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ABSTRACT

The report takes a look at teacher training in affective education. It defines vague concepts such as affective clucation and interpersonal skills, develops a rationale for needed changes in the school system, and cutlines specific strategies in teacher training as one way to begin to bring about change. The manual was developed in response to past unsatisfactory approaches to drug education. If schools are going to meet the increased demands of a rapidly changing society, then teachers must be better equipped to handle new responsibilities more effectively. The publication is divided into several parts which focus on definitions and rationale; the training process itself; recommendations for schools of education, school systems, and teachers; special concerns such as working with special populations or in special settings; and resources. (Author/PC)

BEYOND THE THREE R'S Training Teachers for Affective Education

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June, 1974

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INTRODUCTION

In the last several years the public school system has expanded its function beyond the 3 R's to include a variety of nonacademic areas such as drug education, sex education and family life education. This rapid expansion has been demanded by the public, usually in response to a "crisis situation" (stop the kids from smoking pot!). In our hurry to meet each crisis, we have neglected to reexamine the expectations we set for public education and the kind of preparation we offer term is to meet these expectations.

Drug education, sex education and other nontraditional "subject areas," once considered the strict province of the family, have challenged the educational system to change. The first unsuccessful efforts through traditional cognitive approaches to these topics—freat them like other subjects—dramatically pointed out a need to give the student's social and emotional development attention equal to that given his intellectual development. Consequently, we need to rethink the preparation we provide for teachers to do this.

The changes that have taken place in our society provide support for the assumption that social and emotional development should receive equal school time. When the public school system was started in this country, it met the demands of a new industrializing society. It prepared students with basic skills needed to earn a living, and it passed on our heritage through history and literature. The school met the need for information, while the family was still the main source of learning interpersonal skills. In our rapidly changing society, the needs have changed. We are saturated



with information from television, movies, newspapers, schools, etc., and have less time with the family to learn life-coping skills. Because the school probably has the largest block of the child's awake time, it has an opportunity to help the child develop personal skills needed to live in this rapidly changing world. Where the school once adequately served society by teaching about the past and preparing students for the immediate present, it now needs to equip its students to cope with a world of constant change and the broadening choices open to them.

The question now is, "How will we meet the challenge?" Will we continue to do much the same thing in teacher education, but perhaps introduce some new labels? Will we jump on the latest bandwagon (i.e., humanistic education or affective education) without closely examining the rationale or the consequences, especially to young people in the school system? Or will we begin to map some carefully thought out changes, to understand as best we can the ramifications of these changes, and to decide yes or no on a commitment to accepting these changes and all of the possible consequences?

For three years the Southern Regional Education Board* has responded to many of these issues through the activities of its alcohol and drug education project.** For the first two years, the project sponsored a problem-solving forum for people in the I4-state SREB region who had a



^{*}The SREB is an educational compact of 14 southern states: Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Texas, Tennessee, Virginia and West Virginia.

^{**}Enhancing Drug Education in the South was first funded in 1971 by the Drug Abuse Division of the National Institute of Mental Health which has since moved to the National Institute on Drug Abuse.

statewide responsibility for alcohol and drug education. This included both public and voluntary agencies and drug education for adult populations as well as for young people.

As the project participants began to share their experiences, they found that the most concentrated drug education effort was directed toward young people, kindergarten through 12th grade, and that a major problem in this area was dealing with teachers' discomforts in handling drug issues in their classrooms (i.e., the need for teacher training). At the same time, program evaluations were beginning to appear that proclaimed drug education's cognitive approach a dramatic failure. Educators were asking, "If information is not sufficient, what do we need to do differently, and how do we do it?"

In response to this concern, the project began to focus more on drug education in the school system and specifically on teacher preparation—not because we believed young people to be the major population with a "drug problem," but because this was where the action was in drug education. It seemed to be the time and the place to try to make a difference.

We convened a small task force of teacher educators and teachers to go through a three-step process: brainstorm about what the majority of students need to avoid problems with drugs, identify the classroom experiences that could help meet those needs, and define in specific terms the value, skill and knowledge competencies that would enable a teacher to structure such experiences. The task force developed a publication entitled Doing Drug Education which describes a "drug educator" role that any teacher should be able to assume when drug issues come up in his class. The task force made two strong points of emphasis. First, the



competencies are by no means restricted to drug education, although they are stated in terms of drug issues, since drug education was the project's main concern. The knowledge competencies include areas of specific drug knowledge; however, the emphasis is on the value and skill competencies needed by a teacher to help students deal with a number of personal behavior areas, not just drug issues. Secondly, the task force did not wish to define "drug educator" as a teacher of a separate drug education course. Rather, we described it as one of many roles that any teacher might assume, regardless of his primary teaching responsibility (English, health, social studies, etc.). In short, the "drug educator" competencies are applicable to all teachers and to personal behavior issues in general. These two points of emphasis are important to the work that followed.

The third year of the project was devoted to developing an approach to teacher training that will enable teachers to handle "life educator" roles such as drug education. This publication is the result of a series of task force sessions to accomplish that objective. SREB staff and the task force hope that this publication will serve as a companion to Doing Drug Education and as a "map" for teacher education programs beginning from different points but wanting to go in the same direction. The map does not attempt to identify every sign along the road, but to offer a sense of direction, major routes that can be followed and significant landmarks along the way.

Our target is both preservice and inservice teacher education. Some attention—not as much as we would have liked—is given to the training implications for administrators who will need to provide necessary support for teachers using their new skills. They will need to understand—and help



the community understand—that an approach to drug education which does not attack drugs can be an effective step in drug abuse prevention.

Like Doing Drug Education, this publication has a much broader applicability than training for the single teaching role of "drug educator."

In fact, this task force moved farther away from "drug education" than did the competency task force, and couched its recommendations and guidelines in more general terms of affective education. The two major reasons for making this decision are: first, we wanted to attract readers who might not be interested in "drug education" because of the connotations given that term by some of the early approaches; second, at some point in the future the momentum behind "drug education" will die and the sources of funding will dry up. If our suggestions are too closely locked into drug education, they may suffer the same fate and their broader applicability may not be appreciated.

As a final step in the process of putting the task force report together, the project sponsored a workshop of teacher educators from preservice and inservice training programs and from both the policy making and direct training levels. The purpose of the workshop was twofold: to present the "map" in draft form for reactions and revisions, and to share the ownership of the final publication. Participants gave their time and expertise to flag the areas that were unclear or infeasible and to suggest modifications that would make this document more complete and helpful.

In many ways, this publication is not a finished document, even for the immediate present. Because of time constraints and the need to avoid tackling the total universe of teacher education, many issues were not touched on by the task force. We recognize the incompleteness and invite



readers to revise and build on these ideas to make the work a more useful tool.

We also recognize that by centering attention on teacher training or even the broader area of staff development, we have selected out
only one part (i.e., teachers or personnel) of the complex school system.
We emphasize that teacher training occurs within the context of the entire
school system and that its effectiveness is greatly reduced without appropriate changes in other parts of the system. Teacher educators who accept
any part of the revisions in teacher training suggested here need to look
carefully at concurrent revisions needed in school policy, personnel policies, scheduling practices, instructional materials, supervisory practices,
leadership styles in school administration, communication patterns among
staff levels and other relevant areas. Without supportive systemic changes,
newly trained teachers quickly revert to the status quo.

Our thanks go to the task force members for their ideas, to the coordinators and special consultants who helped put it all together, and to
the workshop participants who helped us revise the working draft. However,
the final responsibility for the content of this publication, including the
definitions of terms used, lies with the SREB project staff and does not
necessarily reflect a consensus of thought among all of the people who
have been involved in this work.

Xenia R. Wiggins Project Director Enhancing Drug Education in the South



PART I: CONCEPTUAL ISSUES

The charge to the task force was to develop a guide for planning teacher education programs that will prepare teachers for affective education to better enable them to foster their students' social and emotional development and to handle new teaching roles such as "drug educator." Our mission, therefore, was not to tackle the whole field of teacher education. However, we recognize that our isolation of one piece of teacher education is an artificial separation, one which gave the task force members a number of problems. We encourage the reader to be sensitive to the implications that many of the suggestions and guidelines presented here have for the total teacher education program and, to a large extent, for the university or inservice program at large.

Neither was our mission to crusade against the cognitive component in teacher education. We do not deny the teacher's need to have fairly extensive knowledge about his subject area and to understand basic theories and rationales in education. Nor do we deny the cognitive side of affective education. The teacher needs to know the theory behind conflict resolution, for example, before he can learn to use it. We are saying, however, that preparing the teacher in skills related to affective education goes beyond an understanding of the theory and rationale. In addition to nowing about the skill, the teacher needs an opportunity to experience it as a "student;" that is, to actually go through an exercise; to process that experience (i.e., to become very familiar with the specific behaviors that are a part of the skill and their purposes); and to practice using the skills in a teaching role. In short, we are advocating that teachers be taught as



they are being taught to teach, that both teacher educators and teachers become proficient in affective skills, not to demonstrate their professional competence or to "technique" their respective students, but to foster their students' development through growth-promoting teacher-student interaction.

In trying to give a clear meaning to the concept of affective education as the task force used it, we do not want to imply that affective education is separate from and somehow not related to cognitive learning. Affective learning can be a part of the regular school day with no addition of a new course and without neglecting traditional subject areas. Many of these subjects—especially literature, social studies and health—often touch on issues with direct bearing on what is happening every day in the students' lives. However, teachers tend to devote the entire classtime to learning about the piece of literature—themes, character analysis, author's writing style, imagery, author's life and times, etc. If some classtime were given to exploring the issue raised as it relates to the students' world (rather than to the author's world or characters' world) then affective learning could occur side by side with the cognitive learning.

If affective learning is to occur in conjunction with intellectual growth, the teacher should be careful to insure that the cognitive (academic) side to the class experience be relevant to the students' "need to know." For example, health classes offer excellent opportunities to deal with sexrelated issues cognitively and affectively. But if the subject matter is treated more as an introduction to medicine where students learn the difference between mitosis and meiosis and memorize significant characteristics of stages of embryonic development, students miss an opportunity to learn more useful information in plain language. In addition, the opportunity to



explore feelings, values and behavior issues is virtually nonexistent because of the highly objective, sterile way in which the subject is introduced and treated.

DEFINITIONS

Before getting further into the development of major concepts, several important terms need to be clarified in terms of the way the task force used them.

Student refers to a young person (usually 6 years to 18 years old) in the school system.

Stude: teacher refers to a future or current teacher at any point in the teacher education program—preservice or inservice—and is not restricted to its more limited reference to a future teacher in field placement just before graduation.

Education and training are used interchangeably throughout this publication, although many educators may take issue. For our purposes, both terms refer to a planned, integrated program—whether part of a four-year college program or an inservice workshop series—designed specifically to increase teachers' ability to handle their professional responsibilities.

Experiential learning is a concept which covers a range of meanings for people. Defined broadly, the term refers to active involvement of the learner in the learning process and includes almost any activity such as individual projects or discussion sessions where the learner shares more of the responsibility than merely sitting passively taking notes from a lecturer. The task force emphasized a more specific application



of experiential learning, but not to the exclusion of more traditional activities that come under the broad definition. The task force recommended that experiential learning involve the learner in actually doing the skill being learned. For example, a student-teacher learning values clarification might do a paper on values clarification and actually develop strategies for classroom use. This could be considered experiential learning since the student-teacher is actively involved. However, he is still learning about rather than to do. We advocate an additional dimension—having the student-teacher actually conduct values clarification with his peers in the training session and with students in the classroom. Ideally, there would be opportunity to process the learning experience with an instructor who could help the student-teacher see his strengths and limitations in exercising the skill.

Intrapersonal and interpersonal skills are two terms used frequently in this publication. Intrapersonal skills concern the person's ability to know himself and his needs and to handle his feelings. Can he identify feelings such as fear and anxiety? Does he have the ability to discover the source of the feeling and to rehearse mentally how he might deal with it? Does he accept his feelings as legitimate, even though they may be uncomfortable at times, rather than try to deny them? Does he fully understand the values and attitudes he holds and how they affect his behavior, and can he recognize inconsistencies between personal values or between values and behavior?

Interpersonal skills, on the other hand, concern the person's ability to relate to other people. Does he really hear what other people say and is he sensitive to nonverbal communication? Can he express a range of



feelings (anger as well as love) and know when and how it is appropriate to do so? Can he deal with conflict in resolving ways rather than in a resolution-defeating manner? The distinction between *intra* and *inter* is often a fine line. One is more an internal process while the other requires action (which draws on the internal process).

