A COMPARISON OF TWO INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACHES IN

AN INTRODUCTORY TEACHER EDUCATION COURSE

Ву

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

In the last several years, many schools of teacher education have been in the process of developing alternative models for teacher preparation in an attempt to resolve some of the dissatisfaction with conventional programs. Citing some of the criticisms lodged against traditional programs, Schalock made the following statement:

Little is known about student interest or abilities or background or projected plans; little is known about the effectiveness of a given instructional-learning experience for students who vary on any of these qualities, and little is known about the appropriateness or usefulness of the learning objectives established for the preparatory program, from either a short-term or long-term point of view.

Tyler posed four questions for program developers to consider before making any change in the structure of a teacher preparation plan:

- 1. What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?
- 2. What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
- 3. How can these educational experiences be effectively organized?

¹H. Del Schalock, "BEPD, NCERD, and Teacher Education That Makes a Demonstrable Difference," The Power of Competency-Based Teacher Education: A Report, ed. Benjamin Rosner (Boston, 1972), p. 123.

4. How can we determine whether those purposes are being attained?²

The assumptions that educators make concerning the purposes of a program or course provide a foundation for its organization and operation. If those involved in educational planning believe the purposes of a teacher preparation plan are (1) to provide for differences among students in the accumulation of experience, extent of achievement, and rate and style of learning, (2) to guide students toward the mastery of certain behaviors thought to be essential to effective teaching, and (3) to provide for the development of personal qualities of the individual, then a competency-based teacher education model may well be an appropriate answer for program change. 3

Schmieder defined competency-based education as a system that places high emphasis on the specification, learning, and demonstration of those competencies that are of central importance to the effective practicing of a given profession or career. In general, such programs have the following characteristics:

- 1. Competencies which are (a) derived from explicit conceptions of teacher roles, (b) stated so as to make possible assessment of a student's behavior in relation to specific competencies, and (c) made public in advance.
- 2. Criteria which are (a) based upon specified competencies and (b) explicit in stating in advance expected levels of mastery.

Ralph W. Tyler, <u>Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction</u> (Chicago, 1950) cited by Donald A. Myers and Frances Klein, "Educational Programs," <u>Encyclopedia of Educational Research</u>, ed. Robert L. Ebel (4th ed.; New York, 1969), p. 398.

³Charles E. Johnson and Gilbert F. Shearron, <u>Specifying</u>
<u>Assumptions</u>, <u>Goals</u>, <u>and Objectives for Teacher Education</u> (Athens, Georgia, 1972), pp. 4-5.

⁴Allen A. Schmieder, <u>Competency-Based Education: The State of the Scene</u> (Washington, D.C., 1973), p. 51.

- 3. Assessment which (a) uses the student's performance as the primary source of evidence, (b) takes into account evidence of the student's knowledge relevant to planning for, analyzing, interpreting, or evaluating behavior, and (c) strives for objectivity.
- 4. The student's rate of progress through the program is determined by demonstrated competency rather than by time or course completion.
- 5. The instructional program is intended to facilitate the development and evaluation of the student's achievement of competencies specified.

Certain advantages of a competency-based program seem to be applicable to individual courses of a teacher education plan. For the students taking a course, the objectives and expectations would be made clear at the outset. For those persons involved in the operation of the course, competency-based characteristics could help in planning the experiences to be included, in identifying needs in terms of resources, and in evaluating the effectiveness of the course. 6

Need for the Study

More than ever before, students and teachers are demanding increased personal and professional growth, and courses in a teacher education program must be responsive to this development. Bowles wrote that aspects of the competency-based program provide a refinement that will permit individualization and personalization and still

Stanley Elam, Performance-Based Teacher Education. What Is the State of the Art? (Washington, D.C., 1971), pp. 6-7.

Daniel L. Merritt, "Developing a Performance Base for Field Experiences: A Grass Roots Approach" (Paper prepared for presentation at the annual Association of Teacher Educators meeting, 1973, Chicago, Illinois), pp. 2-3.

⁷F. Douglas Bowles, "Competency-Based Teacher Education? The Houston Story," Educational Leadership, XXX (March, 1973), p. 511.

afford structure. An obvious problem in determining the curricular structure of a course has been the lack of clarity concerning the factors that produce particular learning outcomes. McDonald⁸ also pointed out the need for identification of levels of teacher competency and for the development of compatible instructional materials.

A number of colleges and universities have developed competency-based materials for their programs of elementary teacher education. 9

Dick and Dod1¹⁰ have emphasized the need for development of a variety of instructional materials with specified learning outcomes and a defined set of procedures to evaluate those outcomes.

Much of the material used in the various competency-based programs has been presented in the form of modules. Weber and Rathbone learning activities that facilitate the student's achievement and demonstration of a specific objective or set of objectives. Modules represent an attempt to systematically present material and learning experiences in a competency-based teacher education (CBTE) program.

⁸Frederick J. McDonald, "Evaluation of Teaching Behavior,"

<u>Competency-Based Teacher Education: Progress, Problems, and Prospects, ed. W. Robert Houston and Robert B. Howsam (Chicago, 1972), p. 74.</u>

⁹Joel L. Burdin and Kaliopee Lanzillotti (eds.), <u>A Reader's</u>
<u>Guide to the Comprehensive Models for Preparing Elementary Teachers</u>
(Washington, D.C., 1970).

¹⁰Walter Dick and Norman R. Dodl, "Instructional Technology: Process and Product," <u>Competency Based Teacher Education</u>, ed. Dan W. Andersen, et al. (Berkeley, 1973), p. 85.

¹¹Wilford A. Weber and Charles Rathbone, "Developing Instructional Strategies," <u>Competency Based Teacher Education</u>, ed. Dan W. Andersen, et al. (Berkeley, 1973), p. 61.

Purpose of the Study

Before adopting a competency-based program, it would seem advisable to not only study the CBTE plan but also to compare certain characteristics of that approach with aspects of the present teacher preparation program. Such a study would provide an indication of the effectiveness of the CBTE curricular approach, and the results could then be used as a basis for any future change in the current program. Although it was impossible to generalize directly to an entire CBTE program from research conducted in an individual course, this study applied one element of a competency-based program to the instruction of a course in order to discern the effects of the approach.

Statement of the Problem

This study examined the utilization of competency-based modules. Modules were developed for instructional use in an introductory elementary education course. The results of the modular approach were compared with the effects of the conventional lecture-discussion strategy.

Hypotheses

The review of the literature revealed no definitive experimental studies with modular instructional approaches used as the independent variable. References to the use of modules as alternatives to conventional approaches were rather common. In the absence of experimental and theoretical evidence regarding the superiority of either approach, the following null hypothesis was formulated:

There will be no significant difference between achievement scores

of students having a modular instructional approach and students having a lecture-discussion instructional approach. It was further hypothesized that no significant difference would exist between the attitudes of students in the two treatment groups.

Definition of Terms

Introductory Education Course

EDUC 2450, "Observation and Participation in the Elementary School," is a one credit-hour course offered by Oklahoma State University that is designed for freshman and sophomore students interested in a career in elementary education. Often the student who has decided upon teaching as a profession bases that decision on misconceptions and idealism with little understanding of the complexities of teaching. Therefore, the course is based upon the idea of early awareness of and involvement in the profession. The purposes of the course are to inform prospective teacher candidates about the role, demands, and rewards of teaching and to provide them with a basis for making a commitment to the preparation program and service in the profession. The course combines on-campus seminars with weekly observations of two-and-one-half hours in the local elementary schools.

Modular Instructional Approach

An instructional approach utilizing modules is designed to provide students opportunities for self-pacing and independent study of selected material that relates to the objectives of the course. The modules are guides that direct student learning behavior in studying a particular topic. The seminars are designed to allow time for students to work

on the modules, to seek help from the instructor and peers, and to share personal values and beliefs.

Lecture-Discussion Instructional Approach

The lecture-discussion instructional approach is the conventional method utilized in teaching the course. Information is presented in the form of lectures with questions and discussion interspersed at various points. Opportunities to discuss personal and observational experiences are also provided to the students.

Scope and Limitations of the Study

This study was concerned with the achievement of selected cognitive objectives set forth as goals of the course EDUC 2450, "Observation and Participation in the Elementary School." A course evaluation was secured at the end of the study in an attempt to assess some of the attitudes associated with the course and the method of instruction.

Students achieve many of the intended performance objectives of this introductory education course while working as teacher aides in the local public elementary schools. Nevertheless, since there is a variation in type and scope of activities performed by the college students among and within the different schools, this study did not attempt to evaluate those experiences.

Organization of the Study

This chapter presented a general description of the study.

Chapter II contains a selected review of the literature. Chapters III and IV will present the design of the study and an analysis of the data.

Chapter V includes conclusions and implications of the study with suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER II

A SELECTED REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Research Related to Aspects of a Competency-Based Program

In reviewing the state of competency-based education, Schmieder 1 pointed out some of the distinguishing characteristics of Competency-Based Teacher Education (CBTE) programs. Among the specific aspects of CBTE that he felt could enhance teacher education programs, Schmieder mentioned the sharper focus on objectives stated in behavioral terms and the individualization of learning through the use of modules with individual assessment and feedback. The first section of this chapter discusses selected research related to the two aspects of CBTE programs.

Modules

Because modules contain the basic instructional elements of objectives, learning activities, and evaluation, Lawrence² stated that they may provide clues as to how well competency statements guide the measurement process. However, Foster argued that modularization restricts the parameters of the learning process to the mastery of

Allen A. Schmieder, <u>Competency-Based Education</u>: The State of the Scene (Washington, D.C., 1973), p. 6.

²Gordon Lawrence, "Delineating and Measuring Professional Competencies," <u>Educational Leadership</u>, XXXI (1974), p. 300.

the particular objectives on which the module is based and thereby denies the teacher candidate the opportunity to explore and to learn in situations that are more humanistic. He stated:

Teacher candidates have different interests and abilities; they approach teacher education with varying cognitive styles. Thus, they should not be restricted to a single mode of instruction.³

The fact that modular material is largely self-instructional lead Elam⁴ to state that modularization may be attractive to only those students who are efficient, well-organized, and sufficiently self-controlled to pace themselves through large chunks of material.

Several studies have attempted to determine the effectiveness of the utilization of modules. Hurst⁵ examined the effects of learning modules for probing-inquiry teaching on elementary education students. The two treatment groups were an individualized instructional group using modules as learning packages and a group using modules in a classroom setting. A control group received regular classroom instruction. The results found a significant increase in number of objectives achieved by the two treatment groups but no significant difference between the knowledges, attitudes, and preferences of subjects in the individualized and group instruction. The findings indicated that learning modules could produce changes in the knowledge and attitudes of

³Clifford D. Foster, "Analyzing the PBTE Approach," <u>Educational</u> <u>Leadership</u>, XXXI (1974), p. 308.

⁴Stanley Elam, Performance-Based Teacher Education. What Is the State of the Art? (Washington, D.C., 1971), pp. 20-21.

Joseph B. Hurst, "Competency-Based Learning Modules in Elementary Teacher Training: A Comparison of Individualized and Group Instruction for Probing-Inquiry Teaching," <u>Dissertation Abstracts International</u>, XXXIV (1973), p. 1752.

elementary teacher trainees. The modules used in both individualized and group settings proved to be equally effective in teaching specific objectives.

The modular technique may be as effective for use with in-service training as with pre-service programs. Merwin conducted a study in which two self-instructional modules were developed and field-tested with an in-service group of thirty-two secondary level social studies teachers. The modules were designed to develop teacher competencies in employing questioning strategies. A 50-item multiple choice test was employed as the criterion measure. It was used for both pre- and post-testing in assessing the subjects' achievement on the objectives of the modules. The results indicated that there were significant differences between pre- and post-test scores. Merwin concluded that the use of modules may have had a significant effect on the post-test scores, but it was pointed out that the relatively short time span between pre- and post-testing may have effected the findings.

Some studies indicated that the modular approach may not be any more effective in producing teaching competencies than more traditional methods. Fardig made an evaluative study to determine the effectiveness of a set of original modular learning materials designed to facilitate student teacher acquisition of four basic teaching competencies. The module evaluation design included pre- and post-treatment videotaping of student teacher classroom lessons made approximately

William C. Merwin, "Competency-Based Modules for In-Service Education," Educational Leadership, XXXI (1974), pp. 329-32.

