ESTABLISHING A TEACHER ROLE PERCEPTION BASED ON INDIVIDUAL VALUES AND BELIEFS

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ABSTRACT

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By

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The focus of this study is to design an experience for students in teacher education which will allow students: to establish a teacher role derived from careful self assessment of values and beliefs; to assist the student in developing a conscious belief system; and, to promote consistency in what the potential teacher professes and how he will behave.

In Chapter I, the author presents the problem and develops the intent and structure of the study. The study proceeds on two interrelated levels, (1) a limited empirical level--that is, identifying the existing situation and establishing feasible means for effecting change through examining the empirical literature available. Using this base to up-date the author's assumptions, and (2) suggestions are made and an experience is designed to individualize the perceived teacher role. In detail, the experience is intended to allow students to select a

learning theory most consistent with their personal belief system and to promote a more accepting attitude toward personal differences.

In Chapter II, the review of the literature, the study concentrates on the existing situation. Studies reviewed indicate an attempt being made to closely define the specifics of the teacher's role and that the teacher role perceptions of the education student are being brought in line with those held by established teachers. In the second half of the literature review, the study deals with alternative experiences which could be used to allow education students an opportunity to examine their motives, feelings, and strategies, and to adopt a teacher role perception based on their personal value and belief systems. It was found that one alternative would be to design an encounter group experience which would deal with these concerns.

In Chapter III, the study presents some guidelines for setting up a working experience which could be incorporated in existing teacher education programs and also outlines some strategies which could be used in that experience. The strategies are arranged in an order which requires greater degrees of risk taking as the experience progresses. Also, the design of the experience sets the expectation for the group to become self directive as the

group members relate honestly and openly with empathic behavior.

In Chapter IV, summary, conclusions, and recommendations, the study is drawn to a close. The study concludes: (1) teacher education programs do not stress flexibility in establishing the "teacher role"; (2) it is possible for individuals to change attitudes and values, and to increase levels of acceptance both for self and others in an encounter group; and (3) given the existing situation, it is possible to design a small group experience which will deal directly with educational concerns and specifically with the role of the teacher.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the students who have so often been my teachers.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

However stated, education clearly has the basic responsibility of assisting human beings in the process of acquiring information and skills that are necessary for a productive, satisfying life. Problems seem to arise when attempting to define words such as assisting, productive, satisfying, and most of all, necessary. Postman and Weingartner[1] address this ambiguity,

> . . . the tendency seems to be for most educational systems, from patterns of training in primitive tribal societies to school systems in technological societies, to fall imperceptibly into a role devoted exclusively to the conservation of old ideas, concepts, attitudes, skills, and perceptions.

This practice, of nurturing the known, seems to be an obvious pitfall for our students in teacher education programs. The behavior of student teachers and recently certified teachers seems to deviate very little from the products of our teacher preparation programs in years past.

Perhaps a personal experience of the author could best express this dilemma and account for his concern

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[1] N. Postman and C. Weingartner, Teaching as a Subversive Activity (New York: Delacorte Press, 1969).

with the singularity and rigidity of the teacher's role as perceived by students in teacher education. At the time of this occurrence, the author was employed as an administrator in a secondary school building. Just as there are particular expectations of teachers, it is safe to say that certain perceptions have also been internalized concerning administrators. It should be pointed out that the author did not fit these expectations either in appearance or behavior. Walking the halls between classes, a must for any "good" administrator, brought the author to a ping-pong game outside the gymnasium door. He quickly cashed in on the opportunity to get some exercise and enjoy the students' company. A heated doubles game was underway--Enter The Student Teacher. The student teacher had arrived at the school that morning and had been familiarized with the administrative staff in name only. The author's paddle was snatched from his hand and the golden words of a seasoned teacher rang out loud and clear. "Where are you supposed to be?" Not wanting to spoil a good on-the-job learning experience, the situation was permitted to develop. Unable to identify what class he was in and unable to produce a hall pass, the author soon found himself being escorted to his office by the student teacher. Further down the hall, the author was greeted by name from some passing students. Exit The Student Teacher.

It is assumed that teacher preparation programs do not stress this kind of controlling behavior. However, it would be difficult to assume that our young teachers are permitted to develop a conscious belief system and encouraged to adopt a teacher role consistent with that belief system. A cursory observation might leave one with the feeling that the teacher role, or behavior, is static and it is the young teacher's beliefs that are left to be manipulated and brought into line.

Problem

Our teacher training programs are dated. Whether or not they once served the intended task of preparing individuals to function as mediums in epistomological endeavors is of little concern. Do they now serve? Do these programs allow for creation as might be expected from the artist's brush or do they require uniformity and control? Our most severe art critic allows for personal taste or preference but such is not the case with a quality control agency. We are truly a mechanized technological society. Our teacher training programs are taking on the appearance of gigantic punch presses and assembly lines. If we have predetermined what experiences a future teacher must have, what the frequency of these experiences will be, and what we will accept as satisfactory performance, it is safe to assume that the products of such a rigid mold will be of limited variety.

In most cases, the existing teacher education programs are doing a great deal to reinforce the singularity of a "teacher role." When considering modeling as an accepted way of influencing behavior, it is not very surprising to find our future teachers locked into the conceptual role of the teachers they themselves had for many years. Regardless of what new information is given them in their undergraduate experience, the method of delivery closely resembles the same control model they once learned under.

The problem addressed in this work is primarily a concern for the teacher role perception internalized by students in teacher education. This role determination is made over a long period of time as our future teachers are subjected to a control model throughout their school experience. The problem takes on a greater magnitude when considering the need for a variety of teaching approaches in future educational systems committed to change and innovation through evaluation and up-dating. It seems paradoxical that we intend for schools to keep abreast of shifting emphasis in society and that our young educators, a part of these alterations, are not encouraged to project those attitudinal differences. Instead, we make great efforts to maintain a sterilization process.

Need for the Study

The teacher's role proposed in this study is humanistic to the extent of encouraging students in teacher education to decide what learning theory is most consistent with their belief system. In more detail, it is a role derived from careful self assessment of values and beliefs designed to permit the student to establish a conscious belief system and to promote consistency in what the potential teacher professes and how he will behave. The author's intention is to avoid the existing traps of pre-determining what the "new teacher role" will be and instead, he intends to present an experience which will allow future teachers to make their own role determination. The author realizes certain limits which must be imposed in establishing acceptable teacher behavior. For example, enforcing school rules by hitting children can not be tolerated either ethically or legally. Beyond these limitations, personal role adoption should improve the teacher's effectiveness and involvement since he will behave in a way he believes best, not in a way he believes is expected.

Also, this study is intended to make suggestions for humanizing teacher education programs which are presently operating. To present a complete restructuring of an existing program is often beyond the scope of management. However, to complement that program or at

least to introduce material which is intended to broaden the operating program should be more realistic and more easily accepted. This in turn should lead to other innovations toward further humanizing teacher education.

Finally, this work is being done for the benefit of the author. This opportunity is being taken to tie together many experiences and some intuitions about our teacher education programs. The author finds himself at a point in his growth when these concerns should be closely considered and realistic assumptions should be made. He further intends to draw from these assumptions an experience allowing our future teachers the opportunity to look at themselves and at education and to decide how the two best go together or if in fact there is any match to be made.

Significance of the Problem

Some of the considerations which lend significance to the problem are:

A. Educational changes are being attempted and their failure in many cases can be directly attributed to a lack of flexibility in the staff. Ideally, a staff should represent a variety of teaching approaches to complement the variety of learning experiences possible. Teacher education must deal directly with acceptance of differing teaching styles.

B. The control model used by most teachers does not provide alternative learning experiences for individual students. This style may satisfy the needs of some of the students, but certainly others are frustrated without recourse.

C. Many potential teachers never assess themselves in relation to education, or have the opportunity to do so, until they are well into a study program. Often, the time investment is justification for staying in education. A self assessment experience prior to this kind of time investment could serve the purpose of self screening for many persons.

D. Accepting others and understanding one's own values is critical in a learning situation. In his teaching role, the teacher influences his students' values through projecting his own. Unless the teacher is fully aware of his belief system and his values, he cannot be sure what information is being transmitted to his students. Often, without intent, a teacher will condemn a student's position only because it is dichotomous to his own. Unless the teacher is able to "accept" the student's position and offer constructive comments, he must be content with threatening students' beliefs rather than helping students develop their own belief system.

E. It seems grossly ignorant to identify interpersonal skills which teachers should have, and not to approach the acquisition of these skills through actual practice, such as providing the opportunity for students to deal with the skills of communication in encounter groups. Too often these skills are merely outlined by the instructor, hoping that the student has some "feeling" for what is being said.

Scope and Limitations

This study assumes the existence of a perceived teacher role. The study is intended to design an experience which will enable the student to look closely at his own values and beliefs and to establish a personal teacher role expectation that will make his behavior complementary to that conscious belief system. The author admits his own bias of the existing teacher role as being one of structure and control. In this sense, the study contains all the limitations and shortcomings of the author's perceptions and judgments.

In developing the relationship of a conscious belief system and a teaching style, the author has assumed the need for disposition to change, the need to view the teacher's role as open to many styles, and the advantage of having many teaching approaches available to our learners. Each of these assumptions could serve as topics for study in themselves, but the author will confine his

research to the primary problem stated. Testing of the assumptions made is left for future study.

There is no attempt made to validate the theory offered by empirical research. The author's foundation for proposing such an experience is solely dependent on existing literature and his personal axiological position.

Although humanizing other types of training programs may be desirable for the same reasons stated in this study, no attempt is made to generalize this theoretical model beyond the educational setting.

Methodology

This study proceeds on two interrelated levels, (1) a limited empirical level--that is, relying on the author's past perceptions and experiences, inferences or assumptions have been made about the perceived teacher role of students in teacher education. These assumptions will be tested with the existing literature to more clearly define the beliefs, attitudes, and teacher role perceptions education students hold. This study is empirical only in relation to the empirical literature used as a basis on which the author presents the existing situation. Using this base to up-date the author's assumptions (2) a rational level will be developed. That is to say, given certain assumptions supported by the existing literature, suggestions will be presented for

an experience designed to "humanize" teacher education. The "humanization" is intended to allow students to select a learning theory most consistent with their personal belief system. Also, this experience must include the acceptance of differences which will be recognized as individual belief systems are expressed. The pedantic perception of the teacher's role supported by our existing programs does not allow this freedom.

Organization of the Study

In Chapter I, the problem was presented and developed. Chapter II, the review of the literature, will be divided into two distinct areas--first, how students in education perceive the role of the teacher, and second, what kind of experience is feasible where students can create their own teacher role perception based on a conscious belief system. Also, each area will contain assumptions validated by the literature and used as a foundation to formulate a working experience to be used in our teacher preparation programs. Chapter III will develop an experience which might be incorporated into existing programs to allow the student to study his own belief system and based on his findings, adopt a learning theory best suited for him personally. Chapter IV will be a statement of summary, conclusions, and recommendations.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The review of the literature will be divided into two distinct areas--first, how students in education perceive the role of the teacher, and second, what experiences are feasible for students to create their own teacher role perception based on a conscious belief system. Each of these areas will also contain assumptions made by the author based on the literature reviewed. The assumptions are intended to describe the existing situation and to set a foundation on which the author will present the proposed experience.