Affective education is perhaps the major concept in need of definition. This term often refers to techniques for motivating students to learn their regular subjects, or it can refer to teaching "human growth and development" or "life adjustment" as a subject area where students memorize mental health concepts or a list of defense mechanisms. We outlined a working definition by describing "what we mean" and "what we do not mean" by the term "affective education."

What We Do Mean:

(The following points are listed in a developmental order rather than order of priority).

- 1. A conscious goal of the school system, not something that we assume occurs just because teachers and students are interacting. This implies stated student outcomes.
- 2. Experiential learning
- 3. Objectives which promote self-esteem and personal assertiveness, and which facilitate the development of intrapersonal skills (e.g., awareness and acceptance of feelings, ability to discriminate feelings) and interpersonal skills (e.g., decision making, listening and responding skills, and ability to express feelings in a constructive manner). The objective is to influence the students' ability to handle their behavior as well as their feelings.
- 4. Experiences offered as part of formal education which promote the students' social and emotional growth. Experiences are not restricted to classroom activities, but for our purposes, they do not include extracurricular activities such as clubs and sports.



- 5. A process that can occur in at least three different ways in the classroom:
 - 1) The teacher can take advantage of unplanned learning experiences offered by real situations in the classroom or school (e.g., helping a student learn to deal with "failure" when he fails a test or cannot do a task well, helping nim to approach school authorities about changing a school policy, helping him learn to handle conflicts.)
 - 2) The teacher can use regular subject content to help students explore situations they may encounter (e.g., use *Romeo and Juliet* to talk about parental disapproval of dating someone parents do not like).
 - 3) The teacher can plan a classroom experience (e.g., role play situations) purely for the sake of fostering the students' affective development. It would not have to relate to regular subject area.
- 6. Planned experiences aimed at promoting the students' affective development should lean heavily toward constructing situations the student is likely to face in the real world. (Some group dynamics games may deal with "real" personal behavior issues—getting to know someone, trust, openness, etc., but they are generally artificial. For example, the situation calling for trust in a game such as "trust walk" where the student is blindfolded and entrusts his physical safety to his partner who leads him safely around the room, is not like real life situations where emotional trust is often the issue.)

What We Do Not Mean:

- I. Teaching "about" social and emotional growth and development as a subject area. We are not interested in preparing teachers to teach a psychology course where students learn, for example, Maslow's hierarchy of needs in much the same way they memorize the major products exported from the U.S. Our definition includes cognitive learning of basic mental health concepts but this is foundation for experiential learning and not the ultimate objective in itself.
- 2. Creating fun new ways to learn regular subject matter.
- 3. Teaching ethics and values. The student will surely learn values at school. But for our purposes, we are concentrating



- on teaching the student "how" to think (how to make decisions, how to select values) rather than "what" to think.
- 4. Reducing destructive feelings (guilt, anxiety) that interfere with improved test scores. We are interested in helping a student learn to handle feelings such as guilt and anxiety, but the guiding objective under our definition of affective education is facilitation of his healthy emotional development rather than facilitation of his cognitive development. The student may well have higher test scores as a result of affective education, but improved grades is not the reason behind this effort.
- Sensitivity training—some sensitivity techniques may be appropriate for classroom use with students and as training experiences for teachers, but we believe they should be used cautiously and only with well trained leaders who are capable of going beyond the immediate experience to "teach" participants "what" they experienced, "how" it occurred (the purpose of the different steps in the exercise) and how the experience relates to the real world where permission to be "free" in feelings and actions does not exist.

Many of the descriptions under "What We Do Not Mean" may be legitimate functions of the school. But the point here is to clarify for the reader the specific objectives of teacher education in affective learning.

Level of teacher training toward which we were working is another concept for which the task force needed clarity. For our discussion, we conceptualized three possible levels of training. Each level builds on the level before it and adds a new dimension. Thus a teacher must have self-awareness before he can model, and he must be able to model before he can facilitate.

1. Awareness. The purpose of training is to make the teacher aware of "where he is" in interpersonal and intrapersonal skill development—what values he holds, how he communicates in interpersonal relationships, how he listens, what attitudes he holds toward students and teaching, how he resolves conflicts, etc. Movement is not the objective of awareness training, although it may occur with some teachers.



- 2. Modeling. The purpose of training is to get the teacher from "where he is" to "where he ought to be" to present the best possible model to his students in interpersonal relationships. The teacher learns what in his behavior needs to change; how he needs to change it, and can participate in training experiences to produce the desired change. The teacher's movement to a point of ability to use skills naturally instead of mechanically is the objective of modeling.
- 3. Facilitation. The purpose of training is to equip the teacher to facilitate the growth of his students. He not only models good interpersonal and intrapersonal skills, but he also relates to his students and plans experiences for them that will move them closer to possessing his skills. The teacher's ability to promote movement in students is the objective of facilitation.

Modeling is a critical level of training. To be a true model, the teacher needs well developed interpersonal and intrapersonal skills that are a natural part of his interaction with students and in his other relationships. His skills are no longer "tricks" he pulls from a bag as "treatment" for a particular situation, but part of a process involving students and in response to students that is exercised throughout the school day. Facilitation is the most complex level and may be more difficult to ircorporate. It includes modeling but demands an additional level of ability.

Many affective education programs are training primarily for awareness and to some extent for modeling. These are steps in the right direction, but it is important that teacher education not stop at the awareness or even the modeling level, particularly if teachers are to be effective in drug abuse prevention or the prevention of other destructive behaviors. The recommendations presented in this publication are based on facilitation as the desirable level of training.



RATIONALE

The decision to undertake the task of developing a "training map" is based on the rationale that empowering people to take responsibility for their lives reduces their feeling of anxiety or inferiority and therefore reduces their potential for self-defeating behavior, including dysfunctional drug use. Well thought out planning for the school's responsibility for students' affective development (as well as intellectual development) is one step the school can take as a partner in the prevention of social problems such as drug abuse, suicide, etc.

The skills we are advocating teaching are skills that many counselors use and teach when they work with people in temporary crises.

We are suggesting that teaching skills as an educational experience rather than as a therapeutic experience will help decrease the number of people who have to seek help or who turn to drugs to handle their personal problems. Of course, there is a difference between the counselor role in prevention and the teacher role, and we are not advocating that the teacher be prepared or be expected to act as a counselor or psychologist. The teacher does not have the time to work with students on a one-to-one basis to the extent that a counselor does. But the majority of students in most classrooms are not in crisis and do not need as intensive attention as a counselor would give to a person asking for help.

The teacher needs to be prepared to help a student find a more intensive helping situation if it becomes necessary and to recognize when it is necessary. This is important training since students in trouble are more likely to turn to a special teacher than a counselor for help because



they see the teacher every day and have more opportunity to know him and feel comfortable with him.

One assumption we make in stating the rationale is that affective education can and should be a part of the public school responsibility, and therefore teachers should be prepared to handle it. The first part of this assumption is that it is feasible. Schools can incorporate affective education without major rescheduling of the school day and without prohibitive cost. The assumption is supported by the fact that almost all of the affective techniques that have been developed so far require no change in the school building and no special equipment or furniture. They do call for a change in the way in which the class is conducted and teacher preparation to make that change.

The second part of the assumption is that schools should assume responsibility for their students' social and emotional development. The school system claims that it has always met this responsibility, but affective development as a conscious objective has not been clearly defined or planned with the same attention given to cognitive growth.

We are also assuming that teachers can be trained to teach affective learning. Some people would argue that the skills and attitudes needed to foster healthy emotional development are basic personality traits, that they are not skills a teacher can learn in a classroom or training program. They would say that a teacher either has the desirable traits or he doesn't. It is true that the training task is easier if the trainee already has certain basic personal characteristics. It is also true that the best training available will not make "good" teachers out of some people and may not



produce many "ideal" teachers. But the objective of teacher training is that of all professions: to recruit the most suitable candidates and to maximize their potential to meet the ideal standards.



PART II: THE TRAINING PROCESS

Part II contains two basic organizational divisions: a description of specific teacher competencies and a description of a training process that could produce a teacher of affective learning. The training process is broken down into seven chronological stages beginning with recruiting applicants to the program and ending with "graduation" and follow-up.

The seven stages lean more toward preservice teacher education than toward inservice because preservice programs offer a more consistent framework for discussing basic issues. Their housing in a college or university insures certain similarities, while inservice programs operate under a wide variety of structures that result in different selection possibilities, different levels of student-teacher evaluation, different supervisory practices and varying amounts of time to give to the training experience.

The task force saw preservice and inservice teacher preparation as existing on a continuum rather than as two separate stages of staff development. Thus a number of the recommendations are applicable to both areas or at least adaptable from their preservice framework to the specific inservice setting.

The suggestions and recommendations are not offered as a package which must be adopted in toto. The outline is offered merely as a convenient structure to which widely diverse issues and guidelines could be attached in some coherent manner. We recognize the unique constraints of different teacher education settings and their need to tailor recommendations accordingly.



TEACHER COMPETENCIES*

The teacher competencies described here are the basis of the task force recommendations outlined in the seven stages of the training process.

Although they are important in the early stages of attracting and selecting applicants, they become particularly important in Stage V: Facilitation Training. For this reason, each competency has been numbered, and will appear again (by code) in Stage V to help the reader relate the suggested training experiences to specific value, skill and knowledge competencies.

A teacher in the role of drug educator needs all of the competencies that any teacher needs, and to single out this one role says, by omission, that the competencies needed for the role of drug educator are not needed in other teaching roles. Drug education is presented here merely as the issue around which the competencies are described and not as the issue or teaching role to which the competencies are limited.

Values and Attitudes. Values and attitudes are perhaps the most important component of the competencies for the role of drug educator. They are listed before skills and knowledge because it is only within the philosophy they espouse that skill and knowledge descriptions become meaningful. Values and attitudes will play a part in determining how knowledge and skills are used. The teacher's attitudes toward his students and toward profession will influence the knowledge and skill area he considers important and therefore worthy of developing.



^{*}The teacher competencies described in this section are taken directly from Doing Drug Education, (SREB, 1972), the report of an earlier task force. See the introduction for more information.

Essential Values and Attitudes

VI. Conviction that the teacher should serve more as a facilitator of learning than an imparter of information.

This attitude will help enable the teacher to allow students an active role in classroom experiences and to relate the drug education program to the real concerns of students.

The teacher is able to:

- Accept his role as a teacher of people rather than as a teacher of subjects
- 2. Believe that students should play a part in designing their learning experiences
- 3. Participate as a learner in the classroom experience
- 4. Use feedback from students to modify his own teaching and personal interaction with students.
- 5. Believe that students can grow socially and emotionally as well as intellectually, and that social/emotional development is an important part of learning.
- 6. Believe that he, as a teacher, can facilitate the development of interpersonal and intrapersonal skills in his students.
- V2. Acceptance of own limitations as a drug educator or drug counselor; willingness to seek assistance when needed.

The teacher can respect his own competence as an educator and at the same time recognize the value in educational experiences provided outside the classroom. At times the teacher may be asked questions he cannot answer or be called on to give help he is not trained to give. His ability to recognize situations where the student would benefit more by exposure to people with other kinds of competencies will enable him to handle such situations.

- 1. Recognize learning experiences in the community that would make a valuable contribution to the drug education program
- 2. Invite community representatives into the classroom to expose students to a number of viewpoints on drug issues



- 3. Admit that he does not know the answer to drug related questions beyond his knowledge
- 4. Refer drug counseling problems beyond his competence to handle to appropriate resources.
- V3. Conviction of the worth and dignity of students.

The teacher will find it easier to establish rapport with his students if he is able to recognize them as individuals in their own right, due the same respect that he would show a fellow adult. Showing understanding and empathy for students does not imply that the teacher should give up his own opinions.

The teacher is able to:

- Involve students in planning and decisions regarding their welfare
- 2. Recognize that students must accept increasing responsibility for personal decisions
- 3. Recognize that his own personal alternatives to drug use (e.g., religion) might not be acceptable to the student
- 4. Avoid labeling people with stereotyped or derogatory terms (e.g., "hippie," "junky," "punk")
- 5. Listen to other points of view and accept them as legitimate for the people who hold them
- 6. Appreciate something of value in every student
- V4. Attitude of respect for and understanding of "different" individuals and lifestyles.

The teacher may have students in his class who come from varying backgrounds. What might be considered normal drug use in one lifestyle might be considered deviant in another. For example, the teacher and class members who feel that social drinking is acceptable should not insist that others who have decided differently must follow their practice.

- Respect the student's right to self determination
- 2. Believe in the right of students to maintain their differences which do not interfere with other members of the class



- 3. Understand different lifestyles exhibited by students
- V5. Attitude of respect for and trust in the student's family regardless of the teacher's personal preference for a particular family lifestyle.

