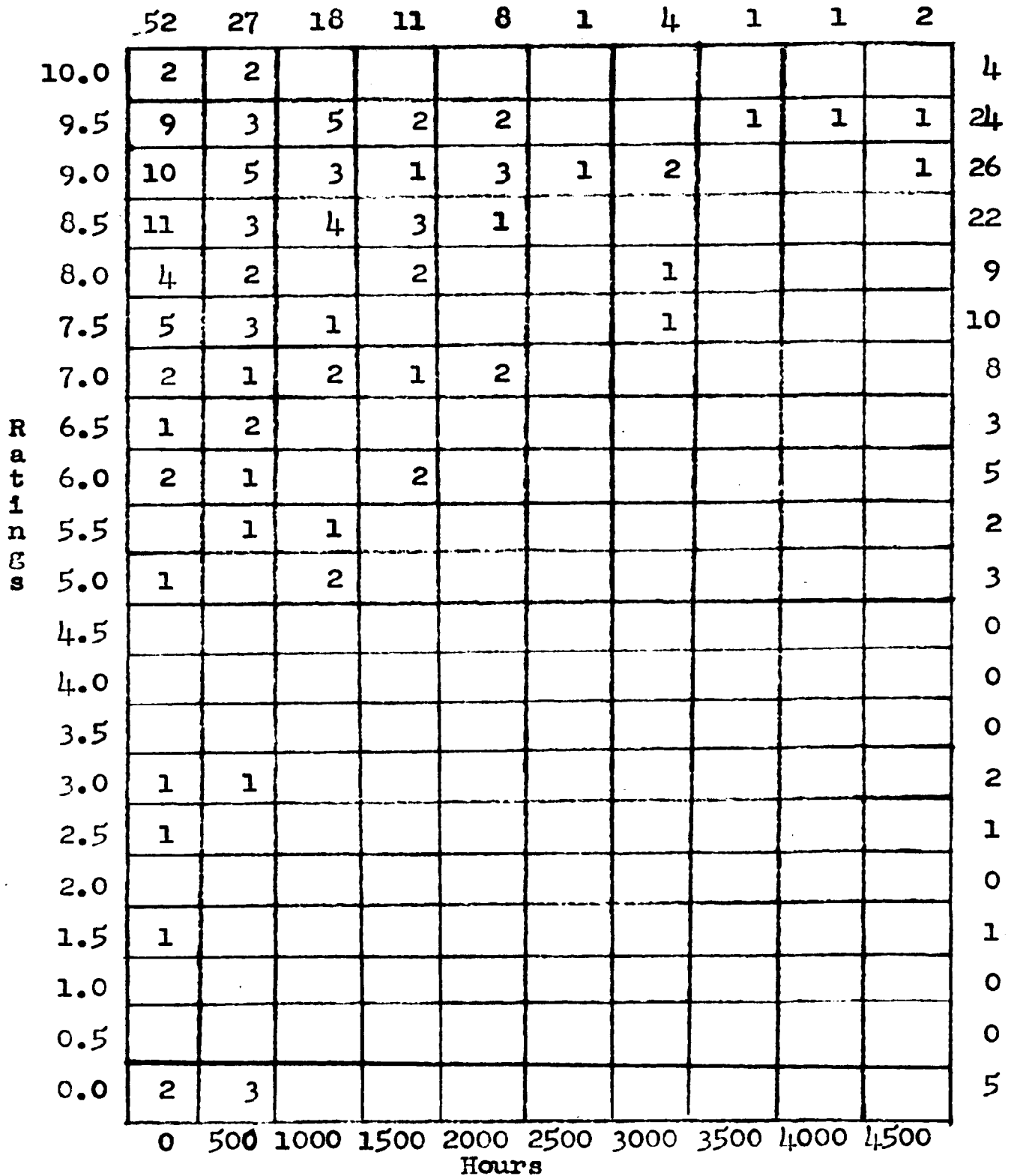


Figure 3.-Hours of experience and ratings in student teaching

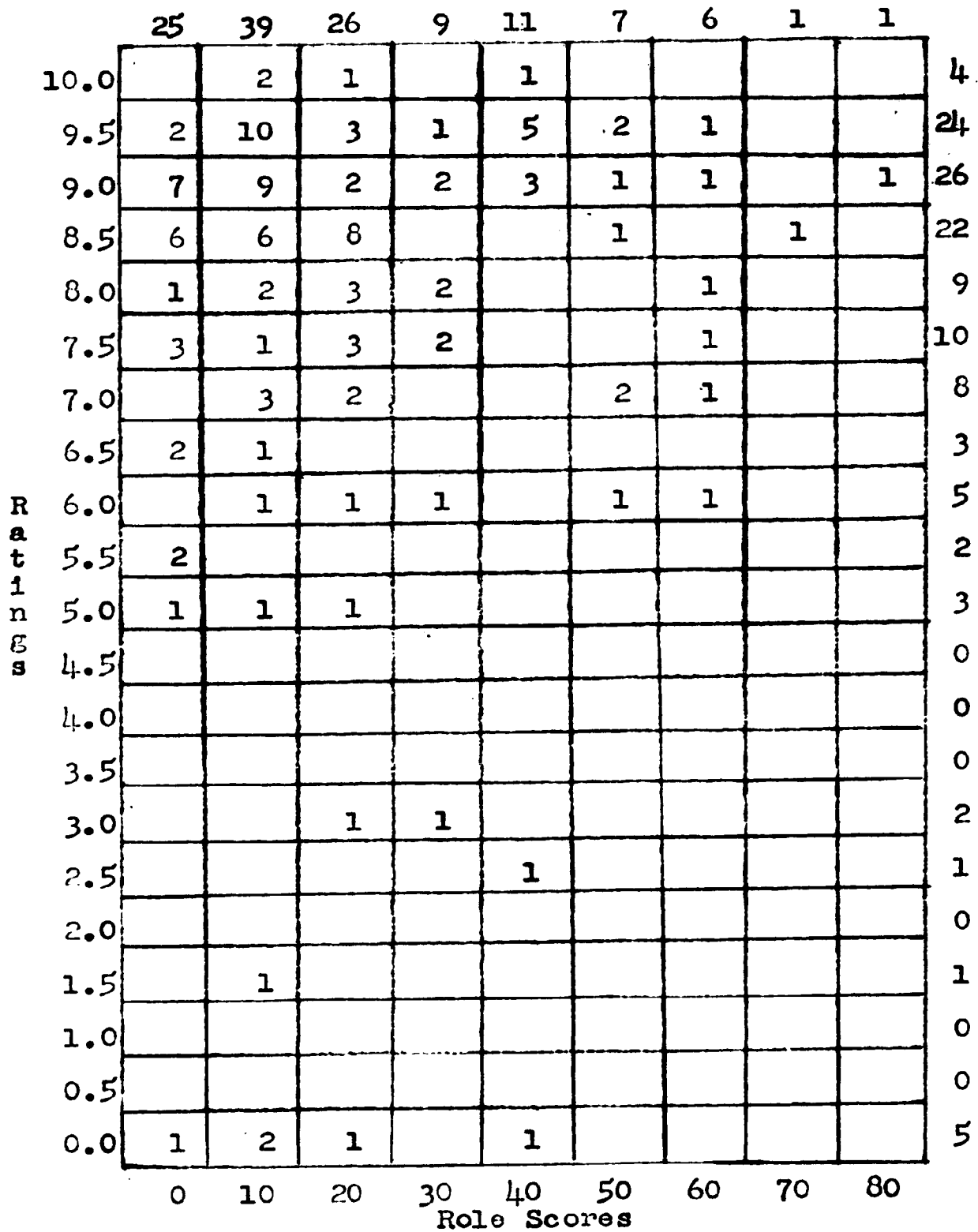


Figure 4.-Role scores and ratings in student teaching

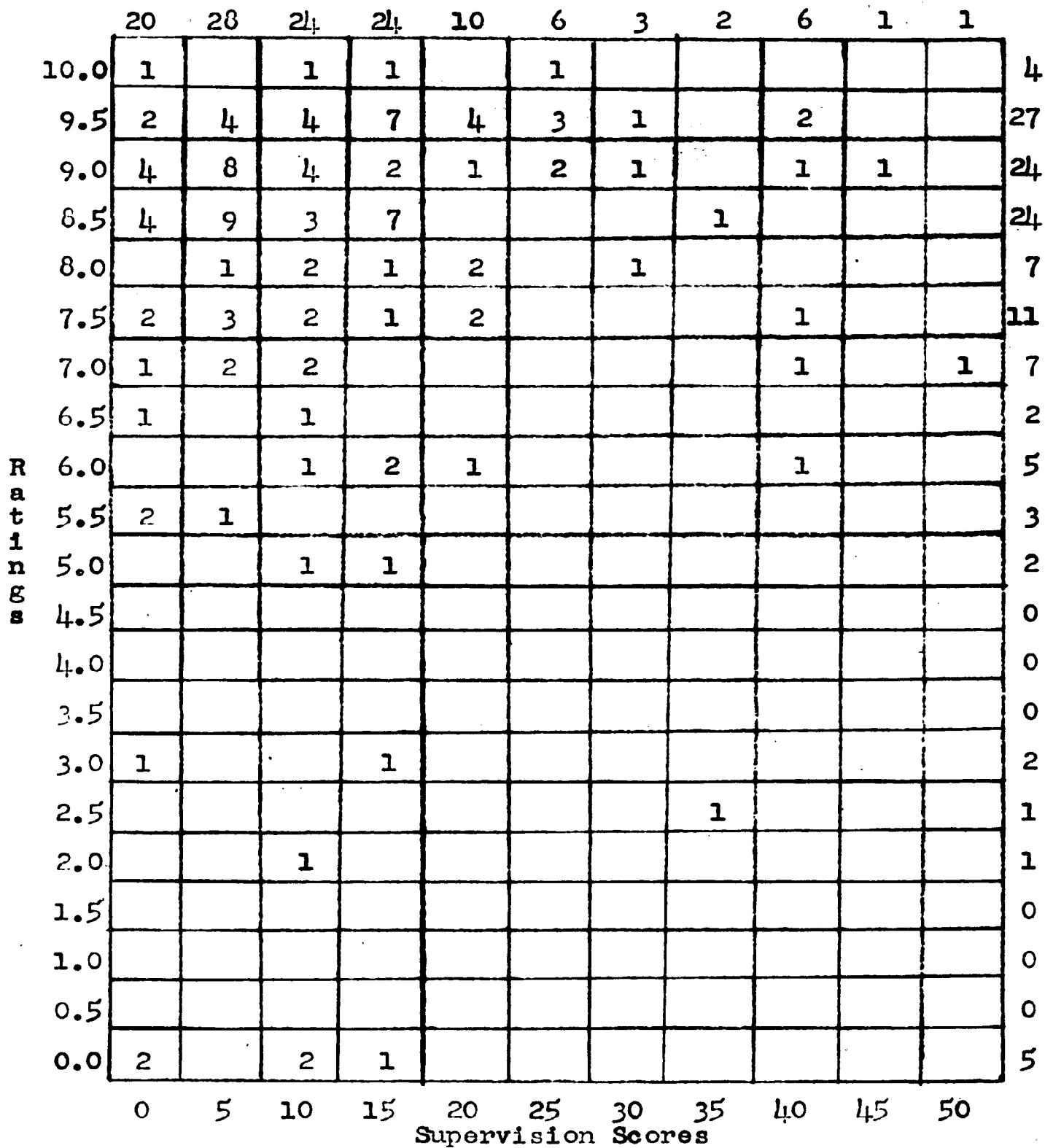


Figure 5.-Supervision scores and ratings in student teaching

APPENDIX D. TABLES OF LINEAR RELATIONSHIPS

TABLE 2.- Correlation coefficients of the three dimensions of experiences with children prior to student teaching with ratings of students in student teaching

Item	Number	r	Confidence Level
Hours	125	.161	.3266; -.015
Role.	125	.023	.1964; -.1527
Supervision .	125	.061	.2336; -.115

TABLE 3.- Correlation coefficients of the three dimensions of experiences with children prior to student teaching with degree of satisfaction of students with their student teaching

Item	Number	r	Confidence Level
Hours	126	.187	.0127; .3493
Role.	126	.096	.2822; -.0798
Supervision .	126	.081	.3107; -.09475

TABLE 4.- Correlation coefficients of the three dimensions of experiences with children prior to student teaching with average frequency of occurrence of problems during student teaching

Item	Number	r	Confidence Level
Hours	126	-.149	.026; -.315
Role.	126	-.031	.144; -.204
Supervision .	126	-.040	.135; -.212

TABLE 5.- Correlation coefficients of the three dimensions of experiences with children prior to student teaching with average degree of difficulty of problems met during student teaching