When addressing the role of the teacher, we are speaking of two broad fields of research. On the one hand, role refers to behavior, yielding studies of teacher-role-performance in which actual behavior of teachers is observed. On the other hand, role refers to expectations for behavior, resulting in studies of teacher role expectations in which expectations maintained for teachers by teachers and others are investigated. This study clearly is intended to concentrate on the second type, i.e., the perceptions that dictate particular behavior rather than

the behavior itself. It should be pointed out that in reviewing the literature, the author found many studies which were directed at answering the same basic question but which varied in terminology. It is therefore necessary to understand that dealing with the student's "perception" of the teacher role, or his "conception," or even his "expectation," for the purpose of this work will be regarded as one in the same.

Significance of the Teacher Role Perception

The importance of studying the teacher role perception has been expressed by many researchers for as many reasons. The range of concerns meanders from usefulness in selecting future teachers to evaluating teacher effectiveness. Miller[1] suggested that student teachers fail because of a lack of role conceptualization rather than due to poor ability. He makes a strong recommendation for more emphasis on teaching role-awareness and suggested this area would be useful in the selection and screening procedures. Soon after, Strauss[2] emphasized that "necessary roles" must be learned and this could not simply be left as

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[1]H. Miller, "Role-Awareness As an Object of Group Work in Teacher Education," Journal of Teacher Education VI (1955), 128-133.

[2]A. L. Strauss, "The Learning of Roles and of Concepts as Twin Processes," Journal of Genetic Psychology, LXXXVIII (1956), 211-217.

a matter of interpersonal contact but also one of adequate linguistic development. The importance here being that individuals were willing to establish "necessary roles" which the teacher should learn. This position is exemplary of a movement to closely define what the role of the teacher should be, and after establishing the specifics, to teach these role expectations to educators. At the same time, others were less intent on identifying such limited role expectations and instead were looking to broaden the teacher role perception. Brookover[3] suggested that as teachers were more aware of the possible variety of expectations that students have of their performance, they would be in a better position to communicate effectively with their students, and make better continuous integration and adjustment.

It must be stated that the major effort being made in looking at the teacher's role was one of defining rather than expanding. Bible and McComas[4] found that teacher effectiveness seemed to indicate a strong sense of obligation for assuming the role expectations of a given position. For their purposes, the role expectation would

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[3]W. Brookover, "Research on Teacher and Administrative Roles," Journal of Educational Sociology, XXIX (1955), 2-13.

[4]B. L. Bible and J. D. McComas, "Role Consensus and Teacher Effectiveness," Social Forces, XLII (1963), 225-233.

have to be clearly defined. Sorenson, Husek, and Yu,[5] again concerned with teacher effectiveness, suggested using role expectations as a measure of "significant traits" or as proper criteria for teacher evaluations. Here too, teacher role would have to be explicitly defined. The extent to which educators concerned themselves with the teacher role concept might be illustrated by Grossack's work[6] where he advised that role-playing should receive more attention in student teaching programs so that role conflicts could be anticipated and resolved.

It should not be interpreted that educators were isolated in their concern about role expectations or actual role behavior. Studies in other professions closely resembled the attempts being made in education to define the specific professional role in question and to indoctrinate the young professional accordingly. In a study of nursing, Kilbrick[7] tried to relate to the dropout problem the existing conceptual framework employed to

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[5]A. G. Sorenson, T. R. Husek, and C. Yu, "Divergent Concepts of Teacher Role: An Approach to the Measurement of Teacher Effectiveness," Journal of Educational Psychology, LIV (1963), 287-294.

[6]M. M. Grossack, "Effects of Variation in Teacher Role Behavior and Student Teacher Relationships," Journal of Educational Psychology, XLVI (1955), 433-436.

[7]A. K. Kilbrick, "Dropouts in Schools of Nursing: The Effect of Self and Role Perception," Nursing Research, XII (1963), 140-149.

train nurses. Conflicts causing the problem were attributed to ambiguous role expectations. Ehrlick and Preiss[8] tried to stress the negative effects of leaving role formation to chance. They hypothesized that to leave the discussion of certain role segments out of the formal training program for state police, the development of these perceptions would be left to other reference groups, for example, influential citizen groups. This may in effect be negating the desired role patterns which the police department is attempting to instill. Finally, Hughes[9] expressed in his study of the medical student, that being initiated into a new role is equal in importance to the learning of techniques in the total training program.

The concerns brought out by studies of other professions are obviously transferable to the concerns expressed about our future teachers.

Many of these studies hint at the close correlation between role expectations and actual role behavior. As researchers continue to look at the teacher's role, they attempt to focus on a variety of concerns, but there seems to be an underlying thread which pulls these studies

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[8]H. J. Ehrlick and J. J. Preiss, An Examination of Role Theory (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1966).

[9]E. C. Hughes, "The Making of a Physician," Human Organization, XIV (1960), 21-25.

together. Regardless of what the stated hypothesis, always there exists the preoccupation with the teacher's behavior. Soles[10] professed that knowledge of teacher role expectations would be useful in predicting actual role behavior.

Even as this work is developed and designed to deal with the students' perceptions of the teacher's role, the author must admit his interest in how the student's perceptions will effect his actual behavior as a classroom teacher. Perhaps this is more closely expressed by Biddle, Fraser, and Jellison[11] in their study.

> In part the behavior of the teacher must respond to the environmental pressures, to situations in which the teacher is involved and to the demands placed on the teachers by others. In part, however, the teacher's behavior must also be caused by internal processes, by motives, attitudes, needs, and role conceptions held by the teacher.

Later in their study, Biddle, Fraser, and Jellison restate their contention of a teacher's behavior being at least in part derived from the teacher's role conception. They also make reference to the teacher education program and how the teacher's role conception is regarded as part of the formal training for prospective teachers.

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[10]S. Soles, "Teacher Role Expectations and the Internal Organization of Secondary Schools," Journal of Educational Research, LVII (1964), 227-235.

[11]B. J. Biddle, C. S. Fraser, and J. M. Jellison, "Teacher and Role: Conceptions and Beharior," in Essays on the Social Systems of Education, ed. by B. J. Biddle (New York: Holt, 1968), p. 300.

> . . . there can be little doubt that teacher-held role conceptions are a major determinant of teacher behavior. Not only is this proposition suggested by role theory, but a major tenet of most teacher education curricula is that through inculcating an appropriate conceptual framework, youthful teachers can be prepared to carry on vital work in education.[12]

Perceptions of the Teacher Role

The studies presented are selected on the basis of the questions which are dealt with and also the methodology employed. An attempt has been made to view the perceived teacher's role from a variety of positions. Biddle, Twyman, and Rankin[13] employed responses via the descriptive and prescriptive modalities in an investigation into the relationship between the role of the public school teacher and recruitment into the profession. Responses of education students, non-education students and teachers were compared on a variety of role elements. On an item dealing with co-operation between teacher and principal, both education and non-education students approved to a lesser extent teacher co-operation with the principal than teachers did. When viewing pupil freedom, the education students advocated more freedom than did the other two groups. And, items dealing with maintaining rules of the

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[12] Ibid., p. 356.

[13] B. J. Biddle, J. P. Twyman, and E. F. Ranking, "The Role of the Teacher and Occupational Choice," School Research, LXX (1962), 191-206.

school showed no significant difference between the three groups. The total analysis of the data collected placed education students between non-education students and teachers on norms held for teachers. The authors state, "it is probably reasonable to assume that in these areas the processes of teacher education will gradually shift the norms held by education students toward a more realistic outlook" (p. 203). This is interpreted to mean that those views of the education student will be more in line with the perceptions held by teachers.

This study introduces one of the most critical variables when considering teacher role formation, the dimension of time. To emphasize the importance of this factor, the author would like to cite a study conducted by Reitz, Very, and Guthrie.[14] Using a 75 item Q sort, this study asked an "experienced" and "novice" group of college teachers to describe the undergraduate teacher-student relationship they considered ideal. Respondents were selected from six colleges within Pennsylvania State University--(Liberal Arts, Education, Agriculture, Engineering, Home Economics, and Chemistry-Physics). Findings of interest were: that experienced teachers' scores correlated more highly with each other across

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[14]W. E. Reitz, P. S. Very, and G. M. Guthrie, "Experience, Expertness, and Ideal Teaching Relationships," Educational and Psychological Measurements, XXV (1965), 1051-1060.

colleges than did the scores earned by experienced teachers of a given college with novices within the same college; the scores of the experienced correlated more highly among themselves than did the scores of inexperienced teachers among themselves. It would appear from this study that the actual time spent in education is an important factor in forming teacher role expectations.

Findlayson and Cohen[15] did a comparative study of the perceptions of female education students at various levels in the training program. Their aim was

> . . . to examine the changes which took place in student teachers' conceptions of the teacher's role as they progressed through their course of professional training and to compare the expectations of the student teachers with those of the head teachers (p. 22).

The authors constructed a role definition instrument (RDI) which contained a number of statements about teacher behavior. The four role segments that were dealt with were "organization," "general aims," "motivation," and "classroom behavior." Subjects were asked to rate twenty-two items on a five-point scale ranging from "absolutely must" to "absolutely must not." (The study involved 268 female students and 183 head teachers from primary and secondary schools.)

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[15]D. S. Findlayson and L. Cohen, "The Teacher's Role: A Comparative Study of the Conceptions of College of Education Students and Head Teachers," British Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXVII (1967), 22-31.

The students training to teach older children showed more authoritarian attitudes than those preparing to teach elementary children as evidenced by responses related to classroom management. Expectancies changed as the students progressed through the College of Education: in the "general aims" segment, students regarded basic subjects as increasingly important; in the area of classroom behavior there was a general peak of permissiveness during the second year, i.e., there was general growing liberality from the first to the second year followed by a giving way to more traditional views during the third year. The disparity between role perceptions held by the students (combined levels) and the head teachers was extremely widespread in all four role segments with the head teachers generally being more in favor of peripheral duties, more traditional in aims, less sensitive in motivational techniques, and more rigid and firm in classroom behavior.

Butcher[16] operating under the general assumption that younger people, in general, and university students, in particular, would be likely to possess more "progressive," more "radical" and more "humanitarian" attitudes than older people, hypothesized that student teachers would obtain higher scores on naturalism (N), radicalism (R), and

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[16]H. J. Butcher, "The Attitudes of Student Teachers to Education," British Journal of Sociology and Clinical Psychology, IV (1965), 17-24.

tender-mindedness (T) in education than serving teacher. Radicalism is said to be the opposite of conservatism, tender-minded that of tough-mindedness, and naturalism that of idealism.

In the study the Manchester Scales of Opinion about education[17] were administered to fifty seven male and female first year training college students, 118 male and female graduate students taking the graduate certificate in education, and 300 experienced teacher stratified by sex, age, and type of school, with a test-retest design. General results indicated that there was a fairly consistent change in the directions of increased naturalism, radicalism, and tender-mindedness among the teachers in training but that these trends are reversed after the teacher has spent some time in full-time teaching.

