MENTAL HEALTH
AND
TEACHER
EDUCATION

FORTY-SIXTH YEARBOOK
1967

THE ASSOCIATION FOR STUDENT TEACHING

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Preface

The principal task of our yearbook is to present an up-to-date, comprehensive report on mental health and teacher education. In carrying out this primary assignment, several sub-tasks are accomplished. First, the meaning of mental health as used in the yearbook is defined, and the importance of mental health to teacher education is explained.

Second, a theoretical position in teacher education and mental health is presented and developed. Despite the use of several writers who have varying points of view, the over-all work has a consistent theoretical position. In the development of this position, the potential contributions of psychology to the field are identified, and the problem of how these contributions might be utilized in teacher education is explored in considerable detail. A theory is presented here for facilitating more effective teacher behavior in the classroom. This theory should stimulate new and creative thought in teacher education.

Third, the four National Institute of Mental Health projects in teacher education are reported with interpretations of their findings for the improvement of teacher preparation programs. Based at Bank Street College of Education, San Francisco State College, the University of Texas, and the University of Wisconsin; these projects are the most extensive studies completed to date on mental health and teacher education, and over a million dollars of research funds were expended in conducting them. This is the first joint report of their findings, and in these papers an effort is made to present and interpret those results which are of special importance to teacher education. The reports of all four NIMH projects relate exciting, fresh ideas which have great importance for teacher preparation.

Fourth, a comprehensive review of research in mental health and teacher education is given which includes the early development of the movement as well as recent related researches. Finally, a brief but hard hitting summary of the implications of the yearbook for teacher education is included. While the recommendations are not many in number, they have sweeping implications for change. Of particular interest is a request not for more instructional time but for better financial support of teacher education so that the time currently assigned to teacher preparation may be more adequately utilized. A concern for the mental health dimension of teacher education necessitates a better and more personalized type of preparatory program for teachers than is currently found in most institutions of higher education, and this means improved financial support for these programs.

Bob L. Taylor, Chairman
1967 Yearbook Writing Committee
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Part One

The Importance of Mental Health for Teacher Education

Chapter I. The Classroom Teacher, Mental Health, and Learning  
ROBERT E. BILLS

Chapter II. The Development of Selected Aspects of the Mental Health Movement in Teacher Education  
RALPH H. OJEMANN
Introduction

The close, reciprocating relationship which should exist between teacher education and mental health is developed in this section. Dean Bills describes what is meant by mental health in his discussion of openness to experience and intelligence. Also, he demonstrates how mental health concepts can make a contribution to teacher education when teacher education is viewed as helping students to become teachers. His chapter clearly establishes the close dependency which teacher education should have on mental health principles.

Ralph Ojemann traces the history of several dimensions of the mental health movement in teacher education, and he clarifies the teacher's role as a preventive-developmental influence rather than as a therapeutic agent. He describes a number of approaches to mental health which have been taken in teacher education programs. On the basis of work which has already been done in mental health and teacher education, Dr. Ojemann predicts that mental health will become an even greater concern in teacher education during the decades immediately ahead.
CHAPTER I

The Classroom Teacher, Mental Health, and Learning

ROBERT E. BILLS

Classroom teachers seemingly are faced with an impossible task. How can they assume responsibility for the personal and social development of their students and at the same time guide students' intellectual development in a manner consistent with today's high academic standards? It is the thesis of this chapter and of this yearbook that teachers are responsible for the personal and social development of their students and that these goals are neither in addition to nor in conflict with the goal of promoting superior achievement. In fact, teachers can achieve the goal of optimum intellectual development of students only if the goal encompasses concern for the mental health of students. What is some of the evidence which leads to this point of view?

Intelligence and Mental Health

In 1930, Peik reported his now classic study entitled The Professional Education of High School Teachers in which he described the testimony of teachers to the merits existing in student teaching. Since that time numerous other studies have given similar testimony. Yet, many educators are not surprised that Conant found the course poorly administered in many cases; its potentialities not realized. Certainly it would be wise for all teacher educators to take to heart his suggestions to exercise the greatest care in selecting schools for student teaching, in choosing cooperating teachers, and in close supervision by college and university personnel.

Although many educators might be somewhat in agreement with Dr. Conant about the state of affairs, they probably would be strongly in disagreement about what basic changes need to be instituted in order to strengthen student teaching and other important aspects of

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teacher preparation programs. We can seek to shore up our weaknesses, to be more careful in our selection of cooperating teachers, to exercise closer supervision, and to do a number of other things but these will not by themselves cure the problems of student teaching, of the professional preparation of teachers, or of classroom teaching until we come to grips with answers to the question, "What does effective teaching seek to effect?"

In the framework of student teaching the question might be phrased, "What do we seek as a result of student teaching?" and our answers to the question vary significantly from cooperating teacher to cooperating teacher and from supervisor to supervisor. Two incidents from the writer's personal experience illustrate this point.

Diversity of Goals

In my student teaching I had two cooperating teachers; one for the first half of the semester and the other for the second half. In the first class I sat with four other student teachers and observed. Each day after school the teacher would discuss what she had done in her classes and would ask questions such as, "Do you know why I did this particular thing?" We sat through her classes for nine weeks without doing any teaching because she seemed to think that her job was to give us a good example of teaching which we could later emulate. We strongly suspected that she felt her responsibility to the students in her class was such that she could not entrust them to our care.

My next cooperating teacher had us observe him for two weeks and then asked us, "Do you think you can do it now?" Our answers were, "Yes," and for the rest of the term we took turns teaching the class, carefully imitating his behavior. Our imitations must have been good ones since I cannot recall him criticizing us.

These two incidents would be unimportant except that they have been observed over and over through the years. It should be added, though, that there also have been observed many incidents which are far more positive—so positive that when we look at the total range of practices in student teaching we must conclude that we simply have little agreement about the purposes for which student teaching exists. Worse still, we have little agreement about what professional education should secure for students (as judged by the diversity of preparation and teaching methods we use in teacher education).

Now, there is plenty of evidence that we in professional education are concerned with what we are doing and that we are seeking to improve our efforts. One such bit of evidence is the growing interest of people responsible for student teaching in the question of the mental health of prospective teachers. A recent national workshop of the Association for Student Teaching at Oshkosh, Wisconsin (August, 1965), was devoted exclusively to the question of mental health and student
Some Personal Effects

You might wish to question the above perceptions of student teaching, and, perhaps, rightfully so. But about six or seven years ago the writer did a small study of the problems of student teaching which "bug" student teachers most. Some of these problems were related to felt inadequacies, others were related to lack of experience in working with students; many were concerned with relationships with supervising and cooperating teachers. Here are some examples:

1. Devising methods for dealing with the full and final responsibility for guiding the pupils
2. Being accepted by the cooperating teacher only as a student
3. Not being accepted by the supervising professor as a person
4. My own personal feeling of inadequacy
5. Accepting criticism from my cooperating teacher
6. Being called on to contribute to class discussion before I was to begin teaching
7. Finding the over-all objectives and goals of the cooperating teacher
8. Formulating goals satisfactory to the cooperating teacher
9. The unfavorable attitude of the principal toward me
10. The unfavorable attitude of the faculty toward me
11. The unfavorable attitude of the faculty toward student teachers
12. Not being encouraged to participate in appropriate teachers' committees
13. The feeling of not belonging
14. The feeling of not belonging because I was not invited to attend faculty social events
15. Accepting the frequent interruptions of the cooperating teacher
16. Accepting interference from faculty members
17. Getting my name included on the distribution list of school announcements
18. Getting permission to use the telephone.

Few of the above problems relate to the student teacher establishing his identity as a teacher; most relate to his relationships with other people and to maintaining his own sense of worthwhileness. By inference it could be concluded that teachers are not interested in inducting new members into the profession. Seemingly, they accept a student teacher as an inferior who will be just as good a teacher without their help as with their help, or perhaps they believe that inducting new members into the profession is not their responsibility. We should remember, though, that the students in the study were asked to state the problems...
they experienced as student teachers and, when you ask people to state problems, they seldom think in terms of opportunities or challenges.

On the other hand, we must raise the question, "Did the cooperating teachers represented by these student teachers hold the point of view that you would like them to hold? Were they genuinely concerned with helping their students discover themselves as teachers? And, do these problems suggest to you that we are in agreement about what we seek for student teachers from their student teaching experience?"

**Intelligence and Openness to Experience**

A few years ago one of our doctoral candidates—Chester Freeze—studied the personal effects of student teaching on student teachers. He was concerned with personal effects since he was studying a variable which we call "openness to experience." Let me describe what is meant by "openness to experience" because of its importance in Chester's study and because it is central to our discussion.

**Openness to Experience**

All of us have experience and for each of us the personal meanings differ from those of any other person. My wife has a perfume which most people seem to sense as a delightful aroma. I'm allergic to it—it makes me sneeze—so its meaning is quite different for me. The ways in which we react to experience differ widely among us but are most important in many areas of living such as our personalities, our mental health, and our intelligence.

If people remained open to their experience and its meanings, there would not be much of importance in my story. But openness to experience is not always the case. Our perceptions of some of our experiences are distorted while other experience is denied because the personal meanings are too painful. Often, experience is distorted so that we can accept it as a part of us, but when the meaning of experience is so threatening or distasteful to us that we cannot distort it enough to accept it, or its inconsistencies are too obvious to us, we must deny that we ever had the experience.

**Openness and Meaning**

Perhaps some illustrations of denial or distortion will prove helpful in promoting understanding of this concept of openness to experience. A teacher may find it necessary to deny, even vigorously, that she has anything other than warm, positive feelings toward a particular child.

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THE CLASSROOM TEACHER

since, in her conception, a teacher is a person who values all children. A mother may find it difficult to love her child, but she cannot admit this lack of love to awareness since to do so forces her to perceive of herself in a manner which is completely unacceptable to her.

A principal may be quite autocratic in his methods, and he may seek reassurance from his colleagues that he really is a "democratic" leader since he knows that all "good" educational leaders are "democratic." Because of his need to maintain his perception, he may engage in elaborate procedures which are designed to prove to himself and to other people that he is truly "democratic." A classic example of denial of experience (The experience here is an inner feeling.) is the man who pounds the table and in an excited manner demands, "Who's angry?"

Teachers sometimes give lip-service to new ideas in education and in teaching. Seldom are these teachers deliberately distorting their beliefs; they are reporting their present perceptions as truthfully as they can. Because of denial and distortion of experience, they truly believe that what they are verbally endorsing is consistent both with what they are practicing and with what they are experiencing. How often have you, in the quiet of your solitude, had vague and uneasy feelings that something about your experiencing is escaping you? And how often, when you have relaxed at home in a relatively threat-free environment, have you seen things in significantly different ways than when under threat at work or elsewhere? Has it ever happened to you that at moments of relaxation you have been startled with the clarity of your insight? You say, in effect, "Well, what do you know! I am the kind of person he described! I do experience in the way he said!"

Openness and the Self Concept

For most people the denial and distortion of experience which is a part of their lives is not of a gross sort—that which leads to maladjustment and serious psychological or psychiatric disturbance. The denial or distortion deals with the small, the mundane, and the everyday events of life. And it occurs most frequently when to accept an experience or to accept experience without distortion leads either to a questioning of our self-concepts or to a forced change in our ways of conceptualizing ourselves. That experience which is most in conflict with our definitions of ourselves is most rapidly rejected or denied as a part of our experience. But that experience which can be redefined so that it is not inconsistent with our present experiencing is distorted and accepted. A derogatory comment by a stranger is often handled by comments such as, "He really doesn't know me." A critical comment by a colleague, though, arouses anxiety, resentment, and, perhaps, rejection of the colleague. If we can forget the comment, we do so. If we can't we may seek to discredit the colleague, at least in our own eyes.
Basic to all denial and distortion of experience is the meaning of the experience as judged by our self-concepts. That experience which strengthens our self-concepts is most rapidly incorporated and accepted as truthful; that which questions or threatens our self-concepts is distorted or denied.

Many of the means by which people deny and distort their experience have been categorized. These categories are the mechanisms of adjustment such as rationalization, projection, and sublimation, which constitute much of the subject matter of abnormal psychology. Since our concern is with the question of why people must deny and distort experience, and how we can aid the prevention of denial and distortion in teacher education programs, no listing of the ways in which they deny and distort will be given here. It should be emphasized, however, that such denial and distortion of experience is at the root of most psychological poor health, distorted personalities, and warped intelligence.

**Intelligence, Experience, and Mental Health**

And this gets us to a major point of our discussion. Let me state the point and then attempt to support it. The goal of teacher education can be described either as the creation of intelligent behavior in prospective teachers or as the development of prospective teachers who are mentally healthy. From the point of view of this chapter, the creation of intelligence in teacher education and the creation of mental health are synonymous. How can such a view be supported?

What do we measure when we attempt to measure intelligence? Obviously, we measure the quality of a person’s behavior. In fact we can define intelligence in this manner although the definition is quite different from that which is used by most educators. It is quite a defensible definition, though, since all we ever measure when we seek to measure intelligence is the quality of a person’s behavior in a series of standardized tasks. We assume that all people have had equal opportunity to be familiar with the testing materials—a most questionable assumption.

If we look at intelligence in the above sense, it is clear that intelligent behavior involves the matching of experience with the perceived demands of problems. To the extent that a person can bring his experience to a problem, test it for a “fit,” modify his experience by other experience, and again test for a “fit”—to this extent is his behavior intelligent. From an anthropological point of view, and in an oversimplified manner, intelligence is the ability to make a successful response in a situation. Intelligence is defined here in much this same sense of making successful responses which includes, in addition to the sensing of the requirements of a problem, opportunities to profit from feedback from attempted solutions and opportunities to gather additional experience in an effort to solve the problem.
Intelligent behavior is possible only when people have opportunities for experience and can profit from it, when past experience is available as needed and is not distorted or denied, when the past experience of a problem is permitted to flow into the experiential field of a person without distortion or denial, and when the person is open to new experience or information and knows how to achieve it. In such a case, the relevant past experience of the person is available immediately to be used in a present problem in such a way that behavior most adequately can match both experience and the demands of a problem.

The important questions here are these. Can a person bring all relevant aspects of his experiencing to a problem, sense the requirements of the problem, actively seek new experience, and solve the problem either by use of past solutions or through new and original solutions? If the answers to these questions are positive, the person's behavior is intelligent, and in that particular moment he is intelligent.

If you have followed the above "logic," you may agree that denial and distortion of experience limits intelligence. And, on the positive side of the coin, we must conclude that openness to experience—past, present, and future—and the development or continuance of openness to experience are basic to intelligence and to important outcomes to be sought from teacher education. Actually, if we could agree at all about what we would like students to gain from teacher education programs, including student teaching, it probably would be an openness to the experience of teaching, an openness to its problems and its opportunities, an openness to oneself so that he can bring his experience to bear on becoming a teacher, and an openness to one's lack of experience so that he is moved to accept new experience.

So our conclusion is that openness to experience is basic to the development of intelligent behavior. But openness to experience also is basic to mental health. People who are open to their experience and its personal meanings and who actively seek new experience in the solution of their problems are mentally healthy and intelligent people. You can be neither intelligent in your behavior, in the sense described above, nor mentally healthy without being open to experience.

This places the subject of mental health and teacher education in a different light than it is usually placed. Mental health is not something which is sought in addition to a good teacher education experience; it is an inevitable outcome of any adequate human relationship and such an adequate human relationship must be present in any profitable teacher education experience.

From the point of view described above, the goal of teacher education and of student teaching is the creation of intelligence in prospective teachers. To what extent are we successful in our efforts? Let's return to where we left Chester Freeze and his study of openness to experience and its changes during student teaching.
Openness and Student Teaching

Chester measured the openness to experience of student teachers as they entered and as they completed student teaching. He also measured the openness to experience of the cooperating teachers and supervisors of these student teachers. Included in his group of 145 student teachers were all of the secondary student teachers of a college of education who were enrolled for student teaching during the spring semester of 1963.

In Chester's study there was a hint that if student teachers who were below average in openness to experience were placed in contact with supervising teachers who were considerably below the average openness of their groups, there was a negative effect on the openness of the student teachers.

Much to his disappointment, no significant positive change in openness occurred during student teaching for the group of student teachers which Chester studied. However, the study was repeated during 1964 and by contrast Chester's results looked excellent.

The follow-up study, which was conducted by Richard J. Elliott, Virginia M. Macagnoni, and Robert E. Bills, involved all of the elementary and secondary student teachers at six colleges during the spring semester or the winter quarter of the 1963-64 school year. Again, the students were tested for openness before and after student teaching and the openness of their supervising teachers and supervisors also was measured.

A major conclusion of this study was that significant negative change occurred in the openness of the student teachers involved in the study. This negative change occurred for both elementary and secondary student teachers and, although it did not occur to the same extent in each of the six colleges, the change was negative in each instance.

A second major conclusion from the study was that the negative change in the openness of the student teachers was related to the openness of their supervising teachers but not to the openness of their college supervisors. As far as could be determined, the college supervisors had no effect on the openness of the student teachers. This is a most interesting finding in light of Conant's recommendation for clinical professors.

A most upsetting conclusion of the study was that negative change in openness was greatest for the more open students and occurred in relationship with the more open supervising teachers. Apparently, student

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5Conant, op. cit., pp. 142-144.
teaching is a threatening experience, as shown by the problems cited earlier, and those students who are most open to the threat are most easily injured by it.

Another upsetting feature of the study was the conclusion stated above that the most open supervising teachers apparently created the greatest threat for the students. This conclusion makes sense, though, when it is tied to the observation that the more open supervising teachers seemed to use more interactive processes with their student teachers. Student teachers often believe they are required to imitate their supervising teachers, and, when they are faced with a situation in which the supervising teacher says, in effect, "Don't imitate me; discover yourself," they appear to be lost, to question the motives of the teacher, and to vacillate in their behavior.