Item	Number	r	Confidence Limits
Hours	126	-.158	.017; -.323
Role.	126	-.049	.126; -.221
Supervision .	126	.014	.161; -.179

TABLE 6.- Coefficients of correlation between problems met by students during student teaching and the students' ratings and their satisfactions with student teaching

Item	Number	r	Confidence Limits
Ratings and frequency of occurrence of problems..	125	-.047	-.219; .128
Ratings and degree of difficulty of problems. . .	125	-.073	-.244; .103
Satisfactions & frequency of occurrence of problems.	126	-.165	-.009; .330
Satisfactions & degree of difficulty of problems.	126	-.236	.059; .389

TABLE 7.-Relationship between total hours of experience with children prior to student teaching and average frequency of occurrence of problems classified according to the type of problems

Type of Problems	Number	r	Confidence Limits
A	126	-.138	.037; -.305
B	126	-.040	.135; -.213
C	126	-.044	.131; -.217
D	126	-.023	.152; -.196
E	126	-.064	.112; -.236
F	126	-.199	-.026; -.361

TABLE 8.-Relationship between total hours of experience with children prior to student teaching and average degree of difficulty of each type of problem met during student teaching

Type of Problems	Number	r	Confidence Limits
A	126	-.197	-.024; -.359
B	126	-.139	.036; -.306
C	126	-.034	.141; -.207
D	126	.001	.175; -.173
E	126	-.046	.129; -.218
F	126	-.188	-.012; -.349

APPENDIX E. TABLES OF T - RATIOS

TABLE 9.- Comparison of mean ratings of students in the upper and lower quartiles of the variables

Variables	Mean Difference	df	Obtained t	t ₀₅
Hours . . .	7.34	69	1.757	1.997
Role. . . .	.31	68	.059	1.998
Supervision	4.37	67	1.006	1.998

TABLE 10.-Comparison of mean ratings of students with siblings and the rest of the sample

Variables	Mean Difference	df	Obtained t	t ₀₅
With younger siblings	-1.14	123	-.270	1.98
With older siblings . .	-1.97	123	-.490	1.98
With older & younger siblings. . .	3.39	123	.570	1.98

TABLE 11.-Comparison of mean ratings of married student teachers with and without children and the rest of the sample

Variables	Mean Difference	df	Obtained t	t ₀₅
With children . . .	10.32	123	1.075	1.96
Without children. .	-17.42	123	-2.429	1.96
With vs. Without children	18.87	17	1.312	2.110

TABLE 12.-Comparison of mean satisfaction scores of students in the upper and lower quartiles of the three dimensions of experience with children prior to student teaching

Item	Mean Difference	df	Obtained t	t ₀₅
Hours . . .	5.291	70	2.488	1.997
Role. . . .	2.38	69	1.139	1.997
Supervision	4.80	68	1.758	1.998

TABLE 13.-Comparison of mean satisfaction scores of students with siblings and ~~that~~ of those who do not have siblings

Item	Mean Difference	df	Obtained t	t ₀₅
With younger siblings. .	-.08	124	-.042	1.96
With older siblings. .	-1.826	124	-.992	1.96
With older and younger siblings. . .	-.210	124	-.076	1.96

TABLE 14.-Comparison of mean satisfaction scores of married student teachers with and without children and the rest of the sample

Variables	Mean Difference	df	Obtained t	t ₀₅
With children	5.32	124	1.179	1.96
Without children. . .	-1.64	124	-.565	1.96
With vs. without children. . . .	6.88	18	1.222	2.101

TABLE 15.-Comparison of mean frequency of problems of students in the upper and lower quartiles of the three dimensions of experience with children prior to student teaching

Item	Mean Difference	df	Obtained t	t ₀₅
Hours . . .	-12.27	70	-1.502	1.997
Role. . . .	-.60	69	-.053	1.997
Supervision	2.65	68	.231	1.998

TABLE 16.-Comparison of mean frequency of problems of students with siblings and that of those who do not have siblings

Item	Mean Difference	df	Obtained t	t ₀₅
With younger siblings	13.42	124	1.258	1.96
With older siblings	6.40	124	.684	1.96
With older and younger siblings	-2.04	124	-.155	1.96

TABLE 17.-Comparison of mean frequency of problems of married student teachers with and without children and the rest of the sample