Morrison and McIntyre[18] administered the Manchester Scales of Opinion to 100 Scottish teachers prior to and after their first year of training and again after one year of teaching. The results showed that changes in the direction of naturalism, radicalism, and tender-mindedness

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[17]R. A. C. Oliver and H. J. Butcher, "Teachers' Attitudes to Education During the First Year of Training," British Journal of Sociology and Clinical Psychology, I (1962), 56-60.

[18]A. Morrison and D. McIntyre, "Changes in Opinions About Education During the First Year of Teaching," British Journal of Sociology and Clinical Psychology, VI (1967), 161-163.

are to varying degrees being reversed after a single year of teaching.

Another study which points out this reversal effect and offers some insight for its occurrence was conducted by Wiersma.[19] His investigation was designed to look at how education students and beginning students differ in their role conceptions; how education students and beginning teachers differ in their values; and how education students and beginning teachers differ in their norms. Questionnaires were used to arrive at tentative answers, working with an N of 405.

In general, the findings showed students in education to differ from beginning teachers in concepts which were more progressive, more liberal, and more permissive. The students reached their strongest point in identifying with progressivism rather than traditionalism in their junior year. This was followed by a tapering off toward a point of consistency with teachers' conceptions. Possibly, the main determinant of role perception is the group with which the person forming the perception identifies. The College of Education staff and the education students are relatively detached from everyday working of the school. Their concern is perhaps more with child development while the school staff is locked into the

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[19] J. Wiersma, "A Study of Teacher Role Perception in Education Students and Teachers" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Iowa, 1968), pp. 115-131.

added responsibilities of running the school plant. The norms presented by the teachers are more "reality" oriented, while those of the students are more "theoretical."

Also pointed out in the study is the identification made with the faculty and institutional bias by the students. The university and its faculty again represent a child development concern with administrative concerns being secondary. The movement of students toward faculty positions is intimated by Brim[20] in his investigation of training programs, and again by Findlayson and Cohen[21] in their study. They suggest that there is evidence to support the thesis that college professors are more similar to senior education students in their role perceptions than they are to practitioners in elementary and secondary schools.

Just as these studies present the reversal in teacher role perception occurring during the latter part of the sophomore year and junior year, they also identify a shift in the students' association with the College of Education at this point in his study. During this period, the student begins his formal training and methods courses driving toward his student teaching (on-the-job) experience.

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[20] B. J. Brim, "Attitude Change in Teacher Education Students," Journal of Educational Research, LIX (1966), 441-445.

[21] Op. cit., pp. 22-31.

McAulay[22] studied the extent to which student teachers were influenced in regard to methods of teaching and relations with children by their supervising teachers. In his study, the student teacher seemed greatly influenced by his supervisor.

Looking more closely at the role perception of the student teachers and how it is influenced during student teaching, Sigburn[23] recorded how student teachers look at roles of the teacher before and after student teaching. His work showed that supervising teachers greatly influenced the role perception of the student teacher and also that there was a shift in perception toward that of methods course instructors.

It seems appropriate at this point to mention the fact that the student teaching experience, being graded and necessary for successful completion of the undergraduate's course of study, demands consistency merely for the student's survival.

Situational Assumptions

The following assumptions are drawn from the literature to portray the existing situation and to point

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[22] J. D. McAulay, "How Much Influence Has a Cooperating Teacher?" Journal of Teacher Education, XI (1960), 79-83.

[23] F. J. Sigburn, "A Study of Student Teachers' Perceptions of Teacher Roles," Dissertation Abstracts, XXIII (1963), 4248-4249.

out the need for considering alternatives to our teacher education programs.

1. There is an attempt to closely define the specifics of the teacher's role. This causes very little flexibility in acceptable behavior for teachers (Miller, Strauss, Bible, McComas, Sorenson, Husek, Yu).

2. The teacher's behavior can partly be attributed to the role conceptions held by the teacher. Teacher role conception is regarded as part of the formal training for prospective teachers (Biddle, Fraser, Jellison). There seems to be a greater emphasis on conformity than on creativity.

3. There is a definite expectation for teacher training programs to bring the education students' role perceptions more in line with the perceptions held by teachers (Biddle, Twyman, Rankin).

4. As student teachers progress through their course of professional training, there is a high point for disparity between role perceptions held by students and those held by teachers occurring in the second or third year. Perceptions of the students, then, begin to slant in the direction of the teachers'. In most institutions, it is the second and third year when education students begin their formal education classes, i.e., methods, etc. Students seem to be encouraged to have more

"realistic" expectations by their evaluators (Findlayson, Cohen, Butcher, Wiersma).

5. There are strong pressures brought to bear on the student in education who does not profess and behave in a way which is consistent with established policies. Students have been denied the opportunity to student teach for reasons which are obviously value laden. There appears to be an overt attempt at promoting singularity in our educators.

Intent of the Experience

As described in the organization of the study, this area is intended to search the literature in order to establish what kind of experience is feasible where students can create their own teacher role perception based on a conscious belief system. More specifically, an experience is needed where the student will be able to develop an accepting attitude about himself and others. It should include an opportunity for attitude evaluation and change; value evaluation and change, how he perceives others and how he is perceived by others; what prejudices he holds and how accepting he is of differences; and to be aware of his own motives, feelings, and strategies in dealing with others.

The expected outcome of such a self-assessment experience would be for the student to establish his role

as a teacher for himself, and also that he will understand and accept deviant perceptions and behavior.

Again, the author feels obligated to point out the problem encountered when reviewing the literature, created by a lack of uniformity in the terminology of the many studies examined. The primary consideration of the author was the relevance of the material and not the label attached. The reader is requested to put aside any personal connotations which may accompany terms such as T-group or sensitivity training. Weschler and Schein[24] address this problem when discussing intensive group experiences--designated in the literature by a number of terms, all of which are synonymous--sensitivity training, T-group, and basic encounter groups. All are unique but all have certain general things in common. A major characteristic of the training is a "vigorous concern for the building of bridges between the world of the human sciences and that of practical affairs."

Bradford, Gibb, and Benne[25] state precisely what the outcome of such a training session might be. From their work, a T-group is a relatively unstructured group in which individuals participate as learners. The data

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[24] I. Weschler and E. Schein, eds., Five Issues in Training (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1962), p. 5.

[25] L. Bradford, J. Gibb, and K. Benne, eds., T-Group Theory and Laboratory Method, Innovation in Re-Education (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1964), pp. 1-2.

are the transactions among members and their own behavior in the group as they struggle to create a productive and viable organization, a miniature society; and as they work to stimulate and support one another's learning within that society, each individual may learn about his own feelings, motives and strategies in dealing with other persons. He learns also of the reactions he produces in others as he interacts with them.

Nature of the Experience

The early 60's brought a plea from many for a more intellectually rigorous teacher training experience. In retort, James Conant,[26] Arthur Bestor,[27] and others argued that too much time was devoted to professional courses. A trend to meet their demands became increasingly evident. A greater concern with teacher attitudes was realized. Klausmeier and Goodwin[28] stressed this increasing concern with teacher attitudes. They state:

> . . . warm and understanding behavior on the part of the teacher is more effective in securing better student attitudes toward subject matter and the teacher; in developing favorable interpersonal attitudes, group cohesiveness, and social skills, and in securing achievement in the subject matter . . . .

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[26] J. B. Conant, The Education of American Teachers (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963).

[27] A. Bestor, "Aimlessness in Education," in Form and Focus, ed. by R. F. McDonald and W. E. Morris (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1961), p. 184.

[28] H. J. Klausmeier and W. Goodwin, "Learning and Human Ability," Educational Psychology (2d ed; New York: Harper and Row, 1966), p. 182.

This leads us directly to one of the concerns for the task at hand. If there is a need to develop warm and accepting attitudes in teachers about self and others; and if this involves value clarification or change, is it possible to effect students' values? Jacob[29] conducted a study of the impact of college teaching on college students. His work indicates that "student values do change to some extent in college." The study also showed that the distinctive climate of a few institutions and the sensitivity of some teachers did have a significant impact on the values of some students.

It appears that the question of student attitudes has been dealt with by many educators. This area of interest is directly tied to the perceptions a student will have about his role as a teacher. Combs[30] regarded this area as one of the most important components of the school experience. Combs' statement that, "what a teacher believes about the nature of his students will have a most important effect on how he behaves toward them," has two significant implications. The first is that teacher education programs should be concerned with fostering appropriate teacher attitude toward students. Secondly, a

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[29]P. E. Jacob, Changing Values in College, An Exploratory Study of the Impact of College Teaching (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957), p. 11.

[30]A. W. Combs, "The Personal Approach to Good Teaching," Educational Leadership, II (March, 1964), 369.

knowledge of attitudinal changes and developments which can take place in a pupil's formal education should be instilled in the would-be teacher, who will be in a position to influence these changes and developments.

In dealing directly with this dimension of personal growth, Hall[31] clearly states that one approach would be to incorporate the use of sensitivity groups (encounter groups, T-groups, etc.), in teacher training. The chief purpose of these groups would be to develop increased self-knowledge and self-acceptance on the part of the potential teacher which would result in a more tolerant attitude toward the student. Although little or no use of these groups has been built in teacher preparation programs, as Ottaway[32] has noted, "It is the most obvious place for this type of training to occur."

Rogers[33] suggests that "if a group of people are willing to devote their time together, and if a facilitator trained in group dynamics and human behavior is available to these people, then both the self-acceptance of each individual as well as his trust and acceptance of others

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[31]M. H. Hall, "Carl Rogers Speaks Out on Groups and the Lack of a Human Science," Psychology Today, I, No. 7 (1967), 19-20.

[32]A. K. Ottaway, Learning Through Group Experience (New York: The Humanities Press, 1966), p. 155.

[33]C. Rogers, "Dealing With Psychological Tensions," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, I, No. 1 (1965), 10.

can be developed." In his work two years later, Rogers[34] elaborates on this idea.

> . . . with much freedom and little structure, the individual will gradually feel safe enough to drop some of his defenses and facades; he will relate more directly on a feeling basis (come into basic encounter) with other members of the group; he will come to understand himself and his relation, subsequently relate more effectively to others in his everyday life situation, will move from confusion fractionation, and discontinuity to a climate of greater trust and coherence.

Will this small group approach satisfy the criteria established for the intended experience of this study? When considering attitudinal change, what are the forces that bring about this change or what are the circumstances necessary for people most likely to change? Allport[35] points out that it is quite common for individuals to take on the same attitudes and values held by their close associates. Influence of parents, teachers, and friends is significant. Edwards[36] goes one step further to write that attitudes are developed in a social context and that "it is much easier to change the attitudes of individuals formed into groups of their own choosing than it is to

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[34]C. Rogers, "The Process of the Basic Encounter Group," in Challenges of Humanistic Psychology, ed. by J. F. R. Bugentual (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967), p. 262.

[35]G. Allport, "Attitudes," in A Handbook of Social Psychology, ed. by C. Murchison (New York: Murray and Murray, 1935), p. 28.

[36]R. Edwards, "Development and Modification of the Elusive Attitude," Educational Forum, XXVIII (1966), 355-358.

change the attitudes of people without group affiliation." Further support for Edward's idea is provided by Reiter,[37] who concluded that certain changes he discovered in college students could be attributed in part to the effects of an orientation program which employed small discussion groups.