Every teacher will have students whose parents exhibit behavior—including drug using behavior—that the teacher does not condone. His attitude toward the family need not prevent him from encouraging strengths that exist in the family relationships. The teacher can avoid creating or widening any gaps by not instilling in the student a belief that his family is "wrong," "inferior," "im—moral," etc.

Teacher is able to:

- 1. Realize that families will make different judgments about their drug use
- Avoid labeling families with judgmental terms such as "bad," "wrong," etc.
- 3. Realize that what he personally perceives as a "destructive" parent-child relationship may not necessarily be destructive to the parent and student
- 4. Recognize that the student will probably continue to live with his family and will therefore benefit more from help in coping with stressful situations rather than increased dissatisfaction.
- V6. Conviction that his own personal decisions regarding drug use and personal opinions on drug issues are legitimately held.

If the teacher is to serve as an effective role modei, he should be able to express and justify his personal decisions regarding drug use and his opinions on controversial drug issues. By demonstrating his personal valuing and decision-making processes, the teacher avoids giving students the idea that it really does not matter what drug use decisions they make. The teacher can stand up for his beliefs and at the same time recognize the legitimacy of other's beliefs.

The teacher is able to:

 Recognize the importance of personal drug use decisions for self and students and the possible consequences of the decisions



- 2. Recognize appropriate time and place to express personal decisions and opinions regarding drugs to students
- 3. Convey personal attitudes toward drug use to students in a nonauthoritarian, nonlecturing summer
- 4. Accept reactions from students who may disagree with his position
- 5. Demonstrate to students the rationale underlying his personal decisions
- 6. Recognize that personal values and attitudes regarding drug issues will influence his classroom behavior; examine personal values and attitudes and be sensitive to their influences.
- V7. Ailitude of respect for the integrity of the human body.

The body's ecological system is altered by an assimilated drug. Under some circumstances, the apeutic drug use may be necessary to preserve the normal ecological balance. Social drug use, however, does not promote natural functioning. The degree to which it disrupts the ecology depends, of course, on the type of drug, amount and frequency of use. The teacher may decide to use drugs socially, and certainly some of his students will. If he signals to students and attitude of respect for the integrity of the body, he may—as a role model—discourage students from carrying their drug use to extremes of body pollution.

The teacher is able to:

- Recognize that assimilated substances after the natural functioning of the body
- 2. Realize the importance of maintaining the balance of the body as an ecological system
- 3. Realize that all drugs have both desirable and undesirable effects on the body which must be weighed in the decision to use drugs therapeutically or socially.
- V8. Conviction that ding and alcohol issues are legitimate issues to be covered in the classroom.

This conviction would seem essential to the role of drug educator. If the teacher believes, for example, that drug and alcohol use should be discussed only in the home, then he will not allow such topics to come up for discussion in his class. If he does not believe in the effectiveness of what he is doing, he is likely to give the role lip service only.



The teacher is able to:

- Value drug education as an effective means of reducing the number of students who will have drug related problems
- Express interest in the classroom in current issues and trands relating to drugs
- 3. Express interest in the latest trends in drug use patterns among students.
- V9. Conviction that drug education should encourage alternatives to drug use rather than attack drugs.

It may be difficult for the teacher to realize that drugs very often have positive results for the user. They may provide the user with a sense of identity and group acceptance and they may help reduce unpleasant moods and feelings and provide very pleasurable experiences. The positive gains may have more importance to the user than any negative warnings of the dangers of drug use to physical and mental health. The challenge to the drug educator, therefore, is to help students discover alternatives which compete with drugs in offering these positive results.

The teacher is able to:

- Understand the discomfort associated with feelings of inferiority, rejection, anxiety, etc.
- 2. Recognize the importance of activity and involvement in reducing such uncomfortable feelings
- 3. Believe that activity in an area of interest can successfully compete with drugs in reducing uncomfortable feelings and in helping to provide positive results such as group acceptance.

Skills. Skills are the techniques, methods and procedures which the teacher uses to fulfill objectives in the classroom, with parents and in the community.

Teaching skills and interpersonal skills are critical to a good drug education program. They influence how effectively the teacher can communicate his knowledge and what results will occur from that communication.



Affective education requires a close examination of the additional skills teachers need. The appropriate skills and values and attitudes may be more essential than any amount of drug knowledge in the reduction of drug problems.

SI. Skills in recognizing and working with student concerns around drug issues.

The student lives in a drug-using society and needs to learn to cope with that environment. Information and issues that are made relevant to the student's frame of reference are more effective in motivating the student to learn. The teacher who serves as a facilitator of learning is skilled in identifying, clarifying and using the needs of students to promote their cognitive and affective growth.

The teacher is able to:

- I. Promote an awareness and increased understanding in the student of the total drug world in which he lives and how he relates to it
- 2. Involve students in designing and implementing classroom activities which reflect students' current concerns around drug issues and anticipate some immediate concerns students may have as they grow older
- 3. Select language and behavior appropriate to the situation in which he is interacting with students.
- 52. Skill in using value clarification as a learning experience.

Because of the increased number and variety of conflicting values a student encounters, he needs an opportunity to clarify his own thinking. Rather than impose still another idea of what to think, the classroom can provide the opportunity for the student to examine a number of value positions and select his own values treely. The student's value system greatly influences his personal decisions and behavior.

The teacher is able to:

I. Raise questions with students which cause them to clarify their values through consideration of alternative positions; examine possible inconsistencies in their values; and examine the strength of their values as shown by their actions



- 2. Clarify his own values with regard to drug issues without imposing his values on the students
- 3. Develop and use classroom exercises which raise value issues of concern to students regarding the drug world in which they live. (Issues might include legalization, dealing with peer pressure, use of drugs to control behavior or enhance mental abilities. medical experimentations.)
- 53. Skills in problem solving and decision making.

Teacher competency in problem solving will aid students in examining factual information to use in making decisions governing their personal drug-using behavior. If society holds the child increasingly responsible for his behavior as he grows older, then the classroom should provide an apportunity for him to develop skills which enable him to accept that responsibility and handle it successfully.

- 1. Assist students in defining questions which reflect their particular interest or meed and deciding what information they need to answer their questions
- 2. Evaluate and use resource persons and materials for the drug education program •
- 3. Discriminate between fact and fiction about drugs and alcohol
- 4. Assist students in locating resources at school or in the community for obtaining desired information or skill. (Resources include written material, institutions or agencies, or people with expertise accessible to the student and appropriate to his developmental level.)
- 5. Design and conduct classroom activities (e.g., role playing, group discussion) which give students the opportunity to develop and examine various ways of handling drug use issues relevant to their age and social situation
- 6. Stimulate the students' desire to investigate different points of view and examine their implications
- 7. Design and use classroom activities which give students the opportunity to test the strength of their decisions
- 8. Assist students in recognizing positive and negative consequences of decisions concerning drug use, misuse and abuse



- 9. Assist students in learning how to weigh the consequences of possible decisions they could make on drug issues
- 10. Assist students in evaluating risk-taking for self development
- II. Solicit and receive feedback from students to accurately determine how the teacher's behavior affects the students and, when appropriate, be able to change.
- S4. Skills in working with problem students individually.

A teacher trained for the role of drug educator hopefully will be particularly sensitive to any existing drug problems in the school. If he has established a good rapport with his students, they may look to him as a person to go to for help with a drug problem. The teacher needs to be skilled in handling a request for help. Above all, he must be able to recognize his own limitations in a counseling situation and be helpful to the student in deciding what other sources of help would be appropriate.

- I. Recognize drug abuse problems in students; distinguish between drug experimentation, use and abuse
- 2. Provide emotional support to students who disclose personal drug abuse problems or problems with family or with friends
- Assess his own limitations in dealing with a student or family drug problem and make referrals to appropriate professional help
- 4. Establish rapport by conveying to the drug-using student a non-judgmental acceptance of him without necessarily condoning his behavior
- 5. Plan with the student an immediate course of action acceptable to the student
- 6. Structure the counseling situation to maximize the student's thinking for himself and to promote the student's active participation in deciding on the course of action acceptable to the student
- 7. Assess needs or personal problems of the student through accurately reading his verbal and nonverbal behavior
- 8. Facilitate the student's developing a sense of self worth



- 9. Identify family problems influencing the student's behavior.
- S5. Skills in working with other adults concerned with students in the drug education program.

One critical set of skills involves working with other adults, such as school administrators, parents, and community representatives, particularly where differences in attitudes and philosophies exist. Involving others in the drug education program can be useful in broadening the scope of classroom experiences and promoting an understanding in the school and community of the program itself. In addition, considerable skill is needed in working with significant adults in handling an individual student's drug problem to his best interest.

- 1. Involve parents, appropriate school personnel and community representatives in the drug education program
- 2. Provide accurate information to and work with other school personnel (school nurse, counselor, principal) in dealing with problems of drug use
- 3. Encourage the cooperation of school personnel in getting help for a student with a drug problem in a manner that is acceptable to the student
- 4. Communicate with parents to bring about new insights as to the needs and problems of the student
- 5. Educate parents and other adults to existing or potential problems in the use or abuse of drugs
- 6. Promote a constructive parent-teacher relationship in the interest of the student
- 7. Provide information concerning the school's drug education program to other school personnel and interested community representatives
- 8. Work with law enforcement representatives in the best interest of a student apprehended for drug possession or sale on the school grounds
- 9. Promote parents' confidence in the school's drug education program.



Rnowledge. The knowledge base for teaching is the body of fact, theories, principles, and relationships that underlies the teacher-student classroom experience. For any subject area, the teacher must possess a basic level of knowledge and understanding to be an effective facilitator of learning. In drug education there has not been a consensus as to what areas and depth of knowledge are needed. The knowledge competencies !isted here do not describe a pharmacologist, a physician, or psychologist. Instead, they describe a teacher who understands the needs and problems of his students and who has enough knowledge about drugs and current trends in drug issues (social use, legalization, etc.) to feel comfortable handling class discussions and students' questions. Rather than being a "drug expert" (whatever that might be), he is able to recognize his own limitations and refer students to other cources when necessary.

KI. Knowledge and understanding of human growth and development.

The knowledge of growth and developmental characteristics of students help prescribe what to teach, when and how to teach. A working knowledge of the stages of physical and emotional development also enables the teacher to better empathize with his students; to help them learn how to cope with personal concerns, problems and needs; and to recognize and understand behavioral problems.

- Identify the factors that affect the sequence of mental and physical growth and development
- 2. Illustrate the interrelatedness of physical, emotional and social dimensions of growing and developing
- Identify the physical, social and psychological stages of human growth and development
- 4. Describe in depth the developmental stage for the age group for which drug education is provided



- State examples of different patterns of social behavior frequently observed among students with whom the teacher will be working
- 6. State examples of different techniques frequently employed by his students to deal with various levels of stress
- 7. Relate the various stages of growth and development to drug use and abuse
- 8. Illustrate behaviors that often indicate underlying problems.
- K2. Knowledge and understanding of the general composition of the most common drugs and their effects.

The teacher will need an understanding of the general nature of common drugs and their positive and negative effects if he is to provide an opportunity for the student to understand current scientific information concerning the relationship of drugs to physical, mental and social health. More importantly, such knowledge will help the teacher answer a student's questions or help him find answers to his questions concerning drug issues.

The teacher is able to:

- 1. Identify common drugs by pharmacological and slang names
- 2. Classify common drugs into commonly accepted categories
- 3. Define basic terminology related to drug use, misuse and abuse (terms such as drug dependence, addiction, tolerance, withdrawal)
- 4. Recall the origin of common drugs (i.e., poppy, hemp plant, cactus, laboratory)
- 5. Identify the ways in which different drugs are taken into the body (i.e., orally, injected, inhaled)
- 6. List the general effects of different drugs (including the effects of exposure to household products and industrial agents) on the body.
- K3. Knowledge and understanding of basic uses and abuses of drugs.

The role of drug educator includes helping the student understand the positive function of drugs as well as the possible consequences of drug misuse and abuse. The student needs to understand what we



know and what we do not know about drug effects and to consider what the future might hold in terms of scientific discoveries for the use of drugs and changes in social drug use.

The teacher is able to:

- I. Illustrate current functional uses of drugs in society
- Illustrate some of the possible ill effects of drugs that are misused or abused and the relative probability of the different effects
- 3. Identify some of the underlying causes of drug abuse
- 4. Distinguish between causes for experimental or social drug use and dysfunctional drug abuse
- Compare different uses of drugs among a number of cultural groups and particularly among subcultural groups in this country
- 6. Compare different forms of drug use and abuse among various age groups, including adults
- 7. Summarize now drugs are used and abused in certain occupational groups
- 8. Cite examples of patterns of "medical" drug use and misus common in many families; il ustrate how the patterns might vary from subculture to subculture (use of birth control pills, diet pills, home remedies, etc.).
- K4. Knowledge and understanding of current polities governing drug use.