⁷Glen Ernest Fardig, "Four Basic Learning Modules for Student Teachers: Their Rationale, Development, and Evaluation," <u>Dissertation Abstracts International</u>, XXXIII (1973), pp. 5597-598.

fifteen weeks apart. The student teaching program failed to produce striking gain in proficiency and mastery of instructional skills. The self-administered learning modules did not prove to be particularly effective in changing teaching behavior in the student teaching setting, though the students perceived them to be helpful.

A modular approach and the traditional lecture approach to the teaching of introductory college poetry were compared by Oseroff. 8

Both groups' achievement was significant at the .05 level, but the traditional treatment group exceeded the achievement gain of the modular group. Attitude levels did not change or differ significantly, although there was a slight favoring of the modular group. According to the above mentioned studies no definitive statement could be made for the superiority of the modular instructional approach.

Objectives

Another aspect of competency-based plans has been the use of objectives. In order to identify competency-oriented materials that could be used as the basic software for instructional modules, Joyce et al. 9 described and analyzed a selection of performance-based materials available as of April, 1971. Few of the programs studied met all the behavioral standards of specificity of objectives, adequate assessment measures, and identification of required levels of performance. About one-third needed further specification of objectives, about one-fourth

Abraham Oseroff, "A Comparison of a Modular and a Traditional Approach to Introductory College Poetry Instruction," <u>Dissertation</u> Abstracts International, XXXIII (1973), pp. 5478-79.

Bruce Joyce et al., <u>Materials for Modules: A Classification of</u> Competency-Oriented Tools for Teacher Education (New York, 1971), p. 1.

lacked assessment measures, and almost all lacked identification of required performance levels.

The use of behavioral objectives in the modular approach may serve two functions according to Merrill and Towle. One function may be to provide direction to students' learning. By determining exactly what is expected of them, objectives could assist students in discriminating between relevant and incidental or illustrative content. A second function of objectives might lie in the fact that objectives could provide some organization to the subject matter.

In order to test the function of providing students with advanced information of what is expected of them, Merrill and Towle 11 conducted an experimental study with graduate students in a course in programmed instruction. The thirty-two subjects took six units of instruction either with or without behavioral objectives. No significant differences were found between the groups on unit test scores, test-item-response latencies or study time. However, the availability of the objectives decreased the level of the students' anxiety for the first three units.

Bazik's¹² research was concerned with the evaluation of an instructional plan of individualized instruction in which students were informed of specific behavioral objectives in a mathematics course for prospective elementary school teachers. An experimental group of

¹⁰P. F. Merrill and N. J. Towle, <u>The Effects of the Availability of Objectives on Performance in a Computer-Managed Graduate Course</u>, Tech. Memo No. 47 (Tallahassee, 1972).

¹¹ Ibid.

¹²A. Matthew Bazik, "Evaluation of a Plan for Individualizing Instruction Through Informing Students of Behavioral Objectives in a Mathematics Course for Prospective Elementary School Teachers at Elmhurst College," <u>Dissertation Abstracts International</u>, XXXIII (1973), p. 5594.

twenty-one students was provided statements of behavioral objectives along with self-evaluation exercises. The control group of fourteen students studied under the traditional lecture-discussion-recitation instructional format. No significant difference was found between the experimental and control groups. However, Bazik reported an enthusiastic reception of the objectives approach by the experimental group.

In contrast to the two previously mentioned studies, Engel¹³ found significant differences in the post-test and three-week interval retention test scores between objective and no-objective groups in favor of the behavioral objectives group. The subjects were forty-eight elementary education majors in a partially programmed instruction mathematics course. The objectives group had received a cover sheet stating the objectives of the unit.

The preciseness with which objectives are stated may have an effect upon achievement. Dalis 14 conducted a study to determine the effect of precise instructional objectives on students' learning and to investigate various ways of communicating in writing that which was to be learned. The 143 subjects were selected from five tenth-grade health and safety classes. Participants were randomly assigned to one of three groups: precisely stated instructional objectives, vaguely stated instructional objectives, and short paragraphs of health information. The students receiving precise information on what was expected

¹³R. S. Engel, An Experimental Study of the Effect of Stated Behavioral Objectives on Achievement in a Unit of Instruction on Negative and Rational Base Systems of Numeration (unpub. Master's thesis, University of Maryland, 1968).

¹⁴ Gus T. Dalis, "The Effects of Precise Objectives upon Student Achievement in Health Education," <u>Journal of Experimental Education</u>, XXXIX (Winter, 1970), p. 20.

of them prior to instruction showed greater achievement than those who received vague or related information.

The effects of providing behavioral objectives to students in a college economics course during a four-week treatment period were investigated by Tiemann. Significant differences were found using retention test scores as criterion, with the behavioral objectives group scoring higher than the general objectives group. More favorable attitude, as measured by a course evaluation questionnaire, was also associated with the provision of behavioral objectives.

The superiority of precisely stated objectives was also indicated in a report by Rothkopf and Kaplan. ¹⁶ Intentional and incidental learning was studied as a function of the specificity with which the objectives were described. The major finding was that more intentional learning resulted from specific rather than broad objectives. Performance on both intentional and incidental learning was considerably higher when instructional goals were explicitly stated than when expectations were described in general terms.

Hyman pointed out that the specificity of objectives may restrict the curriculum. He stated:

Specific objectives lead to specific curriculuar elements; and the net result of this is a loss of flexibility which is needed in a program serving a wide range of students varying in age, interest, and ability. Thus, though specificity in objectives may

¹⁵P. W. Tiemann, "Student Use of Behaviorally-Stated Objectives to Augment Conventional and Programmed Revisions of Televised College Economics Lectures" (Paper read at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, 1968, Chicago, Illinois).

¹⁶ E. Z. Rothkopf and R. Kaplan, "Exploration of the Effect of Density and Specificity of Instructional Objectives on Learning from Text," Journal of Educational Psychology, LXIII (1972), pp. 295-302.

help in determining a focus, the same specificity may 17 serve to restrict the curriculum in actual operation.

Tyler 18 pointed out that clarity is not the same as specificity in stating objectives. He stated that an educational objective need not be specific in order to be clear, attainable, and capable of assessment. Specific learning objectives have often been confused with clear and appropriate educational objectives.

This section presented selected literature concerned with two aspects of the competency-based approach to teacher education. The following section reviews literature dealing with lecture and discussion approaches.

Studies Related to Lecture and Discussion Methods

The lecture method, a more or less traditional approach in college teaching, has often been compared to more innovative methods. Siegel 19 presented a lesson in Gestalt theory to students via lecture, videotape, audiotape, and printed notes. Comparing the effectiveness of the various media, it was found that the group with the printed notes performed best on an examination of the material, followed by the lecture and videotape groups who fared equally well, and by the audiotape group who did the poorest. Siegel tested for prolonged retention two months later, and each group showed a significant drop in the level of

¹⁷ Ronald T. Hyman, "Means-Ends Reasoning and the Curriculum," Teachers College Record, LXXIII (February, 1973), pp. 393-401.

¹⁸ Ralph W. Tyler quoted in Justin M. Fishbein, "The Father of Behavioral Objectives Criticizes Them: An Interview with Ralph Tyler," Phi Delta Kappan, LV (September, 1973), p. 57.

¹⁹ Howard B. Siegel, "McLuhan, Mass Media, and Education," <u>Journal of Experimental Education</u>, XLI (Spring, 1973), pp. 68-70.

retention, but the relationship between the various medias remained the same.

In a study designed to test the effectiveness of lecture, fortysix students in a course in oral pathology at the University of Kentucky were divided into two groups: I and II. Group I attended only the first seven lectures. Group II attended only the last seven lectures. All of the material covered in the lectures could be found in the reading assignments. All students attended laboratory sessions, but the time allotted for unattended lectures was given to the students to use as they felt proper. At the end of each seven-lectures section of instruction, a thiry minute objective type exam was administered. Questions in the first test referred to material covered during the first half of the course; test two contained questions pertaining only to the second half of the course. Results indicated that the students having the lectures did better on the objective tests. The laboratory sessions apparently served to reinforce what had been heard or learned in the lectures. For those students not having the lectures, the probable main role of the laboratory sessions was to help them distinguish the important items in the reading material. The experimenters concluded that the lectures served as directional devices that provided guidance for study. 20

In defense of the lecture, Kyle 21 stated that the method holds the possibility of reaching the greatest number of students in the most

²⁰Sheldon Rovin, Ernest Lalonde, and John H. Haley, "An Assessment of the Lecture," <u>Improving College and University Teaching</u>, XX (Autumn, 1972), p. 327.

²¹ Bruce Kyle, "In Defense of the Lecture," <u>Improving College and University Teaching</u>, XX (Autumn, 1972), p. 325.

exciting way. Any fault of the technique is probably due more to the professor's poor speaking ability or disorganization of thinking than to the method.

In order to determine student opinion of lectures, Birkel²² polled forty-two college students preparing to be secondary teachers. Negative responses to the lecture method far outnumbered the positive ones. Almost half of the students disliked the lack of interaction as contrasted with class discussion.

Atherton 23 compared the lecture, discussion, and independent study instructional methods. College students were taught using fictitious material as part of the content of a course in social welfare. The results indicated no significant differences on subtests for recall of facts, understanding of content, and application of principles. However, Atherton pointed out that the study should be repeated with better controls and a less questionable sampling procedure.

A relatively small portion of educational writings have dealt with the discussion method. The experiments indicating that students learned equally well from discussion and lecture were usually made in psychology courses according to Hobbs. 24 In such studies the students' learning was often tested by objective exams that did not measure the intellectual skills, insights, and altered attitudes with which

Lane F. Birkel, "The Lecture Method: Villain or Victim?" Peabody Journal of Education, L (July, 1973), p. 298.

²³Charles R. Atherton, "Lecture, Discussion, and Independent Study Instructional Methods Revisited," <u>Journal of Experimental Education</u>, XL (Summer, 1972), p. 24.

John N. Hobbs, "Discussion in the College Classroom," Journal of General Education, XXI (January, 1970), p. 252.

discussion deals.

Landreth²⁵ stated that discussion is facilitated when each member of the group understands the purpose of the discussion topic. Unlike conversation, the boundaries of discussion are drawn around a subject that requires some common experiences and background information. Unless certain prerequisites are met, Marshall²⁶ warned, participation in a discussion will not necessarily advance understanding of the issue or affect progress toward a solution.

In contrast, some types of discussion focus on student opinion where no solution is sought. The goal of such discourse is free and open discussion on the topic at hand. The utilization of the discussion, therefore, may depend primarily upon the purposes to be fulfilled by the course.

Bausell and Magoon²⁸ attempted to determine whether general college student ratings were biased in favor of one type of instructional method or another, and what the structure of those differences was. Ratings on twenty-nine items were compared across five different methods of instruction: (1) lecture, (2) lecture with lab, (3) lecture with some discussion, (4) discussion with

²⁵ Garry L. Landreth, "Dynamics of Group Discussion," Clearing House, XLVIII (October, 1973), p. 127.

²⁶ Max S. Marshall, "Discussing Discussion," Peabody Journal of Education, XLVII (March, 1970), p. 262.

²⁷Bill M. Clark and Marl E. Ramsey, "Why Small-Group Instruction?" National Association of Secondary School Principals, LVII (January, 1973), p. 68.

²⁸R. Barker Bausell and Jon Magoon, "Instructional Methods and College Student Ratings of Course and Instructors," <u>Journal of Experimental Education</u>, XL (Summer, 1972), p. 29.

some lecture, and (5) discussion. Ratings differed according to course organizational features in three independent ways but with straight discussion and mixed instructional methods preferred by students.

Summary

This chapter reviewed selected literature related to competency-based modules and behavioral objectives. Two of the studies cited indicated that modules were an effective means for achieving specific teaching competencies. Other studies reported that the modular approach was no more effective in producing competencies than traditional methods.

Although it was impossible to assert that the use of behavioral objectives increases student performance from the studies cited in this chapter, two conclusions were derived from the research. One, students seemed to feel that objectives served a useful purpose of identifying what was to be learned. Two, the clearness with which objectives were stated seemed to augment their usefulness.

Research related to lecture and discussion methods was also presented. Although the lecture method apparently was an effective technique to define and reinforce students' learning, the studies indicated that students preferred the discussion approach or methods mixed with discussion.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Sample

Students enrolled in two sections of EDUC 2450, "Observation and Participation in the Elementary School," at Oklahoma State University during the spring semester of 1974 were the subjects for this study. Members of the two sections of the course were randomly assigned to groups, and those groups were randomly assigned either the modular or the lecture-discussion instructional treatment. For purposes of analysis, the two lecture-discussion groups were combined to form a total membership of thirteen students. The total number of subjects in the modular group was also thirteen. The sex and classification of the two treatment groups are shown in Table I.