The attitudinal shift expected from the group experience would have little meaning unless it was also expected that the behavior would be similarly effected. Bowers and Soar[38] looked at the effect of training on teachers. They explored behavioral and attitudinal changes of teachers after three weeks of half-day training sessions. They utilized measures of teacher personality and attitudes and teacher behavior in the classroom before and after the training sessions. The post training test showed that the teachers who had experienced training made significant changes in their attitudes toward pupils and democratic leadership. The effect of the training was to help the teacher realize his potential--to maximize the translation of his potentiality into actuality. Stated

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[37]H. Reiter, "Small Group Discussion and Modification of Attitudes," Improving College and University Teaching, XII (Winter, 1964), 24-25.

[38]N. D. Bowers and R. S. Soar, "Evaluation of Laboratory Human Relations Training for Classroom Teachers," Studies of Human Relations in the Teaching-Learning Processes, Final Report, V (1961).

differently, the teachers perceived themselves and their role differently.

Dealing more directly with perceptions, Burke and Bennis[39] tested their hypothesis that sensitivity training increases the accuracy of a person's perception of himself and his perception of others. The authors measured 84 persons in six (6) T-groups. It was found that the perceived actual self and the perceived ideal self were much closer to each other at the end of the training than at the beginning. It is also interesting to note that the shift was primarily in the ideal self which indirectly accounts for greater acceptance of the perceived actual self.

In one study, Bunker[40] analyzed long range effects of sensitivity training sessions at Bethel, Maine. He sent an open-ended perceived change questionnaire to experimental associates one year after the experimental group had experienced the training. He used a matched control group. Responses were coded for the number and kind of changes mentioned. Changes were considered verified when two or more associates mentioned the same change.

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[39] R. Burke and W. Bennis, "Changes in Perception of Self and Others During Human Relations Training," Human Relations, XIV (1961), 165-182.

[40] D. Bunker, "Individual Application of Laboratory Training," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, I, No. 2 (1965), 131-148.

Responses revealed that two-thirds of the experimental subjects and one-third of the control subjects made significant on-the-job changes. The verified change score correlated .32 with a trainer rating of change taken at the laboratory. There were three clusters of change affected by the training: increased openness, receptivity, and tolerance of differences, increased operational skill in interpersonal relations; improved understanding and diagnostic awareness of self, others, and interactive processes in groups.

It appears feasible that learning which takes place in the group experience could be carried into the work experience of the individual. Oshray and Harrison[41] attempted to relate the learning of the T-group to the person's work. They concluded that the diagnostic orientations learned about the self in relation to the T-group do transfer to learnings about the self in relation to work. In a footnote the authors point out that their findings were replicated at a second management conference, but not at a T-group conference. They suggest that changes are most likely to come about in programs where the individual's own behavior is a legitimate object of study.

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[41]B. Oshray and R. Harrison, "Transfer from Here-and-Now to There-and-Then: Changes in Organizational Problem Diagnosis Stemming from T-group Training," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, II, No. 2 (1966), 185-188.

A final requirement of the intended experience is the ability to deal with prejudice and the opportunity to develop an acceptance of differences. Rubin[42] explored the question of whether or not sensitivity training is effective in reducing prejudice. His hypothesis was that increases in self-acceptance resulting from sensitivity training, have the theoretically predictable but indirect effect of reducing an individual's level of ethnic prejudice. He studied participants in a two week summer program in sensitivity training sponsored by Boston University. The subjects served as their own controls throughout the use of tests administered for a two-week period before the training. A measure was made of the effect of sensitivity training on an individual's level of self-acceptance. A scale to measure acceptance of others was also used.

Pre- and post-test data included significant change at the .01 level of significance. One result of the study concerned the kind of sensitivity training most effective in reducing prejudice. The study showed that training which emphasized "personal development" rather than "group process" had greater influence on prejudice reduction.

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[42]I. Rubin, "The Reduction of Prejudice Through Laboratory Training," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, III, Nc. 1 (1967), 29-50.

Design Assumptions

The following assumptions, some drawn directly from the literature, others by inference, will be used as a foundation in designing a teacher training experience as described in Chapter I.

1. There is a need for an experience which deals directly with attitudes and values; which develops warm and understanding behavior, which allows a student to assess his perceptions of self and others, and to assess his behavior in terms of his perceptions; which will foster greater acceptance of self and others (Conant, Bestor, Combs, Rogers).

2. Attitudes and values can be changed with a small group/encounter group/T-group/or sensitivity training experience (Jacob, Rogers, Edwards, Reiter).

3. A group experience allows the group members an opportunity to examine their motives, feelings, and strategies in dealing with others. He learns also of the reactions he produces in others as he interacts with them (Bradford, Gibb, and Benne).

4. A group experience allows the group members to relate to their working role in relation to their self-assessment experience (Bowers, Soar, Bunker, Oshray, Harrison).

5. A group experience is effective in reducing prejudice and increasing an individual's level of acceptance both for self and others (Rubin, Burke, Bennis).

6. The principles of a sensitivity experience could be applied to teacher training programs allowing the students an opportunity to look closely at their own values and beliefs and to establish a personal teacher role expectation that will make their behavior complementary to a conscious belief system. Furthermore, the student will be more accepting of differences and will be able to deal more effectively with others due to improved interpersonal skills.

CHAPTER III

PROPOSED EXPERIENCE

Intention

It is with apprehension that the author proposes specific exercises to be used for students in teacher education as they undertake a self-assessment experience. Far too often, a reader misunderstands the intention of the author and prepares to internalize "the best way." For the author and his students, at the time of this writing, the exercises suggested were very effective. In offering this experience to twelve different classes, the need for flexibility and sensing on the needs of each individual group is fully understood by the author.

The most important considerations, such as when to use a particular task or simulation, when to focus on group trust or on listening skills, when to deal with positive and negative feedback, etc., are the responsibility of the instructor and his students. Always, the group should be working toward the time when the group will evolve as self directive. If at the end of the experience the group members are unable to relate honestly and openly with empathic behavior unless someone is there

to "facilitate" that behavior, it should not be expected that they have internalized the skills desired.

What is not shown in the experiences suggested is the feeling of frustration as the group accepts the responsibilities for the class activities. The instructor must keep the atmosphere positive enough for the group to continue building their conscious belief system and yet allow for the dissonance and questions which often accompany a learning adventure. The instructor must pick and choose from the exercises available, adding new, changing old, and always altering the exercises to satisfy the particular concerns at hand. In reviewing the list of exercises included in this work, the author finds many, equally as effective for examining beliefs and values, which have not been recorded. It is the kind of experiences, the feeling of what could occur, the excitement and warmth in finding yourself through others which the author hopes to convey and not the "exacting" mechanics of a particular experience.

Exercise Selection

The author recalls spending many hours with a student designing the exercise, "One-on-One," which appears in this work. Not long after, he found what could be the same design published in a journal. Laying claim to the originality of the exercises offered certainly seems

foolish, if not at least trivial. The author would like to point out that the exercises "Kerner Report," "First Names," "First Impressions," "Open Chairs," and "Prisoners Dilemma" were adapted from J. William Pffeiffer and John E. Jones in their Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Training. Whether or not they would still desire recognition as these exercises appear in their bastardized form is questionable. The same should be said for L. A. Longfellow, author of Body Talk, and R. Garry Shirts for Star Power.

In making the decision of which exercises to include, the author considered focus and involvement. The author first focused on skills such as giving and receiving feedback, listening, empathy, trust, honesty, etc. He set out to design or find exercises dealing with these concerns and after using them with his students, made selection based on student evaluations. The involvement or risk necessary to complete an exercise was again evaluated by the students and used in ordering the experiences. The "Island Game," for example, is intended to gradually shift an emphasis to the individual's values allowing him to project his beliefs through fictitious characters. The risk is small. Later, the "Double Ring Fish Bowl" requires a much more personal involvement and finally, the "One-on-One" exercise expects participants

to deal only with their honest feelings. The author has also made allowance for both verbal and nonverbal forms of communication to be experienced by the students.

Selected Strategies

The author feels he must put particular emphasis on the following points: (1) The experience presented in this work represents "one" approach to the problem but should not be considered the "only" approach. (2) Although in some of the strategies which follow the students are placed in a competitive situation, the author does not intend that competition is an enviable motivator. This should be clearly stated when critiquing appropriate strategies.

INTRODUCTIONS

Assessment: This may be the first experience for many students where they are expected to participate in the class. Students are nervous about talking to the group and will tend to "freeze" or have nothing to say.

Goals: I. To allow each member to introduce himself to the group.

II. To set the group atmosphere as one where the members are responsible for most of the input.

III. To begin to relate on an interpersonal level.

Materials: Egg timer.

Physical Setting: A room is needed that will permit the group to sit in a circle. The facilitator joins the group in the circle as one of the members.

Process: I. The facilitator briefly describes the goals. He elaborates on the atmosphere necessary for a meaningful class experience.

II. He explains that the person with the egg timer will use the three minutes to tell the group about himself. An attempt should be made to explore some of the feelings the person has or expectations he may have for the class. If the person chooses to stop talking with part of the

three minutes remaining, that time is used for other members to ask questions.

III. The facilitator turns over the egg timer and begins introducing himself to the class. Others follow in turn.

Critique: I. Did anyone feel uncomfortable? (Deal with why.)

II. What are the expectations of the experience ahead?

III. Is a conscious effort made by teachers to gain class rapport or is that left to chance?

IV. Is it good or even necessary that students and teachers relate outside the subject material being presented?

*Note: The facilitator should make every effort to know the group members, at least by first names, at the end of the introductions. The effect this has on the group is well worth the effort.

FIRST NAMES, FIRST IMPRESSIONS

Assessment: The group is aware of the expectation that they participate and share the responsibility for what happens in class. They understand the level of communication to be open and honest as opposed to superficial. They are aware of giving and receiving feedback both positive and negative.

Goals: I. To continue getting acquainted with other members.

II. To explore one's initial impact on others.

III. To study phenomena related to first impressions--their accuracy, their effects, etc.

Materials: One sheet of paper, a class list, and a pencil for each participant.

Physical Setting: Group is seated in a circle.

Process: I. The members have already introduced themselves during the previous class meeting. To refresh memories, the facilitator suggests that each person in the circle gives his first name and one or two facts about himself.

II. Members then turn their chairs around, away from the circle, so that they cannot see the other group participants. They are asked to write down as many of the first names as they can remember.

III. When finished, they turn their chairs back toward the group and find out whose names they forgot. They ask for additional information to attach to the names that they find difficult to remember.

IV. The group discusses names, feelings attached to them, difficulties that they experience in remembering them, their reactions to not being remembered, etc.

V. The facilitator hands out a class list and asks each member to note briefly their first impressions of every group member.

VI. The facilitator collects these sheets and reads them aloud anonymously. He reads all of the impressions that members have of the first participant. The first participant is asked to react to the accuracy of the impressions, his feelings while hearing them, what surprised him, etc. This is done with each member. (Variation: Each person reads alond the impressions he has written about each other member.)

Critique: I. The group discusses the accuracy of first impression data, the effects of first impressions, and their reactions to this experience.