The legal restrictions which govern drug using behavior are a part of reality. Knowledge of current social policies will aid the teacher in helping the student understand possible legal consequences to be considered in the student's decision about his personal behavior.

- State the school policy governing drug use, possession or sale on campus and teacher confidentiality in drug counseling with students
- 2. State the formal and informal processes by which school policy was determined
- 3. State the penalties and other pertinent provisions of local laws related to drug use



- 4. Identify the penalties and other important aspects of federal legislation dealing with drug abuse
- Recall the background of legislative efforts in order to understand current drug laws and policies and the public attitudes they reflect
- 6. Illustrate legislation designed to protect the consumer in the use of drugs including household chemical substances (not all drug legislation is punitive).
- K5. Knowledge and understanding of current issues and trends in drug use and abuse.

The drug scene is one of constant change; new drugs are introduced, new patterns of use and abuse arise and the number of "expert" opinions increases. The teacher will feel more comfortable in his role as drug educator if he is familiar with recent research findings, current trends in the legalization issues, changes in subcultural patterns of drug use and abuse and societal influences on the rates of use and abuse.

- 1. Generalize some of the major research findings relating to drug use and abuse
- 2. State the basic principles included in major drug commission reports
- 3. Report some of the major local, state, regional, national and international developments concerning drugs
- 4. Analyze socioeconomic influences as they affect drug use and abuse
- 5. Examine the effectiveness of school policies related to drug use
- 6. Discuss general societal influences on the use and abuse of drugs (entertainment, news coverage, features and advertising in news-papers and on television; changes in lifestyles such as increased living pace; increased communication; greater exposure to conflicting value systems, etc.)
- 7. Describe some of the current controls on drug trafficking at various levels
- 8. Illustrate typical consumer problems related to drug use (misleading advertising, unknown quality of street drugs, etc.).



K6. Knowledge of drug-related community resources and their functions.

Education is an ongoing process within the entire community. The drug education program will benefit if the teacher possesses the knowledge and expertise to use community agencies and resources as they relate to the role of drug educator.

The teacher is able to:

- I. Indicate the importance of cooperation between the school and community agencies in drug programs
- 2. List agencies and organizations, particularly at the state and local levels, that loan or distribute drug educational materials
- 3. Demonstrate awareness of community organizations and agencies that furnish resource persons to drug education programs
- 4. State the purpose of public and private health agencies that engage in counseling and treatment of individuals with drug problems
- 5. Identify proper procedures for using services of publicly or privately sponsored drug counseling or treatment centers
- 6. Identify sources of legal aid and procedures for using their services
- 7. Identify community resources in drug research.

Not every teacher will become a perfect model of the competencies we have described. Neither do all teachers graduate with a perfect grade point average, and educators have agreed that a certain minimum score is "passing." The competencies listed describe an ideal. Although the ideal may be difficult to achieve, it is important to have it clearly in mind to help us set our directions and understand what we are moving toward. It is important, therefore, that we do not overlook or neglect major items which contribute to the ideally competent drug educator.



STAGE 1

ATTRACTING APPLICANTS

Thoughtful recruiting has payoff both for the trainer, by making his job easier, and for the trainee, by shaping his expectations and claritying program criteria. Teacher education programs, particularly in preservice, have not needed to actively solicit prospective student-teachers because in recent years there has been a market overload of new teachers. Since there is no longer a problem in recruiting numbers, teacher educators can be more selective in attracting the most suitable candidates.

what resources exist for recruiting attractive applicants? One suggestion is to use current student-teachers or new graduates as "sales-people." This may be more feasible with inservice programs where the program often serves a restricted geographical area (i.e., a school system). In preservice programs current student-teachers would probably be limited to recruiting from nearby high schools.

It may be effective to structure peer teaching situations which allow interested high school students to work with junior high or elementary students in teaching/counseling roles. Such an experience would give the student an early opportunity to test his interest in teaching. Some of the current trends in drug education hold a real potential for this kind of experience. A number of high schools across the country are selecting and training their students to do "drug education" in elementary classes or are actively involving students in planning and carrying out drug education programs for their classmates. The U.S. Office of Education is currently



funding school district teams involving high school students to receive training which will help them establish primary intervention (peer counseling) drug programs for schools. All of these experiences could allow the students involved to see if working with young people—as a teacher or as a counselor—is a satisfying career for them. These could be particularly exciting testing fields if the training of "peer teachers" incorporated some of the basic experiences in interpersonal and intrapersonal skills that are the affective core of teacher education.

Communication packages that clearly describe the training programs offered (content, cost, time, outcomes) in a nonthreatening manner are effective recruiting tools. It is important that communication packages be developed with specific target groups in mind so that messages are relevant to the particular concerns of that target group.

Initially, recruiting messages should be aimed at an entire target group or groups because of a lack of identified predictors. For inservice recruiting, it is important that messages go to potential applicants, not just to supervisors of potential applicants, to avoid diminishing the self-selection factor. If predictors emerge as the recruiting program matures, perhaps specific messages can be aimed at a narrower group. If the training experience idea originates outside the institution where the potential participants are located, care must be taken not to alienate groups within the institution by the method of getting the message to the target group or by the nature of the message. For example, if the targe, group is the teaching staff of a particular school, administrators of that school should be involved in developing the message and in choosing the vehicle for the message.



At each stage of the training process outlined in this section, validation is a critical issue. How does the trainer know that he has successfully completed the objective of the stage? Validation here is used to apply to a constant feedback loop. At each stage, the teacher educator gathers information to help him know if he did the job in the previous stage.

For Stage I, the objective is to recruit "attractive" applicants to the teacher education program. This is validated at Stage II, when the trainer has the opportunity to see if he has increased the number of desirable people applying to his program. "Attractive" and "desirable" are used in this sense to describe people who have the greatest potential for successfully completing the teacher training program and more specifically (for the intent of this publication) who have personal qualities amenable to developing interpersonal and intrapersonal skills at the facilitation level. The criteria for selecting "attractive" applicants and for validating the selection process are considered at Stage II.

STAGE 11

SELECTING APPLICANTS

Selection is usually something that happens to an individual. Students are selected to participate in a particular program. Some teachers are selected over others to teach in a particular school. In most cases, selection is conducted by an individual or a committee in authority who uses widely diverse sets of criteria to decide essentially who is in and who is out. Little, if any, feedback (positive or negative) is given to applicants. And little consideration is given for unique differences between individuals in the selection process.



Although selection is used in a more specific sense in Stage II—
initial acceptance of applicants into the program—it is actually a process that should continue throughout the training process, and should
be a shared decision between teacher educator and student—teacher. The
student—teacher should have the choice of self—selection; to decide for
himself if he wants to continue in the teaching profession. While the
teacher education program has a responsibility to insure that standards
are met (i.e., to "evaluate" and "select" successful student—teachers to
stay in the program and to continue in teaching), it also has a responsi—
bility to aid the student—teacher in the process of self—selection. The
strength of a selection model that allows for and encourages self—selection
is that teachers graduating from such a program can have a much better idea
of their strengths and limitations and will thus be able to make more in—
formed career decisions for themselves.

The final decision rests, of course, with the admission committee. When the program is new, decisions to admit or not admit must be based almost entirely on speculation. For this reason, the decision to admit or not to admit prospective student-teachers, particularly at the preservice level, could be a tentative one with final admission to the program secured after the student-teacher has had a chance to look further at the program and the program has had the opportunity to observe and relate to him in a more substantive way than is possible at this early stage.

If an admission committee in a school of education is looking for students who will achieve affective competencies and then use them in the classroom, it should look past the traditional application forms to a range of other possible admission tools. These could include:



A resume which would elicit such information as activities initiated, problems handled, community related activities. This is meant to be more than "what clubs have you belonged to?" "What community activities have you been involved in?" and some of the other traditional questions an application form might ask. This is an attempt to get some picture of the student's strengths—what interpersonal skills has he already developed? What responsibilities has he assumed? How does he handle problems? What are his "people interests" as shown by past involvement in activities such as volunteer work in a crisis center? How well does he initiate activity to meet his interests?

Hypothetical situations or situations which could be set up to see how applicants react

Role playing

Plenty of opportunity for interviews between prospective studentteachers, faculty, student-teachers enrolled in the program and nast graduates.

Teacher education programs may consider the use of psychological testing for selecting purposes. An enormous amount of research has been conducted over the last several decades on personality characteristics of teachers and how they affect learning. Getzels and Jackson, writing in Research on Teaching, conclude their chapter reviewing fifty years of research on teacher personality and characteristics by stating:

Despite the critical importance of the problem and a half-century of prodigious research effort, very little is known for certain about the nature and measurement of teacher personality, or about the relation between teacher personality and teaching effectiveness. The regrettable fact is that many of the studies so far have not produced significant results. Many others have produced only pedestrian findings. For example, it is said after the usual inventory tabulation that good teachers are friendly, cheerful, sympathetic, and morally virtuous rather than cruel, depressed, unsympathetic and morally depraved. But when this has been said, not very much that is empirically useful has been revealed. For what conceivable human interaction--and teaching implies first and foremost a human interaction-is not the better if the people involved are friendly, cheerful, sympathetic and virtuous rather than the opposite? What is needed is not research leading to reiteration of the self-evident but to the discovery of specific and distinctive features of teacher personality and of the effective teacher.



There are, however, things that one can say about personality characteristics vis-a-vis affective education if one is willing to forgo dealing with the issue of good teaching and, rather, stick to the development of affective competencies. An example is the trait of dogmatism.

Dogmatic individuals generally do poorly in situations where they are encouraged to develop attitudes of respect and understanding for different individuals and lifestyles, one of the competencies listed in *Doing Drug Education*. Dogmatism has been shown to be reliably measured by instruments developed by Rokeach. These instruments could also be used as a selection tool.

A word of caution—it cannot be said at this time that "high" or "low" scores on these scales are indicators of successful program completion. This will not be known empirically until several classes have completed the program. For this reason it is recommended that a school of education interested in using psychological testing as a selection tool administer scales to the first few classes solely for informational purposes. Then after several classes are graduated, it would be possible to go back through the records of graduated student—teachers as well as those who dropped out of the program and attempt to find correlations between the variables tested and success in the program.

Validation for Stage II is a fairly straightforward process: What part of the student-teachers invited conditionally to participate in the program receive a firm invitation during Stage IV?



STAGE III

INTRODUCING

"Introducing" is used to describe this important stage because this is the time when teacher educators of new student-teachers are introducing themselves to each other and gather as information as a basis for important decisions later. For some student-teachers, this is a time of getting introduced to themselves—their abilities, limitations, needs and expectations.

Stage III is the first stage where the student-teacher is actually involved in training experiences; however, the objective at this point is self-awareness and the student-teacher's personal growth, rather than skill development at the facilitation level. The student-teacher needs the opportunity to experience as a learner the same interpersonal and intrapersonal skills he will later learn to facilitate as a teacher with his students. Personal growth experiences allow the student-teacher to preview the training he will experience later at a more intensive level, and also prepare him with skills that will help him in his personal life and in getting the most from his professional education. Hopefully, the Introduction Stage will help the student-teacher learn how to make the self-evaluation that will continue throughout the program and to handle major career decisions. He will be better able to assess and make the most of his strengths and limitations in affective skills (and other skills as well), and he will be able to more effectively express his feelings as a learner and as a teacher.

Teacher educators need to recognize that student-teachers entering the program will be at different points of "readiness" to learn from the personal growth experience. Some may already have the personal awareness



we are advocating, while some may need extensive help in this area. The emphasis is on the outcome, not on the amount of time (within reason) that it takes to get him there. Many questions are raised by such an emphasis: How long is "within reason?" What can be done to move a student-teacher who seems blocked at a point of development? These questions will have to be answered by the training faculty.

A major implication of task force recommendations is more individualized instruction, if teachers are to be taught as they are being taught to teach.

This allows student-teachers to have different states of "readiness" for learning affective skills and allows them to grow at their own rates.

More individualized instruction and more constant and organized feed-back from teacher educators (in the classroom and in the field) implies a larger faculty or requires the existing faculty to spend more time with students. Asking faculty to spend more time directly involved with student-teachers means less time for publishing and suggests a reexamination of the basis for rewarding faculty.