Variables	Mean Difference	df	Obtained t	t ₀₅
With children . . .	-16.60	124	-1.229	1.96
Without children. .	2.10	124	.229	1.96
With vs. without children	-17.67	18	-1.043	2.101
Single, no siblings	-6.03	124	-.632	1.96

TABLE 18.-Comparison of mean difficulty of problems of students in the upper and lower quartiles of the three dimensions of experience with children prior to student teaching

Item	Mean Difference	df	Obtained t	t ₀₅
Hours . . .	-14.43	70	-1.223	1.997
Role. . . .	-4.77	69	-.487	1.997
Supervision	1.10	68	.095	1.998

TABLE 19.-Comparison of mean difficulty of problems of students with siblings and that of those who do not have siblings

Item	Mean Difference	df	Obtained t	t ₀₅
With younger siblings	4.64	124	.463	1.96
With older siblings	-10.82	124	-1.054	1.96
With younger and older siblings .	-13.56	124	-1.045	1.96

TABLE 20.-Comparison of mean difficulty of problems of married student teachers with and without children and the rest of the sample

Variables	Mean Difference	df	Obtained t	t ₀₅
With children . . .	-16.30	124	-.801	1.96
Without children. .	9.64	124	.702	1.96
With vs. without children . . .	-24.09	18	1.734	2.101

TABLE 21.- A comparison between the rating scale adapted from Tyler and the check list of student teacher performance

Number of Cases	r	Confidence Limits
125	.566	.435; .725

$$P_{05} = .174$$

TABLE 22.- A comparison of the mean ratings of those students who had experiences with children and those who did not have experiences, by types of experience

Types of Experience	Mean Difference	Obtained t
Scouting, high school	-2.4	-.516
Scouting, college	-3.0	-.668
Scouting, high school and college .	-3.1	-.761
Church, high school	10.0	2.475
Church, college	1.4	.284
Church, high school and college . .	7.2	1.844
YMCA or YWCA, high school	1.9	.218
YMCA or YWCA, college	4.6	.68
YMCA or YWCA, high school & college	4.3	.758
Other high school activities. . . .	-.5	-.106
Community, high school.	-.4	-.08
Community, college	-.9	-.211
Community, high school & college. .	-6.3	-.725
College courses	6.8	1.635
Other college activities.	1.2	.211
All high school	3.35	.560
All college	4.94	.805

$$t_{05} = 1.96$$

$$df = 123$$

$$N = 125$$

APPENDIX F. TABLES OF MULTIPLE CORRELATION

TABLE 23.-Multiple correlation among the dimensions of experience with children prior to student teaching and ratings in student teaching

	Hours	Role	Super- vision	Rating	Sums	Check
1	1.000	.453	.366	.161	1.980	
2		1.000	.883	.023	2.359	
3			1.000	.061	2.310	
1	1.000	.453	.366	.161	1.980	
2		.892	.804	-.056	1.639	1.640
3			.469	.100	.570	.569

$r_m = 1.976$ df 3 (121) Obtained $F = 1.64$ $F_{05} = 2.65$

TABLE 24.-Multiple correlation among the dimensions of experience with children prior to student teaching and degree of satisfaction of students with their student teaching

	Hours	Role	Super- vision	Rating	Sums	Check
1	1.000	.453	.366	.187	1.632	
2		1.000	.883	.096	2.240	
3			1.000	.081	2.168	
1	1.000	.453	.366	.187	1.632	
2		.892	.804	.013	1.682	1.683
3			.469	.004	.465	.465

$r_m = .187$ df 3 (122) Obtained $F = 1.482$ $F_{05} = 2.68$

TABLE 25.-Multiple correlations among hours of experience, frequency of occurrence of problems, and degree of difficulty of problems

	Frequency	Difficulty	Hours of Experience	Sums	Check
1	1.000	.918	-.149	1.769	
2		1.000	-.158	1.760	
1	1.000	.918	-.149	1.769	
2		.387	-.053	.343	.344

$r_m = .156$ $df \ 2 \ (123)$ $F_m = 1.583$ $F_{05} = 3.07$

TABLE 26.-Multiple correlations among role scores, frequency and degree of difficulty of problems

	Frequency	Difficulty	Role Scores	Sums	Check
1	1.000	.918	-.031	1.887	
2		1.000	-.049	1.869	
1	1.000	.918	-.031	1.887	
2		1.000	-.052	.344	.345