Would this same situation prevail if the students had more opportunity for interactive types of relationships prior to student teaching? We have no answer to this question, but I would venture to state, on the basis of knowledge gained in other relationships, that those students who are most experienced in being responsible for their own learning would react most positively to such an interactive and personally responsible relationship in student teaching. Most students have had little opportunity to experience responsibility for their own learning during formal school experiences. It is too much to expect them to become automatically responsible because they are enrolled for student teaching.

Are there other reasons why these negative results were present in this study? There appears to be a most logical answer to this question, and it takes us back to an earlier point in this chapter where the statement was made that we simply have little agreement about the purposes for which teacher education programs exist. The problem of focus for student teaching is a part of the larger problem of purpose for teacher education. What is the theoretical focus of teacher education?

**Openness as a Goal for Teacher Education**

Most statements which pose as theories of education are nothing more than lists of desired outcomes which do not relate significantly to each other. These lists may be illustrated by the *Seven Cardinal Principles of Education* or the list known as the *Imperative Needs of Youth*. The lists were arrived at by adding together the opinions of a number of concerned and informed people in the hope that what would emerge from the process would add up to a complete education for boys and girls. These lists have the effect of fragmenting educational efforts and do not present a complete or comprehensive theory of education. To achieve the desired outcomes indicated by the lists, we teach one course for one purpose and another for a somewhat unrelated purpose. Some of the items on the lists suggest a further
fragmentation in terms of methodology since one type of objective suggests one manner of approach and another suggests a different approach; the entire framework suggests the need to cause students to move in certain directions and for teachers to assume that they must be responsible for this movement of students. Such a framework for teacher education is not conducive for the development of responsible, self-directed learning. Actually, it is more appropriate to teacher-directed or even teacher-dominated activity.

**Information and Teacher Education**

Education has often been criticized for its lack of focus and its inability to defend many of the things it does. On the other hand, our critics do not seem to have been very helpful in what they say education should aim for. What our critics seek is obviously too thin. Education to be meaningful certainly must be far more than the acquiring of information about the status quo, regardless of how good that information is. It must be pointed toward the development of intelligence (intelligence in the sense used earlier in this chapter) and must use the kind of learning relationships required for its development.

Yet, in much of our teaching in teacher education programs, we often are guilty of the same thing as that which we reject in our critics. We say that the subject matter person is too interested in teaching facts isolated from meaning. But much of our own teaching in teacher education is aimed at exactly the same thing. Much of what we do is aimed at informing prospective teachers of what they should know about teaching. Have you ever seen a teacher tell a prospective teacher that using the telling method is an ineffective method of teaching? By implication, the task of teaching is a task of helping students become informed.

Now, there is nothing in and of itself improper about helping students become well informed, and there are few, if any, educators who claim that any one is well educated who is not also well informed. But to rest our case for teacher education on information alone is simply insufficient as has been shown earlier in this chapter.

A most depressing feature of knowledge is its tendency to exist in logic-tight compartments—compartments which are so tight that the knowledge they contain is not reflected back against itself to ask, "Is what we are doing consistent with what we know?" And when we examine our teaching behavior closely, we may find that it is quite inconsistent with the objective of developing openness and intelligence in students.

As Rogers has pointed out in his chapter in this yearbook, the behavior of educators in teacher preparation programs suggests that their concern is most frequently with questions such as, "How can knowledge in regard to teaching become knowledge in a teacher-to-be?" Or, at a somewhat deeper level, "How can knowledge in regard to the facilitation
of learning become knowledge to a teacher-to-be?" Or, again at an even more sophisticated level, "How can knowledge of learning become behaviorally operative in the teacher-to-be?" In other words, at this third level, "How do we manage to get students to behave as we think they should?" All three of these levels are represented in our approaches to preparing teachers and to student teaching, and each has its shortcomings.

The results of teaching for the first of the above questions suffer from the naive assumption that there is a one-to-one relation between knowledge and behavior—that is, that knowing and being are identical. Excellent studies have shown that teachers who have considerable knowledge of child development do not necessarily teach in different and more effective ways than do those with far less knowledge. In fact, if we start with teaching effectiveness and attempt to predict the amount of psychological knowledge of a teacher, we find a depressingly low relationship between the two. But we ignore this conclusion and continue to require knowledge of the facts as the major outcome from child development courses.

The third of Rogers' questions is even more frightening in its possible import, although it is a far less frequently sought objective in teacher education. The results of efforts to prepare teachers in light of the assumption basic to the first question probably are inconsequential. The results of efforts to prepare teachers in light of the third question may be disastrous. Successful efforts would result in a freezing of teacher behavior based on knowledge which is bound to be proved to be faulty with the passage of time. (Look backward, for example, at what we believed to be correct 25 years ago.) Or, successful efforts might result in a freezing of behavior which, although adequate for present problems, will be inadequate as problems change, disappear, or become unimportant with the passage of time. It is not unlikely that a teacher prepared in a manner consistent with the third question would seek to delay progress, to bias the questions presented to students, to be selective of student problems, and to resist change.

Most teaching, including work with student teachers, is at the level implied in the first question—"How can knowledge in general or knowledge in regard to teaching become knowledge in a teacher to be?" In teacher education, as in most teaching at the college and pre-college levels, we attempt to provide the information believed to be needed to develop effectiveness.

Openness and Teacher Effectiveness

But some of our work in teacher education is directed at another question and based on different assumptions than the three questions we have raised. I believe that much teaching at the public school level also is directed at this more meaningful goal. But I also believe that teaching
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in the student teaching experience suffers from the same problem as has the general area of teacher education—an inability and a reluctance to make explicit that which is implicit in our teaching efforts and to come to grips with what we already know—the teaching which makes the real difference in preparing effective teachers is that which goes beyond knowing and vitally affects being.

Teaching Relationships and Openness

An effective teaching experience seems to contain certain common elements from one teacher to the next. For example, a successful experience almost always seems to involve relationships in which:

1. There is a considerable amount of verbal activity.
2. Students are interacting with each other and with their teacher.
3. Some students, at times, are busily at work by themselves.
4. The teacher is listening carefully, asking questions, and making tentative suggestions.
5. The students are looking for answers to questions they believe are important.
6. There is a great deal of sharing of experience.
7. There is a genuine effort to come to grips with the personal meaning of students' experience.
8. The students and the teacher are discovering their worlds of experience, what it is to be unique human beings, how to explore their worlds in meaningful ways, and how to discover the world of the other person.

Such effective teaching experiences are characterized by an attitude of genuineness and authenticity on the part of all—an attitude encouraged and stimulated by the congruence of the teacher. This congruence is shown by the fitting of the teacher's present perceptions and his expressions of these perceptions, and a matching of his present perceptions and the meanings experience had for him at the time of the experiencing.

Effective teaching experiences are characterized by a high level of empathic understanding—again encouraged and stimulated by the teacher. This is an empathic understanding in which each person is attempting to understand exactly what it is like to be the other person, to see him as he is seeing himself, and to experience his world as he experiences it himself.

Most characteristic of effective teaching experiences is the high level of positive and unconditional regard each person has for the worth and the experiential meanings of the other—a regard partially borne of humanness, but carefully nurtured and brought to fruition by a teacher who regards himself and all other people as worthy of respect and positive and unconditional regard.
Effectiveness, Knowing, and Being

In these experiences the teacher is a learner among learners—a person who is as eager to learn as are the students. This teacher is a growing, thinking, incorporating, experiencing person who continues to remain in a process of change and becoming. He is a person who is open to his experience and its meanings and a person who is open to new experience and its meanings for him. This teacher obviously is an informed person and one who has discovered the meaning of much of his information and experience for himself. He is in one manner of speaking a well-educated person and in another manner of speaking far beyond that which we often visualize when we speak of the well-educated person. He is a person in whom knowing has become being—what he knows is a part of him such that it vitally affects his behavior.

Here is a person who has discovered how he can learn, and at least as important, how he can use himself as a tool and an instrument for the learning of other people. He has discovered himself as a teacher—uniquely different from all other teachers but dedicated to the same goals—helping students discover themselves and their personal meanings in their experience and helping students discover themselves as teachers. He is a person in whom knowing and being are synonymous and a person whose behaving is consistent with his experiencing. He is a person who is attempting to help students come to grips with their experience and its meanings and to be responsible for their own learning.

Many teachers are this kind of person and many others are attempting to become this kind of person. Teaching, where it seeks more than rote memory or the development of technical skills (and even here to some degree), is effective only to the degree that the teacher can become this kind of person and can experience deeply and significantly that which is personally meaningful to learners. Teacher education programs have the responsibility for developing this kind of teacher, and until we do so we will continue to have the same negative results cited earlier. We will continue to muffle our opportunities for developing the most mentally healthy and intelligently behaving teachers.

Without doubt, teacher preparation experiences often fall far short of helping people to become the kind of effective teachers described above. Some of our limitations are in our own experience and in our own need to defend ourselves against that most feared thing—change—and we are not always open to our experience. But a great many of our limitations are in the fact that we have so little to pattern ourselves after and we have failed to make explicit what it is we really seek through the student teaching and other teacher preparation experiences. And what is it we seek?
We are seeking to open prospective teachers to their experience, to help them remain open as they gain new experience, and to help them become effective tools for the opening of other people to their experience and its meanings for themselves. In other words, we are seeking to create intelligent teachers—people in whom knowing has become being and people who are their experience.

Student teaching is the climax of the undergraduate program. It is also a wonderful opportunity for attempting to open people to their experience. The most profitable situations in which people can examine themselves and their experience and can seek to gain new experience are those situations which are characterized by:

1. Problems which are meaningful to the person who is the learner
2. An awareness on the part of the learner of a need to change and of a desire to change
3. A situation as free from personal threat as possible

Student teaching is characterized as a meaningful experience for prospective teachers. It is a situation in which the prospective teacher is aware of a need to change and of a desire to change. The teacher creates the environment wherein it is possible for the student to become his experience. But a meaningful preparation program must begin far earlier than student teaching. It should begin as students enter school and continue through college.

Where students desire to change, to grow, and to become effective teachers, the greatest limitations to their growth are our personal characteristics. Those of us who are most open to our experience are most helpful in opening students to their experience. Such teachers provide congruent, empathic, and unconditionally positive relationships. They are most concerned with developing personally meaningful situations for students, and they grant students opportunities to be responsible for their own learning.

Obviously, effective teaching is the development of a situation which is tailored to create intelligence in the sense it was earlier defined to be in this chapter. Where students are motivated to change and to become effective teachers, and where their teachers are able to provide the quality of relationship described earlier, there students become more intelligent and more open to their experience. At present the teacher education experience which most closely fits the requirements for the creation of intelligence is student teaching. Obviously, more of the total program should fit these requirements.

It has already been stated in this chapter that intelligent people (in the sense defined earlier) are also mentally healthy people. Perhaps we can see more clearly at this point why this should be. The conditions described as necessary for the development of intelligent people are
exactly those necessary for the development of mentally healthy people. Open people are intelligent. Mentally healthy people are open. And intelligent people are mentally healthy.

So we must raise the question, is concern for mental health of importance in teacher education? And the answer comes back both yes and no. Surely it is important because mentally healthy people are the open, intelligent teachers who can provide relationships for boys and girls in which they can grow toward intelligence. And no, concern for mental health is not important because such a concern is synonymous with concerns for the preparation of intelligent teachers and, if we concentrate our efforts on this task, mental health will take care of itself. The question of teacher education is the question of aiding knowing to become being and aiding a person to become his experience.
CHAPTER II

The Development of Selected Aspects of the Mental Health Movement in Teacher Education

RALPH H. OJEMANN

In the space allotted to this chapter, a consideration of all of the detailed strands of the mental health movement, as it has been developing in teacher education, would be impractical. Furthermore, as the subsequent discussion will indicate, there are numerous subtle aspects to the problem which require considerable time for a thorough tracing as to their development, and their significance may not be clear until mental health thinking in teacher education is further advanced than is presently the case. Accordingly, it was decided to choose those aspects which have gained considerable importance in the light of present knowledge and development.

Definition of Mental Health

One aspect, and perhaps logically the first in a discussion of this type, concerns the definition of mental health. In tracing the development of this aspect, we can make use of several source materials. In 1938 a report by W. Carson Ryan was published on a study made under the auspices of the Commonwealth Fund. The report recounts his first-hand study of numerous schools and clinics throughout the United States as well as some of the major writings by professionals in the area of mental health. Ryan defined mental health "as a goal for all society . . . as a philosophy, a way of life," with its objective "a wholesome, happy, well balanced human existence." This positive conception of mental health embodies "the hope of forestalling as many as possible of the difficulties that develop over the years." Mental hygiene, to be sure, involves, also, a scientific approach to so-called negative conditions, the obvious abnormalities, and the like; and some of our most valuable principles and methods have developed as the result of experience with the most difficult cases.

Through the years, Ryan's phrase, "positive mental health," has been more of a slogan or rallying cry than a scientific concept, a circumstance which Brewster Smith and others have pointed out. Smith, for one, has deplored the increasing tendency to treat positive mental health as a "synonym for the good life" or "a kind of latter-day substitute for salvation."

However, when we acknowledge that such terms as "mental health" (and, moreover, "mental illness"), "creative living," and the like have only very limited scientific usefulness, how can we go about planning programs in schools and communities or designing research studies? In other words, if we do not know what mental health means, how can we do anything about it?

Perhaps a useful approach is to look at the term "mental health" as one which designates an area in a very general way. In a sense, the term "electricity" can be thought of as a similar example from quite a different field of science. No one can give the definition of electricity.

A variety of observable and measurable electrical phenomena have been studied, and from these our conception of electricity has been and still is being built up.

**Criteria for Analysis**

One of the tasks, then, of investigators in the field of mental health has been to specify in measurable or reliably observable terms the various phenomena and then look into their nature and development. Perhaps the writer most frequently cited for an attempt to conceptualize positive mental health is Marie Jahoda, whose monograph on this subject was published under the auspices of the Joint Commission on Mental Illness and Health. Her thoughtful and extensive analysis of mental health concepts from a psychological point of view has had wide influence in the field of education as well as in other areas. She lists six points, or categories of criteria, having to do with positive mental health:

1. Attitudes of the individual toward himself, including accessibility to consciousness, correctness of self-concept, self-acceptance, and sense of identity.
2. Degree to which a person realizes his potentialities through action (self-actualization).
3. Integration, including balance of psychic forces, a unifying outlook on life and resistance to stress.

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4. Autonomy, in the sense of the individual's degree of independence of social influences.
5. Perception of reality, including freedom from need-distortion as well as empathy and social sensitivity.
6. Degree of environmental mastery (ability to give and receive love, adequacy in daily activities and interpersonal relations, efficiency in meeting situations and in problem-solving, capacity for adaptation, etc.).

A congruent set of mental health criteria, oriented somewhat more closely to the field of education, has been prepared by Barbara Biber. These can be summarized as follows:

1. Positive feeling toward the self: sense of safety, competence, mastery; enjoyment of one's own powers as a sensing, feeling, thinking being; expectation that one's own capacities will find approximate fulfillment.
2. Realistic perception of self and others: differentiated knowledge of self available to scope and content of wishes and ambitions; capacity to see others in terms of their motivations, opinions and conditioning life circumstances.
3. Relatedness to people: capacity to relate to others as individuals relatively free from group stereotyping; to develop and sustain relations of depth and warmth; to find a balanced, flexible way of interacting . . . with others while sustaining the core of one's own individuality . . .
4. Relatedness to environment: positive motivated connectedness with the contemporary world of processes and ideas; ability and drive to exercise capacities and skills in effective, responsible functioning; capacity to expand orbits of identification beyond realm of personal encounter.
5. Independence: freedom to undertake independent thinking, judging, acting; freedom from compulsion to submit or conform; adaptation governed by objective individual goals; capacity to accept position of dependence . . . where insufficient knowledge, experience, or strength dictates it; balance between adaptation and need to sustain individual autonomy.
6. Curiosity and creativity: a sustained and deepened curiosity; drive to penetrate the unknown and to engage in directed search for resolution; to keep imaginative processes in vital condition and to be able to transform these into productive, creative reorganization of experience.
7. Recovery and coping strength: capacity to regain equilibrium in the face of trauma, frustration, and crisis; to corral and integrate available strength in the face of challenge and obstacle.

M. Brewster Smith has summarized current attitudes toward a conception of mental health in the following quotation:

. . . Giving up the elusive notion of mental health as a theoretical construct, we have found it entirely legitimate to focus our research and practice on more specific value dimensions of behavior and personality—under mental health auspices. Research conducted along these at once more modest and more hopeful lines should not only serve to guide practice—as in teacher education; it adds to the psychologist's potential and rightful contribution to the clarification and reformation of human values.5

The Role of the Teacher

In this account of the development of the mental health movement in teacher education, the second aspect to be discussed is the recognition of the role of the teacher. An analysis of this problem involves making a distinction between working with emotionally disturbed or "sick" children and working with "well" children. Also involved is a recognition of the possible effects which the behavior and attitudes of a teacher may have as an "infective agent" in producing emotional disturbances in children. What is meant here was well stated by Rivlin, who pointed out that child guidance clinics are only one means of coping with the mental health problems of the total child populations:

From the experience of these clinics and from other avenues of psychiatry and psychological research, we have learned enough about the etiology of emotional disorders to plan and execute a preventive program. Clinics deal with the end result of a long series of errors—of errors made by the child, the home, the school, and society. It makes a little sense to establish more and more clinics to correct the results of these errors if the child, the home, the school, and society go right on making more errors.6

How the teacher may act as an "infective agent" is indicated by a number of studies of teacher-pupil and teacher-class interaction. In this connection Dr. Erich Lindemann commented:

It is not only what a teacher says to a child in terms of information-giving and guidance is important, but also what he is in terms of his own mental health is likely to communicate itself to the children. And the kinds of children whom he finds troubled or deviant are often partly engendered by the fact that he is the way he is . . . . In other words there

5M. Brewster Smith, "Mental Health Reconsidered." Berkeley: University of California, November, 1960 (Mimeographed).

is a role complement in which the personality of the teacher is responded to in the social orbit of complementary behavior on the part of certain predisposed children.7

On the other hand, a teacher who is well integrated in his own personality adjustment and who works with a class through understanding tends to create an atmosphere in which children feel secure and can devote their energies to learning. The kind of approach a teacher makes to a pupil demonstrates to the young learner ways of interacting with others that may be helpful and satisfying or, on the other hand, ways which may be negative or even hostile. Thus it becomes evident that teacher education can be regarded as one of the most important opportunities for primary preventive intervention.