II. How are first impressions formed by teachers and what effect do they have on student teacher reactions?

III. Can impressions be formed before a teacher meets his students or students meet their teacher?

IV. What effect can first impressions have on staff, administrator, parents, peers, etc.?

KERNER REPORT

Assessment: The group has started to experience openness in a relatively safe way. There has been no confrontation for leadership roles or threat of rejection. Before going further into self assessment, they should experience more of a "group feeling" since the thrust they build will be proportionate to the risks they take in being open and honest.

Goals: I. To compare the results of individual decision-making with the results of group decision-making.

II. To experience how others react to what you have to say.

III. To give and receive criticism in a productive way.

Materials: Worksheets and pencils.

Physical Setting: A room large enough for groups of five or less to discuss without disrupting other small groups.

Process: I. Each member is given a worksheet and allowed fifteen minutes to complete the task which will be explained on the worksheet. He must work independently during this phase.

II. The large group is broken down into small groups of five. The task on the worksheet is repeated with the group recording the correct answers. Group answers are arrived at by group consensus. All members of the group must agree before it becomes part of the group decision. (One hour.)

III. The facilitator announces the actual ranking sheet from the Kerner Report and directs the scoring process.

Critique: I. How did your individual score compare with the group score?

II. Who in the group was given the leadership role?

III. Was everyone encouraged to contribute? Were all contributions given equal consideration?

IV. Have any personal feelings surfaced because of the way members in the group acted?

V. Can teachers make some students feel that they have little to offer?

VI. What responsibilities does each person have in relation to the total group and to each member?

Kerner Report: Actual Ranking

First Level of Intensity

1. D Police practices
2. J Unemployment and underemployment
3. E Inadequate housing

Second Level of Intensity

4. H Inadequate education
5. C Poor recreation facilities and programs
6. K Ineffective political structure and grievance mechanisms

Third Level of Intensity

7. B Disrespectful white attitudes
8. F Discriminatory administration of justice
9. I Inadequacy of federal programs
10. L Inadequacy of municipal services
11. A Discriminatory consumer and credit practices
12. G Inadequate welfare programs

*It is not necessary to have the exact order, only the correct level of intensity.

Kerner Report Scoring

The facilitator will read the correct answers. Individuals will write these in the column provided on the work sheet. For every correct answer in the first level, the individual receives three (3) points. Each correct answer in the second level is worth two (2) and the third level one (1).

KERNER REPORT WORKSHEET

Introduction:

The U.S. Riot Commission Report (Kerner Report), in gathering data on twenty-four disorders in twenty-three cities, found that "although specific grievances varied from city to city, at least twelve deeply held grievances can be identified and ranked into three levels of relative intensity."

Instructions:

You are part of an evaluation team for the U.S. Riot Commission. Among the data gathered are twelve basic grievances of the blacks involved in the rioting. Having reviewed all the data, you must rank the grievances under three levels of intensity

	Individual	Group	Correct
First Level	1___	1___	1___
	2___	2___	2___
	3___	3___	3___
Second Level	4___	4___	4___
	5___	5___	5___
	6___	6___	6___
Third Level	7___	7___	7___
	8___	8___	8___
	9___	9___	9___
	10___	10___	10___
	11___	11___	11___
	12___	12___	12___

List of Grievances to be Ranked

A. Discriminatory consumer and credit practices
B. Disrespectful white attitudes
C. Poor recreation facilities and programs
D. Police practices
E. Inadequate housing
F. Discriminatory administration of justice
G. Inadequate welfare programs
H. Inadequate education
I. Inadequacy of federal programs
J. Unemployment and underemployment
K. Ineffectiveness of political structure and grievance mechanism
L. Inadequacy of municipal services

ISLAND GAME

Assessment: The group is aware of the need for open communications as necessary to better understand others and themselves. The experience should start to shift to a more personal situation. Members will be expected to take greater risks in trusting and believing in others. The task offered will allow members to support certain values without overtly claiming them as their own.

Goals: I. To present and support beliefs openly to other group members.

II. To listen and understand the position taken by other group members.

III. To look at group decision-making.

IV. To better understand others by the values they support.

V. To accept the position of others without rejection merely because it may be different from their own.

Materials: Chalk board.

Physical Setting: A room large enough to break into small groups with some privacy.

Process: I. The facilitator draws two islands on the board with some distance apart to represent water. On one island, he puts the letters B, M, and D.

(Representing Bertha, her mother, and David.)

On the other island, the letters C and S.

(Representing Charlie and Sam.)

II. The facilitator relates the following story to the group:

I have illustrated two islands far enough apart so that it is impossible to swim from one to the other. On this island lives Bertha, her mother, and David. On the other island are Charlie and Sam. At one time, Bertha and Charlie were very much in love. Somehow they were separated and ever since, Bertha has been very sad. She feels her future is doomed to sorrow until one day she finds David living on the island. She tells David of her situation and he confides in Bertha about having a boat that could take her to the other island and Charlie. The price he expects for this is that Bertha should sleep with him the night before they leave. Bertha is very unsure about what to do and goes to her mother to ask for advice. Her mother tells her to make her own decisions since she will have to live with the consequences. Bertha decides to comply with David's terms and is delivered to Charlie. Soon after arriving, guilt brings Bertha to share the entire story with Charlie. He refuses to accept her behavior and tells her to leave. Put out by Charlie, Bertha wanders around until she meets Sam. Sam offers her companionship and they decide to live together and make the most of the situation.

III. The facilitator asks everyone individually to rank the five characters in the story with one (1) being the best rating and five (5) the poorest. All five people are used and each number (1-5) can only be used once.

IV. The facilitator asks one of the members to choose another member whom he thinks will have a list very similar to his onw. This is done until

the group has broken down to dyads. The pairs are given ten minutes to reach consensus and form a single rating list.

V. The facilitator has one pair select another dyad to form a group of four and reach consensus. Time is left open.

VI. The facilitator can either continue to combine groups and work toward consensus or critique the experience at this point.

Critique: (Make a chart on the board to show the different rank-orders of each group. Have each group give a one word descriptor of each character and write that next to each character.)

I. Using the descriptor, what value is expressed as most important? Least? (It is interesting to note that because the mother allows Bertha to make her own decision, she is often ranked quite high. The descriptor often given the mother is "indifference." Charlie or David, often described as honest are rated low. When looking only at the descriptor column, we have indifference above honesty.)

II. Was everyone open to others' opinions?

III. Was anyone threatened by people coming on too strong?

IV. Did members work at getting everyone to contribute and not dominate?

VALUE CONTINUUM

Assessment: The group has shared feelings both directly and indirectly. They are aware of the other members' sensitivity and are willing to proceed with self-assessment. This experience should remove ambiguity or defenses and provide an opportunity for members to display more trust.

Goals: I. To have the members honestly evaluate themselves and share their feelings with the group.

II. To give and receive feedback constructively.

III. To be open and honest in what you say at a "feeling" level rather than a "thinking" level.

IV. To be empathic to what is being said about other members.

Materials: One sheet of paper per group.

Physical Setting: Enough room for small groups to talk without disturbing the other groups.

Process: I. The facilitator breaks the large group into smaller groups with no more than four to a group.

II. Each person is asked to think of two words which are opposites and deal with feelings, i.e., happy and sad, love and hate, etc.

III. Each person in turn shares with his small group his two words and gives a brief description of the feelings.

IV. Each small group selects one of the pairs of words which they would like to discuss.

V. The facilitator gives each group a sheet of paper with a continuum already drawn and marked off. (A straight line with one (1) at one end and ten (10) at the other.) The group writes one of the words at one end and the other is placed at the opposite end.

VI. The facilitator asks that the paper be circulated in the group and each person place his name where he sees himself. No discussion is made at this time.

VII. When everyone has placed himself, each member takes his turn explaining why he has placed himself in the position marked on the continuum. Following his explanation, members may ask questions.

VIII. Each group takes a turn introducing its members to the large group. One person introduces another describing the words used and where he placed himself and why.

Critique: I. How open were the members?

II. What could be done to help people move toward the positive end of the continuum?

III. How well did people listen?

IV. Does it help to know what people feel about themselves?

TRUST WALK

Assessment: The students have experienced some trust on a verbal level of communication. This exercise serves to round out their exposure by relating trust on a non-verbal level and to introduce the next area of communications. Namely, nonverbal communication.

Goals: I. To experience the degree of difficulty one has in relying on another person for his/her own welfare.

II. To provide comfort to another person by understanding and removing their fears.

III. To recognize the degree of trust we can put in others and they in us and the gradual development of that trust.

IV. To exhibit perception with senses other than sight of self and others.

Materials: None.

Physical Setting: It would be advantageous to hold this exercise at a time when the weather will permit the students to go out-of-doors. If not, the members should be allowed to "roam" the building.

Process: I. Time allowed--about one hour. Each member of the group chooses a partner. Taking turns, one person leads the other who closes his eyes (note--remove contact lenses. They hurt closed eyes.)

Leader introduces his partner to as many different kinds of experiences through touching, hearing, smelling, tasting, running, walking, as possible. After 15 minutes, switch roles and repeat for other partner.

II. After both partners have experiences being led and leading, sit down together and talk about your experiences.

III. Return to group and share experiences and feelings about them with the others.

IV. Members may want to initially talk to each other as they experience the trust walk. They should spend at least 10 minutes with total non-verbal communications.

Critique: While Being Blind:

1. What kinds of realities did you perceive from your senses?
2. What sensations did you have while being led? How did you feel about putting your physical trust in someone else?
3. Did your feelings change from the beginning to the end?
4. What did your leader communicate to you non-verbally and how did he do it?

While Being Leader:

1. How did you feel about being entrusted with someone else?
2. What did you try to communicate non-verbally?
3. What did you sense about your partner non-verbally?

Which experience did you prefer, being the leader or being led?

Did you learn anything about your partner that you hadn't known before?

How was this relevant to the teacher-student relationship?

BODY TALK

Assessment: The group has experienced some of the verbal communication skills necessary to operate in the affective domain. Before proceeding with more encounters, the group should have further exposure to nonverbal communications.

Goals: I. To experience nonverbal sharing of feelings.

II. Remove some inhibitions of expressing yourself to others.

II. Become aware of communicating meaning to others, either intentionally or unintentionally nonverbally.

Materials: A deck of cards, chalk board.

Physical Setting: A room large enough to permit free movement.

Process: I. The facilitator should briefly review the goals of the game to the group.

II. Describe the game to the group

Body talk is designed to express emotions in nonverbal forms. Often, unknowingly, these movements accompany or replace our verbal communication. In this game, the suit on the cards will determine the mode of expression, and the card will determine what emotion is to be expressed.

(a) Clubs (hand)--when a card has a club on it, you may use only hands and arms to express the emotion. You may touch others, but not use your voice, body posture or facial messages.

(b) Diamonds (head)--when a card has a diamond on it, you may use facial expression, head movement and any form of nonverbal vocalization. Growl, hum, scream or purr, but do not use words.

(c) Hearts (interpersonal)--when a card has a heart on it, you express the emotion by involving another person or persons. You may move the other person to an appropriate posture, but you may not speak. He does not respond. You may use sounds and your whole body.