$r_m = .061$ $df \ 2 \ (123)$ Obtained $F = .266$ $F_{05} = 3.07$

TABLE 27.-Multiple correlation among degree of supervision, average difficulty of problems, and average frequency of problems

	Frequency	Difficulty	Supervision	Sums	Check
1	1.000	.918	-.040	1.878	
2		1.000	-.014	1.904	
1	1.000	.918	-.040	1.878	
2		.397	.057	.453	.454

$$r_m = .070 \quad df \ 2 \ (123) \quad F_m = .300 \quad F_{05} = 3.07$$

TABLE 28.- Multiple correlations between average frequency of occurrence of problems with hours, role and degree of supervision

	Hours	Role	Super- vision	Frequency	Sums	Check
1	1.000	.453	.366	-.149	1.670	
2		1.000	.883	-.031	2.305	
3			1.000	-.040	2.209	
1	1.000	.453	.366	-.149	1.670	
2		.892	.804	.041	1.736	1.737
3			.469	-.039	.430	.430

$$r_m = .159 \quad df \ 3 \ (122) \quad F_m = 1.056 \quad F_{05} = 2.60$$

TABLE 29.- Multiple correlations between average difficulty of problems and the three dimensions of experience with children prior to student teaching

	Hours	Role	Super- vision	Difficulty	Sums	Check
1	1.000	.453	.366	-.158	1.661	
2		1.000	.883	-.049	2.287	
3			1.000	-.014	2.235	
1	1.000	.453	.366	-.158	1.661	
2		.892	.804	.025	1.720	1.721
3			.469	.050	.520	.519

$$r_m = .168 \quad df \ 3 \ (122) \quad F_m = 1.175 \quad F_{05} = 2.60$$

TABLE 30.- Multiple correlations between difficulty of problems, frequency of problems, and the three dimensions of experience with children prior to student teaching

	Hours	Role	Super- vision	r^a	Sums	Check
1	1.000	.453	.366	-.154	1.665	
2		1.000	.883	-.040	2.296	
3			1.000	-.027	2.222	
1	1.000	.453	.366	-.154	1.665	
2		.892	.804	.034	1.729	1.730
3			.469	.004	.474	.473

$$r_m = .158 \quad df \ 3 \ (122) \quad F_m = 1.038 \quad F_{05} = 2.60$$

r^a is the average r of difficulty and frequency of problems

APPENDIX G

THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY Columbus 10, Ohio

College of Education

THE GENERAL SCHOOL EXPLORATORY EXPERIENCE AS A PART OF PRE- PARATION FOR TEACHING

Fifteen years ago the faculty of the College of Education developed a general school exploratory experience as one phase of professional preparation for teaching. Students were assisted in arranging with schools to spend two or three weeks full-time during the month of September living and working in schools of their choice. The assistance students could give was welcomed by school administrators and teachers alike, while students found the experience fascinating and very beneficial. This so-called September Field Experience has been continued each year, and since the war it has attracted increasing numbers of students. Originally designed for sophomores, it now attracts many juniors and seniors, with some students repeating the experience each year. In 1952 nearly 300 students were out in over 150 schools throughout Ohio and some neighboring states.

PURPOSES TO BE ACHIEVED THROUGH THIS EXPERIENCE

The faculty of the college believes that in teacher-education, as well as in any other type, we can learn by doing. A series of laboratory experiences is provided as a part of many of the professional courses and there is a field experience prerequisite for student teaching. Students enrolled in the September Field Experience have real opportunities to serve as teacher assistants and experience the entire work of a public school teacher. The satisfactory completion of two weeks of this experience may be used to help meet the field experience prerequisite for student teaching. Students may also elect Education 502 in the Autumn quarter for 2 hours credit. This credit may be applied toward graduation as a professional elective. Some of the frequently realized values for both younger and older college students are listed here.

College freshmen and sophomores often can

1. See a whole school at work serving the needs of its community.
2. Find out what a teacher does -- see the whole job of the teacher.
3. Build a background for further professional study and

- growth.
4. Form a basis for several personal decisions on teaching as a career.

College juniors and seniors, in addition to 1, 2, and 3, above, are usually able

1. To serve as assistant (and substitute) teachers in their own major fields,
2. To discover and analyze many problems of teaching in their subject areas, and
3. To prepare directly for the increased responsibility of student teaching.