Introducing the idea of prevention requires a recognition of the several levels or prevention. Workers in the field of public health have long recognized three types of prevention; namely, primary prevention (i.e., locating and reducing or removing "infective forces"), secondary prevention (early diagnosis and treatment to keep a difficulty from becoming more serious), and tertiary prevention (long-term, rehabilitative efforts). 8, 9

How are such concepts related to the role of the teacher? What has been the course of development of the distinction between a therapeutic role and a preventive-development role for the teacher, and what is the present state? What has been the course of development of the several types of preventive work as they relate to teachers?

Responsibility for Prevention

In regard to the first question, Ryan, while acknowledging the dependence of methods and principles of prevention upon the continuing study of abnormalities, clearly made the distinction between school and community programs designed to provide medical and therapeutic service in the area of mental hygiene and those having positive mental health as their goal. He endorsed the general principle that the "childhood period offers the best opportunity for constructive mental hygiene efforts," and most of his book is concerned with the preventive-developmental functions of education.10

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10Ryan, op. cit., p. 6.
Explicit recognition of the three types of prevention as they might be applied in the mental health movement in education has been described by Ojemann. A summary in general terms follows:

Primary prevention consists of activities designed to develop healthy nervous systems—such as assuring adequate nutrition of the mother during pregnancy and of the child throughout his years, preventing birth injuries and other types of injury to the nervous system—as well as training parents, teachers, and other persons who work with children. Secondary prevention in the school setting involves screening procedures for the early identification and treatment of emotionally disturbed children; and tertiary prevention is defined as dealing with emotionally disturbed or delinquent individuals through long-term programs of redevelopment or re-education.

The recent emphasis in teacher education and teacher training on the development of mental health in children is based on the principle that the teacher has a responsibility in prevention but does not act as a therapist working with pathologic cases. In primary prevention, a teacher's responsibility is to foster in the classroom and in the school environment in general an emotional climate which will contribute to the building and maintaining of an effective learning environment. In secondary prevention, a teacher can serve as a "screening" agent and take responsibility for the referring of children with special difficulties and problems to specialized personnel. In the area of tertiary prevention teachers can play a vital role in assisting specialized personnel in the rehabilitation of pupils with serious problems.\(^{11,12}\)

With the teacher in the preventive-developmental role in the promotion of pupils' mental health, several questions arise. That child behavior is a complex phenomenon has long been recognized. Thus, if a teacher is to work with children, he must have an adequate background and training in the understanding of human behavior. What has been the development of this aspect?

### The Preparation of Teachers

In his 1938 report Ryan concluded from a nation-wide survey that most teacher-training institutions were giving "astonishingly little attention to mental health." At that time, as Ryan pointed out, some schools and colleges were giving greater emphasis in psychology courses and elsewhere to individual differences, to emotional factors, and to sciences underlying an understanding of human behavior; but in many quarters, "a curiously restricted view of teaching" still prevailed, in that teachers

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were apparently thought of as "uninspired keepers of conventional classrooms."\textsuperscript{13}

Fortunately, many teachers in the performance of their duties have never as a group limited themselves to such a narrow and restricted interpretation of their role. In their work with children, inspired teachers have often evidenced an awareness of their opportunities for aiding in the development of personality and for helping pupils to see the significance of their tasks in school. And it was this awareness which helped to provide some of the impetus for change in the preparation of teachers, along with increasing pressures brought about by an expanding population and the concept of "universal education."

The trend toward programs of teacher preparation based on human needs rather than on academic traditions reflected an increasing interest in understanding human behavior both on the part of scholars and the general public. For this interest much of the credit must go to the pioneer work of Clifford Beers, whose absorbing "history of a mental civil war," \textit{A Mind That Found Itself}, was first published in 1908.\textsuperscript{14} It was Beers and Dr. Adolf Meyer who later chose the term "mental hygiene" in order to express not only the idea of "amelioration of conditions among the insane," but also that of "prevention of mental disorders."

The founding and early development of the Mental Hygiene Movement is described in the Twenty-fifth Anniversary Edition of Beers' autobiography. Mental health problems in the general field of education and mental hygiene instruction for parents and teachers have continuously been a major concern of the National Association for Mental Health (successor to Beers' National Committee for Mental Hygiene).

\textbf{Early Concerns in Mental Hygiene}

Among the earlier investigations which played a part in laying the groundwork for later developments was that of Dr. Annie Inskeep of the University of California at Los Angeles. In introducing her book, \textit{Child Adjustment in Relation to Growth and Development}, she commented that the "school and the jail are the only places where forced attendance is legal" and that children who "fail signally" in their adjustment to school oftentimes continue their compulsory education in jail.\textsuperscript{15}

That child and situation (biologically, organism and environment) must be studied together was a principle emphasized by Caroline Zachry. She decried the all-too-common practice in schools of treating only the

\textsuperscript{13}Ryan, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 72.


symptoms of behavior without regard for the deeper-lying needs which gave rise to the "bothersome" (or worse) behavior. She believed it to be the duty of the school to try to discover the "causal elements in the child's conduct and so to guide him that his personality and emotional adjustments will be constructive . . . ." Miss Zachry described the teacher's role as being that of "guide and helper."16

Ernest R. Groves and Phyllis Blanchard in their book, Development of Mental Hygiene, pointed out that

. . . education, marriage, parenthood, industry—all the relationships of individuals to each other and to their environment—have their mental hygiene aspects. All need to be studied in order to determine wherein they contribute to human adjustment or undermine mental health, and all need reconstruction in keeping with this point of view.17

At the end of the decade, in 1939, a systematic assessment of trends in mental hygiene and child development was published under the title Mental Hygiene in Modern Education. (This followed Ryan's 1938 survey mentioned above.) This book, which was edited by Paul A. Witty and Charles E. Skinner, contained articles by leading educators, researchers, and clinicians on such topics as the nature of wholesome personality, the essential unity of fundamental drives in integrated and effective behavior, social and environmental factors in home and school which affect personality orientation, and the like. In a chapter entitled "The Role of the Teacher," Goodwin Watson emphasized the distinction between mental hygiene, i.e., "maintaining wholesome conditions of life," and therapy, which involves "treating disordered individuals." In Watson's view, mental hygiene provides a "point of view which modifies all the work of the teacher," with the optimum being "establishment of a daily regime which fosters good personality growth." In the handling of problem cases, Watson felt that the best procedure, in most cases, is to maintain a child in need of special help in as normal a situation as possible with an understanding teacher who can aid in his rehabilitation under the guidance of a specially trained counselor or psychologist.18 As was pointed out earlier, this approach to the role of the teacher may be conceptualized within the three types of prevention described above.

Supporting the idea of primary prevention, Ojemann and Wilkinson published data showing that when teachers learn to know their pupils

as personalities in their respective environments, the "teachers tend to become more effective guides for learning." The implication for teacher education of these data was clear. To be effective guides for learning, teachers need to have training in the understanding of child development and the interpretation of child behavior.

**Emphasis on Understanding Children**

The work of the "Chicago Study" under the leadership of Daniel Prescott of the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education produced in 1945 a volume entitled *Helping Teachers Understand Children*, which was a synthesis of research material from the fields of psychology and education and embodied as well material from the writings and observations of directors of teacher education, school psychologists, classroom teachers, and others. The emphasis of the book is on a method of intensive case study of individual children as a means of helping teachers to gain a deeper understanding of child behavior. Implicit in the approach is the assumption that a thorough understanding of a child in his environment (i.e., his place in the home, his peer group, the school situation, and so on) may enable a teacher to make reasonable hypotheses as to the causes for the child's manifestations of behavior. As a teacher comes to recognize the complexity of behavior through making such intensive case studies, he tends to become more flexible and tolerant and less likely to use arbitrary or judgmental approaches in dealing with pupils in the classroom. Prescott developed these ideas more fully in his later work, *The Child in the Educative Process.*

Notable among other books and texts which focused on the needs of children were *Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools*, the 1950 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (NEA); *Mental Hygiene in Teaching* by Redl and Wattenberg (1951); Harold Bernard's *Mental Hygiene for Classroom Teachers*

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Applications Under Classroom Conditions

Is a teacher who has intensively studied the complexities of human behavior, both child and adult, more apt to be understanding of children in the classroom, less likely to be judgmental, and, in general, more flexible in guiding children in their learning? In actual practice, the answer to this question turned out to be a somewhat qualified yes. Much frustration was engendered because these theories and concepts which were taught to student teachers were oftentimes not successfully utilized under actual school conditions in the teachers' daily face-to-face interaction with pupils. Redl and Wattenberg recognized the problem in a discussion at the end of their book, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, entitled "Limitations of Mental Hygiene Education." Besides pointing out some of the gaps in our knowledge of human behavior, they also called attention to some of the difficulties and pitfalls in transplanting presumably valid concepts into reasonable and effective classroom techniques.

Ralph Ojemann, in an article entitled "Changing Attitudes in the Classroom," pointed out that in

... teaching an approach to human behavior a teacher must of necessity interact with the pupil. The kind of approach he makes to the pupil demonstrates a way of dealing with others which is instructive, as well as constructive or destructive. If he works with the pupils without regard
to the dynamics of behavior, he demonstrates a non-causal approach and thus teaches his pupils to approach others in this way.31

It is not enough for a teacher to know about the motivational forces operating in a child. The problem, according to Ojemann, lies in how these forces may be "expressed constructively under classroom conditions and how a teacher can accept his past mistakes." What can be done about "the frustration a teacher feels when he learns about a child's needs but does not see how he can meet them under classroom conditions?" The experience derived in the Preventive Psychiatry Research Program at the University of Iowa, as reported by Ojemann, suggests that teachers can be helped to develop an understanding of (1) the effects of cultural influences which are arbitrary and judgmental, and (2) techniques for dealing with children's feelings and needs so that these can be satisfied in constructive ways. The program involves training teachers in causal approaches to the daily activities in the classroom and helping them develop skill in teaching causally oriented curriculum materials.32

Research in Teacher Preparation

Of further significance is the contribution which such training makes to the philosophy of teacher education in general, namely, an acceptance of the responsibility for helping teachers increase their own self-understanding and self-respect, in short, to become more mature and, hence, more effective in their role of guiding young learners. Barbara Biber and her associates at the Bank Street College of Education have recently been engaged in a broad research program, one aspect of which deals with this approach to teacher training in mental health, both preservice and inservice.

In a further recognition of the fact that teachers' goals and values are transmitted to pupils, the Bank Street researchers have investigated the traditional-modern continuum in schools in order to gain information about such questions as: How is a child's experience in the classroom different in a modern school than in a traditional school? Which aspects of the children's development are most influenced by their school experiences, and in what ways? What are some of the differential effects of varying situations on different kinds of children? As it is quite clear that the kind of training given teachers can produce tendencies toward either a modern or a traditional approach, answers to the questions above depend, to some extent, on how the teachers have been trained.33

Besides the Bank Street project, there are three other major research programs, all supported largely by the National Institute for Mental Health and all engaged in a systematic study of teacher training for mental health. At the University of Wisconsin, John Withall, W. W. Lewis, John Newell, and associated concentrated largely on patterns of communication in the classroom, in attempting to identify the kind of teacher education program which would help teachers to maximize the learning of pupils as well as to enhance the personal-social development of the learner. \(^{34, 35}\) Assuredly, effective learning and teaching involve effective communication. Teachers spend much of their time explaining things to children and assessing their understanding by asking questions or assigning tasks, the objective being to get the pupils to understand what the teacher is doing or saying. In a reversal of roles, children relate experience and meanings they construe while the teacher listens and asks questions to try to understand more clearly what they are trying to convey. Thus, communication behaviors are both “sending-oriented” and “receiving-oriented.”

The pilot study at San Francisco State College, under the direction of Fred Wilhelms took a highly individualized approach to teacher training. \(^{36}\) (Here attention was given almost entirely to preservice training of college students rather than to inservice training of those already teaching.) Students and faculty worked in teams, with the same faculty working with the students in the field and in the classroom. A set sequence of theoretical or formal courses were dispensed with, and the program attempted to synthesize experiential elements with appropriate instruction. Cooperating public schools were used as laboratories, with schedules kept as flexible as possible in order to provide a wide range of experiences for trainees. The greatest commitment of the program was, however, to foster an improved climate for individual growth—in the belief that it is the person inside the teacher that counts. \(^{37}\)

At the University of Texas, Robert Peck and his associates have investigated personality variables and value systems which appear to relate to teacher training processes. \(^{38}\)

**Mental Health Consultation Services**

In recent years a logical outgrowth of interest in inservice training and support of teachers has been the development of mental health


consultation services, which have quite a different purpose and function than do the traditional clinic and referral services. Many of the techniques and methods of mental health consultation have been worked out in the Wellesley Project, a long-term study of community mental health problems initiated in 1948 by the Harvard School of Public Health. Such consultation with teachers and other professional groups in the community has provided much information regarding attitudes, value orientations, and criteria of adjustment. 38, 39

Caplan describes "mental health consultation" as being part of a community program for promotion of mental health and for the prevention, treatment, and rehabilitation of mental disorder. Consultation provides an opportunity for a "relatively small number of consultants to exert a widespread effect in a community through the mediation of a large group of consultees." Interaction takes place among professional persons, the consultant and the consultees, with the latter retaining responsibility for the client, or clients. Consultation may be client-centered, program-centered, consultee-centered, or administrative in nature, with, in all cases, the consultee being free to accept or reject all or part of the consultant's help, advice, or diagnostic interpretation. 40

The dynamics of the mental health consultation process are being studied in various parts of the country by a number of workers. Dr. I. N. Berlin, who has served for more than a dozen years as a mental health consultant in California school systems, has pointed out that a consultant,

... by his attitude of concern, attentiveness, and respect for his professional colleagues, demonstrates his relationship to the teacher as a colleague whose problems with their attendant mixed feelings are of mutual concern. ... The purpose (of consultation) is always to enable the teacher to do his work more effectively. 41

An example of consultation on a continuing basis in schools can be seen in a school research program of the Washington School of Psychiatry which uses the term "technical assistance" for its approach. This method, which involves right-on-the-spot staff training, is designed to implement, rather than eliminate, supplant, or duplicate existing special services. Technical assistance consultants, where invited, offer help to school staff in a nonjudgmental, non-job-hinged, non-tenure-dependent fashion. The

purpose of technical assistance is to contribute to the prevention of difficulties and improve the quality of staff interaction, to help deal with problems once they are spotted, remove from schools problems too severe for school handling, and refer such problems to appropriate facilities.42

Concepts of Permissiveness and First Aid

Several other basic concepts dealing with the mental health movement in teacher education have received attention in recent years. Ojemann and later Rolf Muuss developed and clarified causal approaches to emergency treatment—i.e., “first aid”—in the handling of social situations, particularly discipline problems in the classroom. The methods and techniques which Ojemann and Muuss describe are based on the assumption that academic achievement will be facilitated if students and teachers attempt to solve social and emotional conflicts constructively. First aid can be considered as a synthesis between the earlier form of punitive discipline (thesis) and its logical antithesis, permissiveness. The purpose of any first-aid method is to bring the situation under control so that “permanent aid”—based on the dynamics of the behavior—can be given at the earliest possible moment.43, 44, 45

Such an approach is far different from the label of “permissiveness” which has sometimes been applied erroneously to the mental health movement in teacher education. Very often the premise was accepted that children will “outgrow” specific manifestations of misbehavior and problems. Biological and maturational factors have a part to play in the development of behavior. However, evidence is appearing that the environmental, educational, and social factors operating in the developmental process are at most times so strong that an espousal of the laissez-faire principle, or “letting nature take its course,” would seem to be an inadequate recognition of development as a function of interaction of both organism and experience.

Ryan saw the school as an interventive agent which could help the child “to free himself gradually from the dependence of immaturity,”46 but how this might be done was not clear. The choice is not between letting a child do as he pleases or making him “toe the mark.” The prob-

46Ryan, op. cit., p. 48.
lem is one of recognizing the distinction between authoritarian blocking, permissiveness, and guidance, and then developing a program for helping children learn to channel impulses constructively into helpful and cooperative activities. Ojemann, in discussing these principles in a paper called "It Takes Time," commented that

... channeling of impulses is something a child can learn. But it takes time to learn it. ... We cannot take a child from an environment where he has done as he pleases and suddenly expect him to take part in group activities which require taking others into account.47

Constructive and Destructive Stresses

The question has sometimes been asked whether the advocation of principles of mental health implies that a child should have no problems while growing up. Investigations during the last decade have come to recognize increasingly the distinctions between developmental stresses and disrupting stresses and the important role that stress of various kinds plays in promoting or inhibiting emotional growth and maturity. Animal studies have suggested, for example, that young rats which have been gradually exposed to measured degrees of stress tend to learn to deal with painful stimuli much more readily than do animals which are left unmolested in a warm, protected nest with their mothers.48, 49, 50

That stressful factors are an integral part of man’s existence seems evident. In the area of behavior and emotional development, however, gradations between situations which are within the limits of an individual’s ability to manage and those beyond his ability have not been clearly seen. The implications here for teacher education would appear to be related to the principle of inoculation as a preventive measure and also to the age-old idea of “little steps for little feet.”51

Development of Causally Oriented Approaches

A practical working-out of some of the concepts which have been discussed can be seen in the program of Suchman, Ojemann, and others,

in which children are helped to become problem solvers in the physical, social, and emotional environments in which they find themselves.\textsuperscript{52, 53}

Such an integrated approach would not require that the Three R’s be minimized in the school curriculum or that other learning activities should be emphasized at their expense. Without denying the therapeutic benefits of creative activities—and these were stressed by Ryan and others who felt them to be an important factor in the development of mental health—we can point out that an appreciation of the dynamics of human behavior involves a balanced consideration of whatever factors in the physical and social environment are contributing to behavior. Seen in this light, a knowledge of the pupils’ motivating forces and each individual’s abilities and resources can be utilized by the teacher in planning with pupils more effective learning programs incorporating the Three R’s or any other curriculum content.