(d) Spades (whole body)--when a card has a spade on it, you may use your whole self, but not your voice.

III. List the cards used on the board, i.e., 8, 9, 10, Jack, Queen, etc., and have the group assign emotions they wish to deal with. More than one card could represent the same emotion, i.e., if the group decides to work only with joy, hope, anger, love, and hate, the cards should be divided evenly for these emotions. If the 8 and 9 have been assigned joy, and a player holds the 8 of clubs, he would communicate joy with his hands only.

IV. To play:

(a) Players sit in a chair.

(b) Cards are dealt to the left, dealing the same number to all players, and leaving at least three cards. The remaining cards, the draw deck, are placed face down in the circle.

(c) The player on the dealer's left selects a card from his own hand and lays it face down in front of him. He is the expresser, the remaining players are the receivers. He uses the part of his body described by the suit to express the emotion assigned to the card. When you hold two or three cards of the same emotion, you must play all if you play one.

(d) Each member checks his hand to see if hs has a card that matches the emotion (the suit need not match) that was expressed. If so, the receiver calls by laying that card (or cards) face down in front of him. If not, he passes.

(e) When all have played, cards are turned face up. If one or more receiver matches the expressers card, he puts it and all matching cards on the bottom of the draw-deck. Any receiver who puts down a wrong card or cards must return it to his hand and draw the same number of penalty cards. If no receiver matched the expresser's card, then the expresser failed to communicate. He returns his card or cards to his hand and draws the same number of penalty cards.

(f) The first person to get rid of all his cards is the winner. Variations of the rules described usually improve the game and make it more meaningful for a particular group. Example: rather than having each person pick the emotion they express, have the person next to them make the selection. This keeps players from avoiding the more difficult expressions.

Critique: I. How accurate can nonverbal communications be?

II. Would it be easy for educators to use this form of communication in their interpersonal dealings? Would it be easy to misuse?

III. Do children use nonverbal communications more often/differently/more freely than adults?

IV. How did this experience make you feel?

ROLE PLAY

Assessment: The group has experienced both verbal and nonverbal forms of communication. Discussion has allowed opportunities to express feelings about how students, teachers, and administrators behave in educational institutions.

Goals: I. To act out the role perceptions students in teacher education have.

II. To stimulate discussion concerning how closely educators' behavior complements their professed beliefs.

III. To examine some of the values and beliefs expressed by students comparatively to student behavior.

IV. To begin to focus, through the critique, on the need for a "conscious beliefs system" to better evaluate our behavior.

Materials: Paper for each small group.

Physical Setting: A room large enough for small groups to meet for planning and to move about freely.

Process: I. The facilitator breaks the group into smaller groups of three. (Larger groups tend to exclude some participants when the role playing starts.)

II. Each group is given a piece of paper and asked to construct a situation where a student and staff member are having a confrontation. For example: "A student is brought to the principal's office by his English teacher for refusing to memorize the Declaration of Independence."

III. Collect the papers and redistribute them to different groups. Allow the groups ten to fifteen minutes to plan their presentation. (Group members will each take a role and act out the confrontation.) Caution the participants to behave not as they would, but as they perceive the people who normally fill the roles behave.

Critique: I. Were the roles realistic?

II. Do authoritarian figures use logic and reason in dealing with subordinates or merely their authority?

III. Does the student see himself behaving differently if given the opportunity to fill a position of authority?

IV. Can students give examples of administrators and teachers who behaved in a positive way if the presentation was negative or in a negative way if the presentation was positive?

CLASSROOM INCIDENTS

Assessment: Same as Role Play

Goals: Recognition of how values are operationalized in actual teaching situations.

Materials: See process.

Physical Setting: Classroom with movable chairs and desks.

Process: (See written incidents which follow critique.)

I. Each of the three incidents is based on a real teaching experience. Each one is meant to be structured in the same manner. The paragraphs describing each role should be cut apart so that each paragraph can be handed to and seen by only the role player. (A more realistic role play where incidents and reactions are spontaneous.) The "teacher" should be decided first (either volunteer or chosen). The role player is asked to leave the room and then given the paragraph description.

II. Once the "teacher" has left the room, other role players can be picked or volunteer. They too, should leave the room so that the instructor may go to each one, including the "teacher," to see if there are any questions.

III. No further information should be given, nor should any role player know what the structure of another's role is. The members of the group who

are not role playing should have no information other than having seen who is playing what role.

IV. The teacher is instructed to arrange the classroom as he would in a real teaching situation, desks, etc. When the scene is set, the role play begins.

V. The instructor should not take any part in the role play, but sit inconspicuously and observe, noting value-oriented verbal and nonverbal behavior for later discussion. (Important that no clues or modeling affect role players' spontaneous reactions.) The role play is continued to where the teacher makes a decision and the consequences are obvious. If the situation develops to the "I'll see you after class," cut and go to an after class situation.

Critique: I. Do you agree with how the teacher handled the situation? If not, how would you have done it differently?

II. Would you deal with this situation differently on a grade school, junior high or high school level?

III. Consider the "why" of the student's behavior in the incident.

IV. Consider the "why" of the teacher's behavior in the incident.

V. What teacher values became apparent through his/her behaviors?

(Use any prior knowledge of the role playing teacher to show how previously stated values, e.g., what is important, was or was not determined in the role play. Why or why not?)

Role Play Teaching Incident A

Teacher Background

In your seventh-grade class you have a girl who has refused to participate voluntarily. Other teachers have told you that she is a troublemaker and that the only way to deal with her is to let her do what she wants or else throw her out of class.

You are having a class discussion and Pam is talking aloud to other students and laughing with them. You decide to deal with it and this is what you say to her: "Is what you're saying something you want to share with all of us?"

Student Background

Talk to others aloud, laugh, giggle. When teacher asks you a question, tense up, become extremely hostile and threatening and scream at the teacher: "You can't make me say or do anything, mother fucker! Try it!" After the teacher responds, continue threatening and refusing to surrender to the teacher in any way.

Role Play Teaching Incident B

Teacher Background

You have a boy in your 7th grade class who delights in mischievous behavior. He likes to tease verbally and to do things to "bug" his peers and his teachers. You will overhear this boy and another student discuss an incident. In fact, there were no witnesses to this incident and no one really knows who did it or when it was done. The assistant principal is feared and hated by all the students.

Student 1 Background

When you enter the room, another student will begin teasing and accusing you of having torn the gym mat. Although you have been in other mischief in school (which you admit), you really did not do this--and proclaim your innocence to everyone. The assistant principal (whom all the students hate and fear) calls you out of class, accosts you about this incident in the hall. You claim your innocence and fight back verbally and physically.

Student 2 Background

You have heard that the gym mat was torn and have also heard that Student 1 did it. As you enter the room with him, you begin teasing and accusing him of having torn the gym mat. You believe he did it because he's been in lots of similar trouble before.

Assistant Principal

You are the school "heavy" whose assignment is to discipline the troublemakers. In reality you enjoy slapping the students around because it is a way you can take out your own frustrations. You have heard a rumor that Student 1 tore the gym mat and have decided to rough him up for doing it. You don't like this boy anyway because he causes trouble all the time. You interrupt a teacher's class, tell him "I want to see you" and wait for him in the hall. When he comes out, you loudly accost him verbally and physically.

Role Play Teaching Incident C

Student Background

You are at your desk with a textbook in front of you. What you are actually looking at is a "pornographic" magazine which you have the textbook in front of.

Teacher Background

You have given the students study time to read ten pages in their textbook. After they begin reading, wander around the room to check at what point each student is in his reading.

OPEN CHAIRS

Assessment: The group is well acquainted with the necessary skills of meaningful communication used in the self-assessment process. The depth of their trust and honesty is only limited by the responsibility each member assumes to which he is willing to help other members evaluate their behavior. His assistance, although critical at times, must be offered in a positive, communicative way.

Goals: I. To stimulate group discussion of educators through a role playing experience.

II. To allow members to observe and give feedback to others on how well they interacted with honest feelings, how open they were to others' values, and if the group atmosphere remained positive.

III. To go beyond normal role playing by having participants project their own beliefs rather than their perceived beliefs.

Materials: None.

Physical Setting: Circle of six or seven chairs in the center of the room with an outer circle of chairs to accommodate the remainder of the group.

Process: I. The facilitator selects an inner circle group of no more than five. He asks them to sit in the chairs provided for the inner group, leaving one or two chairs vacant depending upon the size of the group. The inner group is told that they should engage in a discussion as a school faculty, projecting "their" true beliefs. He suggests a topic to start the discussion such as, "the most important thing a teacher can give a student is . . ."

II. Individuals from the outer group are told they may join the inner group when they feel impelled to contribute some data or have inner group data clarified. The outer group individuals may stay only for the time required to process their input and then must vacate their chairs to make room for other outer group individuals. Under no circumstances may they become permanent members of the inner group. It is not necessary to have an outer group member in the inner circle at all times; rather, this is a provision for outer group participation when individuals desire it.

III. After twenty minutes, process the experience. Have the groups change positions and allow the new inner group twenty minutes for discussion.

Critique: I. Did the members participate honestly?

II. What was the group atmosphere?

III. Did anyone threaten others by their behavior rather than make them comfortable in projecting his beliefs honestly?

DOUBLE RING FISH BOWL

Assessment: Experiences which follow will deal much more directly with specific areas of interpersonal communication. The degree of risk involved is no longer considered an input by the facilitator, but instead, directly related to the willingness of the group to venture further.

Goals: I. To receive direct feedback about how you react to what is being said.

II. To check and see if people are hearing what you intend them to.

III. To improve listening skills.

Materials: None.

Physical Setting: A room large enough to arrange the group into an inner and outer circle.

Process: I. The facilitator briefly describes the goals of this experiment. He asks that each person pick another in the group whom he feels he can trust.

II. After forming dyads, one of the members becomes part of an inner circle while the other positions himself in the outer circle and directly across from his partner.

III. The inner circle is given twenty minutes to discuss how honest they have been with the

group. The members of the outer group are not to enter into the discussion at any time. Their task is to concentrate on the person to whom they are assigned in the inner circle. They should note all verbal and nonverbal communication which involves their partner.

IV. When the time has expired, the partners get together and the inner group member receives direct feedback about his behavior. The facilitator should emphasize the need for complete honesty in giving feedback, i.e., did the person get defensive when challenged, did he participate, did he help others to offer their opinions, did he express himself with facial expression that seemed different from what he was saying, etc. After allowing ten to fifteen minutes for the feedback, the inner and outer groups are formed with the members reversing their roles. The process is repeated. (A new topic might be, "What could the group do differently to better achieve their objectives?")

Critique: I. Did anyone receive any unexpected feedback?

II. Would it be helpful for teachers to have their behavior checked closely from time to time? Could students supply the feedback?

III. Was it difficult to give honest feedback? Was it threatening to receive honest feedback?

IDENTIFYING CONCERNS

Assessment: Students are ready to go beyond identifying instances of poor interpersonal skills and will attempt to concentrate on concerns which have become part of their behavioral pattern.

Goals: I. To isolate behavioral traits which are considered negative or damaging to interpersonal relationships.

II. To continue interacting openly and honestly stressing empathic development.

Materials: Paper and pencil for each member.