TABLE I
SEX AND CLASSIFICATION OF TWO TREATMENT GROUPS

Group	S	ex		Classifica		
	Male	Female	Freshman	Sophomore	Junior	Senior
Módular	2	11		5	6	2
Lecture-discussion	1	12	1	6	5	1
TOTALS	3	23	.1	11	11	3

Procedure

The first two class meetings of the semester were devoted to course orientation and assignment of students to local elementary school classrooms. Starting with the third week, the treatment groups began meeting on alternate weeks. Therefore, the experimental treatments were applied during a ten-week period with each group meeting five times. Groups were recombined into their respective sections the final two weeks, the first of which was used for sharing of term projects. The evaluative instruments were administered the final week of the semester.

All students were given schedule sheets outlining their particular meeting dates. The modular groups' sheets explicitly described course requirements and expectations. Lecture-discussion groups were told that they would be discussing several areas of concern to elementary teacher education. Sample copies of the four groups' information sheets may be found in Appendix A, pages 43-47.

Both groups dealt with five major areas of educational concern as topics. Anticipating that students' perceptions of the school environment move from atomistic to more holistic awarenesses, topics were ordered to coincide with this movement. Material was also arranged according to increasing difficulty of factual information presented.

All groups used audio-visual materials chosen to supplement the discussion and modular topics. Media presentations were made at the beginning of the class periods to allow the remaining time for lecture-discussions or individual study of the modules. A listing of suggested media materials for an introductory education course is given in Appendix B, page 49.

Instructional Modules

Instructional modules were developed for the five topics to be studied by the modular treatment groups. Each of the modules was designed to include the following items:

- (1) Title specifying the area of concern;
- (2) <u>Directions</u> explaining how to proceed through the modules:
- (3) Objectives indicating the cognitive abilities to be acquired;
- (4) <u>Introduction</u> setting forth some background or rationale for the study;
- (5) Content presenting material pertinent to the topic;
- (6) Posttest evaluating students' understandings of the materials; and
 - (7) Answer Sheet indicating the correct responses with short explanations for those answers.

Two items usually included as components of competency-based modules were not considered to be essential items for this study.

First, pretests were not developed, due to the experimenter's desire that students work through all the modules. It was felt that the results of such a procedure would be a truer indication of the approach and, therefore, be more useful for comparison purposes. Second, suggested references and audio-visual materials were not incorporated in the modules in order that other instructors or students who desired to use them might select from a variety of supplemental materials those believed to be most beneficial. Copies of all five modules are presented in Appendix C, pages 50 through 107.

Instruments

Two instruments were administered to all students participating in the experiment. The mastery test was developed to sample students' cognitive knowledges based upon the five topics of study. An attitude evaluation was given to assess students' feelings about the course, topics dealt with, and the method of presentation.

Mastery Test

Thirty questions were formulated and administered to students enrolled in an educational foundations course. From those thirty items, ten were deleted due to the obviousness of the correct response. The remaining twenty questions consisted of sets of four items each drawn from the five topics of study. The questions were sequenced to match the presentation of the modules, and each set of four questions was further arranged in order of expected difficulty from easy to hard. Questions were written in the same form as that used for the module posttests; i.e., a statement of a situation was followed by three choices from which the student was asked to select the one that best completed the statement. The mastery test is given in Appendix D, pages 108-110.

Attitude Evaluation

Five specific questions to be answered "Yes" or "No" were asked of students in the attitude evaluation. The questions with a brief rationale for each are given below.

(1) Did you feel free to express yourself in this class? Due to the characteristics of the discussion approach, the experimenter believed that treatment might produce greater freedom of expression among the students in the lecture-discussion groups than that among the students in the modular groups. The question was designed to test the experimenter's idea.

(2) Were the topics presented pertinent to this type of course?

Although there are many topics with which an introductory education course for elementary teaching majors might deal, the topics chosen by the experimenter were felt to be a representative sample of those of major concern. The rationale for the question is, therefore, self-evident.

(3) Did you feel the method used to present topics was an appropriate one for this class?

This question was a crucial one for this study since the usefulness of any method of instruction depends not only upon its success in
developing students' knowledges and skills but in the ability to produce
pleasurable feelings about the process of learning as well.

(4) Was there a relationship between the topics presented and your observation experience?

The emphasis of this question was placed upon the topics' relationship to the students' experiences in the local elementary schools.

It was the experimenter's belief that one should complement the other.

(5) At this point in time do you plan to become an elementary classroom teacher?

This question was asked of students at the beginning of the course. It was repeated at the end of the semester in order to determine any changes in the number of students planning to enter the elementary education field.

Space was provided for students to write additional comments about the instructor, the course, and the topics. The attitude evaluation is presented in Appendix E, page 113.

Statistical Treatments

In order to test the null hypothesis of no significant difference between achievement scores of students having the modular instructional approach and students having the lecture-discussion instructional approach, a t test 1 for differences between means was employed. The Fisher exact probability test 2 was used to make a similar comparison of the data obtained from the attitude measures.

The t test assumes that scores are independent observations drawn from normally disbributed populations with equal variance. To determine if the variances of the two treatment groups differed significantly, the F test 3 was calculated.

The Fisher test is a nonparametric technique for analyzing discrete data. Since the sample sizes were less than twenty and all cell frequencies were not as large as five, the use of the Fisher test was appropriate for testing the attitudinal data.

Because the mastery test was constructed by arranging each set of four questions in the order of module presentation, the items of one set were not assumed to be conceptually equivalent to the items of

¹James L. Bruning and B. L. Kintz, <u>Computational Handbook of Statistics</u> (Glenview, Illinois, 1968), pp. 9-12.

²Sidney Siegel, <u>Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences</u> (New York, 1956), pp. 96-103.

Richard P. Runyon and Audrey Haber, <u>Fundamentals of Behavioral</u>
<u>Statistics</u> (2nd ed.; Reading, Massachusetts, 1971), p. 199.

another set. Therefore, a test that would measure the reliability of the instrument as a whole was selected. The split-halves reliability coefficient 4 was used for this purpose. The twenty items were assumed to be valid measures since a representative set of questions was formulated for each of the five topics.

No measure of reliability of items on the attitude evaluation was secured. Because of the number and nature of the questions, a test-retest comparison was fruitless. The validity of the attitudinal instrument was established by examination of the individual questions. The items appeared to be appropriate as terminal evaluative measures.

Summary

Twenty-six students enrolled in EDUC 2450, "Observation and Participation in the Elementary School," during the spring semester of 1974 were subjects for this study. The experiment sought to determine any differences in the effects of a modular instructional approach and a lecture-discussion approach. At the end of the semester the students in both treatment groups were given a mastery test and an attitude evaluation. The t test and the Fisher exact probability test were used to statistically compare the groups' responses on the two instruments. The following chapter reports the results of the comparison. Samples of additional comments taken from the attitude evaluations are included in the analysis but were not statistically treated.

⁴ Bruning, pp. 187-88.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Results of the Mastery Test

A twenty item mastery test was administered to test the null hypothesis of no significant difference in the achievement of students having a modular instructional approach and students having a lecture-discussion approach. Each test item was assigned a value of 5 points; therefore, a maximum possible score of 100 was established. The achievement scores of students in the two treatment groups are presented in Table II, page 29.

The t test for a difference between two independent means was utilized in comparing the scores of the treatment groups. Because the use of the t test assumes homogeneity of variance, an F test was employed. The calculated F-ratio of 1.60 was not significant at the .05 level (critical value of F = 3.28). It was assumed that both samples were drawn from a population with the same variances. A t score of 1.34 was obtained by employing the formula for the t test. The t value which was significant at the .05 level for 24 df was equal to 2.06. Since the obtained t score of 1.34 was less than 2.06, it was concluded that there was no significant difference between the achievement scores of students in the modular group and students in the lecture-discussion group. A summary of statistics for both treatment groups is given in Table III, page 29.

TABLE II

ACHIEVEMENT SCORES OF STUDENTS
IN THE TWO TREATMENT GROUPS

	Modular (N = 13)	Lecture-discussion (N = 13)
	80	60
	95	65
	55	85
	80	75
	7 5	70
	85	85
	60	80
	80	60
	70	75
	80	65
	85	70
	80	75
	75	7 0
COTALS	1000	935

TABLE III
SUMMARY STATISTICS FOR THE TWO TREATMENT GROUPS

Group	N	Mean	Variance	S.D.
Modular	13	76.92	110.57	10.51
Lecture-discussion	13	71.92	68.91	8.30

t = 1.34; n.s. Critical value of t = 2.06. In order to test the reliability of the mastery test, a split-halves reliability measure was computed. Since the mastery test was constructed by combining five sets of questions covering each of the topics studied, pairs of scores were formed by placing the even-numbered item in one group and the odd-numbered items in the other group. The pairs of scores were then used to compute the split-halves reliability coefficient. A value of .55 was obtained which indicated that the test was not highly reliable.

Results of the Attitude Evaluation

The Fisher exact probability test was employed to test the null hypothesis of no significant difference in the attitudes of the treatment groups. The frequencies of "Yes" and "No" answers for each of the five questions were tabulated and placed in 2 X 2 contingency tables. The Fisher test was then computed to determine whether the two groups differed in the proportion of "Yes" and "No" responses.

The null hypothesis was rejected in two of the five attitudinal measures. Question 1 asked students whether or not they felt free to express themselves in class. The obtained probability value of .047 indicated that students in the lecture-discussion group felt slightly more free to express themselves than students in the modular treatment group. Question 3 referred to the appropriateness of the instructional method used and also favored the lecture-discussion group (p = .047). Question 5 asked students whether or not they planned to become an elementary classroom teacher. At the beginning of the semester twenty-five students responded "Yes" to the question and one responded "No."

students responded "No" with a few students who answered "Yes" indicating they were not sure of their decision (see the discussion of additional comments). Table IV lists the five questions presented in the attitude evaluation with corresponding probabilities.

TABLE IV

ATTITUDE EVALUATION QUESTIONS WITH CORRESPONDING PROBABILITY VALUES

	Question	Probability Value
1,	Did you feel free to express yourself in this class?	.047*
2.	Were the topics presented pertinent to this type of course?	.50
3.	Did you feel the method used to present topics was an appropriate one for this class?	.047*
4.	Was there a relationship between the topics presented and your observation experiences?	.267
5.	At this point in time do you plan to become an elementary classroom teacher?	, 24

[&]quot;Significant

Students were asked to write additional comments about the topics, method of instruction, and the course in general. Samples concerning the various comments are presented and discussed in the following section.

As the response to question 2 affirmed, the majority of students felt the topics presented were pertinent for study. Two comments directly concerned with the topics were:

The topics were pertinent to education today.

The topics presented in class were good in relation to the overall experiences we had and also in general interest level.

The modular group apparently did not feel free to discuss their experiences with the instructor or peers after working through the modules according to the comments made. This attitude may not have been due as much to the instructional method as to lack of opportunity. The time limitation placed upon students having to complete the modules and participate in the audio-visual presentations was a restriction, as one student pointed out:

The modules would be great for individual work without the confines of attending class except to take the posttests. I think we could have gotten more out of the class time by discussing.

Another student reflected a similar attitude:

The modules were well written and informative, but they were exactly the same stuff they've handed out in the other education courses I've had. I felt I was learning so much at my school that I wanted to share it and hear the ideas of others as well.

A supplemental analysis of the mastery test scores indicated that juniors and seniors achieved a slightly higher average score (77%) than that of freshmen and sophomores (72%) which may account, in part, for the above mentioned comment.

Comments from those students in the lecture-discussion group were affirmative toward the approach in general:

Our class discussions were informative and interesting.

I enjoyed the comments from others who went to different types of teaching situations than I did.

However, there may have been too much opportunity for discussion and not enough lecture as the following two statements pointed out:

I don't know if I learned too much from class, but I did enjoy listening to other people's experiences.

I felt some of the topics were not discussed enough. These things were probably what the students who had the modules had the chance to read about.

The course as a whole was well received by all the students. Selected comments about the course and its value as a means for making decisions about teaching were:

The course provided a real means of searching myself to see if this is where I belong.

I know now for sure I want to teach.

Before I took this course I had no idea what it would be like to be a teacher.