Looking at the curriculum materials themselves, we have come to accept that a surface or merely descriptive approach to the content, no matter how stimulating or attractively presented, is inadequate to help a child attain a mentally healthy or causal approach to his environment. In teacher education, then, a distinct advantage of training which is causally oriented is that teachers can be helped to practice causal approaches to content material—whatever the subject or grade level—at the same time they are becoming more skilled and effective in dynamic approaches toward the pupils themselves.\textsuperscript{54}

\textbf{Summary}

This chapter has attempted to trace briefly the development of several aspects of the mental health movement in teacher education. It was recognized that the term “mental health” is essentially not a scientific concept but a term which describes an area in a general way much as the term “electricity” describes a general area. Accordingly, the discussion began by tracing the development of the efforts to identify the various aspects to be subsumed under the general term, beginning with Ryan’s study in 1938.

This was followed by tracing the development of the clarification of the role of the teacher as a preventive-developmental influence rather than as a therapeutic agent, the development of programs for educating


\textsuperscript{53}Ralph H. Ojemann, \textit{Developing a Program for Education in Human Behavior}. Iowa City: University of Iowa, 1959.

teachers in an understanding and appreciation of child behavior, the development of mental health consultation services as an aid to teachers, the development of the concept "first aid" and its relation to "permissiveness," and a clarification of the distinction between "developmental" and "disruptive" stresses—all important concepts in mental health as it relates to the education of teachers.

Since the early work of Clifford Beers and Adolph Meyer, progress has been made in developing logical answers to such questions as: What is mental health? Is the teacher a therapist? Are teacher training programs attempting to make amateur psychiatrists out of teachers? Does concern with mental health mean that the Three R's and other content subjects will be neglected? Does mental health imply permissiveness? Does mental health mean that the child is to have no problems?

The probabilities are good that the next decades will see extensive developments in the mental hygiene aspects of teacher education, based on the foundation laid in the past four decades.
Part Two

A Theory of Teacher Education for Mental Health

Chapter III. What Psychology Has to Offer to Teacher Education
   Carl R. Rogers

Chapter IV. Conceptual Framework for Teacher Education
   Rodney A. Clark and Walcott H. Beatty
Introduction

The heart of this yearbook lies in this part, for it is here that a theoretical position with respect to mental health and teacher education is presented. Carl Rogers, in his chapter, points out that traditional teacher education is not operating on the most up-to-date principles of psychology. We are still making the erroneous assumption that knowledge alone will assure the understandings which will determine the teacher's behavior when he comes to grips with the reality of the classroom. In a statement related to Dean Bill's first chapter, Dr. Rogers emphasizes the importance of openness to experience in the learning of the neophyte teacher, and he discusses teacher education as needing to be an experiential learning process. He presents in detail methods for putting this experiential learning into practice in teacher education.

Professors Clark and Beatty present a process of teacher education incorporating many of Dr. Rogers' ideas. They take the position that teacher education is facilitating the learning of how to facilitate learning. This changes the role of the teacher educator to that of being a helper in the neophyte teacher's unique becoming, that of becoming a teacher. Also, they identify, in terms of processes which such a person should be able to aid, what they believe to be the characteristics of a mentally healthy teacher. Their mentally healthy teacher is an effective person in his role as a facilitator.

The process of teacher education presented here depends in part upon Dr. Rogers' methods of experiential learning such as sensitivity training and participative learning. These are ways of helping the students to help themselves become effective teachers and facilitators of learning. In Clark's and Beatty's conceptual framework, this is a primary job of teacher education. While knowledge of subject matter and of methodology are not to be ignored, it is their belief that we are failing along other more important lines such as not giving the students greater responsibility for their own learning and encouraging them to be open to experience. These are ways of helping students to help themselves become mentally healthy teachers and effective teachers, and it is the position of their chapter that a mentally healthy teacher and an effective teacher are one and the same.
CHAPTER III

What Psychology Has to Offer to Teacher Education

CARL R. ROGERS

When I was first asked to write on this topic, my phrasing of the question or issue with which I was to deal went something like this: How can psychological knowledge in regard to teaching become knowledge in the teacher-to-be? I did not have to think very long about this formulation of my task to reject it. Teaching, in its true dictionary meaning, seems to me a vastly over-rated function and I frankly have very little interest in it.

Consequently, the second way in which I phrased my task was something like this: How can psychological knowledge in regard to the facilitation of learning become psychological knowledge in the teacher-to-be? This seemed more satisfying because at least it focused on the process of facilitation of learning which, I believe, is the only really significant part of education. However, as I thought it over and realized how much knowledge prospective teachers have and how little of it is applied, I had to rephrase the issue again.

My third formulation was of this order: How can psychological knowledge regarding the facilitation of learning become behaviorally operative in the teacher-in-training? Now I felt that I was getting somewhere. This was the kind of task which challenged me. If we focused on procedures which would result in behavior on the part of the teacher which would facilitate learning, then indeed we would have achieved a most valuable goal. As I considered this, however, the obvious fact

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2In the preparation of this paper I am particularly indebted to Miss Ann Dreyfuss for her help. I have also profited from discussions and written reactions from Dr. William R. Coulson, Dr. Richard Fanson, Dr. Richard Johnson, and Dr. Richard Snyder.

3The dictionary definition of teaching includes primarily such phrases as: "to show, guide, direct;" "to make to know how;" "to school, train, or accustom to some action;" "to instruct in the rules of;" "to tell."
occurred to me that teachers-in-training are likely to serve as teachers for periods of five to thirty years. When I thought about what has happened to the psychological knowledge which was regarded as sound twenty years ago, I could not but realize that we might be freezing teachers into a rigidity which would soon be very divergent from the emerging knowledge in the field. So again I settled down to revise the formulation of my problem.

This time it came out: How can the search for psychological knowledge regarding the facilitation of learning become a continuing search for such knowledge in the mind and behavior of the teacher-to-be? Now I felt that I had stated the problem accurately and was satisfied. This formulation incorporated the process nature of science and the process nature of continuing learning. It described a teacher who was truly professional in that his or her learning was never completed. This continuing search was also focused on the facilitation of the learning process in students which to me seems the significant goal. It had to do with the teacher's behavior, and not simply his cognitive learnings. At last I was really ready to settle down to finding some tentative and personal answers to this question. Then a colleague brought me up sharply by pointing out that unless the teaching institution has an administrative and organizational set which is congenial to this total purpose, even a positive answer to the question would be futile and meaningless, because it would be negated by the context of the educational organization. I was forced to agree.

Once more I tried to formulate my task. This time it emerged as the following complex statement: Can the discipline of psychology contribute to the process by which a teacher training institution becomes a place where the search for modes of facilitating learning is a deep, continuing experiential element in the lives of all who participate in it, faculty and teachers-in-training? I am not at all sure that this is the final formulation of the essential task but at least I feel I have become much clearer as to the points where I must focus if I am to say anything of significance on the question of what psychology can contribute to teacher education. I now feel more excited about tackling this deeply important challenge.

Some Views of Teacher Education

Let us first look at the point from which we start. It is my observation that teacher education sees its task as being primarily the transmission of content knowledge. The organization, the administration, the methods of teacher training institutions are all geared essentially to that task. The learning of the teacher in his subject field or fields—reading, mathematics, science, social science, and the like—is seen as being the absorption and assimilation of content knowledge which is to be transmitted in part or whole to his students. I believe that it would be conservative
to estimate that 90 per cent of all teacher training in subject fields is perceived in this way and can be even more narrowly described as the transmission of a subject by lecture, reading, and demonstration to a teacher who is to transmit the subject by lecture, reading, and demonstration. There seems to be very little recognition that most of the relevant psychological evidence calls this process into question.

Transmission of Content Knowledge

We find much the same pattern in the field of psychology as it is related to teacher education. There are various topical contents in psychology which it is assumed and believed should be transmitted to the teacher, again through lecture or reading. One finds a wide variety of chapter headings in textbooks in educational psychology. There has been a gradual change in these topics, with considerable overlap and considerable divergence in the subjects themselves and in the ways they are presented in different texts. Take several that appear to be very common in many such books—"motivation," "growth and development," "learning," and "individual differences." Anyone deeply immersed in psychology knows that these are all controversial, open-ended areas of knowledge. There are many theories in each area, there are highly contradictory findings from experiment. Obviously, these are fields of knowledge which are in process. Yet if one examines most of the textbooks in educational psychology one finds that they are taught as more or less settled, monolithic, closed subjects. Admittedly, some authors do much better than others in trying to convey something of the excitement of a continuing process of discovery. Yet even this process is simply communicated as an intellectual fact.

Thus, if we consider teacher education to be primarily the transmission of content knowledge, there is much material available from the field of psychology, in a multitude of textbooks, for the prospective teacher.4 Some of these presentations are superficial, some of them technically solid. Some of the information is presented in a hard factual style, some of it is presented in sweetened and flavored form to appeal to the jaded appetite of the college student. But with rare exceptions it is based on the implicit assumption that knowledge is a series, or an array, or a structure, of building blocks. If enough blocks of psychological knowledge can be acquired by the prospective teacher (whether by painful effort or painless swallowing of predigested mint-flavored pills) the end has been achieved. If the teacher-to-be knows the facts of motivation, of individual differences, of transfer of training, of reinforce-
ment, we can all sit back, pleased that our goal has been reached. We resolutely turn our faces away from the well-established evidence that such factual knowledge, whether gained through text or lecture, pours down the slope of the forgetting curve at an appalling rate. These building blocks—to use the previous metaphor—acquired through so much investment of faculty and student effort, measured by such fantastic systems of grading and evaluation, dissolve out of the functioning behavior of our teacher-to-be at a rate we dare not admit to ourselves. A few years later he is almost as innocent of such knowledge as he was when he started. Because this is often too threatening a fact to face, we tend to continue the ancient ritual without question. Curricula are still based on the traditional concepts—so many lectures on the higher mental processes, so many quizzes on learning, so many pages of assigned reading in child development—and now psychology has contributed its relevant knowledge to the prospective teacher.

I should like to ask a hard blunt question. Does a content knowledge of psychology aid the teacher-to-be in becoming a facilitator of significant learning in his pupils? Does acquaintance with psychological facts such as the laws of learning, the various motives ascribed to human behavior, the evidence regarding individual differences, and the like, guarantee that the teacher who has been exposed to this factual knowledge will as a result create a better climate for learning in his students? I should like to add my voice to that of William James when he drew the conclusion that "to know psychology is absolutely no guarantee that we shall be good teachers."5 I am deeply convinced that the answer to the question I have posed for this chapter does not lie in the transmission of content knowledge of psychology from the mind or book of a psychologist to the mind and notebook of a teacher-in-training.6

Incorporation of a Process of Change

Let us start fresh, orienting our approach to the needs of our modern culture. There can be little doubt that our culture needs, as never before, individuals who are capable of intelligent, informed, discriminating, adaptive, effective involvement in a process of change. We need teacher training institutions which can prepare teachers who have these qualities, and who can, in their turn, develop students who have these same capacities for coping with the modern world.

The logic of the situation is inexorable. Knowledge is accumulating at an incredible rate. Local problems, national problems, world problems,

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6This is not to say that knowledge of a subject field, or that knowledge in general, is unimportant. It is frequently of great importance, but primarily in relationship to a meaningful goal, as will be evident in later portions of this paper.
impinge upon the individual and his group with a speed and frequency never before known. We have left behind as if in a prehistoric age the slogan that "what was good enough for father is good enough for me." Even institutions noted for their stability and lack of change (such as the Catholic Church) are recognizing that intelligent, disinterested, planned change constitutes their only salvation. So, if we are true to the needs of society as well as to the facts of psychological science, our question must be somewhat as I stated it earlier, the question as to how the incorporation of the process of change can be made the deepest part of the teacher's training experience and of the experience of his pupils.

What is meant by such a phrase as "the incorporation of the process of change?" Learning is changing. Any significant learning involves change. Change is a frightening and threatening experience. It is only as the individual experiences the fact that change may be rewarding that he can afford to take the risk of learning, of change. To the extent that he has learned this, he can take the risk of being open to his experience, both the experiencing of his feelings and reactions within, and the experiencing of the evidence of his senses bringing him the world without. To this extent he has incorporated a process of continuing change within himself. When he has moved some distance in this direction, it might be said that changingness has become one of his major attributes. The point I have been making is that our modern world needs teacher training institutions, teachers, and pupils, in whom changingness, the continuing learning process, is an outstanding characteristic. This is essentially a new goal, brought into being by, and appropriate to, a modern society whose most striking quality is change.

**Experiential Learning**

By what kind of a process can this openness to change be developed? How can teacher training institutions be organized and administered in such a way as to nourish this openness to experience, this changingness, in both faculty and students? How can the teacher-in-training be confronted with the possibility that flexibility, openness, capacity for change, are among the most desirable goals of education? How can this prospective teacher develop an incentive for continuing learning in his own field of study, and in his relationship with his pupils, so that he is himself always in a process of informing himself in ways which change him? As this teacher functions in the classroom, how can he facilitate in his pupils a similar openness, the excitement of continual learning? How can he most effectively mobilize the material, social, informational and personal resources on which his pupils can feed their desire to learn? These are some of the questions which, in my judgment, teacher education might sensibly ask of psychology and the behavioral sciences.
WHAT PSYCHOLOGY HAS TO OFFER

One of the concepts which may open the way to an answer to these questions is the concept of “significant learning” or “experiential learning.” I am not sure that these are good labels. Let me try to explain my meaning. By these words I mean the kind of learning engaged in by the whole person, in both his cognitive and affective aspects. It is learning in which the person is involved. It is self-initiated learning. It is learning which makes a difference—in the individual’s behavior, in the course of action he chooses in the future, in his attitudes, and in his personality. It is a pervasive learning which is not just an accretion of knowledge, but which interpenetrates with every portion of his existence. It is the kind of “gut-level” learning with which I have become familiar in psychotherapy. It may exist at the simplest possible level, as in the instance of the child who has “learned” that “two plus two equals four.” Then one day in his play with two objects and two more objects he suddenly realizes, “Two and two do make four!” It occurs in the child who plays with the Cuisenaire mathematical rods. Experientially and nonverbally he grasps the concept “This is one-half,” or “That is three-tenths.” Or it may be a highly complex interpersonal learning, such as “it actually does help to express real feelings in a continuing personal relationship.” It may be a learning having to do with the orderliness of the physical world. “The weight times the distance to the fulcrum on one end of the lever really does equal the weight times the distance to the fulcrum on the other side.” In all of these examples I have tried to suggest the element of personal appropriation which is so important a part of this significant or experiential learning. No matter how familiar his intellect may be with the concept in question, the person has now discovered it really; he has now made it his very own in a way which involves all of him—his thoughts, his feelings, his unique relationships to the event. The locus of evaluation is solidly in the learner. The element of meaning to the person is built into the experience. It is the kind of learning, I believe, which is essential if we are to solve the task of teacher education as we have posed it for this paper.

The Climate for the Experiential Learning Process

One of the contributions which the field of psychology can make to teacher education has to do with the attitudinal climate in which experiential learning of the sort described can take place. The evidence in regard to this climate comes primarily from the field of psychotherapy, in which the major purpose is to facilitate experiential learning by the

client about himself. I should like to summarize very briefly the elements which appear to be essential to his facilitative climate.

**Confronting a Problem**

In the first place, there is no doubt that this type of learning takes place most effectively when the individual is face-to-face with a problem which is meaningful to him, a problem to which he desires to find a solution. It is perhaps not impossible to promote experiential learning in the absence of such a confrontation with a problem but it is much more difficult. Since in our culture we tend to insulate the pupil from any and all of the real problems of life, this is especially a problem for the classroom teacher.

Teacher education is more fortunate in this respect in that the prospective teacher can readily be given some experience in the classroom—observing, helping, being responsible for portions of the teaching—so that he becomes sharply and vividly aware of the difficult problems he will soon be facing on his own responsibility and hence is well motivated toward significant learning.

It is not quite so clear whether the teacher training institution is aware of the problems it confronts. To the extent, however, that the faculty and administration of such an institution are aware of the intense and critical public interest in education; to the extent that they are aware of the incredible problems posed by a sharp increase in student population; to the extent that they realize the ineffectiveness of most professional education as carried on today—to this degree they will recognize a series of profound problems with which they are confronted and will also be in a mood for self-initiated learning.

**Essential Attitudes: Realness**

Once the individual or the institution is clearly aware of a problem, there seems to be evidence that certain attitudinal sets existing in the facilitator of learning will increase the likelihood that experiential learning will take place. I will endeavor to describe these in somewhat general terms in such a way that the principles would apply whether we are speaking about the facilitation of learning in administrators and faculty members of the teacher training institution, or in the prospective teacher, or in a classroom teacher taking further training on the job, or in the pupil in the classroom.

Perhaps the most basic of these essential attitudes is realness or genuineness. When the facilitator is a real person, being what he is, entering into a relationship with the learner without presenting a front or a facade, he is much more likely to be effective. This means that the feelings which he is experiencing are available to him, available to his awareness, that he is able to live these feelings, be them, and able
to communicate with them if appropriate. It means that he comes into a
direct personal encounter with the learner, meeting him on a person-
to-person basis. It means that he is being himself, not denying himself.