Types of service which students usually give:

1. Routine clerical help to administrators and teachers the first day or two of school.
2. Such general assistance throughout the school and community as may be directed.
3. Aid to teachers and pupils in the preparation and use of teaching materials.
4. Assistance to teachers with both instructional and non-instructional duties.

PLANS WHICH STUDENTS HAVE FOLLOWED IN FORMER YEARS

Typically, students working in high schools move through three distinct stages of service. They begin by helping the principal, teachers, and pupils in the school office. Gradually, through clerical work, running errands, and special assignments they broaden their contacts throughout the whole school, eventually observing widely in many different departments. During the first week, they are attached for part of each day to a department or to one or two teachers for increasingly responsible participation in instruction and the other facets of teaching. In larger schools, the student may be assigned immediately to a teacher or to a department, but his experience should include routine services and wide observation, along with his work with these teachers.

In an elementary school, when the principal has time to direct the student's work in the office and out from it, the pattern is often like that in the high school. Most prospective elementary teachers prefer to be assigned to a classroom teacher for at least half of each day from the beginning. Sometimes they divide their day so as to work with two teachers at two different grade levels. Teachers with large numbers of beginning pupils seem especially appreciative of assistance and usually can engage the students at once in very profitable activities.

Generally, the over-all planning is directed by the principal, with teachers participating more actively as the days go by.

A portion of a student's time is left relatively free for orientation to the building, the school as a whole, and the community. Younger college students usually work most effectively in junior high or grade school rooms. Sophomores need to use some caution in returning to work in senior high school classes, especially in their own home high school.

PROCEDURE TO BE FOLLOWED IN ENROLLING FOR THIS EXPERIENCE

Each spring quarter, information about the program is presented in many different classes. Students are asked to attend one of a series of orientation meetings announced on the bulletin board outside the Field Experience Office, Room 103 Arps Hall. At this meeting application blanks are distributed. When completed, these are exchanged for the bulletins to be used in selecting a school, contacting a principal, and completing the entire arrangements. Each student makes his own contacts with a school of his choice, ideally the best school available within commuting distance of the student's residence during September. The principal returns an approval blank signifying his willingness to accept the student and the Field Experience Office checks plans with both students and schools during the month of August.

Although spring is the best time to make contacts with schools, students are allowed to complete arrangements as late as August. A complete bulletin of instructions on procedures to be followed is sent to the student's home address just in time to be studied carefully before school opens. The College employs several regular staff members to visit a portion of the schools, especially those which have not assisted in the program in recent years. The faculty members report great enthusiasm on the part of school administrators almost everywhere.

SECURING CREDIT FOR THIS EXPERIENCE

Field Experience Prerequisite for Student Teaching: Students who need field experience, in addition to that included in their regular sequence of professional courses, should enroll for a minimum of two full weeks in this program. (If the school begins the day following Labor Day, that week is counted as a full week of school.) Students have found it very profitable to begin their experience when the teachers begin, usually by attending the opening teachers' meeting.

During the second week of September, the principal of the school receives a brief report form. This report must be completed and returned to the Student Field Experience Office for evaluation.

Education 502: Interpretation of Field Experience in Schools:

Any student who completes at least two weeks of full-time service in a school is eligible to enroll in Education 502 for two quarter hours of credit. Enrollment is optional, but it must be done in the immediately following autumn quarter. Generally, the credit serves as an elective only, but in some curricula it may be used as part of the requirement of professional elective hours. The course is conducted as a series of informal discussion groups. There are weekly meetings through October, and a written report of the experience is the chief basis for the grade.

APPENDIX H

The Ohio State University College of Education

THE FIELD EXPERIENCE PREREQUISITE FOR STUDENT TEACHING

The Plan and the Procedure

The faculty of the College of Education believes that adequate preparation for teaching must include general education, subject matter competence in the areas to be taught, professional education, and a well rounded background of related field experiences with groups of children, youth and adults. This bulletin has been prepared to inform faculty and students of the provisions of this requirement and the way in which it is to be applied.

In brief, the plan includes the listing and evaluating of previous experiences by each student, a conference between a faculty member and the student in order to develop a plan for that particular student, the completion of this plan by the student and the evaluation of this plan as a prerequisite to student teaching by the staff of the Field Experience Office. All conditions of this plan are to be met one quarter prior to the time the student wishes to enroll in student teaching.

In the remainder of this bulletin the principles underlying this plan are described and the types of experiences and the levels of quantity and quality are stated. Finally a series of sections sets forth the responsibilities of each of the persons involved in carrying out this whole procedure.