Further analysis of the data presented is made in Chapter V with conclusions drawn from the results. Implications for further study are also given.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to develop a set of competency-based modules and compare their utilization with the conventional instructional approach in an introductory education course. Students in two sections of EDUC 2450, "Observation and Participation in the Elementary School," were randomly assigned to groups, and those groups were randomly assigned to either the modular or the lecture-discussion treatment. At the end of instruction, a mastery test and an attitude evaluation were administered to all students in order to determine any difference in achievement or attitude between the two treatment groups. No significant difference was found between groups on the mastery test. However, results of the attitude evaluation favored the lecture-discussion group in the amount of felt freedom of expression and in the suitability of the instructional approach to the course.

Conclusions

Examination of the scores presented in Table II, page 29, indicated that students having the modular instructional approach achieved somewhat higher scores on the mastery test than students in the lecture-discussion group, although that difference was not significant. This difference could have been the result of the modular groups, practice

in answering the questions asked on the five module posttests. The results of the mastery test were also questionable due to the low reliability of the test. The .55 reliability value most probably was caused by the limited number of items (twenty questions) and by the experimenter's miscalculations concerning the proper ordering of the items in each set according to expected difficulty.

From the results of the attitude evaluation, it was concluded that the conventional lecture-discussion approach was slightly preferred by students. Additional comments written by the students confirmed the inference that a lecture-discussion approach was more appropriate for use in that particular class. The majority of students seemed to feel that discussion during class time concerning their observational experiences was beneficial. It was concluded that modules might be most useful as out-of-class work to be followed up by the posttests and discussion with the instructor and peers in class. The limited amount of outside work expected of students enrolled in a one credit hour course and the attempt to control the experimental variable of study time expended prevented the experimenter from establishing outside work as a part of this study. It was also the experimenter's desire that discussion in the modular group not compete as a variable with the discussion in the lecture-discussion group.

The topics chosen for study by the experimenter seemed appropriate to both the course and the observation activities in the local elementary schools. The fact that a few students found the material presented to be similar in content to other courses could have been due to the difference in educational level of the students. Although the course was designed for freshman and sophomore level students, the information

presented in Table I, page 21, indicated that an equal number of sophomores and juniors were enrolled in the course. It was quite possible that students classified as juniors had a much broader educational base upon entering the course than freshman and sophomore students.

Results from the final attitudinal question indicated that the course may indeed have been a means for students to formulate decisions regarding teaching. Analysis of the comments made by students seemed to indicate an increased confidence in their career choice or a definite decision to enter either other aspects of the educational field or another career.

From the results of this study, the experimenter concluded that both a competency-based approach using modules as instructional devices and a lecture-discussion approach are valid means for instruction at the college level. The questions that must be asked before changing any teacher education program currently in existence is: "What is the best instructional method for each student in a class at a particular place and time?" The most logical answer would seem to be the establishment of a system whereby students could select the type of instructional approach most suited to their needs and abilities. It would seem that with our present level of educational and technological knowledge, the establishment of two or three alternative programs at any reasonably large college or university would not be an impossible task.

Implications

Although this study found no evidence to warrant changing the conventional instructional approach to an approach using competency-

based modules, it seems obvious that this study was not broad enough to make a definitive statement regarding competency-based teacher education programs. It would be most beneficial to compare the effects of a competency-based program and a conventional program in a longitudinal study. By using a larger number of students in the sample and following these students through the comparative programs from entrance to exit, more conclusive results could be gained.

Regarding the type of early, field-experience course that was dealt with in this study, it would be helpful to identify the impact of such a course upon students as they progress through a program. Students who have had experience working in the schools as teacher assistants might be compared with those who have had no previous experience prior to student teaching.

The author hopes that the research presented in this thesis will point out the need for further study of teacher education programs and the types of instructional approaches utilized in those programs.

There is an everpresent danger in establishing any innovative program without carefully considering beforehand its worth. Hopefully, such research will cause educators to realize the advantages and disadvantages inherent in all new programs, as well as existing plans, and to choose those programs most suitable for meeting their educational goals.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

INFORMATION SHEETS FOR TREATMENT GROUPS

SCHEDULE FOR LECTURE-DISCUSSION GROUP

EDUC 2450, Monday, 11:30

This is your seminar schedule. Please put it in a safe place in your notebook so you will always know when class is meeting.

January 28

February 11

February 25

March 18

April 1

April 15 - Sharing of projects

April 22 - Course evaluation

SCHEDULE FOR MODULE GROUP

EDUC 2450, Monday, 11:30

Objectives of the On-campus Seminars

Given a schedule of the meeting dates with the module topic to be dealt with on each date, the student is expected to meet the following requirements:

- (1) Attend all of the scheduled meetings unless excused by the instructor.
- (2) Complete all of the assigned modules.

February 4 - "The Teacher"

February 18 - "The Children"

March 4 - "The School"

March 25 - "The Methods"

April 8 - "The Curriculum"

April 15 - Sharing of projects

April 22 - Course evaluation

SCHEDULE FOR LECTURE-DISCUSSION GROUP

EDUC 2450, Tuesday, 11:30

This is your seminar schedule. Please put it in a safe place in your notebook so you will always know when class is meeting.

January 29

February 12

February 26

March 19

April 2

April 16 - Sharing of projects

April 23 - Course evaluation

SCHEDULE FOR MODULE GROUP

EDUC 2450, Tuesday, 11:30

Objectives of the On-campus Seminars

Given a schedule of the meeting dates with the module topic to be dealt with on each date, the student is expected to meet the following requirements:

- (1) Attend all of the scheduled meetings unless excused by the instructor.
- (2) Complete all of the assigned modules.

February 5 - "The Teacher"

February 19 - "The Children"

March 5 - "The School"

March 26 - "The Methods"

April 9 - "The Curriculum"

April 16 - Sharing of projects

April 23 - Course evaluation

APPENDIX B

A LISTING OF SUGGESTED MEDIA MATERIALS

SUGGESTED MEDIA MATERIALS

FILMS

- CAREERS EDUCATION: Doubleday Multimedia, 1970, color, 12 min.; available from OSU Audio-Visual Center, Stillwater, Oklahoma.
- HOW CHILDREN LEARN: NBC, 1972, color, 23 min.; available from the University of South Florida, Tampa.
- THE CHILDWATCHERS: McGraw-Hill, 1969, color, 30 min.; available from the University of South Florida, Tampa.
- TEAM TEACHING IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL: IDEA, 1970, color, 22 min.; available from the University of South Florida, Tampa.
- CHARLIE AND THE GOLDEN HAMSTER THE NON-GRADED ELEMENTARY SCHOOL: IDEA, 1968, color, 13 min.; available from OSU Audio-Visual Center, Stillwater, Oklahoma.
- TEACHING TECHNIQUES: McGraw-Hill, 1964, color, 18 min.; available from the University of South Florida, Tampa.
- MAKE A MIGHTY REACH: IDEA, 1967, black and white, 28 min.; available from OSU Audio-Visual Center, Stillwater, Oklahoma.

AUDIO TAPES

"Crisis in the Classroom - A Diagnosis with Suggestions for Remedy:"
ASCD Audio Cassette, 1971, 37 min.

APPENDIX C

THE INSTRUCTIONAL MODULES

MODULE I: THE TEACHER

MODULE I: THE TEACHER

Directions

As you work through this module, you will occasionally be asked to make written responses. When you feel familiar with the material that is presented, complete the posttest. Following the posttest you will find a listing of the appropriate answers. Grade your test and record the number of correct responses in the space provided. You should read the brief explanation for each question that you have incorrectly answered.

Objective

Given a set of multiple-choice questions dealing with situations describing specific teacher roles, the student will identify the appropriate role category for each situation.

MODULE I: THE TEACHER

Introduction

Attempting to describe "the teacher" is a difficult task for there are no established success criteria for teaching. Naturally there are certain personality traits that come to mind when one thinks of a "good" elementary school teacher: intelligence, enthusiasm, emotional stability, etc. One of the most commonly stated requirements for a teacher is an enjoyment of working with children. As trite as this may sound, it is particularly important for the elementary school teacher. You may have time this semester to read some of the studies concerned with teacher characteristics. Even if you don't, hopefully your observation experiences will help you to recognize some of the most important behaviors related to effective teaching.

When you are with your cooperating teacher in the elementary school where you are observing, you will no doubt notice her* behavior in many different situations and become aware of the complexities of the teaching job. The teacher has many different roles. These roles are so interwoven that a teacher would be hard pressed to tell you exactly how many "parts" she was playing in any one time period.

Nevertheless, for purposes of organizing this topic, teacher roles and responsibilities have been placed under four major categories in this module: instructional, guidance, professional, and community.

^{*}Since the majority of cooperating teachers are women, the feminine gender will be used throughout the modules.

Instructional Role

Some of the instructional responsibilities of the teacher are dependent upon the type of classroom organization utilized in the particular school. (Organization will be discussed in a later module.) Suffice it to say that the teacher in a self-contained classroom usually has the responsibility of teaching a broader range of subjects than the teacher in a school that is semi-departmentalized. Many schools have specialized teachers in art, music, and physical education, thus the necessity of a teacher being an "expert" in those areas is reduced somewhat. Nevertheless, since most people consider the primary function of the school to be instructional, the elementary teacher must be well versed in all areas of the curriculum.

Methods courses are designed to qualify teachers to teach the major subject areas. Curriculum guides and textbooks also assist teachers in teaching specific topics of a subject. Sufficient study and preparation is an important aspect of the instructional role. The beginning teacher will find that proper planning makes the teaching act occur more spontaneously and smoothly. While the experienced teacher can get by with a few notes as reminders of how she will proceed, you will probably need to make daily detailed lesson plans. Setting down the objectives of the lesson, the procedure to be used, materials needed, and an evaluative method increases your ability to proceed confidently with the lesson.

Briefly discuss one type of planning (lesson, daily, weekly, unit of work, etc.) which you have noted in the classroom that you observe.

on didengan kepanggan agama digerah pelangha di pelanggan dingerang dideng dideng diden di diserti beraha. Salanggan pelanggan disertang didengka salah pelangki sagalik didengka pelah disebagai pelangka disebagai saga The teacher will have specific objectives around which she will structure the lesson. Children who share with the teacher in the formulation of certain objectives are more likely to be motivated toward the achievement of those goals. An activity which is not related to an accepted goal of the child can be repeated again and again with little gain in learning.

After determining the objectives of the lesson, the teacher will need to define the student behaviors that will indicate achievement and to devise a method of measuring those behaviors. The type of test used will depend upon the kind of objectives being measured. Testing will allow the teacher to diagnosis the needs of children that have not as yet been met. Individual diagnosis is a time consuming task when the class is large. However, if the teacher is to be truly effective, she must plan the learning experiences to meet the needs of each child.

Name two types of testing which you have observed.

The teacher who seeks to integrate textbook material with the children's experiences produces a more creative teaching style than one who is bound by the specific facts and "covering" the subject. The creative teacher emphasizes not only the structure of a subject but develops a curriculum pattern based on an interaction between the learner and the subject matter. The task becomes one of setting up the learning situation and then allowing the children to develop the

concepts of the lesson in divergent ways. The greatest challenge for the teacher is to make the subject matter personally meaningful to the students. When children begin to experience the excitement of learning for themselves, the teacher is deserving of the rewarding feeling that comes from knowing that her efforts have been successful.

Guidance Role

The roles of the teacher as instructor and as counselor are closely related. The guidance process emphasizes the study of the self just as the instructional process emphasizes the study of subject matter. As the teacher assists the student in gaining academic concepts, she is also having a direct influence upon his emotional, social, and moral development. Because of the length of time which elementary school age children spend with a teacher each day, her impact upon them is second only to that of their families.

As a counselor, the teacher should not attempt to overunderstand the student, particularly in the area of psychological data. It is perhaps better for the teacher to know nothing about a child in the beginning than to have a biased opinion gleaned from a cumulative folder or from the child's previous teachers. In other words, the teacher should not let past behavior dictate her attitude toward the child.

The teacher has the responsibility to accept the child as he is and to respect him. Jesus was a master teacher because He accepted people. When the teacher is accepting of an insecure child, the child gains a feeling of confidence in himself. Discipline grows out of the teacher's respect for the students. The teacher should reject the

behavior that is not suitable to the situation while making it clear that she is not rejecting the child.

In the instructional area the needs of the individual determine the course of action; otherwise, the needs of the group determine the procedure. The same is true of discipline. The teacher should be consistent, but this does not imply the same punishment for all.