Seen from this point of view it is suggested that the teacher can be
a real person in his relationship with his students. He can be
enthusiastic, he can be bored, he can be interested in students, he can
be angry, he can be sensitive and sympathetic. Because he accepts
these feelings as his own, he has no need to impose them on his students.
He can dislike a student product without implying that it is objectively
bad or that the student is bad. He is simply expressing a feeling of dis-
like for the product, a feeling which exists within himself. Thus, he is
a person to his students, not a faceless embodiment of a curricular
requirement nor a sterile tube through which knowledge is passed from
one generation to the next.

It is obvious that this attitudinal set, found to be effective in psy-
chotherapy, is sharply in contrast with the tendency of most teachers
to show themselves to their pupils simply as roles. It is quite customary
for teachers rather consciously to put on the mask, the role, the facade,
of being a teacher, and to wear this facade all day removing it only
when they have left the school at night.

**Essential Attitudes: Acceptance**

Another attitude which stands out in the work of those who have
been successful in promoting experiential learning is acceptance, a prizing
of the student, a prizing of his feelings and his opinions. When the
facilitator values the individual learner as having worth and this prizing
extends to each and all the facets of this individual, then the likelihood
of experiential learning taking place is greatly increased. A teacher who
has such an attitude can be fully acceptant of the fear and hesitation
of the student as he approaches a new problem as well as the satisfaction
he feels in achievement. Such a teacher can accept the student's oc-
casional apathy, his desire to explore by-roads of knowledge, as well
as his disciplined efforts to achieve major goals. If he can accept per-
sonal feelings which both disturb and promote learning—rivalry with
a sibling, hatred of authority, concern about personal adequacy—then
he is certainly such a teacher. What we are describing is a prizing of
the learner as an imperfect human being with many feelings, many
potentialities. It means that the facilitator cares for the learner in a
nonpossessive way, willing for him to be a separate person. His prizing
or acceptance of the learner is an operational expression of his essential
confidence in the capacity of the human organism.

**Essential Attitudes: Empathic Understanding**

A further element which establishes a climate for experiential learn-
ing is empathic understanding. When the teacher has the ability to
understand the student's reactions from the inside, has a sensitive
awareness of the way the process of education and learning seems to the student, then again the likelihood of experiential learning is increased.

This kind of understanding is sharply different from the usual evaluative understanding, which follows the pattern of "I understand what is wrong with you." When there is a sensitive empathy, however, the reaction in the learner follows something of this pattern, "At last someone understands how it feels and seems to be me without wanting to analyze me or judge me. Now I can blossom and grow and learn."

There are a growing number of studies which lend confirmation to the view that these three attitudes when they exist in the therapeutic relationship bring about constructive learning and change in the individual client. There is at least one pilot study indicating that teachers who are regarded by their superiors as outstanding show these attitudinal qualities in much higher degree than teachers who are rated as less effective. Since the aim of teacher education, like the aim of therapy, is to produce creative and adaptive individuals, well informed about themselves and their world, it does not seem too great a leap to suggest that these attitudes are as basic to the facilitation of learning in education as they are to the facilitation of learning in psychotherapy.

**Provision of Resources**

We come now to the final condition which appears to be essential for the promotion of an experiential type of learning. In addition to the learner's face-to-face confrontation with a problem and the facilitator's experiencing of the attitudes defined above, there is the necessity that there be resources for learning. It is usually the responsibility of the facilitator to see that all types of resources are made available. These may be material resources—tools, laboratory equipment, supplies, and the like. They may be opportunities for observation—visiting a classroom, listening to tape recordings, going to a children's hospital. They may be written resources presenting the stored experiences of others—books, articles, reprints, student papers and reports. They may be personal resources—contact with individuals whose work or experience can contribute to the learning. Certainly much of the effectiveness of the facilitator depends upon his imaginative organization of resources and his ability to make these resources easily and psychologically available to the learner.

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Methods Contributing to Experiential Learning

In the preceding sections I have endeavored to present the thesis that teacher education is best considered as being basically the learning of a continuing process of learning, and that this is most likely to occur when the learning is of the type we have termed experiential. The remainder of my chapter will be devoted to brief descriptions of several methods developed by the behavioral sciences and particularly by psychology which may make their contribution to the experiential learning of three groups: those responsible for teacher education, the prospective teacher himself and his pupils.

It should be quite clear that a teacher cannot be expected to facilitate experiential learning in his classroom if his own learning has been cut from an entirely different type of cloth. If our teacher education is primarily the transmission of intellectual content, there is little likelihood that the student teachers, when they have graduated into responsibility for the classroom, will follow anything other than the model they have had. Thus, the question with which we must deal is the question of how the teacher training institution can become a context in which experiential learning is a continuing process. It is believed that some of the methods to be described will contribute to that goal.

Sensitivity Training

If a teacher training institution has a serious desire to utilize the contributions of modern psychology in becoming a place where the search for modes of facilitating learning is a deep, experiential element in the lives of all who participate in it, it would seem that a reasonable first step would be something in the nature of sensitivity training for groups consisting of the administrative staff, faculty, and teachers-in-training. Perhaps even better would be groupings which would cut across these three functions so that administrators, faculty, and teachers-in-training would meet one another in the same group. A bit of background explanation may be in order.

Though not widely used in educational institutions, the development of the intensive group experience—variously known as the T-Group, the Laboratory Group, the Sensitivity Training Group, the Basic Encounter Group, the Intensive Workshop—has become an important part of the training function in industry and in some government agencies.14, 11

Industrial executives have been willing to open themselves to the threatening possibility of further learning about themselves and their relationships with their co-workers and employees. Exposed to the expressive, free, direct, and warm interpersonal relationship which can occur in these groups, the individual becomes much more sensitive to the dynamic elements of himself. He also learns the impact which he has on others. If the teacher training institution is to provide the attitudinal context which was described for experiential learning, then something of this sort would seem to be necessary and desirable.

Because educational institutions have been so much more bound by tradition and authoritarian structure than industry, it is hard for most people even to conceive of the possibility of such a method being utilized in teacher training institutions. Perhaps what is being suggested can be more easily communicated if we describe some examples.

The National Training Laboratory has begun to conduct so-called college labs at Bethel, Maine. Each of the T-Groups in these laboratories contains several students and several faculty members from the same college. As they share in the exploration of their interpersonal attitudes and relationships and the goals and aims that they have in their work, the learnings have often been highly significant. There are reports that at least one department of English has been revolutionized by its experience in this college laboratory.

Various leaders in the group dynamics field (Gibb, Herold, Zander, Coffey) have transformed courses for teachers into T-Groups. So meaningful have been the learnings that in some of these institutions the demand for such groups, involving learning based on direct personal encounter, has grown beyond all expectations.

In one university, graduate students in the field of guidance and counseling were given the opportunity for experience in such a basic encounter group. They found this so rewarding that they demanded that a much larger proportion of the available time be devoted to this experience. Their reactions so impressed the faculty members involved in leading these groups that they have formed a Basic Encounter Group themselves with an outside facilitator enlisted to aid them in getting the most out of the group process.

What would be the outcomes if administrators, faculty, and prospective teachers were brought together in such an intensive group experience? I can only suggest the kind of outcome by quoting at some length from my own experience many years ago growing out of the administration of the Counseling Center at the University of Chicago, where we endeavored to make possible in our staff group the experience of basic encounter between each and every staff member. For myself, I found

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the experience both difficult and rewarding as I felt myself impelled to change long established habits of administration. Here are some of the questions I found it raising in me:

1. Do I trust the capacities of the group, and of the individuals in the group, to meet the problems with which we are faced, or do I basically trust only myself? I find that when I take the risk, the gamble of resting my confidence in the group, ingenuity, responsibility, and strength, are multiplied. If I am fearful of doing that, and rely on myself, this produces in the group passivity, a willingness to sit back and criticize, and dries up initiative and constructive effort.

2. Do I free the group for creative discussion by being willing to understand, accept and respect all attitudes, or do I find myself trying subtly to manipulate group discussion so that it comes out my way? I find that this tests one’s basic philosophy very deeply. . . When there is a genuine willingness for all attitudes to be expressed—critical and hostile as well as constructive—then the group senses the fact that it is their organization, and they respond with vigor, with loyalty, and with responsibility. When the clerical staff is as free to contribute attitudes as the professional staff, then perhaps this principle is most deeply operative. On the other hand, if the freedom is of the “pseudo” variety, then suspicion develops.

3. Do I, as leader, participate by honest expression of my own attitudes but without trying to control the attitudes of others? . . . In a situation such as a staff group, where I am most certainly ego-involved, it is as important that I express my feeling as that the next person does. But this will again test deeply the leader’s philosophy. He can express his attitude in such a way as to imply “and you had better think the same,” or his expression can on the other hand imply, “this is just one feeling, and others may have very different attitudes.”

4. Do I rely upon basic attitudes for motivation, or do I think surface procedures motivate behavior? It has been our experience that when a problem is felt by the group, and freely and openly considered, and a way of meeting it is discovered and experienced by the group, action along those lines follows. If this process has not been achieved, no amount of formal agreement will bring constructive action. . . . The group seems to be an organism, and when it feels itself to be clearly integrated, action follows inevitably. When it is in conflict, action is confused or conflicting, and no amount of neatly typed policy will make it otherwise.

5. Am I willing to be responsible for those aspects of action which the group has delegated to me? If I do not wish the responsibility, I should say so. If I accept it, I am obliged to carry it out.

6. Do I trust the individual to do his job? Here we plunge directly into the question of what is supervision. If supervision is the task of an overseer, directing the individual as to how he does his work, then I think much of what I have described is negated. We have come to put new meaning into the term supervision. We regard supervisory contact as the opportunity which the individual has to think through
more clearly the problems he is meeting on his job—the unpleasant demands made upon him, and the way he will adjust to those; the failure experiences he is having in his counseling; the problems he may feel in his personal orientation to the staff. We find that the more the individual is given the responsibility for his job, the more deeply he accepts it, but when someone else assumes that responsibility then his attitude is, "I just work here."

7. When tensions occur, do I try to make it possible for them to be brought out into the open? I think administrators tend to think they are doing well if no tensions are evident. On the basis of our experience, it seems much sounder to accept the fact of tension as basic and to learn to deal with it. People, because they are living people, are bound to be at times dissatisfied, to feel out of line with the group, to feel jealous, to feel critical of others, etc. We have come to believe that it is only when a tension is displaced in its object that it is dangerous. If the staff feels I have been too dictatorial or have played favorites in some action of mine, only constructive thinking accrues if that is told to me. The experience may be painful, but it results in growth. But if it is bottled up, and expressed only in opposition to some new policy proposal, then it does not dissolve, but tends to become heightened. . . . So we have found it highly important to try to create an atmosphere in which real attitudes can be expressed toward their real objects. When this occurs tension is reduced, and almost inevitably perceptions (and hence behaviors) are altered. In such an atmosphere morale is not always superficially sweet, but it is sound and real, and experienced as a significant anchorage.17

Perhaps these examples will make clear that if administrators, faculty, and prospective teachers were involved in such an intensive group experience the quality of their relationships to each other and the quality of the prospective teacher's relationship to his pupils would be markedly changed. The change would be in the direction of an open-ended search for new learnings—learnings which inevitably, because of their experiential quality, would involve changes in behavior.

Participative Learning

Participation is most effective in promoting experiential learning. Various concepts of learner-centered teaching have built on this concept.18, 19, 20 The function of the instructor in such a course is primarily to create a climate in the classroom such that the students feel that this

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is "our course" and that they can build the learning experiences in such a way as to meet their own goals and needs. In addition, the instructor usually sees himself as providing the variety of resources which students can use to meet their own goals. In general, the results of such participative learning have been personally and subjectively very positive, though there are usually some students who do not feel ready for such an experience and are threatened by it and perhaps gain little from it. To the extent that it is successful, it creates a general learning community among the students which may have a profound effect upon their own later dealings with individuals and groups.

A common example of this kind of learning is often contained in summer institutes for teachers where in an intensive group setting teachers have an opportunity to make decisions as to their own curriculum and their own needed learnings. A more specific example is the attempt in the Teacher Education Mental Health Project at the University of Wisconsin to study some of the effects of three different modes of instruction.

The first represented a concept-centered approach which emphasized largely through lecture presentations the principles and concepts in the broad area of child development and learning. The second was the child-study approach which utilized intense case studies of pupils which were analyzed and used as organizing centers of instruction. The third was the learner-centered approach in which the individual learner identified and pursued the goals of his choice in the field.

That the learner-centered approach did not produce effects very different from the other two is reported in Chapter VIII by DeVault and others. It is an educated guess, moreover, that even had minor differences seemed to exist at the end of the experimental course, they would have been cancelled out as the teachers-in-training were exposed to the rigidities of the various conventional school systems in which they were employed.

Still another study along this line is that conducted by Hurst in which it was found that prospective teachers profited most by what was called "the decision method" as compared with the group discussion method or the lecture method. In the decision method, a problem was presented to the group, and they were given resources which would provide them with the available information. The instructor acted as a resource person and endeavored to help the group to keep at its task of arriving at a decision as to how they would handle or solve the problem. Responsible participation is again the keynote.

14M. Vere DeVault, Dan W. Anderson, Patricia W. Cautley, and Dorothy M. Sawin, "The University of Wisconsin Teacher Education Research Project." National Institute of Mental Health Project No. 2M6624, 1963. (Mimeographed)
Obviously, participation is a central element both in the basic encounter groups described above and in the different types of classroom experience focused on self-initiated learning. In the first instance, the emphasis is more on the affective and interpersonal learning. The examples just cited would contain more stress on the cognitive learnings. It would be a mistake, however, to stress too sharply the contrast between these different kinds of group experience. The chapter by Miles includes learner-centered teaching in its discussion of the T-Group and the classroom. The element which ties all these experiments together is the stress on the responsible and expressive and self-initiated involvement of the learner.

The Conduct of Inquiry

A specialized type of participative and experiential learning which has been receiving increasing emphasis in the last few years has been developing in the field of the sciences. Various individuals and national groups have been working toward a goal of helping students to become inquirers, working in a fluid way toward discovery in the scientific realm.

The impetus for this movement grows out of an urgent need to have science experienced as a changing field, as it is in the modern world, rather than as a closed book of already discovered facts. The possession of a body of knowledge about science is not an adequate qualification for the teacher today. Hence the aim is to get the teacher away from the misleading image of science as absolute, complete, and permanent. Suchman is one of those who has given rather specific details regarding the manner in which this aim can be implemented. In trying to strengthen the autonomous processes within the learner, he advocates a new approach in which special training is necessary for teachers of science. The teacher sets the stage of inquiry by posing the problems, creating an environment responsive to the learner, and giving assistance to the students in their investigative operations. This makes it possible for pupils to achieve autonomous discoveries and to engage in self-directed learning.

It is obvious that if prospective teachers are to engage in this kind of stimulation of inquiry among their pupils, they must have experienced

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it themselves. It is therefore clear that courses in the teacher institution must be taught in the same fashion as Suchman describes if teachers themselves are to experience the satisfaction of self-initiated discovery in the scientific realm. This new development in the area of science constitutes a deep challenge to present concepts of teaching. Current educational practice tends to make children less autonomous and less empirical in their search for knowledge and understanding as they move through the elementary grades. This is strictly at variance with the aim of those who focus on inquiry. When children are permitted to think their way through to new understandings, the concepts they derive in the process have greater depth, understanding, and durability.

**Learning Through Simulation**

The trend toward a more experiential type of learning shows up in the increasing use of simulation as a device for use in the classroom. The essence of this procedure is that a complex situation is simulated—the relationship between several nations, a historical situation, a social conflict, a problem in interpersonal relationships—and the students take the roles of those participating in the event. Though there is no conclusive research as yet indicating the outcomes of this type of learning as compared with more conventional procedures, it is already being used in a half a dozen universities and a number of high schools. It has been used primarily in the study of international relationships but other uses are equally possible. It is in effect a complex type of role playing in which individuals can become deeply involved. Since it is a relatively new type of approach, let us take a hypothetical example.

A civics course might well simulate a problem in community policy regarding education. Different pupils might be assigned respectively to be the mayor, the chairman of the Board of Education, the members of the Board of Education, the school superintendent, the head of the PTA, the head of the Taxpayers League. Now the problem is posed to them—from their own community or from any other community where the facts are available to them—that members of the Board of Education want a new bond issue to expand the building program and hire new teachers. They prepare to take their parts in the simulated situation.

What are the types of learning that would follow upon this simulation? First of all, each student would have to turn to the factual resources...

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in order to develop his own stance on the issue and to be able to justify his point of view. There would be a degree of self-discipline involved in searching out this factual material. The student would find it necessary to make a personal decision based on his own informed stand. He would be involved in the handling of interpersonal relationships with others who hold differing points of view. He would find himself bearing the responsibility for the consequences of his own decisions and actions. Throughout the experience there would be necessary a disciplined commitment to learning, decision, action. Such an experience would appear to develop a positive type of learning rather than a negative, critical type of thinking. Current education often develops individuals who can readily criticize any proposal or idea but who are at a complete loss when it comes to making a positive decision regarding constructive action.

Another interesting example of the use of a type of simulation is described by Ronald Lippitt in dealing with children in a fifth grade class.30 The class was concerned about youngsters who were “know-it-alls.” The whole class participated either as actors or observers in role playing the problem. As they did so, the pupils developed a real awareness and understanding of why “know-it-alls” behave as they do, recognizing the insecurity which so often underlies such behavior. Gradually an attitude evolved of working with the problem rather than at it. In the process, individual students showed significant personal development, and the class as a group showed increased freedom of communication, which encouraged and supported greater individuality of participation. It was a living experience in behavioral science.

There is ample evidence that students respond very favorably to this approach, preferring it to the lecture system.31 In terms of the framework given earlier, it faces the student with a problem which, while not real to him in the ordinary sense, becomes real through simulation. It then involves him in a meaningful, personal, participative, experiential learning as he confronts the problem. The teacher’s function is that of the organizer of the simulated problem, the provider of resources, and the facilitator of individual and group participation.