A number of training experiences offered or required for studentteachers might well be offered outside of the school of education. The
school of education could agree to supply a number of students for particular courses in another department in return for a concession from the
department that certain sections of the course would be tailored to meet
the specific requirements of teacher education. Departments that might
provide good resources include guidance and counseling, speech departments
that focus on communications, psychology departments, some sociology or
some economics or business administration programs that include a public
relations and personnel directors programs.



The personal growth experience incorporates the basic core training experiences described under Stage V: Facilitation Training. At Stage V, however, the student-teacher has a much deeper involvement in the training experience in terms of a confirmed decision to pursue teaching, his commitment to the training program, and his progress toward skill development at the facilitation level. The feedback techniques and guidelines for evaluation discussed under Stage V are applicable here, also. However, feedback techniques which will determine the decision to credential or not credential later should be given the student-teacher in the form of guidance and counseling at this point.

During Stage III, the student-teacher at the preservice level is deciding whether or not to apply for formal admission to the program. He has tasted various aspects of the program, interacted with training staff and has a good idea of what a commitment to stay in the program involves. Student-teachers who decide to leave the program have an opportunity to pursue another career direction without serious loss of time or money.

The student-teacher in inservice may be deciding whether or not to continue in his teaching career, and a personal growth experience could be valuable to the decision. It can also serve the same function it serves in preservice by increasing the teacher's "readiness" for facilitation training. The problem is that most inservice programs, unless they are summer-long institutes, do not have enough time.

Some school systems require their teachers to "upgrade" their competencies (i.e., work toward a master's degree) over a specified period of time in order to renew their contracts. Often, teachers choose to do this over the summer. Teachers are interested in fulfilling their



obligation to earn a given amount of credit the easiest way they can. Sometimes this training is of little value, other than earning credit toward a master's degree. This training time could be devoted to a more meaningful learning experience for teachers; it certainly offers a more suitable block of time for developing affective competencies. For most teachers, affective training is enjoyable. The nature of the training is different from the sit-in-class, listen-to-a-lecture, do-a-term-paper routine. Hopefully, teachers see it as relevant to the situations they face every day in the classroom. Summer institutes for credit in affective education might attract teachers who are reluctant to give up their free summers for "upgrading."

STAGE IV

DECIDING

This stage focuses on the training institution. It allows both training institutions and student-teachers the opportunity to say no before a significant investment is made in time, money and energy. By postponing the final acceptance decision until this point, the teacher education program has better information on which to base its decision and the student-teacher has better information on which to base his commitment.

when a student-teacher has completed a prescribed time or course requirement, he may ask for a decisional review with the school of education evaluation committee. This review, initiated by the student, will occur before a set time (to be determined by each college or university) and is to be a mutual recognition of the student-teacher's formal



acceptance into the program. At this point, if the student-teacher is accepted, ne enters a more indepth training phase. If he chooses not to continue the program, he may transfer to another course with academic course credits transferred. If he has not progressed satisfactorily in Stage III, he will have the opportunity for remedial training as guided by the evaluation committee and training staff. He may then ask for another decisional review of his readiness for full acceptance into the program.

The "evaluation process"--the individual's evaluation of himself and the program staff's evaluation of the individual--has been in effect in various forms since Stage I, where the high school student or first-year college student evaluated his potential for teaching and decided to apply to a school of education. The teacher education program made some judgments about the people they wanted to attract and evaluated their applicants. From Stage IV on, evaluation takes on a new dimension. The information-gathering process in Stage III provides the first real data to examine the relationship between the individual and the program--to measure the "goodness of fit." Up until this point, evaluations have been based more on predictions of what the relationship would be.

To undersrand the philosophy of evaluation intended here, the term needs redefinition in much the same way as selection has been redefined. The evaluation process suggested here is a dynamic feedback mechanism which can point out relative strengths and limitations and thus suggest areas for future development, study or modification. The evaluation process is a learning process in itself. It is a tool which provides feedback to both student-teachers and teacher educators to assist in the selection process. Thus selection and evaluation are actually a part



of the same process although it appears to be more one than the other at different stages.

Validation of the decision making in Stage IV consists of monitoring the "successful program completion" and "drop-out" rates for student-teachers finally accepted into the training program.

STAGE V

FACILITATION TRAINING

Facilitation as the desired level of training for affective education has a number of implications for the teacher education program. First, training for facilitation is more than providing the teacher with a single tool which he then uses in every situation whether it calls for that tool or not. Affective education is more than values-clarification. The objective of training for facilitation is to provide student-teachers with a range of skills and the ability to discriminate when and how to use them. The objective is also to help the student-teacher understand that his ultimate goal is not to demonstrate his professional competence (e.g., demonstrate his ability to use a tool), but to make a difference with his students. In short, the primary focus of training (and the student-teacher's understanding of training) goes beyond what the teacher can do, to what happens between the teacher and his students. As a result, the success of the training program is ultimately measured by what happens with the students in the school room. This requires providing student-teachers with more than a personal growth experience; it looks beyond whether or not the training "made the student-teacher feel good" as an acceptable outcome.



At Stage V, the student-teacher moves into intensive training and a more serious commitment to teaching and the teacher education program. The task force outlined a core of skill areas recommended as basic components of a preservice or inservice program to prepare teachers to handle their students' affective development. The word "core" means that this is not an exhaustive outline and that it does not take into account additional training needed by trachers preparing for special school settings. Nor does this pretend to describe original training strategies developed by the task force. Rather, the task force pulled together from its collective experiences a variety of strategies that have been tested and have proven successful in fostering the process of helping a young person become his own parent.

Each area of training is described as a training "experience" rather than as a course, module or workshop. But the term "experience," when used to refer to the training activity, should not cause the reader to assume that values clarification, for example, must be offered as a separate course or inservice workshop. The values clarification experience or any of the training experiences included under facilitation can be implemented as a separate course, module or workshop, or can be offered as part of another course or several experiences can be clustered into a course or workshop. The particular packaging depends on the teacher education setting.

While the task force does not make strong recommendations about specific packaging and sequencing of the experiences, it does strongly recommend that αll of the training experiences be included to be consistent with the philosophy and objectives of this statement on teacher training. Communication skills without the assertiveness to use them is useless. Because all of the



training experiences have an important contribution to the studentteacher's total ability to foster affective development, affective
education cannot be equated with any one or several of the suggested
training experiences. Rather, it covers a variety of skills and must
tap both the interpersonal and intrapersonal dimensions.

The training experiences describe skill content areas but not the methods or techniques for developing the skills in student-teachers. Almost any method (group instruction or individualized instruction) or technique (viewing a film, role playing) can be used to build affective skills. However, the nature of affective education and the process that is part of the recommended skill areas calls for more emphasis on methods and techniques which involve the student-teacher experientially in an interaction process. Group methods allow the student-teacher more opportunity to observe the skill while peers practice and to receive feedback from peers as well as from instructors when he practices it. Techniques such as role playing or micro teaching offer the student-teacher the most active involvement. Less active techniques such as viewing a film are more likely to be effective when there is structured opportunity for the learner to process the experience and integrate it into his personal situation.

In addition to techniques which directly involve the student-teacher in the practice of a skill, there are indirect influences on the learning experience. The task force recognized the importance of physical surroundings to the effectiveness of the training experience, particularly in the area of affective education where the student-teacher's sensitivity to social, emotional and physical surroundings is increased. Attention to



the environment should include not only lighting, seating arrangements, noise levels, room design but also should provide a variety of environmental settings and should examine the "rules and regulations" which directly influence the emotional atmosphere of the learning environment.

Facilitation Skills. The core components suggested for preparing teachers for affective education are grouped under three headings: Intrapersonal Skills, Interpersonal Skills and Environmental Organization Skills. After each suggested training experience is defined, possible resources are listed which provide the reader with a variety of skill development strategies. The behavioral objective for each training experience is given as an example and demonstrates the need to have clear statements of outcome for affective education and related teacher training.

The code numbers which follow the facilitation skills relate the training experience to the drug educator competencies described at the beginning of Part II (Teacher Competencies). This does not imply that a particular experience ties in only to the competencies listed. The purpose is to illustrate the relationship betwee the suggested training and the teacher outcomes applicable to drug education. For this reason, the most obvious relationships are noted. He ever, any of the training experiences could tie into a variety of competencies. Several of the competencies are not listed under any one training experience because they relate equally to all experiences. For example, value competency 1--conviction that the teacher should serve as a facilitator of learning than an imparter of information--is implied in all of the training experiences.



The descriptions and definitions of training experiences and the behavioral objectives which follow are stated in terms of outcomes for teachers (i.e., what the teacher is able to do). The reader should keep in mind that the ultimate objective of training is the *interaction* between the teacher and the student—the teacher's sensitivity to the student and the situation and ability to respond in a manner not damaging to the relationship.

- !. INTRAPERSONAL SFILLS concern the person's ability to deal effectively with himself—to know himself (his needs and values) and to handle his feelings.
 - I. Emotional awareness is the ability to discriminate and label feelings. For example, the student-teacher knows, through understanding and feeling, the difference between anxiety and fear. He is in touch with the wide range of feelings he experiences and is sensitive to the feelings of his students and the situations which surround those feelings. The emotionally aware teacher is especially sensitive to the effect of his behavior on this students' feelings. One suggestion to help student-teachers increase emotional awareness is to have them keep a journal of feelings they have experienced or noticed in others and the source of feelings.

 Competency Codes: V9-all, Kl.1, Kl.2, Kl.3, Kl.6.

Behavioral Objective: The student-teacher understands the range of feelings people can experience and is able to segregate and label specific feelings generated by own behavior and others' behavior. The student-teacher can structure classroom experiences to elicit specific feelings (e.g., anxiety) and can help his students understand and accept the feelings they have.

Resources: Pfeiffer & Jones, Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training.

National Training Lab, Classroom Learning Techniques and Strategies.

Teaching Human Beings: 101 Subversive Activities for the Classroom.



2. Values clarification is the process of considering alternative value positions on an issue (e.g., should morijuana be legalized?) or on a more lasting value (honesty, friendship, etc.), choosing freely from alternatives, examining the behavioral consequences of a value choice and examining the strength of the choice (e.g., is it supported by action and by other related values?). Competency Codes: V3.2, V3.3, V3.5, V4-ail, V5.1, V5.2, V6-all, S2-all, S3.5, S3.6, S3.7, S3.8, S3.9, S3.10.

Behavioral Objective: The student-teacher will be able to develop and conduct a variety of structured classroom experiences (group exercises and individual exercises) which take students through the values clarification process. In addition, the student-teacher is able to respond to questions or statements in naturally occurring communication (e.g., conversations, written communication from students) in a manner that helps the student examine his values but does not impose the student-teacher's values on him.

Resources: Raths, Harmin and Simon, Values and Teaching: Working With Values in the Classroom.

Simon, Howe and Kirschenbaum, Values Clarification:
A Handbook of Practical Strategies for Teachers
and Students.

Harmin, Kirschenbaum and Simon, Clarifying Values
Through Subject Matter: Applications for the
Classroom.

3. Decision making is the process of examining personal expectations and needs related to a particular situation, examining the consequences of possible alternative strategies for dealing with the situation, deciding which strategy will come closest to meeting personal needs, evaluating actual or approaching consequences of the decision and rethinking through the decision. Exploring alternative behaviors is an important part of decision making. The learner can examine a range of activities that satisfy a particular personal need (e.g., group acceptance), and consider possible new behaviors that meet the following criteria: 1) satisfy the need in question; 2) are compatible with personal value system; 3) offer an advantage over past behaviors adopted to reach the same need (e.g., present fewer problems). The objective of decision making is to help the learner see the importance of accepting responsibility for decisions which affect his life and for his ability to take an active role in setting personal direction. A second objective is to have the learner begin to trust himself for answers to personal decisions rather than continuing to seek answers from outside (often conflicting)

Competency Codes: VI.2, VI.4, V3.1, V3.2, V3.3, V4.1, V5.1, V6-all, S1.2, S3-all, S4.5, S4.6, S4.8.



Behavioral Objective: The student-teacher is able to demonstrate the steps involved in the decision making process by leading a small group of students or peers through a decision making activity. The student-teacher is able to construct a variety of activities suitable for classroom use. Activities should reflect major decision issues relevant to students in the grade level for which the student-teacher is preparing. The student-teacher involves students, individually and collectively, in decisions which affect them.

Resources: College Entrance Examination Board, Deciding/ Decisions and Outcomes.

> Herr, E.L., Decision-Making and Vocational Development.