Discipline techniques serve two functions: the reestablishment or continuation of the adequate functioning of the group and the establishment of goals for responsible action in the future. The goal, of course, is self-discipline. The teacher's task is to give the child support and the responsibility of controlling his behavior.

Briefly describe a classroom management technique which you have observed your cooperating teacher use successfully.

The teacher is very much a model for the children. Anyone who has ever seen children playing "school" knows how they tend to imitate the behavior and attitude of the teacher. As she works with children, the teacher should remember that she is transmitting personal attitudes and values. When speaking about subjects with social or emotional overtones, the teacher should be as objective as possible and label personal opinions.

Professional Role

As a member of the teaching profession a teacher has certain nonteaching duties. Teachers are expected to keep current in their field. This may be accomplished through reading of professional books and journals and by participating in in-service training sessions. Many schools also require that teachers complete a certain number of additional college course hours beyond the bachelor's degree within a specified number of years.

Can you name a professional journal which you have seen in the teacher's lounge or school library?

Sometimes teachers are asked by other educators to answer questionnaires or to review books. Teachers also occasionally participate in educational writing and/or action research of their own. Action research is that type of experimentation which takes place in the classroom.

Usually teachers belong to at least one professional organization such as the National Education Association. There are also local, state, and special interest associations in which a teacher can participate. The journals published by these numerous educational organizations are valuable to the improvement of the teacher's instruction. Many of these associations also deal with topics of direct concern to teachers, such as standards and salaries.

School administrators usually expect teachers to become involved with activities that are intended to upgrade the profession. In many schools faculty meetings provide opportunities for teachers to contribute and exchange ideas for educational improvements. A teacher may be asked to serve as a consultant to the other teachers in some area in which she is particularly well informed. An attitude of cooperativeness among the teachers and between teachers and administrators is important to the improvement of the profession.

Community Service Role

There is much variation in the expectations of the teacher's role in community activities from one locale to another. Because of the significant influence that teachers have upon children in school, most communities tend to expect certain standards of appearance and behavior in out-of-school activities as well. Although there has been a relaxation of some expectations, the teacher is still regarded as a respected leader in the community and, as such, may be asked to participate in local civic organizations and/or church groups.

It is wise for a teacher to inquire about the type and amount of community involvement expected before accepting a position. Since the teacher represents the school, most administrators will encourage a teacher to participate in activities that enhance good public relations. Having a good working relationship with parents increases the success of P.T.A. organizations, parent—teacher conferences, and programs that utilize parents as teacher aides. Teachers in the elementary school frequently call upon community members to serve as resource persons and to assist with field trips.

Since public schools are supported by taxes, it is only logical that the people have an interest in the educational aspect of their community. Local newspapers and radio and television stations are usually interested in reporting information regarding school functions. The wise teacher learns to apply this interest to the fulfillment of the educational endeavor.

When you feel familiar enough with the material presented to meet the objective of this module, you should complete the posttest.

POSTTEST FOR MODULE I: THE TEACHER

Directions: Circle the letter of the multiple-choice item which \underline{best} completes each question.

comp	ietes each question.	:
1.	Mrs. P. is working with other teachers in the school system to develop a curriculum guide for science activities. This is a/an role.	:
	A. instructional B. guidance C. professional	
2.	Mr. T. has been asked by university personnel to determine the type of library books read most frequently by his second graders. He keeps an accurate record of the books which each child reads during free-reading time. This is a/an role.	:
	A. instructional B. guidance C. professional	
3.	Mr. P. is studying his students math papers to determine the cause of the errors made. This is a/an role.	
	A. instructional B. guidance C. professional	
4	Mrs. R. removes Scott from his math work with which he is having difficulty. She asks him if he would like to work at the science table and return to the math later. This is a/an role.	
	A. instructional B. guidance C. professional	•
5.	Mr. N. is going downtown after school to vote in the local School Board election. This is a/an role.	

A. instructionalB. professionalC. community service

•	upon alternative activities to be used with the textbook. This is a/an role.
	A. instructional B. guidance C. professional
7 .	Mrs. M. is a den mother for a Cub Scout troop. This is a/an role.
	A. instructional B. guidance C. community service
8.	Mrs. Y. has been asked to serve as the fourth grade representative on the book selection committee for new geography texts. This is a/an role.
	A. instructional B. guidance C. professional
9 。	Mrs. S. allows her kindergarten children time to express their feelings about younger brothers or sisters who seem to be getting all the attention at home. This is a/an role.
	A. instructional B. guidance C. community service
10 .	Ms. C. feels that Jack is not reading as well as he should be. She decides to administer a reading inventory to assist in the diagnosis of Jack's reading difficulty. This is a/an role.
	A. instructional B. guidance C. professional

The	most	ар	proj	pri	ate	an	swe	rs	are	:							
1. (2	С	3.	a	4.	Ъ	5.	c	6.	а	7.	C	8.	С	9. Ъ	10.	а

Score:	

Did you have trouble with some of the questions? What rationale can you provide for your answer? A brief explanation for each answer follows.

- 1. The development of a curriculum guide will hopefully lead to improved instruction. However, working with other teachers on a system-wide activity involves additional time and effort beyond that required for classroom instruction and is, therefore, an aspect of the professional role.
- 2. Mr. T. is assisting with research in this situation and is, therefore performing a professional role.
- 3. From the results of the math papers, Mr. P. can diagnosis the <u>instructional</u> needs of children which have not as yet been met.
- 4. Scott has become frustrated with the math task. By taking him from the math work without embarassment, she is performing a guidance role.
- 5. The School Board represents an important branch of the school organization, and it is understandable that a teacher is interested in the selection of members who will be making educational policy decisions. The emphasis in this situation is upon the teacher's responsibility to vote as a citizen of the community.
- 6. Attempting to integrate textbook material with meaningful experiences is an aspect of the instructional role.
- 7. Although Scout leaders certainly employ aspects of the guidance role when working with a group of children, the major role in this situation is service to the community.
- 8. Although the geography texts will be used in instruction, the act of serving on a selection committee is a <u>professional</u> responsibility.
- 9. Nearly all of the teacher's work, apart from the presentation of factual material, involves <u>guidance</u> to some extent. Mrs. S. is working as a counselor when she helps children to understand their feelings.
- 10. Testing to diagnosis pupils' learning needs is a part of the <u>instructional</u> role. Had Ms. C. referred Jack to the remedial reading teacher for diagnosis she would have been acting in the guidance area.

MODULE II: THE CHILDREN

MODULE II: THE CHILDREN

Directions

When you feel familiar with the material presented in this module, complete the posttest. Following the posttest you will find a listing of the appropriate answers for the multiple-choice questions. (The instructor will read your response to the essay question and make any necessary comments after you turn in the module.) Grade your test and record the number of correct responses in the space provided. You should read the brief explanation for each question that you have incorrectly answered.

Objectives

Given a set of multiple-choice questions dealing with situations describing children's growth and development in different areas, the student will identify the area most applicable to each situation.

Given four areas of child development, the student will describe a particular child's growth in each area.

MODULE II: THE CHILDREN

Introduction

In the module concerning the teacher the point was made that the various roles of the teacher are not mutually exclusive. In other words, the teacher may be concentrating the major portion of her efforts in one area but is rarely, if ever, fulfilling only one role at a time. The same idea applies to the study of children. The child progresses in all areas of development and, as such, is the product of many growth factors which cannot be separated into neat compartments. However, for purposes of organization and clarity, this module will discuss four areas of growth: intellectual, physical, emotional, and social.

Intellectual Development

A child's intellectual ability is dependent upon many factors including inherent capabilities and environmental influences. Controversy about whether intelligence is inherited or learned continues among educators and psychologists with little conclusive evidence to prove the superiority of either position. It is known that regardless of a child's genetic endowments, an environmental situation lacking in intellectual stimulation and interaction produces a decline in the level of mental functioning. Apparently it is the interaction of heredity and environment which determines a child's intelligence.

Theories of learning are directly related to the theories of intelligence on which they are based. Every teacher has a theory of learning whether she is able to define it or not. The teacher who believes that the intelligence of a child cannot change is likely to implement quite different classroom practices than the teacher who views the child's life experiences and surroundings as the primary determiners of the intellect.

Although there are several different learning theories, most professionals are in agreement on one point. Children seem to have a basic need to explore and understand their environment. This excitement in learning, which may be obvious in first-graders, diminishes when children meet failure in school. A careful study by the teacher of various learning approaches can help to maintain a child's high level of interest in intellectual pursuits.

Children's intellectual development progresses through various stages. In other courses you will read of the work of Jean Piaget who has greatly contributed to our understanding of intellectual stages. A child must be "ready" to learn. Readiness implies that all of the necessary prerequisites for work at any one stage have been mastered. The child progresses in intellectual development through experimentation and discovery to levels of symbolization and abstract thought.

Understanding the way children learn and develop increases the teacher's ability to plan for effective instructional experiences.

No doubt you have noticed a wide range in the intellectual abilities of children in your observation classroom. One of the most difficult tasks the teacher has is to provide appropriate learning opportunities for the exceptional children in her room.

Usually the educable mentally retarded child is placed in a specific school or a special classroom. Slow learners and children with learning disabilities require the teacher's special concern, attention, and support. Materials and instruction must be adjusted to meet their needs. It may be necessary to present only one idea at a time with provisions for frequent and varied examples of that concept before proceeding to the next level.

Equally important, but often not as highly stressed in our schools, is the education of the gifted children. Giftedness is usually defined as an I.Q. score of around 130 and above. Those schools with special programs for the gifted usually select these children by a combination of intelligence and achievement tests. The most widely used intelligence tests measure more convergent types of thinking which often do not identify creative children. Methods and curriculum which encourages divergent thinking are beneficial to both the highly intelligent and the highly creative child. Regardless of children's intellectual abilities, the teacher should search for individual strengths and encourage their development.

Physical Development

Chidren go through the same stages of physical development, but there is a wide variation in the rate of development. During the later elementary years girls are usually maturing physically at a faster rate than boys. This fact often has an important influence on children's social and emotional well-being.

In an average classroom a teacher should expect to find children with speech difficulties, poor vision or hearing, over and underweight

conditions, hyperactivity, and numerous other physical problems. It is, therefore, important for the teacher to recognize these problems and adjust the classroom procedures to meet the needs of the children.

Schools attempt to enhance children's physical development by providing opportunities for activity and rest. Teachers are usually aware of aspects which make a comfortable learning environment such as correct lighting, proper temperature, and ventilation. Some schools also encourage morning snacks or milk breaks, particularly for children who do not have breakfast at home.

The teacher should not attempt to diagnose physical problems.

However, it is important that she be aware of the affects that physical difficulties may have on other areas of the child's development.

Emotional Development

Important emotional needs are a feeling of self-confidence, love, recognition, and acceptance. The child who is constantly striving for attention may feel that he is not accepted. The quiet and withdrawn child displays the opposite behavior of the hyperactive child. The causes of the two behaviors may actually be very similar, but the expressions of the problem are very different. Likewise, the same behavior in different children may result from a variety of different causes.

Symptoms of mistrust can be generated in children who find themselves in schools where prejudice exists or where there are double standards of reward and punishment. The insecure child will develop a generalized mistrust of the teacher is she applies unfair and capricious treatment. When this occurs, the child may regress to a level of behavior where success and attention were achieved.

Emotional behaviors are manifestations of different needs. The teacher cannot always tell what need is being reflected in the behavior. It is best to try to provide experiences that are suited to improving the child's emotional responses in many different situations.

Social Development

Socialization involves the achievement of skills which enable children to adjust to the culture in which they live and to work effectively with others. The school has a responsibility to assist in the development of these skills by providing opportunities for various social interactions. Group work, both in the academics and in play, can encourage cooperativeness and understanding among children. Kindergarten and primary grade teachers are particularly interested in planning activities which develop social interaction skills. By the intermediate grades children show considerable social skill, but the teacher will frequently need to help them manage their feelings and actions toward the other children and adults.

The most influential group in the life of the elementary school age child is his family. In comparison with family members, the school and organizational groups are of secondary importance. In a home where parents are rejecting of the child, the teacher may notice signs of insecurity, nervousness, submission, and hidden hostility. On the other hand, an over-protective home may produce like patterns of withdrawal, insecurity, nervousness, and jealousy. Although the behaviors exhibited are similar, the underlying causes are different.