In this newer approach to learning through simulation, it should be clear that if the prospective teacher is to use such a method in his classroom, he must experience it as an approach to learning in his own educational experience. One of the simplest ways to achieve this would be to simulate in the teacher training institution the classroom situation.

with which the prospective teacher will later deal both in his practice teaching and in his later responsibility as a teacher. Many problems would thus be directly confronted by the prospective teacher very early in his training. In addition, he would acquire a much more meaningful understanding of the private world of a pupil by taking the part of the pupil.

**Programmed Instruction**

As educators well know, there has been a vast and explosive development in this field. This is not the place to review these developments or the theory of operant conditioning upon which this work is based. It is appropriate, however, to point out that programmed instruction may be used in a variety of ways. It can be seen as potentially providing for all learning, or it may be seen as one new and very useful tool in the facilitation of learning. As Skinner has pointed out, “To acquire behavior the student must engage in behavior.”

It is of particular interest to note that in the development of programmed instruction there is a tendency toward shorter “plug-in” programs, rather than toward the development of whole courses covering a total field of knowledge. To me the development of these shorter programs suggests the most fruitful way in which the student may be involved in the use of so-called teaching machines. When learning is being facilitated in any of the ways discussed in this paper, the student will frequently come across gaps in his knowledge, tools which he lacks, information which he needs to meet the problem he is confronting. Here the flexibility of programmed instruction is invaluable. A student who needs to know how to use a microscope can find a program covering this knowledge. The prospective teacher who is planning to spend three months in France can utilize programmed instruction in conversational French. The pupil who needs algebra, whether for the solution of problems of interest to him or simply to get into college, can work on a program of instruction in algebra.

Used in these ways there is no doubt that a competently developed program gives the student immediate experiences of satisfaction, enables him to learn a body of knowledge when he needs it for his own functioning, gives him the feeling that any content is learnable, and gives him a recognition that the process of education is an intelligible and

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comprehensible one. He can work at his own rate and finds that the carefully designed program presents him with coherent, interrelated steps. Its stress on immediate reinforcement and reward rather than on punitive measures is another factor in its favor. If programmed learning is used flexibly, it can constitute a large forward step in meeting the massive needs for functional learning of subject matter as the number of pupils grows by leaps and bounds.

Programmed learning is developing in new and unexpected fields. Berlin and Wyckoff are developing programs for the improvement of interpersonal relationships in which two people work together at mutual tasks, assigned by the programmed text, learning not only some of the cognitive concepts in regard to interpersonal relationships but gradually experiencing deeper and deeper communication with each other. Both industry and educational institutions have begun to make use of this developing series of programs.37

It goes without saying that programmed learning has great potential risks if it is wisely used. If it becomes a substitute for thinking in larger patterns and gestalts, if it becomes a way of stressing factual knowledge as over against creativity, then real damage may be done. But if it is perceived as an instrument to be used by educators in accordance with their basic philosophy of education, then it is readily evident that it is one of the most powerful tools which psychology has as yet contributed to the field of education.

In relation to the teacher training institution, it seems clear that prospective teachers should have intimate acquaintance with this burgeoning development which is certain to affect their professional careers. They should utilize programs of instruction to advance their own learning in fields where they need information or concepts. They should also become involved in the development of programs of instruction since this would have great feedback value in helping them understand the learning processes of their pupils. This intimate acquaintance with both the use and the building of programs of instruction will give them a first-hand experience both of the advantage and the shortcomings of this approach to learning.

Basic Assumptions

It will have been evident to the reader that this chapter proceeds from a certain point of view. It is based on a set of assumptions, some explicit and some implicit, in regard to the way in which learning takes place. These assumptions are by no means shared by all. In bringing this chapter to a close, it seems advisable to make these assumptions as clear as possible in order that our discussion may be informed and focused.

Here are some of the assumptions on which my thinking has been based:

1. Students have a natural potentiality for learning, developing, for making constructive discriminations among learning opportunities. This potentiality can be trusted. It is released when the conditions are suitable.

2. Significant learning takes place when the subject matter is perceived by the student to have relevance for his own purposes.

3. Much significant learning is acquired through doing. When the student is attempting to cope directly with a problem confronting him, effective learning is likely to occur.

4. Learning is facilitated when the student participates responsibly in the learning process, choosing directions, making his own contributions, living with the consequences of his choices.

5. The most pervasive learning is that which is self-initiated, involving the whole person of the learner—feelings as well as intellect—and in which the locus of evaluation of the learning experience rests in the learner.

6. Creativity in learning is best facilitated when self-criticism and self-evaluation are basic, and evaluation by others is of minimal importance.

7. The most socially useful learning in the modern world is the learning of the process of learning, a continuing openness to new data.

In this paper I have endeavored to present a thesis as to the contribution which might be made by psychology to the process of preparation of teachers.

I have maintained that if the schools are to meet the needs of today's world, teachers must of necessity be continually involved in a process of learning, and that they must be able to facilitate a similar process of openness to experience of changingness, in their pupils.

If I have perceived correctly the needs of our culture, then education or teacher education which consists of piling up blocks of intellectual and factual knowledge in the learner is no longer appropriate.

I have suggested that the process quality which needs to be built into our educational system is best achieved through an experiential type of learning, involving the whole person of the learner. When the person learns in this way, his knowledge is pervasive but tentative, and he is open to change because he is aware of the personal—and hence possibly faulty—basis of his knowing.

I have attempted to point to some of the recent developments in the behavioral science field which would aid in this process type of experiential learning. The following are examples:

We have some knowledge of the conditions—in the learner, in the situation, and especially in the attitudes of the facilitator—which foster such experiential learning.
There is evidence that the intensive group experience, as increasingly understood by the behavioral scientist, is a method by which administrators, faculty, and prospective teachers can open themselves to a continuing process of learning, thus providing a context for this type of learning in their students and pupils.

The evidence suggests that there are various methods of participative learning which would be useful in achieving this goal. Learner-centered teaching is one. Encouraging the learner to conduct an inquiry, rather than to learn facts only, is another. The simulation of complex life situations provides still another way of involving the student in experiential learning. The use of programmed instruction as a flexible tool for effective, self-directed learning is another very useful method.

Throughout the paper I have endeavored to present a consistent and coherent point of view in regard to both teacher education and education in general and have tried to make my assumptions explicit. I have made no mention of the practicality of the views I have advanced. I am nonetheless aware that implementation of the views presented in this paper would involve a profound revolution in the teacher training institution and in the whole view of the teacher and his function.
CHAPTER IV

Conceptual Framework for Teacher Education

RODNEY A. CLARK AND WALCOTT H. BEATTY

The field of education suffers from a peculiarity which is shared by some other professions but one which, in education, is quite exaggerated. We teachers must take full responsibility for the lives and development of people whether we know how to do it or not. Thus, we conduct the agency most centrally concerned with inducing learning when there are still many unanswered questions as to how learning takes place. We are charged with preparing children and youth to be socially effective citizens when this goal is essentially a rallying cry rather than a well defined characteristic. We have chosen the only solution possible. Since we cannot refuse obligations placed on us by society, we have used our best judgment, we have used cut-and-try techniques, and we have done our best.

This is certainly commendable but it has also led to a real dilemma. Improvisations which were once necessary have now become sanctioned by tradition. People have developed a personal commitment to the improvised solution and now have difficulty in adopting new procedures even though they have demonstrated validity. When answers to some of our problems are found by research, they are resisted. This dilemma applies to the whole field of education, but it applies in a particularly important way to teacher education. It is in the period in which new teachers are being formed that we have our best opportunity to by-pass tradition and work with validated knowledge. In this chapter a new conceptual framework for teacher education is proposed, based on the most recent developments within the behavioral sciences. The key to this framework is simply stated.

Since learning is a power within and under the control of the learner, teaching is a facilitating process. Through a cooperative relationship, the teacher helps a student learn what to the student has positive and rewarding meanings. Therefore, teacher education is facilitating the learning of how to facilitate learning. To “teach” an education course the instructor helps his students find the positive and rewarding meanings in their experiences of helping learners.¹

This statement is not as simple as it at first appears. In the following discussion we will expand this conceptual framework to describe how a mentally healthful teacher looks, what changes must occur as a college student turns into a teacher, and how we can help students in the changes they attempt.

Teacher Education And Personal Development

The typical teacher education program is a collection of courses which center around three objectives; developing appropriate knowledge for teaching, developing appropriate skills for teaching, and integrating these two through student teaching. Such a program is clearly logical if one examines the activities of a typical teacher in the classroom. However, developments in psychology make clear that there is one missing ingredient—the unique teacher-to-be himself. In its usual form, the teacher education program assumes that the same knowledge is appropriate for all teachers-to-be and can be effectively communicated; that all teachers can learn and use the same skills; and that there will be some kind of an automatic integration process taking place once the teacher faces children. None of these assumptions is wholly true. All of them depend on the particular characteristics of individual students.

When one examines individual students, one is struck by the fact that they begin teacher education with quite different knowledge and attitudes. Students arrive at the program with already developed strengths and weaknesses. Studies of personality change indicate that it is a slow and sometimes unsuccessful process to bring changes in these characteristics. It is, therefore, not possible to make the same kind of teacher of all these different beginners. Actually, research in the characteristics of effective teaching shows that there is no one model in any case. We must abandon the conception of a single ideal model of a teacher.

The alternative to trying to develop the ideal teacher, who we now recognize doesn't exist, is to provide experiences in which the prospective teachers are able to develop their strengths into tools for teaching, and to learn about their weaknesses so these will not block learning. This is a clear recognition of the fact that a teacher's behavior in the classroom is a function of his personality. That knowledge, those skills which he can integrate into his personality, can be used by him to facilitate learning in the young. Becoming a teacher is not a matter of just adding some knowledge and skills which are practiced before children. Becoming a teacher is a matter of continuing to grow from late adolescence and developing into a mature person who can act in ways that help other people learn.

Process Characteristics of Effective Teachers

If there is no ideal model of a teacher, and if teaching is to a large degree a function of personality, then how can we describe the attributes
which a teacher education program is trying to foster? The answer to this seems to be that there are certain processes which an effective teacher tries to encourage or foster within a classroom. If an individual can use his strengths to stimulate these processes, then he can be an effective teacher. If he cannot, then he should not be teaching. A teacher education program is a place where we can discover if this can be done and help develop such processes in people who have the potential.

Before we describe the processes, there is one point which should be noted. We have used the phrase “effective teacher,” but this phrase can be differently interpreted. Effective teaching is not concerned only with stimulating achievement. It certainly should not be concerned with developing conformity. Rather, the effective teacher is one who can help children grow into mentally healthy adults who are able to use knowledge and skills to meet their needs in society in socially constructive ways. Effective teaching is the fostering of mentally healthy learning processes.

The process-characteristics which follow are based on what we have learned from observing teachers in action, on the key values of our society, and on the findings of research in the behavioral sciences.

**Broadly Knowledgeable**

The idea that a teacher should have a thorough knowledge of the field in which he is teaching is rarely debated. It would seem clear that there are many situations in the classroom which call for information. There are times when the teacher can guide students in their choice of study-activities, and the teacher can have a better perspective about how things are progressing, if he has knowledge of the subject matter. The important point about knowledge, however, is that it cannot be directly transmitted to another person.

Each person comes to know something new as he can relate the elements of a new experience to something which he already knows. He can memorize something or have stored information, but neither of these will be usable knowledge until they can be related to behavior or to other knowledge which has implications for behaving. A further block to the direct communication of knowledge is that different students have differing background understandings to which they can relate the new knowledge. In some areas we have already learned this. We try to introduce ideas in some sequence so that early learnings lay the ground work for later learnings. We also know that children are at differing points in their learning. The effective teacher makes knowledge available to each student as he needs it and is ready for it.

**Methodologically Equipped**

While there are some debates about the relative importance of knowledge of subject matter and knowledge of methods, few effective teachers doubt the importance of having both. The very fact that knowledge
cannot be communicated directly implies a need for methodology. There has been much research done to compare the effectiveness of differing methods of teaching. The general findings are that if one is measuring achievement by our usual classroom tests, there are no significant differences among methods; that is, students can do as well on such tests whether they have been taught by the lecture method, the discussion method or by individual study. The second finding is that on other outcomes, such as developing critical thinking, increasing problem solving ability, or helping children to become more self-disciplined, differing methods do have differing effectiveness. In other words, one does not increase problem solving ability very much by listening to lectures, just as one does not learn to drive a car by hearing the technique described.

The implication of these findings is that teachers must know a variety of methods and the particular outcomes which they most facilitate. In general, a teacher can do advance planning as to the method he will use for different learnings, but there are also situations in which it quite unexpectedly becomes clear that something is happening in the class which calls for the immediate introduction of an appropriate method. For instance, if a class of prospective teachers is discussing how they would handle some disciplinary incident which might arise in a classroom and there are two clearly different methods suggested, this might be the ideal time to introduce some role playing. The more methodological tools a teacher has, combined with understanding of when they are appropriate, the more effectively the teacher can help children learn.

Open to Experience

Effective learning involves a two-way communication process. Not only must the student understand what the teacher is saying, and meaning, but the teacher must understand what the children are saying and meaning. This is a complex notion and will be discussed further, but the point that needs to be stressed here is that each situation has new elements in it, unique to that situation, which must be taken into account by the teacher. We tend to respond according to earlier patterns and habits to the general similarity between situations. To some degree, this cannot be avoided and the development of effective habit patterns leads to efficiency and the feeling of preparedness. At the same time, the blind application of habits can directly interfere with learning. The situation where this is most evident and where we are most in need of this concept of openness, is probably in the individual interactions which the teacher has with a child. If a child fails to get down to work when we expect him to, we are likely to draw upon some habitual pattern of warning him or threatening him. This may reasonably
be a last resort, but first we should ask the question: Why is this particular child doing this? We could probably come up with ten or fifteen hypotheses to answer this question. He is defying the teacher. He dislikes the work he is supposed to be doing. He is preoccupied with some emotional upset. He has a strong need to get some reassurance from his peers that they like him. Surely the response of threatening the child is not equally appropriate to each of these hypotheses. The teacher who is open and sensitive will see differences between two children both of whom are not settling down to work and will be able to detect clues as to why each particular child is resisting his work. When the teacher's response is inappropriate to the motivation of the child, learning is interfered with. The child may come to resent the work, the teacher, and the whole school.

Openness to experience has additional meanings. The very work and life of the teacher can take on a new richness of meaning when the newness of each situation can be appreciated. Work changes from a daily grind to a satisfying encounter and continuous growth replaces endless repetition. The enriching of experience generates enthusiasm, and this too is communicated to the children.

Democratic in Belief and Action

There should be little resistance to the argument that children being prepared to live in a democracy must experience democracy as they grow. Otherwise, their experiences will leave them unprepared. Next to the family, the single institution which most influences and occupies the child's time is the school. The school can ill afford to train consciously against democracy. This is essentially a logical argument, but there is other evidence of a scientific nature. Studies have shown that many of the ideals of democracy are also the concepts which are highly associated with healthy growth and development. Early love and continuing personal respect tend to make a child constructive toward others and able to develop his potential. The opposite conditions tend to arrest or warp development into destructive and hostile forms of behavior. 

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people and develop positive attitudes. Freeing intelligence to function as it has personal meaning to the individual fosters creativity and leads to valuable discoveries. The coincidence between democratic ideals and the findings of psychological studies of mental health is so remarkable that it cannot be ignored. The teacher's faith that each individual is valuable, that children can make intelligent choices, that they can solve problems, and that the learning power is basically within the child seems to be so vital that much attention must be given to this phase of teacher education. It may not be too strong a statement to say that if there is no evidence of these attitudes developing during teacher education then the candidate should be screened out of teaching.

Helpful in Facilitating Learning

Writers on the subject of the teacher's role in the classroom have used such terms as "the director of learning," and "the motivator of learning." It now seems evident from recent work in the areas of both motivation, and learning, that such terms are complete misnomers. Learning follows motivation and motivation is completely internal to the learner. The teacher can offer incentives and rewards but whether or not they are effective depends on whether or not the child is motivated to acquire the incentive or achieve the reward. This has a clear and bold implication. The teacher is not the "director of learning," he is an experienced helper. It is only in a cooperative situation in which the child sees the teacher as being helpful that meaningful learning can take place.

This is a new and radically different role for the teacher by comparison with present-day beliefs and practices, and it requires spelling out in some detail.

The first characteristic which makes a teacher a facilitator is that he develops the classroom experiences around the concerns and problems which are real to the learner. He cannot know completely, in advance, what these problems are. The curriculum attempts, sometimes unsuccessfully, to present a sequence of ideas or problems which experts believe are

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12Rogers, op. cit., pp. 279-296.
appropriate and meaningful to children at a certain level. However, with the wide variety of individual differences in children and the differing rates at which they mature, this, at best, can only be tentative—something to use as a starting point. Teachers must strive to know their children and become sensitive to the ways in which they communicate their concerns, and they must give children opportunities to reveal their thinking about problems. Involving children in the detailed planning of a particular learning unit is one way to do this. Using such techniques as inquiry training, which challenges children to solve problems, is another. Having a general discussion about a problem and then letting each person choose an aspect of it for further study is a third way. The child must see some immediate satisfaction in learning or see some way in which he can become more adequate through the learning. The presentation of challenge with opportunities for a variety of solutions is the key to fitting the learning experience to individual motivation.