4. Desensitization/Behavior Rehearsal is a technique to deal more effectively with situations which produce anxiety (e.g., asking for a date, speaking before a group, meeting a new person). Rather than avoid the situation, the learner learns to pinpoint the source of anxiety and to construct a hierarchy of behaviors that approach the event (e.g., imagine speaking before a group). He then practices relaxation techniques and desensitizes the anxiety by putting it in successive approximation with states of relaxation. The final step is to practice the behavior in a simulation and finally in a real situation.

Competency Codes: V5.4, V9.1, Ki.5, Kl.6, Kl.8.

Behavioral Objective: The student-teacher is able to construct anxiety-producing classroom situations, to help students pin-point the source of anxiety and develop relaxation techniques while going through a hierarchy of behaviors which continuously grow closer to the anxiety producing event. The student-teacher will be able to design a simulation and to structure appropriate feedback for shaping behavior during rehearsal. The student-teacher is able to recognize naturally occurring anxiety in students and responds to students to help defuse the anxiety.

Resources: J. Wolpe, Benavior Therapy.

- R. Corsini, Role Playing in Psychotherapy.
- H. Blatner, Acting-In: Practical Applications of Psychodromatic Methods.
- 5. Anticipatory guidance is the ability to heigh students explore stressful situations they are likely to encounter in their lives and how they might handle them. The "stressful situations" refer to major life changes such as moving away from home, marriage, divorce, death, etc., rather than more temporary, less total



life-affecting stressful situations such as speaking before a group or asking for a date. The stressful situations discussed should not be too remote from the student to be meaningful. For example, high school students would be more concerned about moving away from home, going to a new school or marriage than about retirement.

Behavioral Objective: The student-teacher is sensitive to stressful situations in students' lives and recognizes the situations most immediately relevant to his students. He is able to lead the class in discussions of coping with stress.

Resources: American Instructional Television (formerly National Instructional Television), *Inside/Out*. (series developed for elementary school children), Bloomington, Indiana.

- II. INTRAPERSONAL SKILLS concern the person's ability to relate to others. They must be built on attitudes of regard for the worth and dignity of the other person and respect for his right to be himself with his own ideas and feelings.
 - Communication skills is the ability to "listen" and to "respond." Listening means attending to the words, gestures, tones of voice, posture and all of the verbal and nonverbal cues of the speaker and synthesizing these into a full understanding of the message. The listener needs to be able to convey his understanding (e.g., respond) to the speaker with empathy, warmth, genuineness and concreteness. Empathy is the ability to understand where the other person is (how he is feeling) and to let him know he is understood. Genuineness is the ability of each individual to enter the relationship in a nondefensive manner. This is particularly difficult since people are more accustomed to trying to meet others' expectations of them. Concreteness is the ability to respond accurately to the message of the other person (the response reflects the speaker's message). Communication skills are the most basic of all interpersonal skills and play a n ir role in the development of other skills. Competency Codes: V1-all, V3.4, V3.5, V3.6, V4-all, V5.2, V5.4, V6.3, V6.4, V9.1, S1.3, S3.1, S3.11, S4-all, S5.2, S5.4, S5.6.

Behavioral Objectives: The student-teacher uses communication skills in interaction with peers and with students and is able to structure experiential exercises appropriate to grade-level with which he will be working. Examples of exercises are active listening (one or more "listeners" express the feeling they hear from the speakers), writing and evaluating responses to a statement, role playing responses to request for help.



Resources: Robert Carkhuff, The Art of Helping

Robert Carkhuff, The Art of Teaching

George Gazda, Human Relations Development: A Primer for Educators.

2. Processing skills is the ability to analyze a specific experience and understand the learning that is involved in the experience and its more general applicability. There is a difference between experience and experiential learning. Experience per se will not necessarily result in the desired outcome for the student. In order for an objective to be realized, the student-teacher must be able to help the students identify significant personal data in the experience, analyze that data, and generalize what has been learned to real life situations. Facilitating the movement from experience to generalization is the responsibility of the teacher. The skill employed to facilitate such movement is called processing. (Processing relates to all of the "drug education" competencies.)

Behavioral Objective: While the teacher educator will undoubtedly prepare many specific goals for this experience, an example of a single performance objective might be: After directing a group of fellow students in a structured group experience, the student-teacher demonstrates his processing skills by leading a discussion about the experience which results in every member of the group making some generalization to a real life situation.

A more specific guide for processing experiential learning is the EIAG model:

Experience refers to the involvement of the student in any one of a wide range of experiences including structured group exercises, role playing, improvisation, simulation games, stimulus or "trigger" films, media programs, discussion, or even a lecture. Whatever the mode, a necessary prerequisite of affective learning is experiential involvement.

Identify suggests that the learner must be able to examine his own feelings and reactions to the experience. What made me feel good or bad during the experience? How did I feel when...? What were my reactions to...?

Analyze refers to the analytical process of thinking about outcomes, cause and effect relationships, and probable results of alternative actions.



Generalize is one of the most important and yet most frequently omitted steps in processing. It is essential that the student validate the learnings generated by the experience.

Resources: Raths, Harmin and Simon, Values and Teaching. (includes a discussion of "processing.")

3. Assertiveness training. Assertiveness is the ability to stand up for oneself, to let others know where one stands in a situation and to express feelings and needs to protect personal rights. It is the ability to confront and to handle confrontation. It is the ability to act in a situation, rather than sit passively or react only when someone else makes the first move. For example, an "assertive" student-teacher would be able to say to his instructor, "I feel frustrated because we are wasting time in class and I do not understand some of the concepts I should understand," or "I would like to spend some class time in (a particular area)." Competency Codes: V4-all, V6.1, V6.2, V6.3, S4.3, S4.6, S5-all.

Behavioral Objectives: In observed role play or real situations the student-teacher is able to: I) define personal limits (i.e., where tolerancs ends); 2) state personal feelings and needs in regard to the situation (without being asked and particularly when needs are being frustrated and are not likely to be met if the student-teacher does not take action). The student-teacher is able to define his limits for students without attacking students and with respect for students' needs.

Resources: Wolpe and Lazarus, "Assertiveness Training" in Behavior Research Techniques.

D.A. Rathus, Rehavior Research and Therapy. 1973, 11, 57-65.

Michael Serber, "Teaching the Nonverbal Components of Assertive Training," Journal of Behavior Therapy and Experimental Psychiatry. 1972, Vol. 3, 179-83.

4. Conflict resolution skills is a technique for "no lose" resolution of conflict of needs (e.g., a teacher needs student's attention while he explains an assignment; the student is bored and can not wait to tell his friend something important). "No lose" means that the people involved in the conflict respect the needs of the other and negotiate a resolution that is mutually acceptable. In most conflict situations, particularly where one person has the power to "pull rank" (i.e., parent-child, teacher-student, employer-employee), the conflict is resolved in a win-lose manner. The needs of the person in power are met with no regard for the needs of the



"subordinate." The "loser" really feels like a loser--a person with no power and no worth. Competency Codes: V3-all, V4-all, S1-all, S3.1, S3.11, S4-all, S5.3, S5.4, S5.6, S5.8, K1-all.

Behavioral Objectives: The student-teacher is able to: 1) determine ownership of the problem (who is most bothered by the situation in question); 2) active-listen (reflect the feelings and needs of the other person to better understand the source of conflict and to convey a message of "your needs are important, too"); 3) state personal needs related to the situation in a nonblaming manner (make "!" statements rather than "you..." statements); 4) negotiate a mutually acceptable solution and be open to widening personal "area of acceptance." The student-teacher is able to develop classroom exercises based on conflicts that students are likely to encounter which help students understand and develop skills in conflict resolution. The student-teacher uses conflict resolution skills to resolve conflicts between himself and students and to help students rescive conflicts among themselves.

Resources:	Thomas Gordon,	Parent Effectiveness Training.
		Teacher Effectiveness Training.
		Leadership Effectiveness Training.

5. Sensitivity experiences is best defined as a micro experience which allows the learner to develop some insight into the thoughts and feelings of people in a situation different from his (i.e., different lifestyle, crisis situation). The learner becomes more aware of his own attitudes and feelings by getting a glimpse into the lives of others. Examples of sensitivity experiences which can be used as training for student-teachers or which teachers can use with students include sitting in the gallery at juvenile court, manning a hotline at a crisis center, going to a public health center for consultation, sitting in an emergency room at the city hospital, riding with an ambulance or police unit. The student-teacher can draw on experiences with young people to develop a better understanding of his students, especially those with different lifestyles.

Behavioral Objectives: The student-teacher will participate in a variety of sensitivity modules designed in cooperation with the instructor. Emphasis should be given to modules relevant to the school setting the student-teacher is likely to encounter, however, experiences should also attempt to broaden the student-teacher's picture of life. The student-teacher should be able to design experiences appropriate for the developmental level of students in his class.



Competency Codes: V2.1, V2.2, V3.4, V3.5, V3.6, V4-all, V8-all, S1-all, S3.2, S3.4, V3.6, S4.1, S4.3, K3-all, K6-all.

Resources: H. Kirschenbaum, "Sensitivity Modules," *Media and Method*. February, 1970.

6. Transactional analysis is a technique for analyzing the communications and interactions between two or more people so that blocked communications can be corrected and restored to creative and productive levels. Much of our interpersonal communications are at child or parent levels which often result in stereotyped and destructive relationships. Dr. Berne, the originator of T.A. has called these patterns "games" and has analyzed several common games and suggested more adult approaches. These games are common in many daily transactions (i.e., husband-wife, parent-child, teacher-pupil, doctor-patient). T.A. concepts are easily learned and applied.

Behavioral Objectives: The teacher is able to recognize and help students recognize "games" that are being played in student-student, teacher-student, or other significant interactions. He models and points out to students more honest patterns of interaction that will result in a more satisfactory relationship for the people involved.

Resources: Eric Berne, Games People Play.

Thomas A. Harris, I'm O.K.--You're O.K.

- III. ENVIRONMENTAL ORGANIZATION SKILLS concern the person's ability to create a climate which fosters affective development. This refers to management of specific influences on the social/emotional climate such as physical setting (lighting, color, room design, seating arrangement, etc.), personal appearance (is the teacher neat and colorful or sloppy and drab?), and institutional policy (do school rules allow flexibility in classroom activities, flexibility in classroom organization, ease in scheduling activities in the field, communication between students and administration, etc.?).
 - I. Environmental management skills is the ability to structure flexible, functional physical environments and to structure environment to fit the activity.

Behavioral Objectives: The student-teacher will be able to observe a classroom and list at least three environmental contingencies which are beneficial and three which are detrimental to the affective development of students. The student-teacher will



be able to recommend appropriate changes to correct the detrimental factors.

2. System-manipulation skills is the ability to understand the impact of the social system (policies, rules, operating procedures, lines of communication, etc.) on affective development, to work within system constraints that cannot be changed, and to work toward bringing about possible changes in the system where needed. The student-teacher needs to understand that what happens in his classroom is very much impacted by the climate of the school and the community. The student-teacher needs to understand the climate (philosophy toward education, teachers and students, value systems, priorities, etc.) in order to negotiate his position in the classroom and appeal for change where needed. "Manipulation" is not used in the devious sense of the word.

Behavioral Objectives: The student-teacher can evaluate system constraints and recognize those with which he must live, and those which can be changed or circumvented. In bringing about change, the student-teacher demonstrates; 1) a sense of timing (when to move); 2) an ability to evaluate strategies (what is feasible); 3) an ability to cut through red tape; 4) a sense of when and how to confront; 5) a sense of who to approach and how (how to phrase recommendation or request).

Resources: E. Herr, "Field Theory and Differential Press: Implications for Counseling, Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1965, 43, 586-90.

Pace and Stern, "An Approach to the Measurement of Psychological Characteristics of College Environments," Journal of Education Psychology, 1958, 49, 269-77.

Evaluating Facilitation Skills. Measuring the student-teachers progress toward the achievement of affective competencies is a problem area and has been a source of resistance from many teacher educators—some believing that affective education is valuable, but because it is "different" it cannot really be measured; some believing that it cannot be measured



and, therefore, should not be done. Affective competencies do not lend themselves to familiar paper and pencil examinations used to measure cognitive growth. There is, however, a variety of feedback techniques that can be used. Each one may have its inherent weaknesses as all measures do. Using a variety of techniques will help compensate for the weakness of any one technique and will give the evaluator (the instructor or the student-teacher) a broader base of information and a more complete picture of what is happening.