Some Guiding Principles for the Use Of Qualitative Standards in Evaluation of Field Experience

1. Experience to be included in the evaluation: In general, the experience the student has had following his high school graduation will be the basis for planning further experience under supervision of the College. In certain cases, experiences which students have had in the later high school years and which are particularly significant may be considered.

2. Levels of experience defined: The range of field experiences considered to have rather close relationship to the development of a prospective teacher have been divided into three main areas. In each of those areas three different levels are defined: minimum, desirable, and preferred.

The MINIMUM LEVEL is that which is expected of every student prior to admission to student teaching. The student will obtain this experience after entrance into College unless he demonstrates a superior level of competence based on previous experience.

The DESIRABLE LEVEL is the level of experience recommended for any students who are able to secure this pattern, and especially for those who observe deficiencies in their first experiences which they and their advisers believe can be overcome by additional experience.

The PREFERRED LEVEL of experience is recommended as giving a highly desired depth and breadth of experience. It is especially recommended for those who do not reach a satisfactory level of self-confidence without more extensive experience, as well as for those who wish to build certain competencies and backgrounds of understanding to a higher level.

Standards for the Evaluation of Experience

1. EXPERIENCE WITH CHILDREN AND YOUTH

Minimum Level: Experience in a, and either b or c.

- a. A school or instructional experience: Experience as an active participant or instructor in an educational program, such as one of the following:

1. A general school exploratory experience of at least two weeks duration in a public school, such as the "September Field Experience." This experience is strongly recommended for all students.
2. A major instructional responsibility of at least two weeks duration full time or equivalent, such as substitute teaching, instructing employees, or teaching in the armed services.
3. Serving as volunteer or paid instructor in teaching an organized group a particular skill, sport, or activity at least four hours per week for a quarter or equivalent, or extensive individual teaching extending over a year or more.

b. A community service agency experience: Service as an assistant leader under competent supervision in some community agency or organized program to the extent of four hours per week for a quarter, or equivalent, such as one of the following:

1. Junior camp counselor for at least 8 weeks.
2. Senior camp counselor or playground supervisor full time for at least 4 weeks.
3. Education 505 for a minimum of 2 hours of credit.
4. Direct leadership experience as a part of a college course to the extent of at least 4 hours a week for a quarter.

c. Participation experience in a school as a part of a General or Special Methods Course.

Desirable Level: Experience in a, b, and c as indicated above.

Preferred Level: Experience in a and b as indicated above, with emphasis upon a major leadership role with a group outside his own socio-economic group; and in a, above, with possible two separate periods of September Field Experience, once as a freshman or sophomore, and again as a junior or senior.

2. LEADERSHIP ACTIVITY WITH GROUPS OF PEERS OR ADULTS

Minimum Level: Active participation in a formally organized peer group of persons approximately the student's own age, or an adult group, preferably including some leadership responsibility, such as:

- a. Serving on a committee charged with responsibility for conducting some particular activity.
- b. Serving as an officer of an organized group.
- c. Successful completion of definite assigned responsibility of a major character in a college class, college activity group, or adult group.

Desirable Level: Develop sufficient leadership competency to be selected for and carry out successfully a major role in the activities of a college class, interest group, organization or adult group, or voluntarily assume responsibility for a major project to a successful conclusion.

Preferred Level: At least one of the following or some combination of them:

- a. After serving several subordinate roles in some college organization, be selected for and carry through a major responsibility over at least two quarters'

time.

- b. Through several experiences develop facility and self-confidence in carrying to completion class and activity group special projects that involve projection of ideas, planning, organizing, realization, and evaluation.
- c. Promote, get acceptance for, and carry through to completion and evaluation at least two or more specific projects in some class, campus activity, or adult group.

3. PAID WORK EXPERIENCE

Minimum Level: Regular employment by someone outside the family or immediate relatives for one summer or equivalent (10 weeks full time).

Desirable Level: The equivalent of one or more summer's paid employment by someone outside the family or immediate relatives and having one of the following characteristics:

- a. Extensive contact with people in general or children and youth.
- b. Work with responsibility for managing a project or directing the work of others.

Preferred Level: Two or more summers' work or their equivalent, including one or the other of types a and b above, and work experience of a production or routine nature with work associates chiefly in a different social group from the student's own.

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