A second aspect of teacher facilitation of learning is providing a personally supportive climate in the classroom. The children must feel that the teacher is on their side. This strengthens the desire to please the teacher, or more accurately strengthens the learner's feelings that the teacher cares whether or not he learns. There are many ways in which the teacher can evidence this support. It doesn't imply sweetness or permissiveness or any other particular characteristic. If the teacher really does care if each child learns, if he does find satisfaction in watching change and development over time, then he can be strict, or unsmil-ing, or friendly, or have many other traits and, yet, he will still find ways of communicating his caring. It is probably most helpful to discuss the positive aspects of how one can be a facilitator of learning, but this is one area where much currently accepted practice defeats the vital process of providing personal support. The evidence is clear that a teacher cannot provide such a climate if he is also punitive, even if the punishment only takes the form of ridicule and sarcasm. Whenever a teacher provides a rewarding experience, children are motivated to cooperate with the teacher. When the experience is punishing, this motivation is decreased. If the teacher uses both, then he is seen as an ambivalent figure who cannot really be trusted and a personally supportive climate will not be perceived by the children. Teachers will get more cooperation and learning from children if they will just quiet them when they are noisy and send them back to their seats when they are supposed to be there, no matter how many times a day this is required, than they will if they punish even once.

A third characteristic of a teacher who is facilitating learning is that he is genuine, or as Rogers expresses it, congruent. This means that the things he says and does match his thoughts and feelings. This is a very disturbing idea to most people because our culture has taught us to hide our feelings and indulge in small deceits. Strong emotion is particularly frightening. It should be, because with our cultural training, true feelings do not usually emerge until they are violent emotions, and they can then be very damaging to others. It is possible to be congruent without damaging people. One thing that most people have not learned is that these feelings are us. It is not right to equate “I am feeling irritated” with “You are a bad boy.” One does not logically follow from the other. The feeling comes out, but dishonestly, and this is what damages the other person. The genuine person in the same situation might say, “This behavior is making me feel very irritated; now what do you think we can do about it?” This way of saying it maintains respect for the worth of the child. It recognizes that there is some reason for the child’s behavior, but it also recognizes that the child needs to know the effect his behavior is having on the teacher. When the child knows this, what can be done? The appropriate outcome may be for the child to change his behavior, or it may be that he can explain something about his behavior which will change the teacher’s feelings.

The reason for concern about genuineness is that it leads to clearer communication. If the teacher is saying something positive while feeling negative, his statement will not sound the same as though he were really feeling positive. The child may not know exactly what the teacher is really thinking or feeling, but he will know there is something wrong. And he will be confused as to how to respond appropriately.

A fourth characteristic of a teacher who is helpful to learners is that he fosters return communication. He wants to understand as well as be understood. In order to strengthen those elements of motivation which are consonant with learning, he must try to understand what the child is feeling and thinking. Obviously, with thirty or more children in the classroom and with the rapidity with which the interchange takes place, it is not possible to understand each child in the clinical sense. The interesting finding from research is that it is the attitude or desire to understand, not the amount of understanding, which is significant in helping other people. If the teacher listens carefully and responds appropriately to what he hears, the child will be helped to learn. Rogers has called this empathic understanding. The empathic teacher may never

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15Rogers, op. cit., p. 282.
17Rogers, op. cit., p. 284.
know many of the complex factors lying behind the child's motivation and behavior, but he will do his best to understand what the child is currently communicating. Not only will the teacher be concerned with the content of a child's words, but he will also be concerned with the intent lying behind the words or actions. Instead of judging a response by stating an opinion such as "That is a silly question," the teacher will be asking himself, "Now what is the child perceiving, or failing to perceive here, that makes this a meaningful question for him?" The teacher's empathic understanding encourages and completes the two-way communication with the child so that each is helping the other further the learning process.

Autonomous in Choice-making

It goes without saying, perhaps, that teachers should be mature and adult-like. However, little attention has been given to the meaning of these terms. Outside the area of physical growth, maturity and adult-ness tend to be ambiguous and to be judged more by some norm of typical behavior than by any clear conception of the qualities we want in a teacher. If education is to serve its function of preparing each generation better for effective participation in a rapidly changing world, the norm of typical adult behavior today is not satisfactory. We must seek people for teaching who can serve as models for children and who have the qualities which foster development toward effectiveness in children. If the characteristics which have already been discussed above are integrated into the teacher, an additional quality will emerge. The understanding and acceptance of himself as a worthy person, the knowledge and skills which enable him to cope effectively with children, his qualities of being empathic and congruent, will develop a feeling that he can make choices. This is the essence of autonomy, the feeling that one has a choice. The evidence from research is not encouraging with regard to many of our present teachers. In one study it was found that teachers tend to be submissive toward other adults and have a strong need for order.18 There is little hope that teachers can prepare people for the rapid pace and unknown problems of twenty years hence if teachers feel that they have no choices but must conform mindlessly to today's expectations. Many of these expectations are already archaic, and others will be by the time today's children become mature. The choices the teacher must make are not those concerning unknowns of 1990 but rather those which will strengthen the child's choice-making abilities so that he can make the appropriate choices in 1990.

Becoming a Teacher

At any time on a school staff, in a community or on the national and world scene, there are only a few people who are outstanding because of their personal effectiveness. These few people seem to reach a peak of richly contributing and deeply satisfying living as if, by magic, they have attained a special kind of full "human-ness." Yet when we examine such outstanding personal effectiveness, we find it composed of the same mentally healthful process characteristics we have been describing, and we realize that to a degree each of us has some of these same characteristics in process. For each person who is becoming a teacher then, there is already in process the beginning magic which could be developed to the full functioning of the mentally healthy, truly effective teacher. What then must occur to complete the magic? How does one develop mentally healthful process characteristics? In particular, how does one incorporate the development with becoming a teacher? Must personal effectiveness remain so rare an achievement in a profession for which such effectiveness is the essence of productiveness?

Professionals engaged in teacher training want to know what they can do to help candidates gain mentally healthful process characteristics. Before we discuss how to facilitate the development, however, let us look at some changes which must occur in the student while he is becoming a teacher.

Responsibility for His Own Learning

Of fundamental significance to teachers of education must be the recognition that the development of mentally healthful process characteristics comes out through a gift that one person can give to another, it is not a lesson that one person can "teach" to another, nor is it a manipulation that one person can perform on another. Mentally healthful process characteristics come from the inside out, so to speak, and must be developed autonomously in the becoming of the individual. Indeed, as has been described, autonomy is an essential which pervades every mentally healthy behavior. Autonomy is the self's recognition that it is free to make its own choices and is fully responsible for directing its own becoming. Autonomy is ultimately the self's recognition that it is fully functioning, fully relating to the world, fully alive.

Therefore, it is basic to the process of becoming a teacher that the training experience foster the growth of autonomy. The most obvious implication of this is that the student in training must assume greater and greater responsibility for his own learning.

Actually, the student is, has been, and always will be completely responsible for all his learning. Unfortunately, much of what has happened to him through school up to the time he begins teacher training has caused him to become less and less sensitive to his responsibility.
He probably has come to accept the opinion that his instructors know best what he needs to learn and what he should do to learn it. He supposes the instructors will determine the direction and method of his growth. Indeed, the student may be quite fearful about his ability to knuckle under to the authority his instructors will expect to exert over the student's becoming. The student makes the choice to "turn off" his motivational states and his own evaluations of what experience is meaning to his becoming so that somehow he can turn himself over passively to the shaping of those who know best what he needs to read, what he should ask, how he is supposed to feel, and what the "right" answers are. The student may recognize from past experience that he will not learn much through this process, yet may still sincerely believe that it is the only procedure for acquiring the necessary prerequisites to teaching.

If a student is to break out of this stultifying concept of learning, he must begin to experience a choice-making which relates his concept of self to the actions he is taking toward becoming a teacher. He must "know" the feeling that what he can do and what he is doing is moving him nearer to what he thinks a teacher is. Whatever his concept of the teacher's role, he must be flooded with the meanings coming in him as he experiences the use of his self, doing what he believes is appropriate for a teacher to do. If he reads, he should be a reading-using person trying to learn more about what he is trying to do. He should read to answer himself, not to answer an instructor. And he must feel that this is right. More and more he must choose what to do, where to do, when to do, and with whom to do it. He must consciously, continuously repeat the relating cycle: How am I related to this; how am I related to that; how is this related to that through me? The meanings developing from the relating cycle tell the student what he is becoming, tell him that he can and must direct the becoming, and suggest where he should grow next.

The Risk of Making Mistakes

Obviously such a course of action involves the student in certain risks. He might make mistakes. He might lose control. He might not know what to do on occasion. Someone might find out the truth about him. Having to take such risks is not unfortunate for the student. Indeed, it is to be desired. From gaining confidence about taking risks, a student grows in his ability to calculate the consequences of an increasing variety of choices. From such evaluation the student grows to the ultimate of reality orientation—the open freedom to interpret data as he finds them in any situation without the need to defend himself by ignoring or distorting information. This openness to experience enables a teacher to communicate to each student an individualized "unconditional positive regard" devoid of stereotyped, prejudiced, autogenous, or autonomic values about the learner. And such openness grows from interpreting the consequences of taking risks.
There is a notion common among students these days that the effective teacher (or person) is one who is never afraid, has no problems, and makes no mistakes. The student venturing on his own self-directed course toward becoming a teacher will know fear, difficulty and error, but he will also be free to know all that these tell him about himself. That is, fear can alert a learner to better relate his strength to the world, and in this relating, out of fear, the learner is more fully knowing himself and the world. Through the solution of difficulties, a student develops skills and, thereby, knowing himself as a skill-user, he comes to feel that problems are part of full living. He wants to be relating to whatever is going on.

Another process which grows while the student is taking risks has to do with his definitions of what constitutes taking a risk. For instance, as he experiences how satisfyingly he can grow from overcoming mistakes, he will lose his fear of making mistakes. Instead of being afraid to act, he will strive toward more realistic guesses in choosing actions which will more fully relate his self to what is going on, knowing that full functioning is not in being "right" but in getting as much as possible from experience. So risks will come to be defined not in terms of fear but in terms of probability, relativity, accuracy, and efficiency. These new definitions will enable him to engage in experiences the meaning of which will infiltrate his defense system. New data will "come around" his defenses, so to speak, so he can learn to do without some defenses and to make others more effective, more mature, and more in line with reality.

Self-Examination

As these new definitions come into play, they demand that the student re-examine his motivational system. He has chosen to become a teacher for many reasons. The most telling reasons go deeply into his unique concepts of what he is in the world and of what he "should" be—his concepts of adequacy. The student has planned his way of life for a definite period of time around the requirements of becoming a teacher. He has put together his notions of how best to be what he thinks he is with his notions of what he thinks teaching is all about (or at least with his notions of what is expected of a student in the process of becoming a teacher). He has decided that becoming a teacher will organize the relations of his self and the world so he can be the most effective self he knows how to be. He may be much misinformed or naïve about what teachers do or are; nevertheless, it seems to him that becoming a teacher is a strategy which gives his over-all life an organization toward more effectiveness than that promised by any other strategy.

Direct experience with learners in real school situations will quickly bring surface misconceptions and naïvete to light. The student will soon contact reality about paid vacations, foreign travel, easy hours, middle-class status, community respect, and the sweet, eager lovingness of learn-
ears. If he is self-directing and gaining in evaluative skills, the student's new realism will bring him many meanings which he hadn't before recognized. He will find that, just as schools, kids, and teachers are not as he thought, neither is he the self he had previously known. For many students one of the biggest steps they take in becoming a teacher is when they begin to know why they are disillusioned. What kind of a person am I if I could have been blind to this? What does such blindness tell me about my own education?

By admitting that his concept of teaching or of self is changing, the student is reconsidering whether becoming a teacher is for him an appropriate strategy for organizing his effectiveness through time. If he is to achieve personal effectiveness, sooner or later he must recognize what in his self-system demands the relations which are satisfied by teaching. Experiencing insights at such a level is self-acceptance, for accepting the self is a process made up of the many ways one says: This is the real me. This is what I'm doing. It fits. I do not have to defend it.

**Trusting Self and Others**

It is a short step from self-acceptance to seeing that traditional teaching raises fundamental questions about the nature of man and the process by which one man can effectively relate to another for the enhancement of both. Self-acceptance demands the recognition of the integrity of all selves. As a student gains respect for the individuality of others, he must come to grips with the most decisive issue of education today: Does one person have the right to shape the becoming of another person to pre-determined ends? Does one generation have the right to select, edit, or in any way determine the values of the next generation? Are we so sure we know what is "right" that we can teach it to others as "right"?

The fully functioning person knows that he is the director of his becoming. He knows he is becoming what he is choosing to become. He knows that he has not yet made all his choices, and, therefore, destiny is open. He knows he will change, learn, develop, and he knows he cannot know what the end of the process will be. He knows that, as his becoming is free and open, undetermined, so is the becoming of others, and he knows he likes things to be this way. Therefore, the fully functioning person cannot try to shape the becoming of another person. As he strives to relate to an opening world, the fully functioning person wants others to find also an opening world and to direct their own relating with it. The teacher who is fully functioning cannot determine what a student is to learn but will strive to help the student expand the meaning of experiences to the fullest potential in the student's becoming. Such a teacher will help, he will facilitate a student's learning. He will not determine, he will not direct, he will not manipulate, he will not (in the ordinary sense) even guide a student's learning.
If a person faces this surprising analysis of teaching dply, it is because he has a firm trust in people. He believes in the tremendous potential of man. He accepts people whether they are his peers or children. He knows that if he can find a way to help, he can contribute to an increased effectiveness for any person. He knows that every person is learning and is striving for increasing positive effectiveness in the world. He has found this in himself, and his experiences trying to be helpful without violating the autonomy of others have verified the validity of this aspect of human-ness.

Commitment to Teaching

In our culture it is not an obvious truth that one learns to trust others by trusting them, but when, out of self-acceptance, one transposes his self-trust to trust of others, he comes more and more to experience the positive orientation in the strivings of other people. Next, when one learns that all kinds of behaviors are positive striving for effectiveness in the world, then one comes to appreciate the incredible ingenuity, creativeness, diversity, and pluck with which other people are directing their becoming. When a person who is becoming a teacher achieves this deeply exciting faith in himself and others as learners, he is free to enter any teacher-pupil relationship undefensively. Because he is undefensively willing to help, and because he is ready to relate to diverse, unique needs, he is most likely to find effective ways to be helpful to learners. This help will be intrinsically satisfying to the learner because it is the help the learner is asking for rather than a help someone thinks he “should” want. When the evolving teacher experiences being helpful—gets the feedback of how his help has contributed to the becoming of a learner—then he must again evaluate what this is meaning to his own becoming. He finds that establishing free, open, undefensive, creative relations with learners is to be free, open, undefensive, and creative. He finds that to be helpful is to be fully functioning!

From this point on in his becoming, the evolving teacher will be committed to becoming continually more and more helpful in order to achieve his own full potential. He will be committed to becoming a teacher as he has now defined teaching—a helping relation between a teacher and a learner. But is he committed to becoming a public school teacher in one of our American schools? Unfortunately, the answer is too often, “No!” The student is committed now to becoming a teacher in our schools only if we can show him that in our schools he can teach in such a way as to satisfy his need to be a helpful person.

He is strong enough to learn from frustrations; he is free to be creative in working for change in our schools. But he is now very realistic! Can we give him sufficient experiences of helpfulness in our schools that he will find his commitments there?
Helping a Student Become a Teacher

If we, in our teaching of evolving teachers, are to help them find their commitments to helpfulness in our public schools, we must accept several challenges. The most basic of these challenges has to do with our own becoming. Of course we are striving toward positive effectiveness in the world—we’re human. But how fully functioning are we in our classrooms?

The Teacher of Teachers

In our relations with our students, are we knowledge-using practitioners? We want the student to know that it isn’t what he knows that counts, but what he does with what he knows. Our students must experience our helping them by our use of what we know. The instructor must be truly versed in the wealth of data that can be brought to bear on problem solutions in almost any school situation. He should, from broad experiences, be wise in guessing the kinds of help his students are likely to need. He should, at the same time, be very sensitive to fitting generalizations to the specific needs of each student. He must apply all his knowledge and wisdom to open new experiences for himself. He must seek change and be willing to learn from his students. He must evaluate how his relationship with each student is contributing to his own becoming because he must be congruent in reflecting back to the student all the meaning of the relationship. For this is communication, and, above all other skills, the teacher of teachers must be a master communicator.

The students must feel the instructor’s unconditional positive acceptance of them. They must know him fully in situations where his skills in the use of democratic process are brought effectively to bear on significant issues. His students must share in enough of the instructor’s becoming to feel his autonomy, to experience the integrating and purposeful quality of his becoming.

The instructor of teachers, in his commitment to being a helpful person, will be willing to help his students in any way he can. Much of what he does will be deeply personal and sometimes akin to therapy. Out of his willingness to be helpful, however, the instructor will have developed a wisdom about what he can do best to be most helpful to the most students. He cannot be all help to everyone, so he must make choices about how to apply his efforts. Second to his commitment to being a helpful person, the instructor of teachers is committed to helping his students learn ways to help their students. If he analyzes this criterion and keeps its elements clearly in mind, the instructor of teachers will organize the emphasis of his helpfulness around what he considers to be the most basic processes in becoming a teacher. He will choose the most open-ended, the most liberating, processes to foster. He will do all he can to facilitate these and let some, perhaps many, of the traditionally “taught” skills of professional education be incidental. He will always
bear in mind that there is little point in his spending time and effort on any procedure, method, gimmick, or datum unless indications are clear that it helps students in their becoming. This means that the information being used for learning in the interaction between instructor and evolving teacher is almost always introduced, not by the instructor, but by the learner out of his expanding need to know more about what he is becoming. If the teacher candidate is learning by finding the meanings of real experiences with real learners in real schools, then the instructor can be certain that his help will be efficiently focused. The instructor will not need to worry about "covering" course content because he will have continuous evidence that the evolving teachers are finding what they need.

Use of Cooperative Procedures

To further guarantee that the greatest extent of help is available, the instructor will organize a variety of cooperative procedures in his class. One of the first things he will help his students learn is how to plan together. Very few students coming into professional education courses know how to work together. Three blocks to effective process stand in their way. First, college students are imbued so much with the notion that they must discover the goals the instructor has for them that they don't focus their efforts on solving any other problems. Second, their notions about orderly procedure, leadership, voting, debate, and "right" answers preclude communication and thereby preclude the possibility that group problems can be recognized for solution. Third, most students are afraid to join a group because their school experiences have taught them they must stand apart in competition with others in the class in order to make a "grade."