The following techniques are offered as representative of those which can be used to evaluate achievement of affective competencies:

- I. Observation. Because active participation is considered a very important aspect of achieving affective competencies, it is natural that observation be included as part of the feedback process. Maximal use should be made of videotape of self and others in training situations and if at all possible in classrooms. Audiotapes could suffice if the video equipment were not available. Using observers in the classrooms or training situations is another method of generating feedback.
- 2. Additudinal and Personality Testing. Such measures can be used as a feedback technique with the safeguard that data should be used primarily for student-teacher feedback or research purposes only. At all costs, "labeling" of student-teachers should be avoided. The following instruments are offered only as suggestions to stimulate thinking in this dimension:

HIM B
FIRO B
16 P.F.
Rotter's Internal-External Control
Carkhuff Scale (empathy, genuineness, concreteness, warmth)
Rokeach's Open/Closed Mind Scale
California F. Scale
Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory

3. Self evaluation can be a very powerful tool when profitably used to help a student-teacher take responsibility for his own education. The process involves a number of components, all to be conducted in an ongoing basis: self-assessment of one's strengths and limitations and interests and needs, consideration of alternative goals and choice of a course of action, and evaluation of



one's progress. This process could be charted in a journal which the student-teacher may elect to keep. The sharing of information included within it would be left solely to the discretion of the student-teacher.

Guidelines for Evaluation. The guidelines offered below are important to the utilization and processing of the data collected from feedback techniques:

- 1. There should be frequent opportunities for student-teachers to explore their progress through interaction and "feedback." A "facilitator" to help process this feedback is important. The feedback may come from:
 - A. Youth--from the field of experience (written and verbal level)
 - B. Peer--from other student-teachers enrolled in the training institution; from first-year students through senior or graduate students. An individual "advisor" from the senior class could be assigned to each beginning student. He could act as a facilitator of feedback as well as a participant in the guidance process. (This would also be a training experience for the "student advisor.")
 - C. Faculty/training staff--including teaching, observational and field staffs.
 - D. Non-aligned facilitator—a person involved in the student-teacher's program but not part of the decision making authority.
 - E. Self---the student-teacher should be encouraged to develop self evaluation skills.
- 2. Evaluation and feedback should be based on a variety of techniques rather than on a single criteria such as grades. The results of this feedback should be pointed toward guidance and counseling. Regular, structured, written evaluations by the student-teacher as well as the staff could be used, with a sharing of feedback designed to help process, plan and develop further.
- 3. Feedback should include both public and private information. While public feedback will contribute to later decision making, it should be considered facilitative initially, and therefore not threat-related to the student. "Public" information concerning the student-teacher's progress is that which the student-teacher and the training staff share. It serves as the basis for the training staff's later decisions concerning the student-teacher. "Private" information is the student-teacher's personal file (problems encountered



and personal assessment of strengths and limitations, personal journal, etc.). It is shared only as the student-teacher feels comfortable in sharing it. It is part of the basis for the student-teacher's self evaluation.

- 4. Student-teachers should be given the normative data from experiences, observations and tests from which they make self evaluation. The training staff can act best in an informative and interpretative role.
- 5. Evaluation of student-teachers is more dynamic if it is structured into the curriculum. Student-teachers could receive course credit (or competency rating) for time spent in self evaluation (under supervision). "Class time" can be structured for feedback sessions and count toward the quarter or semester hour "course load" requirements.

STAGE VI

MATCHING

Once certification has been awarded, most training institutions step out of the student-teacher's career development completely. Continued involvement is recommended in two areas: Matching the teacher and the teaching setting, and training follow-up. After a new teacher has received certification he is faced with finding a job. The selection process here is bimodal. The teacher is selecting a school system—and particularly a school—and a school system is selecting a teacher. The following suggestions are made as possible ways to facilitate this process:

I. Competency-based Report—The teacher education program could compile in a systematic fashion how the student fared in the achievement of competencies. The report could be structured as follows:

Competency	How Observed	Rating



This report would be more complete if followed by a summary which concentrated on groupings of skills. The report would best be written in terms of positive traits. In most cases, traits are good or bad only in terms of the environment they are in. An example is the dichotomy between passive and assertive teachers. Passive teachers do well in a structured setting, while assertive teachers do better in more of an unstructured setting. Every effort should be made to operationalize the traits to give school personnel directors and the new teacher a better idea of how the new teacher may best fit in.

- 2. Teacher Narrative--It would also be beneficial to have a new teacher write a narrative which would embody his career goals and how he sees his role as a teacher. This could be submitted with the competency based report when applying for a job.
- 3. Resume--The resume developed at Stage II could be expanded to cover the new teacher's years in training. To facilitate this process we would recommend that student-teachers utilize the journal developed through the course of their training experience. The journal would enable him to recall significant experiences and to pick and choose which to include in the resume.
- 4. Interview with School Principal—Wherever possible it is recommended that the new teacher have an interview with his prospective employer. This would allow the opportunity for direct questioning on both sides. To maximize the impact of this activity, it is suggested that "interviewing" be a part of a student-teacher's learning experience while in training. Through a series of structured role playing situations, student-teachers could learn what the important questions are for them and how best to ask them.
- 5. Interviews with Teachers and Other School Personnel—Another valuable source of information for the prospective teacher is to talk with teachers already in the school system being considered. Responses from these interviews may differ considerably from the perspective of the principal.
- 6. Cooperative Seminars—Seminars between the training institute and school system personnel offices can be an important part of Stage VI. Such a program would allow for active communication between the two groups. From the training institution perspective this means informing school systems of their program and its merits. From the school



system's perspective, it allows them to relate their needs to the training institution.

To summarize, we see that cooperation between training institution, school system and the new teacher is critical to the best and most effective placement of the new teacher. Through cooperation it is possible to match school system needs with individual needs.

Validation for Stage VI must consider several basic questions: How many newly certified teachers found jobs they were initially pleased with? Are school systems pleased with the new teachers?

STAGE VII

TRACKING

After a student-teacher has been certified, the net worth of his training experience can best be assessed. Does he use the competencies learned in the classroom work? Are the students, new teachers and school administrators pleased with the effect? Does the teacher have a need or desire for graduate or in-service training in particular areas to increase his competencies? Through the use of questionnaires and interviews with former graduates, a training institution can determine the answers to these questions and then, if necessary, restructure parts of their training program to fill in the weak areas. In short, it is at this stage that program evaluation becomes important. It is flagged here to emphasize to the reader that program evaluation is different from and goes beyond the training validation recommended at each stage of the training process. Validation, as suggested in this report, tells the educator whether or not he successfully completed



the objective of each stage. It does not tell him whether or not the skills for which he is training bring about a desired outcome in the ultimate targe, population—students. It is not enough to know that a particular training experience does an effective job of equipping student—teachers with a particular skill if we do not also know what happens with students when the skill is used. If we neglect program evaluation, we may do a very good job of training teachers in skills that make no difference at best, and may even make a negative difference in the teacher/student interaction.

A second aspect of this stage is the training institution's responsibility to assist its students in the maintenance of competencies and to offer opportunities to build upon their original training. There are several ways this might be accomplished. In addition to providing seminars and workshops for graduates (perhaps with credit toward a master's degree), the teacher education program could generate interest in new ideas, methods, skills and training opportunities sponsored by other groups through a newsletter that would serve as an exchange forum for practicing teachers, trainers, etc.

A summary table is presented on page 60 which labels and characterizes each of the seven stages. The table is self-explanatory with the possible exception of the column headed ideographic Nomothetic. "Ideographic" is a term coined by Gordon Allport in the 1930's and is used to talk about the study of one person or a single case. "Nomothetic" relates to the study of normative and group data. The teacher training process described here relies much more heavily on ideographic data than do teacher training programs in general. Evaluation of a student-teacher is not measured against how well



the group as a whole does, but rather is measured by his individual progress. Group data is used primarily to provide a context—this is where individual A fits into the group.



SUMMARY OF TRAINING PROCESS

STAGE	FEEDBACK TO:	***/*-	CHARACTERISTIC	AIMED AT:	VALIDATION
l Attract- ing	Administrator, Teacher, high school student	-	Shaping	Prospective Student∵teachers	Is there a good pool of "desirable" applicants?
Select- ing	Training Staff	I/N	Gross cutting	Teacher education program	Do selected appli- cants stay on for formal admittance?
	Student-teacher Training Staff	-	Orientation Personal growth Self evaluation Decision-making	Student-teacher	Do student-teachers and staff make "good" decisions about for- mal admittance?
lv Deciding	Training Staff/ Student-teacher	_	Decision-making	Training Staff	Do student-teachers formally admitted to the program successfully complete the training?
V Facilita- tion Training	Student-teacher Training Staff	1	In-depth training Self evaluation Decision-making	Student-teacher	Do student-teachers achieve desired competencies?
VI Matching	Prospective employer/student• teacher	_	Cross matching	Staff/student- teacher/employer	Are new teachers pleased with employ- ment setting? Are schools pleased with new teachers?
VII Tracking	Student-teacher Employer Training Staff	1/N	Reshaping	All of above	Are teachers using skills? Do teachers need additional training?

*Ideographic **Nomothetic



PART III: IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The development of an affective education component for teacher education begins with the recognition that we do not have final solutions to our educational problems. This requires that the prospective teacher not only be taught what and how to teach, but that he also be involved in attempting to develop new and more effective educational processes and plans.

The points and recommendations listed here for the reader's consideration are generated from the suggested guidelines developed by the task force for incorporating affective components into teacher education. The purpose here is not to exhaust all of the implications, or to find answers for the problems raised, but rather to suggest some directions for thinking.

GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS

I. The first step in implementing the training process for affective education concerns "selling" the idea to those who would need to buy it; the policy makers (deans, teacher certification people, superintendents, commissioners of education), the teacher trainers, student-teachers, current teachers and principals and the community of parents. Suggestions from teacher educators for selling include the following:

Involve decision makers very early in any move to incorporate affective skills in teacher training. Give them the time and opportunity (i.e., information and experience) to go through the same thinking processes that advocates of affective education have already been through.

Recognize that different target groups (i.e., policy makers as opposed to teachers) have different priorities. When an idea to be sold appeals to the priorities or concerns of the buyer, it is more likely to be accepted. A well thought out awareness program, designed to defuse the sensitive issues involved, would



go far toward achieving community wide approval of open use of affective competencies in the classroom. A multi-media approach with a module type format could be used which would provide the intended target groups with information which speaks to their specific needs and priorities. The following list of target groups and related strategies are presented as examples of approaches.

Public school superintendents and principals—information presented could focus on positive ways in which this approach would assist students in achieving goals, program purpose, objectives, school systems and school benefits.

School board members—general overview of affective approach explaining benefits for school system, students and community (e.g., increased attendance, lower dropout).

Public school teachers—emphasis on exciting aspects of teacher involvement with affective approaches, examples of classroom situations using the affective approach, overview of techniques and strategies for inclusion into existing instructional program, tips to remove initial threat (i.e., explain to teachers that they can begin using values clarification around non-controversial issues. When they feel more comfortable, they may tackle more explosive questions).

Related community, regional and state agencies—include information on overall program, goals, purposes. Attempt should be made especially with these groups to obtain support through demystification of affective education.

Parents—information to help parents understand that affective education is not sensitivity training (i.e., "touchy-feelies") or value tampering.

A variety of educational tools, from pamphlets to slide presentations to carefully planned experiential activities could be developed and interchangeably used by the training institution in the presentation of the awareness programs. Effective implementation of such programs could have tremendous impact on the level of acceptance and hopefully eventually on the quality of education within the community.



Become very familiar with affective education activities already underway. Use them as case studies to document benefits, potential problem areas and possible solutions. Also, the staff of existing programs may provide a good resource to train others and could certainly give some "how to" pointers for implementation.

Be able to demonstrate the applicability of affective strategies to major content areas. In other words, show that affective education does not require a separate part of the school day. It can be a part of English, social studies, health, etc.

Be aware of labeling. Terms that are acceptable to some groups may threaten others. Choose labels that are least likely to arouse resistance and clearly define what they mean.

2. The training process recommended here implies not only a changed process in the school system, but also a changed process in the teacher education program where teachers are the students. The ability of the training faculty to model the skills and facilitative teacher-student interaction is critical. A major question is, Who will train the trainers? The answer to the question may mean putting away age-old ideas of "who is qualified to train whom?" We tend to look at college and university faculty as the major source of trainers rather than as possible recipients of training. And we fail to recognize the potential of outstanding teachers in the field who have had training (and the opportunity to test it!) to serve as excellent trainers.

It may prove to be a valuable experience to bring in such teachers to train teacher educators. Another possibility is to tap "non-educational" resources in the community. For example, many family counseling centers, you're runaway centers, crisis mediation centers, etc., have a staff skilled in communication, conflict resolution, problem solving, etc., and skilled in helping other people develop those skills. People who work with human relations training in business and industry may be another resource. In addition, there are private associations which sponsor training workshops across the



country in such skill areas as values clarification and conflict resolution. In short, the teacher education program may have to pull together a training package for its instructors by drawing on a variety of resources, each of which contributes expertise in one or several skill areas.