Dominating parents' children tend to be dependable, shy, polite, and self-conscious while the submissive-home child is often disobedient,

careless, independent, and aggressive. The child who lives in a harmonious home is calm, happy, secure, and usually functions at an optimum level of performance. Insight into the parent-child relation-ship is helpful in understanding the child. Regardless of the home environment, the teacher can provide experiences which will help compensate for what the home may be lacking.

Because of the complexity of our society, it is difficult to assess the impact of various class levels upon children's social development. The majority of teachers and administrators are members of the middle class and, as such, reflect middle class attitudes and values. Children from the lower class often feel that they do not "fit in" with this environment. It is somewhat remarkable that so many of these children are able to adjust to the school culture.

When the child joins a group of peers, models for social development are acquired from outside the family. As the child progresses through the elementary years, there is usually a lessening of dependence upon the parents and an increase in effort to conform to the peer group. This trend strengthens and, by the adolescent years, children often develop open defiance to their parents' ideals and attitudes in favor of those held by their peers.

You have now completed this module and should take the posttest.

POSTTEST FOR MODULE II: THE CHILDREN

Directions: Circle the letter of the answer that \underline{best} completes each statement.

1.	Children's art work is frequently displayed on bulletin boards and in the halls of the school. This activity contributes to the children's development.
	A. intellectual B. social C. emotional
2.	Various levels of instructional materials are found in most classrooms because of what educators know about children's development.
	A. intellectual A. social C. emotional
3.	Most kindergarten and first-grade children use wide-lined paper for writing. This is because of the children's development.
	A. intellectual B. physical C. social
4.	While Doug is capable of doing above average work, his papers are frequently incomplete and often contain statements such as "My Dad's name is John D. Jones." This would indicate a/an problem.
	A. social B. emotional C. physical
5.	Sunday School classes, 4-H Clubs, and Scout groups enhance children's development.
	A. intellectual B. emotional C. social

6.	Nursery and primary school programs rely heavily upon the use of concrete objects and pictures. This usage is based primarily on our knowledge of children's development.
	A. intellectual
	B. physical C. social
init	of a child in your observation classroom. Use a fictitious name, als, or first name only and briefly describe that child's developin each of the following areas.
Inte	lectual:
	
Phys	cal:
Emot	onal:
Soci	

6.

The most appropriate answers are:

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	~	7:	ы	3.		Δ.	D	7 -	С.	n.	_ 2
_ •	_		•	9.		7.0		J	_	•	·

Score	:

Read the brief explanation for each statement that you incorrectly answered.

- 1. Growth in the <u>emotional</u> area is encouraged by displaying children's work. Such activities contribute to the pupils' feeling of self-worth.
- 2. Children differ in <u>intellectual</u> abilities. There is a range from slow learners to fast learners in most elementary classrooms, and the teacher must adapt the work and materials to these individual differences.
- 3. Young children's <u>physical</u> growth proceeds from gross to fine motor coordination. For this reason, instruction in writing at the kindergarten and first-grade levels stresses the children's developmental level of muscular control.
- 4. Parental influence is of most significance in the child's emotional development. Although we do not know the direct cause of Doug's problem, it is obvious that Doug's extreme concern about his father is interfering with his academic work. Hopefully the teacher will be able to gain some insight into the relationship and provide experiences that will help Doug to improve his emotional responses.
- 5. Although there is a relative amount of emphasis on intellectual growth, the greatest contribution of clubs and community groups is in the development of social interaction skills.
- 6. Instructional materials are designed to coincide with levels of intellectual development. During the readiness and experimentation stages, reality and exploratory materials are used to give children first-hand experiences with objects that can be handled and manipulated.

MODULE III: THE SCHOOL

MODULE III: THE SCHOOL

Directions

When you feel familiar with the material presented in this module, you should complete the posttest. Following the posttest you will find a listing of the correct answers. Grade your test and record the number of correct responses in the space provided. You should read the brief explanation for each question that you have incorrectly answered.

Objective

Given a set of multiple-choice items dealing with school organizational patterns, the student will identify the particular plan which best completes each statement.

MODULE III: THE SCHOOL

Introduction

Whenever school personnel make decisions concerning what is to be taught, where and how teaching is to take place, and who is to teach, school organizational patterns emerge. The particular organizational plan established by a school reflects the underlying educational philosophy of the teachers and administrators. Their attitudes about the plan will largely control its effectiveness. If the school staff is not actively involved in the selection and implementation of a plan, there is little chance of its success.

It should be noted that no one organizational pattern is a panacea for all educational difficulties that a school may face. Organization can facilitate change or it can become a mere routine to follow. A plan must not remain static. As the needs change, so must the school.

There are two major types of school organization: vertical and horizontal. Vertical organization is a system designed to move children through the school from admission to departure. Horizontal patterns determine the arrangement of children and teachers within the school. This module will discuss several types of vertical and horizontal organizational plans and mention some of the more recent school designs.

Vertical Organization

There are two major kinds of vertical organization: graded and nongraded. A type of nongradedness is the multi-grade or multi-age organization which will be discussed in connection with the nongraded plan.

Graded School

The most common type of vertical organization currently in use in the United States is the graded pattern. The plan is based upon a classification of children by their chronological age. In most systems children begin school at approximately the age of six and continue through the grades one year at a time unless held back or accelerated. The teacher usually has only one grade and attempts to cover the curriculum commonly associated with that grade.

Nongraded School

In nongraded schools children are not classified according to grades and are grouped into classes on bases other than chronological age. Designed to implement a theory of continuous pupil progress, this plan allows children to progress at their individual rates. The policy of all members in a single class starting at the same place each new school year is eliminated since each child begins at the beginning of the year where she/he left off the previous spring.

This plan is most popular at the primary level. Although most children will take three years to complete the primary unit, pupils are enabled to take differing amounts of time to complete the level without the undesirable effects inherent in acceleration and retardation.

Placement in groups is flexible and based on physical, mental, social, and emotional factors as well as academic considerations. Pupils attempt to meet standards determined on the basis of their potential and experiential background. The intent of grouping for nongradedness is not to eliminate differences but to teach to the differences that already exist among children.

A major criticism of the nongraded system has been that many schools have merely replaced the familiar grades with levels. However, a school which is truly nongraded would comply more closely with the theories of individualization and child development than under the graded plan.

Multi-grade and multi-age organizations. These plans are types of nongradedness in that children of different ages and/or different grades are grouped for various instructional activities. Usually classes include children with age differences of three or more years. The various group members enrich and extend the learning experiences of the entire group. Under the multi-grade plan it is possible for a single child to be working at one level in math, another in reading, another level in social studies, and so on. Flexible grouping requires changes with the instructional needs and interests of the children.

Horizontal Organization

Horizontal patterns determine how children and teachers are arranged within the school. We shall first consider two major ways of grouping children.

Homogeneous Grouping

Children are grouped homogeneously when they are assigned to classes according to the similarity of their reading abilities, I.Q. scores, or general academic achievement. This type of organization assumes that more optimal learning conditions can be provided when differences among learners are reduced. Although such grouping may be beneficial when the instructional objective is limited to a specific subject area, the failing of this plan may be a lack of consideration by the teacher of the differences which still exist. Also the placement of some pupils in the slower group would appear to be detrimental to their self-concept. Homogeneous grouping is perhaps best suited for use in conjunction with a departmentalized program which will be discussed under teacher arrangements.

Heterogeneous Grouping

Classes are formed indiscriminately in a heterogeneous grouping plan. Students are intentionally grouped as a cross-section of the school population. This type of plan suggests that other criteria in addition to academic achievement are important. It is believed that by working together children will learn from each other. This plan seems to be more in harmony with the democratic beliefs of our society.

In the school in which you observe you will probably note several different combinations of grouping children and teachers. We shall consider four methods of teacher utilization.

Self-contained

One of the most commonly employed types of teacher utilization is the self-contained classroom organization. In this plan the teacher works with one group of pupils for the majority of their school work. One of its greatest strengths is the opportunity for the teachers to know the individual characteristics of the pupils. The teacher plans the activities and schedules the time, so she may design the schedule to allow for necessary changes that will enhance study of a particular subject. The teacher can plan the instruction to interrelate the various subject matter areas. The teacher in the self-contained classroom becomes a specialist in a grade level but a generalist in the curriculum of that particular level. The limitation of the plan is the presumption that every teacher is competent in all subject areas.

Departmentalization

In a departmentalized plan each teacher is assigned to teach a special subject field to several groups of children. In the elementary school a teacher may be a specialist in more than one subject, but she is not required to teach all areas of the curriculum as the teacher in a self-contained room does. However, teachers do have a homeroom group where general administrative duties and other activities are carried on as well as instruction in the teacher's area. Since the children or the teachers must change rooms for instruction, time schedules are strictly adhered to. This plan seems to be especially popular in the intermediate grades. The limitation of the departmentalized plan is the exaggeration of the importance of subject matter in contrast to a more general concern for the total development

of the child. Also the children have to adjust to several teachers, and the teachers may not get to know all the children well.

Semidepartmentalization

Also known as the dual-progress plan, the semidepartmentalized plan is based upon the assumption that certain subjects are "cultural imperatives" and others are "cultural electives." "Cultural imperatives" should be mastered by all children. The students progress in these subjects according to the usual graded system. The "cultural electives" need not be mastered at a specific level of proficiency by all children and, thus, they can proceed in the electives at their own pace and according to their interests. Although somewhat more integrated, the program is still subject-centered.

Team Teaching

Team teaching distributes the responsibility for instructing a large number of pupils among members of the team of three to five teachers. Usually the team includes a team leader or coordinator who accepts additional responsibility beyond the usual subject specialization. The various professional talents of the team members can be pooled to diagnose pupils' strengths and weaknesses and to develop appropriate educational programs for individuals as well as groups. Teachers share in planning, and they carry out their plans not as individuals but as a team in which different degrees of responsibility are assumed. The team usually includes supportive personnel, such as teacher aides and clerical assistants who perform a variety of secretarial, managerial, and other school related

activities. Pupils work in large and small instructional settings as well as directed independent study. A limitation of the plan is the fact than many schools are not arranged to take care of variable numbers and sizes of groups.

Additional Considerations

Alternative Schools

Alternative schools, as indicated from the name, offer an arrangement for learning that is a contrast to what is offered in the usual public schools. Some forms of alternative schools are called <u>cooperative schools</u> or <u>street schools</u> where parents who disapprove of the available public schools start their own. <u>Free schools</u> are also counter-traditional and are private. The <u>school within a school</u> was started as a "mini-school" within the public school system.

Open Classroom

The "openness" of an open classroom is not mainly physical; rather it is in the attempt to involve children as active participants in the formulation and direction of their own learning activities.

The children learn from and relate to each other, and there is a minimum of didactic teaching. The teacher assumes the roles of an assistant and resource person. A closed classroom can become an open one when its purpose is to stimulate all the natural capabilities of the children.

You have completed this module and should take the posttest.

POSTTEST FOR MODULE III: THE SCHOOL

Direct statem	tions: Circle the letter of the answer that \underline{best} completes each ment.
	Pupils are divided into two classes for instruction in a
F	A. nongraded B. departmentalized C. semidepartmentalized
	A teacher works with a group of pupils for the majority of their school work in the plan.
F	A. homogeneous B. self-contained C. graded
3. F	Reading groups are an example of grouping.
F	A. heterogeneous B. homogeneous C. multi-grade
4. <i>A</i>	Ability grouping within a class is a form of organization.
. 1	A. horizontal B. vertical C. graded
5. S	Subject matter is heavily emphasized in the plan.
·F	A. self-contained B. team teaching C. departmentalized
	Continuous pupil progress is a central characteristic of the organization.
E	A. graded 3. nongraded 5. departmentalized

7.	For social and non-academic activities the best plan is probably the pattern.
	A. heterogeneous B. homogeneous C. self-contained
8.	Time for planning and studying the children and subject matter is built into the plan.
	A. self-contained B. departmentalized C. team teaching
9.	A deemphasis is placed upon formal instruction by the teacher in the plan.
	A. self-contained B. open classroom C. departmentalized
10.	The use of various levels of professional and non-certified personnel is an integral component of the plan.
	A. team teaching B. self-contained C. departmentalized.

The answers are as follows:

1	C	2	ĥ.	3.	h	4.	а	5.	c	6.	Ъ	7.	a	8.	C	9.	Ъ	10.	a
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Score:	* *	 ٠.	

Read the brief explanation for each statement for which you chose an incorrect answer.