Physical Setting: A room large enough for groups of four to interact without disrupting each other.

Process: I. The large group is broken down to groups of three or four. After isolating themselves around the room, the facilitator briefly describes the goals of the exercise and gives each person a small piece of paper. The participants are asked to write their names on the paper. The facilitator then collects these papers and passes them out in the same group so that each member now has the name of another member within his small group. (This should be done randomly and it may be wise to not let the participants know who has their name.)

II. The facilitator passes out a second sheet of paper asking that each person write down three weaknesses or negative feelings they have about the person whose name they have drawn. (Allow twenty minutes.)

III. The facilitator collects these sheets and they are passed to the person about whom the comments are written. After allowing time to read the papers, each member takes a turn reading the three concerns aloud to the small group. After each has read his sheet, the group will react to what has been written by either supporting the concern or challenging it. When this is completed, anyone in the group can add to the concerns.

Critique: Allow the small groups to form one large group and openly discuss this experience. The facilitator should try to keep the group on the subject. If the group feels some of the concerns were realistic, the facilitator should suggest that the group move on to the next exercise, "changing behavior," or possibly repeat this experience with different small groups.

FORMING STRATEGIES

Assessment: The students have identified and accepted some concerns others have about their behavior. (Group members should have participated in the previous exercise, "Identifying Concerns.")

Goals: I. To have the group assist individuals in setting up strategies for changing behavior.

II. To have the group offer continuous evaluation on the individual's progress.

Materials: None.

Physical Setting: A room large enough for small groups to interact without distraction from other groups.

Process: I. The facilitator should stress the opportunity for members to be helpful by reviewing the goals of this exercise.

II. Small groups of four or five should be formed. Each participant should share with the others the concern which he has chosen to work on. He may suggest a strategy himself or merely ask that the group help him in forming one. The strategy should be stated in performance terms. Example:

Concern--the person avoids feedback from group members.

Strategy-the person will ask for feedback from the group at least two times during the next three group meetings.

III. The members meet in the large group and share the strategies they have formed. It may be advantageous to prepare a list with the proper names, their concerns, and the strategies they are using. This could be duplicated and passed out to the class.

Critique: Re-state the goal and allow open group discussion with little direction.

STAR POWER

Assessment: The group has not dealt directly with authority and confrontation situations. Star Power is provided to allow a change of pace for the group and also to raise some very critical questions on power, authority, racism, etc. (Note: Since this exercise is much longer and more involved than the others being suggested, the format used thus far will not be followed. The method of presentation used is hoped to be clearer.)

This is a game in which a low mobility three-tiered society is built through the distribution of wealth in the form of chips. Participants have a chance to progress from one level of society to another by acquiring wealth through trading with other participants. Once the society is established, the group with the most wealth is given the right to make the rules for the game. They generally make rules which the other groups consider to be unfair, fascistic and racist. A revolt against the rules and the rule-makers generally ensues. When this occurs, the game is ended. The game is useful for raising questions about the uses of power in a competitive society.

Preparing for the Game

Dividing the Participants and Assigning Chips

The participants are divided into three approximately equal groups, names of which are: squares, circles, and triangles. Each person wears a symbol representing his group, i.e., the squares wear a square symbol, the circles a circular symbol and triangles a triangular symbol.

Each participant is given five chips. Each square receives one gold chip, one green chip, and the remaining three randomly selected from the colors red, white, and blue. Each circle is given one green chip and the remaining four selected from the colors red, white and blue chips. The triangles are given a random assortment of red, white and blue chips. The only exception to this distribution is that one circle and one triangle receive the same distribution as the squares, i.e., one gold, one green and a random assortment of red, white, and blue.

Summary of Rules for Running Star Power

1. Prepare distribution of chips.
2. Divide participants into three groups.
3. Distribute symbols to appropriate groups.
4. Distribute chips.
5. Explain rules for trading session.
6. Have the group trade for 10 minutes or so.
7. After ten or so minutes stop trading session and have the participants return to their original group.
8. Have them record scores on slips.
9. Give three bonus chips to each group.
10. Explain the rules for bonus chips to each group.
11. Give the participants five or ten minutes for bonus chip session.
12. While they are in bonus group session, collect all the chips originally distributed and prepare them for the second round of distribution.
13. End bonus chip session.
14. Revise the score on the board to reflect points received from the bonus chips.
15. Promote high scoring persons to squares and demote low scoring squares to circles or triangles.

END OF FIRST ROUND

16. Repeat process.
17. After second or third round give rights to make rules for the game to the squares.
18. Play it by ear from then on.

One note of caution. Generally groups need to talk about the game in personal terms or, "who did what to whom" before going on to the issues involved. This can be an important experience in interpersonal relationships,

helping members of the group understand their reaction to authority, competitive situations, status or self-concept of any of the participants. If you see the discussion going beyond the point of friendly rivalry, then you might direct it more forcibly toward the issues involved rather than the personalities. If in the unlikely event that the squares are being badly scapegoated, then you might point out that every group that had participated in the game thus far had reacted in essentially the same manner and in general try to direct the discussion toward the question of whether any group put in such a situation would act any differently.

Determining the Chips Required for Each Round

Plan on at least four rounds.

The TOTAL number of chips required equals: 5 X number of participants.

The number of GOLD chips required equals: the number of squares plus 2.

The number of GREEN chips required equals: the number of squares plus the number of circles plus 1.

The number of RED, WHITE, and BLUE chips required equals: 5 X number of participants minus the total number of green and gold chips required. There should be about an equal number of red, white, and blue chips.

> Example: Suppose you have 34 people and divide them into 12 squares, 12 circles and 10 triangles. The total number of chips required equals: 5 X 34 or 170. The total number of GOLD chips required equals 12 (the number of squares) plus 2 or 14. The total number of GREEN chips required equals 12 (the number of squares) plus 12 (the number of circles) plus 1 or 25. The total number of RED, WHITE, and BLUE chips required equals: 170 - (14 plus 25) or 131 which means about 44 of each color.

Explaining the Rules

1. Tell the participants that this is a game that involves trading and bargaining and that the three persons with the highest scores will be declared the winners. They will probably ask later in the game if there is going to be a group winner. The answer is: "The three

individuals with the highest scores will be declared the winners." Do not tell them that a group is going to be given the right to make the rules for the game.

2. Explain the following scoring system to the participants: (This should be placed on the chalk board along with the additional points shown below.)

    Every GOLD chip is worth 50 points.
    Every GREEN chip is worth 25 points.
    Every RED chip is worth 15 points.
    Every WHITE chip is worth 10 points.
    Every BLUE chip is worth 5 points.

    Additional points are given if a person is able to get several points of the same color.

    Five chips of the same color are worth 20 points.
    Four chips of the same color are worth 10 points.
    Three chips of the same color are worth 5 points.
    No extra points are given for two chips of the same color.

    Example: A person's total score if he had 5 GOLD chips would be 250 plus 20 for 5 chips of the same color for a total of 270 points. If he had four BLUE chips and one RED chip, his score would equal 4 X 5 (for the BLUE chips) plus 15 (for the RED chip) plus 10 points for distribution of the same color for a total of 45 points. Three REDS and two BLUES would equal a total of 45 points. Three REDS and two BLUES would equal 45 + 5 + 10 or 60 points. Five REDS: 75 + 20 or 95 points.

3. Distribute the chips as outlined previously to the squares, circles and triangles.

4. Explain the following rules of bargaining.

    a. They have ten minutes to improve their scores.
    b. They improve their scores by trading advantageously with other squares, circles and triangles.
    c. Persons must be holding hands to effect a trade.
    d. Only one for one trades are legal. Two for one or any other combinations are illegal.
    e. Once participants touch the hand of another participant a chip of unequal value or color must be traded. If a couple cannot consumamte a trade they may have to hold hands for the entire ten minute session.

f. There is no talking unless hands are touching. This Rule Should be Strictly Enforced.
g. Persons with folded arms do not have to trade with other persons.
h. All chips should be hidden. This Rule Should be Strictly Enforced.
i. Do not reveal that the squares are given chips of a higher value than the circles or triangles.
j. Any other rules that you deem appropriate.

Start the Trading Session

1. After the rules have been explained, start the trading session. Tell them it will last 10 minutes.

2. During the trading session, your assistant should put each participant's initial on the blackboard.

3. After 10 minutes of trading session, have each group return to their circle of chairs.

4. Have the participants compute their scores for the trading session and record the scores on the blackboard opposite the person's initials.

5. Explain the rules for the bonus session. The rules are:

   a. Hold up a bonus chip (a double chip) and tell them that this is a bonus chip.
   b. Give each group three chips.
   c. Tell them that each chip is worth 20 points.
   d. Their task during the bonus session is to distribute the bonus chips to members of their group.
   e. The chips must be distributed in units of 20 or more, that is, one person might receive all 3 bonus chips and 60 points or three people might receive 1 chip each worth 20 points, but 6 people could not receive 10 points each.
   f. They have five minutes to distribute the bonus chips. If the groups have not distributed the chips at the end of the five minutes, the points will be taken back by the director and no one will receive them.
   g. The decision regarding the distribution of chips must be unanimous vote.
   h. Participants can eliminate people from their group by a majority group vote. (Eliminated people can form another group.) They should be a triangle group.

6. Answer any questions.

7. Start the bonus chip bargaining session.

8. After about five or ten minutes, end the bonus chip bargaining session.

9. Have those people who receive bonus points record them on the blackboard opposite their initials.

10. Put these people with the highest total scores in the square groups. If there is a circle or a triangle who has a higher score than a square, have them trade groups. Any changes should be announced to the group and it generally is made known that so and so who was a square has become a circle, because they did not receive enough points, and so and so who was a circle, is now a square because they received a higher number of points than a square. In any event, it is important that the group know that the squares are made up of those people with the highest scores.

11. Start the second round.

    (Note: Repeat this cycle--bargaining session, bonus session, reclassification for one or two times or until the participants understand the process and the fact that the squares are high scorers.)

12. After about the second bonus session, announce that the squares now have the authority to make the rules for the game and that while any group can suggest rules for the game the squares will decide which rules will be implemented. You might tell the squares that they might want to make rules like: re-distribute the chips on a more equal basis, require triangles and circles to bargain with the squares even though they have their arms folded, require triangles and circles to give squares the chips they ask for regardless of whether they want to trade or not, etc. Announce any rules that the squares establish to all of the participants unless they want them kept a secret.

13. From then on, play it by ear.

What is likely to happen is that the squares will make very tough rules that protect their own power. This has happened in every organized group that we have played it with so far. The circles and triangles will either give up, organize, become hostile, or commit an act of frustration and defiance. Stop the game when it is evident that the squares have made rules which the others consider unfair and fascistic. This is generally after two to four rounds of the game. After the game, gather the group together and discuss the implications of the game for the real world.