3. A cooperating relationship between the school of education and the school system is particularly important in the following areas:

Teacher certification—The state department of education needs to define competencies in affective education required for certification and to discuss this requirement with training programs.

Field practice--Providing a variety of field experiences and having the field experience insure opportunity to test interpersonal skill training (with feedback from supervisors) requires coordination between the school of education and school systems with a real sharing of responsibility for training student-teachers. Some faculty members from the school of education may have a joint appointment in the school system.

Sharing training resources—This encourages two-way communication. The school of education can avoid the charge of "ivory tower" by staying in continuous touch with the real world of the classroom.

Inservice training—When new approaches to teacher training are introduced in preservice—inservice training, it is important to keep current teachers up to date. The task force recommends inservice training for the faculty, staff and administration of an entire school rather than separating faculties for training by selecting a particular grade or subject area teacher. The "entire school" concept accomplishes a number of objectives. It increases the ability of the administration to support new affective education experiences; it helps the faculty work together as a team, particularly in supervising field practice. Training can occur at a number of levels simultaneously: the student—teacher, the cooperating teacher (supervisor) and the student can participate in the same experience.

4. One problem area for education in general is keeping policy makers and administrative staff in touch with the classroom. One possible solution is to require all faculty in schools of education, ali staff in state



education agencies, and all staff (including the superintendent) in administrative or supervisory positions in local education agencies to teach at least one class per week for one semester every five years. Further, every classroom teacher should be given a half-time schedule for one semester every five years to do a personal assessment, attend special seminars, workshops, etc., and to have time to plan some experimental approaches to his job.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR SCHOOLS OF EDUCATION

5. Cooperation with community resources is important if student-teachers are to have field experiences in non-traditional settings and if "sensitivity experiences" (as described under Interpersonal Skills) are to be arranged.

Field.practice traditionally refers to the last quarter or semester just prior to graduation where the student-teacher actually teaches one or several classes in the subject and at the level on which he is preparing. The training process described here implies a complete program of field experiences which begins at the start of professional education and ties into the classroom learning experience. Thus as a student-teacher gains more classroom experience and more skill competence he would also take on more actual teaching responsibilities in the field.

When field practice parallels the classroom, it gives the student-teacher a real-life laboratory in which to test each stage of his development and from which to glean practical feedback concerning his strengths and limitations as a teacher and his personal satisfaction with teaching as his career. Field practice which occurs only at the end of the training program is too late to serve in such important personal evaluations and decisions.



Comprehensive field practice is not only concurrent with classroom training, but also places the student-teacher in a variety of settings (minority school, innercity, suburban, etc.). This gives the student-teacher a larger group of role models and a broader experience of what teaching can involve. Experiences might also include opportunities to work with young people outside the school setting. For example, the student-teacher might spend some time as a volunteer in a crisis center. A comprehensive field practice is critical to training in affective competencies, particularly at the facilitation level. The focus in facilitation is not just on the teacher's learning a skill, but more importantly on the interaction between the teacher and the student as a result of the teacher's skill. This requires extensive practice so that the skill becomes a natural part of the teacher's functioning based on sensitivity to students and situations rather than a mechanical technique for indiscriminant use.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR SCHOOL SYSTEMS

6. Asking teachers (and training teachers) to serve as a student advocate can often place the teacher in a trapped position between the administration and his students. The task force suggested a "bill of rights" for teachers to help alleviate this situation. The bill of rights could include, for example, protection of teacher confidentiality in helping relationships with students. Another possibility is to have a "teacher counselor" available, especially for new teachers who need reinforcement and moral support as they learn the ropes. Such a counselor would not be aligned with the school administration and would serve as an advocate and protector of teacher



- rights. Perhaps teachers need a "hot line" where they can call in for advice when they feel stuck in a situation.
- 7. Incorporating affective education in school systems implies a basic philosophical change concerning desirable teaching skills. For example, facilitating social and emotional growth is not easily recorded on paper. School systems that in the past have given highest priority to paper work skills (lesson plans, attendance records), will need to examine their priorities and perhaps develop a new rank ordering.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR TEACHERS

8. Many of the training suggestions given here imply the teacher as an advocate of student needs and as a supporter (and perhaps a mobilizer) of changes to meet these needs. A teacher who is to function as a student advocate needs survival training. He needs to understand the community and school setting in which he works—what changes can occur, what things are least likely to change, and how best to accomplish what can be done.



PART IV: SPECIAL CONCERNS

There are special situations that are important in developing teacher education programs. They are no less important in looking at a particular component of teacher education such as affective education. One issue oncerns the fact that we live in a pouralistic society and school systems serve a variety of neighborhoods with people having culturally different backgrounds. Teacher training programs need to examine the relevance of affective skills to the different school settings in which their teachers will serve. For example, encouraging a child to express his feelings may cause him a problem at home if his family's cultural background views expressing feelings negatively.

One major issue related to cultural differences concerns preparing teachers for innercity minority schools. Issues and situations selected for training should relate to minority lifestyles as well as to the lifestyle of middle America. Does conflict resolution (as defined here) for example, have meaning to students who accept street fighting as a way of life? Does it make sense to talk about facilitating self-actualization skills (according to the middle-class concept) with students who are still struggling with survival?

One attempt to deal with this issue occurred in a Black-on-Black workshop on humanistic education in New York.* The stated purpose of the workshop was to explore the question, "Are humanistic education goals and technology relevant to minority people?" The 25 participants were all black and included educators, counselors, medical professionals, housewives, a former drug addict



^{*}Bailey W. Jackson, III, "Humanistic Education for Minority Concerns," 1973, (unpublished mimeographed report of Black-on-Black Workshop on Humanistic Education.)

and an ex-convict. Although the group was largely professional and therefore could not really speak for young blacks growing up on innercity streets,
the workshop did develop a number of issues for further investigation:

- 1. It is important that the teacher understand how his students view the world and be able to help them clarify their view of the world. This is problem enough when white teachers are working with white students and is doubly difficult when working with students of a minority culture. Unfortunately, being of the same cultural group does not necessarily qualify a teacher to work with students of like culture. Since many non-white teachers receive their training in white institutions, they generally learn to apply teaching theories and strategies through issues based on their faculty's world view.
- 2. The mode of learning is also important in working with minority groups. Traditionally, education encourages and praises students who learn and respond in the symbolic mode (written or spoken word). Both whites and non-whites learn in two other modes as well: one is through fantasy, imagination, graphic representation; the other is through learning by doing. The report of this workshop states that participants reported most comfort with symbolic learning and "learning by doing."
- 3. "The premises and assumptions upon which humanistic education is built can, by and large, also be applied to minorities. However, the technology often neglects to consider the unique difference of minorities." (P. 20.) It is important that the teacher understand his students' differences in interaction patterns, and that he not close down all communication if interaction with his students does not occur on his own terms. Educators should realize that issues such as race, sex, political and spiritual awareness have a large influence in areas of openness, trust, power, values and motivation.

In short, affective education—which has essentially been developed around middle—class "majority" concerns—can be helpful to minority groups if it relates to their background, lifestyle and their changing feelings and values about being a member of a minority (e.g., How do I feel about being black? How do I handle discrimination toward me as a member of a minority group? What are my values about power and control? What are my strategies for living with the majority—blacks in control, separatism, withdrawal, do my own thing?). However, educators should realize that



affective education does not change the systemic problems (i.e., discrimination) that put the minority person in a disadvantaged position in society.

Differential training of elementary and secondary school teachers in affective education is another area of concern. This is especially true in preservice education where the student-teacher preparing for high school spends most of his time in his major area of study (e.g., English, social studies, etc.) and very little time in education courses or modules. What arrangements will be needed to help the student-teacher learn affective strategies for teaching English from the English department? Or will all such strategies be part of the methods course offered by the school of education? Another dimension of this problem is that greater strides in affective education have been made at the elementary level. Special attention now needs to be given to preparing secondary teachers.

A problem area related to differential training of secondary and elementary teachers concerns the use of various affective strategies with students at different developmental levels. For example, young children who do not have well developed conceptual abilities or tolerance for high levels of abstraction may not fully comprehend experiences such as decision making to the point that they learn to use them outside of structured classroom exercises. For strategies such as decision making to have an effect, students must be capable of analyzing their behaviors and motivations. Therefore, such an approach is difficult to apply below a fourth-grade level and may prove to be more valuable in a junior and senior high school setting. Young children enjoy games, skits, puppetry and role playing. As children pass through puberty there is a trend toward independence and introspection. With growing emotional maturity, individuals can better handle the probing



and questioning of their thoughts, attitudes, values and behaviors and are better able to deal with verbal abstractions.

Teacher education is aware of the new roles such as "drug educator" and "sex educator" and the discomfort teachers feel with them. Schools of education and inservice programs are beginning to respond to the need to prepare teachers to work with their students around personal life issues. Their readiness "to do something" makes this task a timely one. The time is ripe for other reasons as well. Because of a decline in school age population and an increase in the number of people choosing teaching as a profession, teacher education programs are currently turning out more new teachers than the system can support. Consequently, programs can be more selective in choosing applicants for schools of education and for teaching positions. Also, some of the time that was once devoted to meeting a teaching manpower shortage can now be turned to revamping departments of education and to conducting experimental projects.

There are many resistances we are likely to encounter in training teachers as we proposed:

- 1. Unionism——Some teachers may not see affective education as their responsibility if it is not explicitly stated in their contracts.
- 2. Discipline—Teachers are often concerned with maintaining discipline in their classes. They may resist learning some of the tools used in affective education if they see them as disrupting the normal classroom.
- 3. *History*—Student-teachers have an educational background based on cognitive learning, evaluation by test scores, etc. They may need time to prepare for and adjust to new learning experiences.
- 4. Test scores—The tistorical mission of the school is to teach cognitive skills. Class activities not directly related to improved test scores may be considered a waste of time and inconsistent with the purpose of school.



- 5. Teacher fear--Emotional growth is more difficult to measure than cognitive growth. Some teachers may resist devoting time and energy to an activity when the results are not immediately or clearly visible.
- 6. Emotional strain—To officially accept responsibility for another person's affective development is emotionally draining, particularly if the teacher carries a sense of personal failure if every student does not reach the "ideal." But neither will every student have a perfect score in math. The point is that the teacher is responsible only for his role as a facilitator. He should offer the best model possible and use his skills to insure that the classroom experience offers an opportunity for students to develop and test personal skills. The student is still responsible for his behavior and growth. It will help if the teacher can accept even the smallest improvement as a success.
- 7. Administrative resistance——It is difficult to change "the way things have always been done" because people establish patterns and are more comfortable with familiarity. The top administrators (deans of schools of education, superintendents, etc.) are the first people to contact in bringing about change in teacher training. They can make the job easier and faster and provide financial support, if they buy the idea. Administrators have needs they must meet——increased enroll—ment, lower drop—out rates, decrease in disciplinary problems, new funding, etc. The more the proponents of affective education can demonstrate how their recommendations meet such administrative needs, the greater the chances of success.
- 8. Community resistances—School systems (more than schools of education) belong to the public and must respond to the community needs—what parents want their children to learn. In the past, educators have resisted moving away from the public mandate which established the public school system. The important question is "has the mandate changed?" Do parents want affective education for their children or are their main concerns "reading, writing and 'rithmetic?" In a study conducted for the Maryland State Department of Education by Vitro Laboratories in 1973, the top ranked goal or need was the mastery of reading skills. But from the 11,000 citizens who completed the questionnaire, the second through fifth ranked goals were:

Ability to arrive at independent decisions

Development of self respect

Ability to apply knowledge and skills to solution of reallife problems

Knowledge of the personal and social consequences of critical health problems (such as smoking).



Critical needs were also established on the basis of test scores. Major critical needs appear in:

Reading
Ability to apply knowledge skills to the solution of real-life problems
Understanding of and concern for problems of society
Ability to develop a personal value system
Development of concern for others
Ability to understand the pros and cons of issues

The Georgia State Department of Education conducted a similar study to determine the aspirations of the state's public for education. When the public was asked to rank order a listing of possible goals, the results were as follows:

Students should possess the ability to:

- 1. Understand and respect oneself
- 2. Respect others
- 3. Read, write, speak and listen.

People in teacher education who have started or would like to begin revising their programs to include preparation for affective education will find the task easier the more they can articipate these and other arguments that teachers, administrators and college faculty might offer as reasons "why it can't be done."



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