- 1. Pupils are in one group for instruction in the "cultural imperatives" but may be in a different group for work in the "cultural electives" in the <u>semidepartmentalized</u> plan.
- 2. In the <u>self-contained</u> plan the teacher is responsible for the instruction of all subjects with the frequent exceptions of music, art, and physical education.
- 3. Reading groups which are determined on the basis of reading achievement scores are composed of more or less <u>homogeneous</u> members.
- 4. Ability grouping is a method of organizing children <u>horizontally</u> within a level or class.
- 5. Subjects are dealt with in periods under the direction of a teacher who is a specialist in that subject in the <u>departmentalized</u> plan.
- 6. By emphasizing intellectual abilities and skill development rather than chronological age as the criteria for advancement, the nongraded plan offers a design for continuous pupil progress.
- 7. Heterogeneous grouping provides an opportunity for children of various intellectual abilities to talk with each other about areas of common interest and to relate different ideas and opinions.
- 8. Team teaching is especially designed to allow teachers time to study children's progress and to make plans for instruction.
- 9. The open classroom emphasizes pupil formulation and development of the learning activities which are to be pursued.
- 10. <u>Team teaching</u> utilizes various levels of professionals and includes supportive personnel.

MODULE IV: THE METHODS

MODULE IV: THE METHODS

Directions

When you are familiar with the material presented in this module, complete the posttest. A listing of appropriate answers for the multiple-choice items are given followed by a brief explanation for each. Grade your test and record the number of correct responses.

Then read the explanation of each item you missed.

Objective

Given a set of multiple-choice items dealing with the teaching methods used in schools, the student will correctly identify the type of method described in each situation.

MODULE IV: THE METHODS

Introduction

There are various methods of teaching with which you as a prospective teacher should be familiar. Although most teachers find that they are more comfortable using a particular strategy, it is especially important that an elementary teacher be able to determine when one method is more appropriate to a situation than another. As an adult, you are capable of maintaining interest during a lecture. Even so, novelty must be introduced periodically or your attention wavers. The ability to maintain interest is particularly necessary in working with young children due to their shorter attention spans. Therefore, lectures may need to be shorter and interspersed with discussion and questions.

The elementary teacher must strive for competency in numerous methods which will allow for optimum achievement in each learning situation. This module will discuss two basic types of teaching strategies with summaries of some specific methods.

Exposition

Teaching strategies may be placed on a continuum from those which are completely closed to those which are completely open depending upon the amount of structure and guidance provided the pupils. In the expository mode the teacher is an expositor or "teller" while the

pupils are more or less passive participants. The teacher selects, organizes, and sets forth the meaning of the subject matter. Certainly presenting information is a necessary and legitimate function of the teacher, and exposition should be considered as a viable teaching method.

Deductive Sequence

In expository teaching the teacher may organize the presentation according to either deductive or inductive principles. The deductive method is most often associated with exposition, although it is not an inherent characteristic of that strategy. Deduction is a process of reasoning from a general rule to specifics or from a premise to conclusions. After selecting a particular item of knowledge, the teacher presents that item to the children. Specific instances or examples of the concept are then presented. Pupils may be asked to give reasons why an instance is or is not a proper example of the rule. There is little active student participation until after the presentation by the teacher.

Inductive Sequence

The inductive approach is the opposite of deduction; in other words; induction is reasoning from parts to the whole. Again, the teacher selects the item of knowledge, but examples are then presented from which students form hypotheses. Evidence is given to confirm or disprove these hypotheses, and only then, is the general rule or concept stated by the teacher or by the students. Some teachers add a step in which the children are asked to apply the new rule to additional instances or examples.

Discovery

The discovery strategy is concerned with the processes children use in learning. The teacher first directs the pupils' attention to some problem to which the students formulate hypotheses. If the inferences made are correct, the objective is obtained; if not, the teacher may present new data that increase the students' chances of reaching the correct inference.

The pupils achieve the instructional objective with less help from the teacher than in the expository method. Therefore, this strategy is more unstructured and open. The teacher's role is one of guiding the learner to find out for himself. When the learner grasps the organizing principle of a series of instances, the act of discovery has occurred.

As a type of discovery, the inquiry method follows the inductive approach closely. The student is usually in complete control of the process of data collection and experimentation. One of the advantages of this method is that motivation for learning is shifted from external forces to the students. However, inquiry requires more time than methods in which students are simply told the answer or solution to a problem. Because of this time element, a teacher may decide to organize activities in such a manner that children may work on inquiry projects instead of the traditional "busy" work while other children are working with the teacher.

Certain subjects, such as science and math, seem to lend themselves more directly to discovery techniques than others. Teachers and pupils also vary in the kind and amount of discovery which they can successfully perform. Since children learn by both discovery and expository

methods, it seems likely that the teacher is increasing the chances for successful learning by utilizing both types of strategies according to the learning situations.

Selected Methods

Lecture

The most popular form of expository teaching is the lecture. The lecture is an appropriate technique when pupils are already motivated to learn about a subject. Of course, the quality of the presentation often determines whether motivation remains high or not.

Lecture exemplifies a pattern of teacher-centered communication. The teacher's goal is student knowledge of a specific topic, and it is, therefore, rather essential for the teacher to predetermine the purposes and procedure for the presentation. Many teachers plan for the lecture to be interrupted at various points by questions and/or discussion. This, obviously, has the advantage of student involvement over the method of continuous lecturing.

The lecture method is an efficient means of transmitting knowledge and, as has been mentioned, is less time-consuming than the discovery techniques. Another advantage of the lecture is its suitability for large group instruction.

Demonstration

Demonstrations assist the teacher in the translation of a concept into concrete reality. The demonstration of a particular skill or the operation of an object can enhance the learning experience.

Demonstrations are suitable for utilization when there are not sufficient materials for individual pupils and when it is necessary to focus attention on a particular skill before pupil participation. Planning for the necessary materials, the time needed to set up and conduct the demonstration, and the procedure to follow are important points for the teacher to consider before beginning. Because all of the children may not be able to easily see what is happening from the back of the room, provisions may be made to arrange the students as closely to the demonstration area as is possible.

As with any other method, the teacher should have a purpose in mind for using the demonstration. Frequently it will be necessary to make this purpose apparent to the students as well, particularly if there is some background of knowledge needed before the demonstration. The purpose need not be stated if the demonstration is used as the initial step of an inquiry episode. It is a good idea to record the results of the demonstration in order to make any adjustments in the amount of previous information given or in the follow-up activities.

Discussion

Discussion is an appropriate method for helping children to evaluate the logic of their own position and to consider the opinions of others. Discussion is more open than the lecture and demonstration techniques because there is an exchange of information among children as well as information from the teacher.

The teacher's role is typically one of defining the topic or problem for discussion and guiding the flow of ideas. Relevant information is frequently supplied before beginning, followed by the

posing of a question. The question may concern the application of a particular finding or the implication of an idea. As the pupils analyze and compare ideas, they are learning to interpret information and to draw sound conclusions. The teacher encourages the expression of ideas by listening and responding to contributions when necessary.

As the discussion progresses, the teacher is able to gain feed-back on the attainment of objectives. By observing and listening to the children, one may see signs of growth in critical thinking and reasoning ability. It is also a good idea for the class to evaluate the effectiveness of the discussion. Such joint evaluations increase the children's awareness of the learnings gained during the discussion.

Questioning

Questioning is an important aspect of each of the above mentioned methods. An awareness of the types and proper use of questions can increase the teacher's effectiveness in utilizing various methods.

Questions that focus on a specific item and call for direct answers are of the convergent type. This kind of questioning calls for children to put a number of facts together to come out with the right answer. Convergent questioning is useful when drawing attention to a particular portion of a problem.

Divergent questioning leads students to think of different possible solutions or explanations. This type is especially applicable to discussion where emphasis is upon what might be as well as what is.

The teacher should state questions as clearly and concisely as possible. It is best not to verbally revise or repeat a question several times for this practice leads to confusion and encourages

children to not listen. When a question is not clear to all children, a pupil can rephrase the question in understandable terms.

After posing a question, the teacher should give adequate time for thought and then select a person to answer. Silence following a question may seem to last for several minutes instead of merely a few seconds, but if the question was a good one, time is necessary for children to compose their answers. Balance should be maintained between calling on volunteers and nonvolunteers in order to encourage student contributions. Rewarding good answers periodically and avoiding the use of negative or sarcastic responses is also conducive to active pupil participation.

Questions may be used to focus attention and to stimulate further thought. The teacher should learn to listen to the questions she asks with the same critical listening ability that she expects the children to develop.

When you are familiar with the material in this module, you should continue to the posttest.

POSTTEST FOR MODULE IV: THE METHODS

Directions: Circle the letter of the $\underline{\text{best}}$ answer for each question situation.

1.	Mr. C., the physical education teacher, wants to make clear to the children certain skills in tumbling. The best method for him to use is a
	A. lecture B. demonstration C. discussion
2 .	Mrs. J.'s class is observing and recording what happens in their terrarium. This is an example of the approach.
	A. divergent B. deductive C. inquiry
3.	Mrs. B. wants to present several ways of computing addition problems. The best strategy to utilize is probably the method.
	A. lecture B. discovery C. discussion
4.	The traditional sharing period in primary grades is a good basis for children to learn skills of
	A. exposition B. demonstration C. discussion
5.	Mr. H. defines the properties of a triangle and then draws examples and nonexamples on the board. This presentation follows the sequence.
	A. inductive B. deductive C. expository

6.	Ms. G. asked the children to find the answer to a division problem. This is an example of questioning.
	A. convergent B. divergent C. deductive
7	Mr. R. puts the following pairs of words on the board: past, paste; mat, mate; strip, stripe; and rod, rode. The children then form hypotheses about a phonics rule. This is a/an sequence.
	A. divergent B. deductive C. inductive
8.	Ms. S. reads a story to her class of fourth graders and asks them to supply titles for the story. This type of questioning leads to thinking.
	A. divergent B. convergent C. inductive
9.	The processes of classifying, hypothesizing, and predicting are probably best developed through a approach.
	A. expository B. discovery C. deductive
10.	The most effective way to teach vocabulary and symbols is by a/an method.
	A. expository B. discovery C. questioning

The most appropriate answers are:

	1.	Ъ	2.	С	3.	a	4.	С	5. b	6.	а	7。	C	8.	а	9.	Ъ	10.	а
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Score:	

Read the brief explanation for each item that you incorrectly answered.

- 1. A <u>demonstration</u> is the most suitable method to utilize for focusing attention on a particular skill before pupil participation.
- 2. The children are in control of the data collection process; thus, the motivation for learning is shifted from the teacher to the pupils. Such an activity is an example of an <u>inquiry</u> approach.
- 3. Children may discover various computational procedures, but, because the statement is made that the teacher is to present the methods of computing, a lecture is the most efficient strategy.
- 4. Periods for sharing experiences provide opportunities for children to develop skills in listening to others and in expressing themselves that are basis to discussion.
- 5. Mr. H. presented the item of knowledge first and then provided examples. This procedure represents a <u>deductive</u> sequence.
- 6. The children have been asked to apply the mathematical facts and procedures that they know to arrive at one correct answer to the division problem. This type of questioning calls for convergent thinking.
- 7. In this situation, examples are given before the rule is stated. Therefore, an <u>inductive</u> approach is followed.
- 8. Since there is no one correct title for the story, children are encouraged to contribute various suitable titles. This procedure leads to <u>divergent</u> thinking.
- 9. The <u>discovery</u> strategy emphasizes the processes that children use in learning.
- 10. Since symbols and vocabulary terms are used as a common basis for communication, an expository method is the best way to insure all children attaching similar meaning to those symbols and terms.

MODULE V: THE CURRICULUM

MODULE V: THE CURRICULUM

Directions

When you are familiar with the material presented in this module, complete the posttest. A listing of appropriate answers for the multiple-choice items follows the posttest. (The instructor will read your response to the essay question and make any necessary comments after you turn in the module.) Grade your test and record the number of correct responses in the space provided. You should read the brief explanation for each question that you have answered incorrectly.

Objectives

Given a set of multiple-choice items describing types of educational objectives, the student will identify the proper domain for each description of an objective.

Given a set of multiple-choice items describing organizational designs of the curriculum, the student will identify the appropriate organizational plan.

Given the choice of an elementary curriculum area, the student will briefly describe how that subject is organized and taught in the classroom in which the student is observing.