Some questions you might want to discuss at the end of the game are:

a. Are there any parallels between the system set up by the game and the system or sub-system in which we live?
b. Does the game say anything about the nature of man?
c. Is it the nature of man to seek inequality? To attempt to be better than his fellow man, to seek for more privileges and wealth? If yes, is there anything wrong with such strivings? Can they be legitimized? Is there a moral alternative to man's search for inequality?
d. Would it have made much difference if the people who were the circles had been the squares?
e. Were the squares acting with legitimate authority?
f. Are there any parallels between the game and the race problem, the campus problems, the problems faced by our founding fathers?
g. If an entire group acts in unison, such as the circles and triangles frequently do in going against the squares, do their actions have more legitimacy than when a person acts alone?
h. Is the square a masculine or feminine symbol?
i. Would it be possible to develop a game which emphasizes cooperative behavior and is fun to play?

PRISONERS' DILEMMA

Assessment: The students will deal directly with levels of trust. They have already displayed degrees of trusting in previous exercises. This exercise will permit continuous sharing of feelings connected with trusting.

Goals: I. To explore the trust between group members and the effects of trust betrayal.

II. To demonstrate the effects of a collaborative posture in intra-group relations and a competitive posture in inter-group relations.

Materials: Chalk board.

Physical Setting: Two groups will be followed which must be completely isolated. (They may not communicate either verbally or nonverbally.) In the center of one room, two chairs should be placed for team representatives.

Process: I. The facilitator explains that the group is going to experience a simulation of an old technique used in interrogating prisoners. (He avoids discussing the objectives of the exercise.) The questioner separates prisoners suspected of working together and tells one that the other has confessed and that if they both confess they will get off easier. The prisoners' dilemma is that they may

confess when they should not and that they may fail to confess when they really should.

II. The two teams are formed, named, and seated separately. They are instructed not to communicate with the other team in any way--verbally or non-verbally--except when told to do so by the facilitator.

III. The facilitator explains that there will be ten rounds of choice, with the red team choosing A or B and the blue team choosing either X or Y. Choices will determine the following points:

AX - both teams win 3 points
AY - red loses 6 points, blue wins 6 points
BX - red wins 6 points, blue loses 6 points
BY - both teams lose 3 points

IV. Round one is begun, with teams having three minutes in each round to make a decision. The facilitator instructs them not to write down their decision until he instructs them to do so, to avoid making hasty decisions. On signal, both teams write their decisions and the facilitator collects the papers.

V. The choices of the two teams are announced for round 1 and the scoring for that round is agreed upon. Rounds 2 and 3 proceed the same way. (A variation may be to not announce the results of round 3 until the completion of round 4.)

VI. Round 4 is announced as a special round, with the points pay off doubled. Teams are instructed to send one representative to the center to talk before round 4. (If the results of round 3 were not announced, the representatives are not allowed to exchange that information.) After three minutes of consultation with each other, they return to their teams and round 4 begins. The number of points for the outcome of this round is doubled.

VII. Rounds 5-8 proceed as in the first three rounds. (Information can be kept confidential by the facilitator to emphasize the trust between the two groups.)

VIII. Round 9 is announced as a special round, with the points payoff squared. Representatives meet for three minutes, and then the teams mark their choices, and then the two choices are collected and announced. The number of points awarded to the two teams for this round is squared.

IX. Round 10 is handled exactly as round 9. Payoff points are squared.

X. Announce the final point total.

Critique: I. What were some of the considerations within group discussions for trusting or not trusting the other group?

II. What were the effects of having representatives from each group meet? What are the implications for student and teacher relations?

III. Review the goals of the exercise and allow the students to make comments on how the goals were reached.

IV. Open expression of feelings.

ONE-TO-ONE

Assessment: This experience would probably be considered most threatening by the group. It is structured to promote interaction at a feeling level. Intercourse which deviates from the feeling level will be picked up by other members and challenged. The group members have experienced the skills necessary for this exercise through previous exercises.

Goals: I. To allow each member to exchange honest feelings with every member in the group in a one-to-one situation.

II. To have your attempts at openness evaluated by the receiver.

III. To study the experience of self-disclosure.

Materials: Suggestion sheet, class list.

Physical Setting: A large room should be arranged so that dyads may position themselves with privacy from others. (Tables or chairs could be used to section the room into smaller meeting areas.)

Process: I. The facilitator asks the members to form pairs and arrange themselves as described in the physical setting.

II. He hands each member a suggestion sheet and a class list sheet. Each person will move around

the room so that he interacts with every other member.

III. The facilitator announces that each pair will remain together for at least five minutes. (The time is dependent on how many members there are and how long the exercise period will be.) During that time, one person will initiate a question from the suggestion sheet and the other will answer as honestly as he can. (If participants have specific concerns, they may deviate from the sheet.) They will continue taking turns initiating questions and giving answers until time is called. The facilitator should point out that the limited time also serves to bring people directly to the point and does not allow for superficial concerns.

IV. The participants move to form new dyads. One minute is allowed, before starting the new exchange, for each to score the degree of openness the previous person attained. (One (1) is used for very open, and five (5) is given for very closed. The entire continuum from 1 to 5 may be used.) The facilitator should be sure that the members are aware that they are scoring not the actual degree of openness, which remains known only to the initiator, but the feeling of openness the initiator gives the receiver.

V. After all members have interacted with each other, the sheets are collected. The class list sheets will be tabulated for use in another exercise.

Critique: I. Did this experience bring the members closer?

II. What was the effect of knowing that you were being evaluated for openness?

III. Can we evaluate affective teaching? Why?

IV. Should students feel that their teachers are open in their relationship? Can the teacher be completely open?

V. What could this kind of experience do for a faculty? What other educational uses might there be?

(Note: The author has had very good results in taking the data from this exercise and applying it to the "Double Ring Fish Bowl" exercise described earlier. A cut off was made and in the inner ring were members perceived as open, while those in the outer ring were those perceived as less open.

ONE-ON-ONE

Participants may initiate questions suggested on this sheet or deal with personal concerns. Check the time allotted by the facilitator.

1. What do you feel for me?
2. What could I do to make us closer?
3. Have I ever done anything to make you feel bad/good?
4. Have I ever hurt you?
5. Is there a limit to what we can share?
6. How would you like me to feel about you?
7. Do you think I have tried to understand you?
8. Have you tried to understand me?
9. Do you think I would make a good teacher? Why?

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The problem addressed in this work is primarily a concern for the teacher role perception internalized by students in teacher education. This role determination is made over a long period of time as our future teachers are subjected to a control model throughout their school experience. The teacher's role proposed in this study is "humanistic" to the extent of allowing students to establish a teacher role derived from careful self-assessment of values and beliefs; to assist the student in developing a conscious belief system; and, to promote consistency in what the potential teacher professes and how he will behave.

In Chapter I, the author presented the problem and developed the intent and structure of the study. The study proceeded on two interrelated levels: (1) a limited empirical level--that is, identifying the existing situation and establishing feasible means for effecting change through examining the empirical literature available. Using this base to up-date the author's assumptions

(2) suggestions were made and an experience was designed to broaden teacher education. The focus of the experience is to allow students to select a learning theory most consistent with their personal belief system and to promote a more accepting attitude toward personal differences.

In Chapter II, the review of the literature, the author first concentrated on the existing situation. Studies reviewed led the author to the following assumptions:

1. There is an attempt to closely define the specifics of the teacher's role. This causes very little flexibility in acceptable behavior for teachers.

2. The teacher's behavior can partly be attributed to the role conceptions held by the teacher. Teacher role conception is regarded as part of the formal training for prospective teachers. There seems to be a greater emphasis on conformity rather than on creativity.

3. There is a definite expectation for teacher training programs to bring the education students' role perceptions more in line with the perceptions held by teachers.

4. As student teachers progress through their course of professional training, there is a high point for disparity between role perceptions held by students and those held by teachers occurring in the second or third year. Perceptions of the student then begin to slant in

the direction of the teacher. In most situations, it is the second and third year when education students begin their formal education classes (methods, etc.). Students seem to be encouraged to have more "realistic" expectations by their evaluators.

5. There are strong pressures brought to bear on the student in education who does not profess and behave in a way which is consistent with established policies. Students have been denied the opportunity to student teach for reasons which are obviously value laden. There appears to be an overt attempt at promoting singularity in our educators.

After reviewing studies which dealt with alternative experiences, the author derived the following assumptions:

1. There is a need for an experience which deals directly with attitudes and values; which develops warm and understanding behavior; which allows a student to assess his perceptions of self and others, and to assess his behavior in terms of his perceptions; which will foster greater acceptance of self and others.

2. Attitudes and values can be changed with a small group, encounter group, T-group, or sensitivity training experience.

3. A group experience allows the group members an opportunity to examine their motives, feelings, and

strategies in dealing with others. He learns also of the reactions he produces in others as he interacts with them.

4. A group experience allows the group members to relate to their working role in relation to their self assessment experience.

5. A group experience is effective in reducing prejudice and increasing an individual's level of acceptance both for self and others.

6. The principles of a sensitivity experience could be applied to teacher training programs allowing the students an opportunity to look at their own values and beliefs and to establish a personal teacher role expectation that will make their behavior complementary to a conscious belief system. Furthermore, the student will be more accepting of differences and will be able to deal more effectively with others due to improved interpersonal skills.

In Chapter III, the author presented some guidelines for setting up a working experience which could be incorporated in existing teacher education programs and also outlined some strategies which could be used in that experience. The strategies are arranged in an order which required greater degrees of risk taking as the experience progresses. Also, the design of the experience sets the expectation for the group to become self directive as the group members relate honestly and openly with empathic behavior.

Conclusions

1. As pointed out by the literature and consistent with the author's expectations, teacher education programs do not stress diversity and flexibility in establishing the "teacher role." With the teacher's behavior at least partly attributed to the teacher's role perception, there can be little hope for a change in behavior without a specific attempt to change the role perception.

2. It is possible for individuals to change attitudes and values in a small group, encounter group, T-group, or sensitivity training experience. Members can also reduce prejudice and increase levels of acceptance both for self and others.

3. Given the existing situation, it is possible to design a small group experience which would deal directly with educational concerns and specifically with the role of the teacher.

Recommendations

The theoretical model set forth in this study needs to be validated in a number of ways. First, pre- and post-testing should be conducted to establish the degree of perceptual difference which could be attributed to the recommended experience.

Second, the placement and frequency of such an experience should be considered. The effect of this

experience as an introductory course on one hand, or a post-student-teaching course on the other could greatly change the focus and outcome.

Third, using the basic encounter group theory, variables not discussed in this study should be examined. Some considerations would be: size of the group; racial composition of the group; frequency and length of the group meetings; amount of structure offered by the facilitator; setting for the group meetings; and voluntary or required participation.

Fourth, in developing the problem in Chapter I, assumptions were made which could serve as topics for further study. Among these are the need for disposition to change; the need to view the teacher's role as open to many styles; and the advantage of having many teaching approaches available to our learners.

Beyond the empirical research, there is a question raised which is beyond the scope and limitations of this study. This study proposes a more accepting attitude for our students yet it does not consider the attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs of the educators who evaluate these students. Certainly one of the deterrents of individuality built into our programs as they exist is the evaluation of student teachers by supervisors who require certain behavior. The author would like to recommend the proposed experience in this study as having

far reaching possibilities for adoption in graduate study and faculty training. The main emphasis being made in the training of our teachers, both present and future, is to satisfy the task demands of teaching. Very little is being done to prepare teachers for the personal demands encountered.

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