MODULE V: THE CURRICULUM

Introduction

The curriculum provides the broad base for all the activities and experiences that take place in the school. As such, it involves more than content. The curriculum involves all of the experiences that encourage the growth of the child as an individual and as a member of society. Therefore, the curricular program is the result of beliefs about what is to be taught and the manner in which it is to be learned. This module will discuss the sources and types of educational objectives and present a brief review of some curriculum organizations.

Objectives of the Curriculum

An important aspect in the success of the educational program is the recognition of the goals that the program is intended to achieve. General aims or goals of the school program are determined in part by the society and in part by those directly connected with the educative process - administrators, teachers, and children.

General goals define and give direction to the kinds of experiences and the curriculum that is implemented in the schools. As the society changes, attitudes concerning what is to be taught changes. Emphasis upon certain curricular areas and organizations shifts to represent different phiolosophies of education. Thus, the society is one source of the objectives of the school.

Objectives are also derived from the specialists who have studied the fields of educational philosophy, sociology, and psychology for implications in the determination of desirable educational aims of the school. Various national and state educational groups have formulated lists of general objectives which are used as a framework for developing the local school curriculum. State Departments of Education publish guidelines for curriculum planning and development which may be particularly helpful to local systems.

The general goals formulated by agencies outside the school anticipate what knowledges, skills, and appreciations all children should experience. This preplanned curriculum provides for the articulation and continuity of learning experiences among school systems which is so important in a mobile society such as ours.

In a particular school the general goals are applied to specific sets of individuals. A school staff may formulate a guide of objectives and curriculum activities for use with certain grade levels or for the entire elementary school program. Individual teachers then adopt these aims in developing instructional objectives to use in planning and evaluating lessons and units of work.

Instructional objectives may be classified into three kinds: cognitive, affective, and psycho-motor. The cognitive area deals with the ability to recall factual information and with intellectual processes. Educational psychologists who developed a hierarchy of objectives in this domain identified six levels of increasing complexity: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. The majority of objectives formulated by teachers are in the cognitive area.

Schools attempt to develop not only the intellectual abilities of children but certain values and attitudes as well. The affective domain refers to this emotional aspect of behavior. Appreciations for art and music are examples of this type of learning.

Skills and physical development are considered in the psychomotor area. This third group of objectives is applicable to such areas as physical and technical education.

The teacher should write instructional objectives in a clear and consise manner that can be understood by other teachers and by the students as well. There are several ways of stating objectives, but one that is widely used is the behavioral objective. In general, the behavioral objective defines the behavior to be demonstrated by the student, the conditions in which that behavior will occur, and the criteria of acceptable performance. Notice that the objective is stated in terms of student performance rather than teacher behavior. Unlike the course description which indicates the subject matter to be covered, the behavioral objective defines the behavior to be exhibited by the student at the end of instruction.

Having identified a set of objectives that are stated so that they can be achieved and evaluated, the teacher determines the processes and resources necessary to accomplish those objectives. The selected curriculum design is a strategy that attempts to fulfill the educational goals and objectives.

Organization of the Curriculum

The organization of subject matter has undergone significant changes during this century. In the early schools emphasis was upon

separate subjects. The various subjects were allotted portions of the daily schedule with little or no relationship between the content areas. This design allowed for the development and clarification of information as knowledge increased in each area. Although the separate subjects organization is found in its pure form in few schools today, it is most related to the departmentalized plan where emphasis is placed upon subject matter rather than the children.

The broad-fields approach was an attempt to relate separate subjects and resulted in the development of larger curriculum areas. Subjects were combined to form the language arts, mathematics, social studies, science, humanities, and physical education. Longer periods of time were provided for uninterrupted work in the various subject areas.

One attempt to eliminate school subjects from the curriculum used functions of social life as the basis for the learning experiences. The society-centered organization was a reaction against teaching children subject matter with little consideration of whether that instruction resulted in more socially knowledgeable persons. Activities were arranged around problems of everyday living and used content as resources for their solution. The impact of this design is seen today in the use of field trips and community resource persons in the school.

The child-centered designs placed the responsibility for initiating activities upon the children. The teacher shared in the decisions of what was studied, how it was learned, and the materials used but the major tasks were to observe progress and evaluate the students' work.

Naturally, this organization was highly individualized, and one can

see the influence of this program upon today's curriculum in the use of programmed materials and individualized learning kits.

Most of the designs in use today seek an integrated approach to the curriculum. There is a need for a balance of the directed teaching of content and of the utilization of broad, child-centered experiences. The unified program draws upon characteristics of the other designs. It attempts to synthesize the learnings gained from the community as in the society-centered plan. It offers a wide variety of experiences and individual pupil planning as did the child-centered programs. The curriculum of many of the open schools is based upon this integrated approach because of the flexibility and variability of learning experiences which it offers.

The community, the administrative organization of the school, the instructional materials, and the school staff all determine the particular curriculum organization of a specific school. The teacher must put together these various aspects when deciding upon the best curriculum design to meet the objectives that have been set forth as educational goals of the school.

POSTTEST FOR MODULE V: THE CURRICULUM.

Directions:	Circle	the letter	of the	answer	that	completes	each
statement.							

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1.	An objective for students in a methods course is to plan a unit of instruction for a teaching situation. This objective is in the domain.
	A. cognitive B. affective C. psycho-motor
2.	An objective that states that children will find pleasure in reading for recreation as evidenced by the amount of reading done in their free time is in the domain.
	A. cognitive B. affective C. psycho-motor
3.	The kindergarten curriculum is usually organized around such activities as playing, manipulating, and constructing. These emphases are, in part, a reflection of the approach.
	A. child-centered B. society-centered C. integrated
4.	Early childhood education is concerned with abilities related to hand-eye coordination and left-to-right sequencing. Objectives written to define these skills would be within the domain.
• •	A. cognitive B. affective C. psycho-motor
5.	Social studies programs are frequently based upon units which expand the study of the child's environment with each grade. This scheme is an expression of the philosophy behind the plan.
	A. child-centered B. society-centered C. broad-fields

6.	An objective which states that the student will be able to translate mathematical verbal material into symbolic statements is in the domain.
	A. cognitive
	B. affective
	C. psycho-motor
7,	Reading, spelling, and writing were grouped to form the language arts in the plan.
	A. society-centered
	B. integrated
	C, broad-fields
8.	Elementary teachers are particularly interested in children learning to listen carefully when others speak. An objective written to define this behavior would be in the domain.
	A. cognitive
	B. affective
	C. psycho-motor
	Select a content area of the elementary school curriculum and
Constinte	Select a content area of the elementary school curriculum and cribe how it is taught in the classroom in which you are observing. sider the level of intellectual and skill development that the riculum area is centered upon; in other words, state how it fits the scope and sequence of the curricular program. Mention any cific materials by name with which you are familiar and which relate that content area. You may use the back of this sheet if necessary.
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The most appropriate answers are:

1. a	2.	b 3.	a	4.	Ç	5. b	6.	а	7.	С	8.	Ъ
Score:												

Read the brief explanation for each statement that you incorrectly answered.

- 1. In order to produce a plan the student must put together or synthesize elements to form the whole. Synthesis is a level of the cognitive domain.
- 2. The student is sufficiently motivated to voluntarily read which indicates that the student's behavior is accompanied by feelings of satisfaction and pleasure. Objectives dealing with feelings are in the affective domain.
- 3. The normal activities of children, such as playing, are emphasized in the child-centered curriculum.
- 4. Coordination and muscular skills are within the psycho-motor domain.
- 5. The study of home and community life are expanded to the study of the state and nation in the society-centered curriculum.
- 6. Comprehension which is a level of <u>cognitive</u> functioning is to be evidenced by the translation of one form of language or communication to another.
- 7. Reading, writing, spelling, and language were correlated or fused in the broad-fields approach.
- 8. Willingness to receive and to attend to what is being said represents an attitude or feeling and, as such, is within the affective domain.

APPENDIX D

THE MASTERY TEST

MASTERY TEST

	etions: Circle the letter of the answer that best completes each ement.
1.	Ms. B. will be attending a two day workshop on teacher centers. This is a/an role.
	A. instructional B. community service C. professional
2.	Ms. J. is planning what the children will need to conduct their science experiments on the following day. This is a/an role.
	A. instructional B. guidance C. professional
3. *	Mr. A. is a member of a panel which will make a televised presentation to the public on the new ecology program that the school is implementing. This is a/an role.
	A. instructional B. guidance C. community service
4.	Mr. W. employs the practice of walking among the children while they are working at their math so that he may help them over problem spots. This is a/an role.
,	A. instructional B. guidance C. professional
5.	Special classes and ability grouping are attempts to meet children's needs.
	A. intellectual B. emotional C. social
6.	The child who is dirty and poorly dressed often has the most difficulties in the area.

A. intellectualB. physicalC. social

7.	In elementary schools, teachers usually read a story to the class after lunch break. This activity is done mainly in consideration of the children's development.
	A. intellectual B. physical C. social
8.	Mrs. H. has a large box turned on its side at the back of the room. Mrs. H. designated the box as "Paul's Quiet Room" and made it to assist Paul with his difficulties.
	A. intellectual B. emotional C. social
9.	At Columbia School children's performances are evaluated by considering individual abilities and stages of development rather than by comparing achievement to age norms. Columbia is probably a school.
	A. graded B. nongraded C. self-contained
10.	The teacher who is a generalist in all curriculum areas is most essential for the success of the plan.
	A. self-contained B. team teaching C. departmentalized
11.	Children are most likely to stay with the same teacher for up to three years in the plan.
	A. graded B. departmentalized C. multi-age
12.	In the majority of classrooms children are grouped for music and art according to a plan.
	A. homogeneous B. heterogeneous C. nongraded
13.	Mrs. K. wants to teach the children to make art mobiles. The best method to use is a
	A. lecture B. demonstration C. discussion

14.	The most effective way to present background information is probably by a/an method.
	A. expository B. discovery C. discussion
15.	Mrs. S. asked Susan to relate why the character in the story had to give away his pet fish. This is an example of questioning.
	A. convergent B. divergent C. deductive
16.	Mr. E. draws four differently shaped triangles on the board and asks the children to measure and add the angles of each. The children then generalize a geometrical rule. This is a/an sequence.
	A. inductive
	B. deductive
	C. divergent
17.	The use of programmed materials and individualized learning kits in the curriculum is partly due to the influence of the approach.
	A. society-centered
	B. child-centered
	C. integrated
18.	The direction for curriculum planning is provided by the
	A. content
	B. general goals C. specific objectives
	o. Specific objectives
19.	History and geography were combined to form the social studies in the approach.
	A. society-centered
	B. integrated
	C. broad-fields
20.	An objective which is concerned with an attitude toward a specific mental behavior such as reserving judgment until sufficient data is available would be in the domain.
	A. cognitive
	B. affective
	C. psychomotor

APPENDIX E

THE ATTITUDE EVALUATION

ATTITUDE EVALUATION

Do <u>not</u> write your name on this sheet. However, please indi seminar group:	.cate y	our,
Lecture-discussions		
Modules		
For each question place a check mark in the column for the most closely states your opinion.	answer	that
	Yes	No
1. Did you feel free to express yourself in this class?		
Were the topics presented pertinent to this type of course?		
3. Did you feel the method used to present topics was an appropriate one for this class?		
4. Was there a relationship between the topics presented and your observation experience?		
5. At this point in time do you plan to become an elementary classroom teacher?		
Please write additional comments about the instructor, the topics, etc. You may use the back of the sheet if necessar	-	, the
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VITA

Michaele Ann Buell

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: A COMPARISON OF TWO INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACHES IN AN INTRODUCTORY
TEACHER EDUCATION COURSE

Major Field: Elementary Education

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Bentonville, Arkansas, September 21, 1942, the daughter of Eva Raye Buell and Ralph Clayton Buell.

Education: Graduated from Bentonville High School, Bentonville, Arkansas, May, 1960; received the Bachelor of Science in Education from the University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, in 1965; received the Master of Science in Education degree from Central Missouri State University, Warrensburg, in 1971; received the Degree of Specialist from Central Missouri State University in 1972; completed the requirements for the Doctor of Education degree at Oklahoma State University in December, 1974.

Professional Experience: Elementary classroom teacher, grades 2 and 4, Springdale Public Schools, Arkansas, 1964-68; elementary classroom teacher of grade 4, Camdenton Public Schools, Missouri, 1970-71; graduate assistant, College Skills Department, Central Missouri State University, 1971-72; graduate assistant, Curriculum and Instruction Department, Oklahoma State University, 1972-74; team member of Oklahoma Region 5 Educational Support System, 1973-74.