One change to be brought about by future teachers in our public schools is the elimination of experience which develops these three blocks to effective group processes. A guarantee that teachers will be able to conduct classes so that these blocks are not created is to provide such un-blocked processes for students in their education courses.

The evolving teachers must experience for themselves a combination of self-direction and open helpfulness by the instructor so they finally believe there is no subtle manipulation of their experiences through some secret agenda. At first, they will try to guess what the instructor has up his sleeve—they have learned to be very skillful about this kind of guessing. Gradually the situation will be tested, and they will find their choices supported, their desires considered, their questions probed. They will recognize that they are free to direct their own development. They will realize the instructor is sincere in his invitation to them to take more and more responsibility for directing their learning. They will see, if they suggest a plan of action, that the plan is implemented. They will give up trying to outguess the instructor about his plans for them.
They will know that the instructor does intend to develop agenda from their recognized problems. At this point they can begin to learn how to plan together, and they will have to make group decisions about this.

As the class begins to make its first efforts to reach a group decision, a few individuals will probably be verbal, humorous, sensible, convincing. They will also probably be quite deaf to any counter-suggestion.

At this point the instructor must display two skills. He must support the outspoken individuals in their efforts and their willingness to initiate. At the same time, the instructor must strive to keep the issue from closing with these first suggestions. Even if the problem under consideration is relatively a minor one, it is very important that the process of solving the problem remain open. It is important that all who will, express opinions, make suggestions, ask their questions, think out loud, and make themselves known. It is desirable that all know what choices are available to them.

Now, the process of choice-making must remain open. It may be necessary to count preferences, but the instructor should point out the differences between voting at this time and testing the desires of the group members. As preferences are tabulated, the pros and cons can be examined. Out of this there often appears a new alternative for action which meets the wishes of most of the members. If there is not complete agreement, there usually does become apparent a way a new action for the minority which enables them to go their own way and still be cooperating with the total group effort.

As with everything the instructor helps the class do, it is recognized that it is not the doing that brings learning, but evaluation of the doing. It seems unlikely that the outcome of any decision a class might make could be more important than what can be learned by examining the process by which the decision was made.

Teachers need to realize how many, many group members are prone to ride along with a decision, uninvolved and uncommitted, so that when the chips are down they will not put out the effort to carry forward a plan or reach a goal. Even though these members of the group vote aye, they do not feel the decision is theirs.

In addition, teachers need to realize what a damper to creativity is imposed when a sensible, pragmatic plan is accepted too soon by a group. New solutions can be generated only when a group is willing to entertain different ways of looking at a problem until the different parts of the problem are put together in hitherto unrelated ways. The group may decide the new solution is no better than the first one suggested, but by seeking and considering the new solution they are learning about creativity and are valuing it.

As the group watches itself developing plans and making decisions, members will become aware of many forces bearing on their efforts other than the specific issues being directly considered. They will recog-
nize the fears of some members about speaking or otherwise participating in the group activities. They will see individuals assume roles such as humorist, doubter, supporter, initiator, student. They should get some feeling for the ways many people hide their real selves in such roles.

The instructor can help his students learn much from their growing recognition of group dynamics. He can show them by his own responses how all these factors are related to the process of communication. A student feels the fullness of a response which reacts to the inner, deep intent of what he says as well as his words. As individuals feel such responses and as the instructor helps them clarify what is happening in the group as well as what is being said, the students learn to be more congruent about their problems. They begin to trust themselves to feel, think, say, and behave one and the same meaning. Then they begin to help others in the group do the same. They may experience more effective feed-back from their interactions and realize that the quality of the communication process pervades all they are learning. The instructor thus helps them confront their problems directly. The real issues are dealt with.

**Sensitivity Training**

An instructor probably cannot develop very much of this direct confrontation of problems in a large group. It has been found advantageous to divide classes into several "sensitivity groups." In such groups a small number of students, perhaps ten consistent members, meet regularly with a trained leader (the instructor). In these groups the members consider problems of concern to them, but at the same time they consider why they are concerned, the full meaning of being concerned, whether or not they are being sensitive to each other's concerns, and whether or not they are helping each other. The instructor participates as any other member of the group. Because his training has made him more sensitive about hearing and being congruent, he is more aware and concerned about process, and is likely to focus on process, at more depth than other members would without his help. After the sensitivity groups have begun to function effectively, regular full-size class discussions will be more sensitive, too. Discussions will be more directly to the point with less defensive maneuvering disguising the issues. Class sessions will be richer, more varied, more pertinent, more creative. However, if a student is to face his motivations for becoming a teacher and be congruent about how these motives translate into choice and actions, he can do this most satisfyingly in a sensitivity group where he knows he is fully accepted and free to be all of himself.

**Personalized Evaluation**

The instructor is fostering the processes of communication, group planning, choice-making, and sensitivity for a double purpose, of course.
He knows that through these processes his students learn best, and also he wants the students to learn about the processes so they can help their students learn better. It turns out, though, that even with undefensive group discussions and effective sensitivity groups, this double purpose can be complicated and confusing. The group processes will not eliminate the need for the instructor to maintain an individualized, personal relation with each student. The basic task always to be carried forward is that each student make extensive, realistic, fully perceptive evaluations of his experiences. This he must do for himself—no one can do it for him—but the instructor does help. The instructor makes himself available as a listener, a supporter, a questioner, a resource of useful information. Also, in addition, the instructor is available as one who cares that the student deepen his evaluations of experiences to their fullest meanings. He does not leave the process to chance. He communicates to each student individually, personally, sensitively, helpfully about the student’s evaluations.

**Opening Experiences**

Besides maintaining these processes which enable students to derive the most meaning from their experiences, the instructor is responsible for providing experiences, too. We have referred throughout the preceding description to the need students have for continuing, direct experience with learners in schools. The student must be free to choose, to explore, to experiment, to relate, to question, to make mistakes, to change in a school setting. It is important that he be much on his own. The instructor will have to exert much effort and skill to help school people keep the school setting free and open to the evolving teacher. All concerned must have in mind that it is necessary for the student to do, but that he learns by evaluating what he does. It is usually more meaningful to a student, at this level of development, to try again than to keep on trying. This means that the student grows most when he backs off from what he has done, analyzes his efforts thoroughly, is very deliberate about choosing the next steps, perhaps even choosing new goals or entirely new directions, and then pitches in to a new effort. To maintain this kind of flexibility keeps everyone busy arranging new situations for students in the schools. The instructor must participate in enough of this arranging and must observe enough of the student’s efforts to be able to help the student evaluate.

In the college class the instructor expedites much evaluation by conducting demonstrations which highlight certain consequences of teacher-learner interactions. That is, he puts together from all his relations with the students as well as from his observations of them at school and from their questions, some general problems of concern to a large proportion of the class. By many procedures—films, tapes, role playing, buzz sessions, field trips, visits, visitors of all ages, or even an occasional
lecture—he enables the students to look at aspects of certain situations which previously they had not known were part of the data they should be including in their evaluations. Remember, he wants them to learn how to make such demonstrations for their students, too.

Thus the college class and the help provided by the instructor is never separated from what is happening to the students and their motivations to become teachers. The class work is real. But it is always moving ahead of what students know how to do and ahead of what they see happening in schools so that it helps them experience new things to know about and to create new ways the schools could be doing things. The students learn to be problem solving, creating, helping teachers at the same time they are learning what teaching is about, what learners are like, how to communicate, and all the specific skills with which effective teachers provide mentally healthful learning experiences.

The Product of the Process

Much of what we have said, with its pervasive emphasis on maintaining developmental process rather than the dispensing of specific content information or the structuring of what students should be thinking, makes it obvious that courses in which students are learning to be teachers must look quite different from "traditional" college classes. It seems obvious, and, yet, because of the nature of our already developed expectancies, the product of such a teacher education program will probably surprise us. A teacher who is really open, democratic, helping, and autonomous, will probably look and behave differently from anything we have been accustomed to seeing. Their confident independence will be in marked contrast to the normal docile and dependent student we have known. Their spirited defense of a recalcitrant learner as still worth helping may contradict our judgment that he is practically a hopeless case. The non-controlling, non-punitive, seemingly not assertive behavior of such a person may make us itch to get in there and show the teacher how to do the job right. These and many other differences which are unpredictable now, are the result of the fact that these new teachers became different people as a result of our help, and as different people they will not look and behave like students or teachers we have known. Their differences will be disconcerting but will also be the mark of our success and will in time lead to our learning expectations which will be more appropriate.

It is recognized that the ideas suggested in this chapter will have varying appeal and will have a varying affect on different people. Some of the ideas will seem like common sense, others will appear too ideal and still others may strike the reader as outrageous. All of them have some support from research although they could still be wrong. However, even where we are inclined to accept them it should be realized
that most of them are in some conflict with the dominant culture of
today. Most of us did not grow up with these ideas and have learned
alternative or opposing ideas. This presents us with a curious paradox.
If these ideas are of value, then it means that for most of us doing
wrong seems right, and if we try to do right, according to these
concepts, it will feel wrong.

This is true not only for the teachers of teachers, but it will be
ture for the students who come to us. They will have been schooled
by teachers of an earlier generation and may, some of them, have
chosen teaching because they identified with one of these teachers.
This means that the period of teacher education is one of significant
challenges, many of which will be resisted. It means that we will be
preparing teachers to teach in school systems where often the administra-
tors and teachers already on the job will be unfamiliar with such ideas
and will be suspicious and rejecting. Obviously, such a conception of
teacher education cannot be taken lightly or worked at without frustra-
tion and setbacks. It will take courage and patience, but the reward
is the improvement of teachers and of education.
Part Three

Recent Studies in Mental Health and Teacher Education

Chapter V. An Analysis of the Guidance Function in a Graduate Teacher Education Program
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Chapter IX. Teacher Education for Mental Health: A Review of Recent Studies
   ROBERT F. PECK and HERBERT RICHEK
Introduction

Part Three of this yearbook makes a highly important contribution to the study of mental health and teacher education. The four teacher education projects financed by the National Institute of Mental Health are reported here in detail. To date, these are the most extensive studies ever done on mental health and teacher education. While these projects were all concerned with the same general area, they took different approaches and worked from somewhat different theoretical bases, as indicated in their descriptions. However, even with these differences, the findings from all four projects are consistent and present a tremendous new store of evidence and theory for both fields—mental health and teacher education.

The Bank Street College of Education project was concerned with a combined counseling-advising role in developing mental health dimensions in the preservice education of teachers. Also, the use of a consulting psychiatrist in teacher preparation was explored in this project. The study reported here is only a part of a much larger effort at the Bank Street College in the area of mental health and teacher education.

The San Francisco State College project took the form of an exploratory study in teacher education curriculum. Based on the best thinking available in the behavioral sciences, programs in teacher education were organized for the preparation of both elementary and secondary school teachers. These programs stressed experiential learning, problem solving, close interpersonal relations, sensitivity training, and so on. The programs were a complete break with traditional teacher education, and they demonstrated that successful teachers could be prepared by an academic institution using an entirely new approach.

The University of Texas project explored a number of highly promising dimensions in the area of mental health and teacher education including counseling, oral and visual feedback to preservice teachers, and sensitivity training. Probably, for many readers, the part of this report which will prove to be of the most interest is that dealing with a set of developmental tasks for neophyte teachers. A very comprehensive job of providing substantiating evidence in support of the identified developmental tasks has been done.

In the University of Wisconsin project, still another approach was taken. A carefully structured research design was used to study communication behavior in teaching. One of the results of the study is an extensive and concise system of categorizing communication in teaching. While the approach was different, the conclusions and implications presented from the study were consistent and related to those of the other three projects.

The final chapter of Part III presents a review of other recent research in this area. Peck and Richek point out that, aside from the work of Louis Heil at Brooklyn College, the four NIMH projects are the only major research undertakings in the field of mental health and teacher education reported in the literature. This chapter presents an extensive and up-to-date review of other related research in the area.
CHAPTER V

An Analysis of the Guidance Function in a Graduate Teacher Education Program¹

BARBARA BIBER and CHARLOTTE B. WINSOR

Learning is a lifelong process and education is equally without end or limitation. Still, tradition identifies certain aspects of the total educational experience (such as the acquisition of scholarship, skills, and subject matter) with school experience. And contemporary theories of education explicitly extend the teacher's responsibilities to include the modes and meanings of that experience. Education as a school-directed activity is an experience of both definable range and enormous consequence.

Mental Health and the Educative Process

Today it is widely accepted that, to a large degree, the attitudes toward the self—as a learner and as a member of society—that are developed during the school years are lasting and influential. Certainly, a common tenet of modern education theory is that success or failure in early learning experience has an impact on the child's image of himself as a learner and, beyond that, on the way he regards education and educative institutions. Today the child's learning in school is perceived as comprising more than intellectual activity; affective, as well as cognitive, responses are included in the image of the learning process.

In the light of such understanding, the role of schools and teachers may well be found in need of re-examination and perhaps basic reorganization. Previously discrete spheres of school experience—such as psychological climate and subject matter content—may now need to be recognized as interactive and interdependent. As a consequence, schools may be given increased responsibility for providing integrating mechanisms and relationships while the teacher will be seen as the crucial figure who provides stimulation and expects response, who offers support embedded in controls.

Through considerations such as these, many ideas believed to lie within the exclusive province of psychologists and sociologists have

¹The authors wish to express their appreciation to Joan W. Blos for her assistance in the preparation of this chapter.
become matters of interest, concern, and challenge to educators. For example, reality-based feelings of competence are accepted as basic to healthy personality and, to be sure, competence relates to many areas of human experience and many aspects of personal development. White, reconsidering the whole question of motivation, extends the concept of competence to include the many kinds of behavior—exploratory, manipulative, symbolic, cognitive—whereby the child learns to interact effectively with his environment. White argues that these activities are motivated through independent sources of energy and yield "satisfaction, and feeling of efficacy" which in turn stimulates new interest in making an effect on the environment.

In a very definite and specific way, competence is a part of the classroom situation where mastery of skills and mastery of organized knowledge is not only a goal but a requirement. But competence alone is not enough. To become freely operative, competence must be associated with the kind of autonomy that allows independent and individually creative activity. To become functional as the capacity for further learning, the competence-autonomy balance must be experienced in an environment of intellectual inquiry with ample opportunity for the reorganization of experience through expression in a variety of media. The methods and relationships which, in a school setting, are relevant to the cultivation of this kind of competence and the self-feeling associated with it are described in a paper by Biber and Minuchin in which they also examine the contrast between theory and practice in traditional and changing schools.

Implications for Teacher's Role

Such investigations and reinterpretations of the child's educational experience must, and do, have very definite implications for the image of the teacher and the teacher's role. Quite clearly, if the school is to become an environment in which the child can make autonomous, even audacious, use of materials and ideas, then the teacher must also be capable of functioning autonomously and creatively. If, on the one hand, competence for the child requires not only the acquisition of tools for learning, but also, and more profoundly, an induction into knowing and caring about his work; then, on the other hand, competence for the teacher calls for a wide and well-integrated body of content, the

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GRADUATE TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM

skill to present and reinforce it, a highly disciplined and intelligent understanding of children, and an informed opinion of and relatedness to the society in which they live together.

Neither mental health concepts nor educational goals are exempt from the issue of values. Social psychologists such as Marie Jahoda and Brewster Smith have dealt with the relation of values to the conceptualization of criteria for positive mental health for the individual in a way that is pertinent to education.4,5 In a significant comment Smith notes that "everyone responsible for the education of children has an undeniable responsibility for formulating the goals against which the success of his efforts . . . can be measured. . . . It is we ourselves, in terms of our tacit values, who single out one of an infinite set of possible environments for the developing child as optimal."6

In the context provided by this remark, it is appropriate to note that the school, as a social institution, expresses the values of the society which supports it (and which it serves) and contributes to that society through the way in which it prepares and influences the children who will become its citizens. Similarly, teachers, by their very selection and enactment of values, are in a position to influence the future since values, and value systems, are at once the resultant of social forces and conditions as well as the instrument for social change.

Recently, articulate critics of American schools have decried the acceptance, by school systems, of the established criteria for success (e.g., material gain and power status) and the tendency to encourage adaptation to the social structure in its present form. The problem of social change is inherent in these considerations for, it is argued, the only guarantee of constructive change is the development of individuality and creative potential. These are the very forces repressed or inhibited by educational systems which accentuate acceptance of the status quo. Thus reinforcement is given to essentially passive modes of adaptation.7

Goals for the Educatve Process

Accepting the position that education must proceed from a system of values about what is regarded as optimal functioning of the individual

6Ibid., p. 4.
and what is envisaged as the desired direction of the school's influence on society, Biber has offered a series of goals relevant to the educative process in which implicit values are derived from mental health concepts for individual growth and integrated with the precepts of a humanist philosophy. The series comprises:

1. Positive feeling toward the self
2. Realistic perception of self and others
3. Relatedness to people
4. Relatedness to environment
5. Independence
6. Curiosity and creativity
7. Recovery and coping strength

**Teacher Education and Mental Health**

New ways of viewing the learning process and the educational experience of children have already been linked to new images of the teacher's role and new responsibilities for the schools. Now it is necessary to introduce the relationship between a mental health approach to school experience and changing concepts of teacher education. For it is self-evident that if school experience is to offer children opportunities to develop personally as well as academically, then the education of teachers must, in turn, offer them more than pedagogic theory and a repertoire of approved methods. How to train would-be teachers to readiness for the highly complex and demanding role that will be theirs in the classroom is the fundamental problem—and challenge—of institutions dedicated to teacher education and concerned ultimately with the school as a social phenomenon. This chapter is primarily concerned with a program of teacher education which derives from such a nexus of educational principles and goals and attempts their enactment at the graduate level of training.

Of critical importance is the assumption that teaching competence and style is tied not only to the information a teacher gets in training, but also very crucially to the mode in which that teacher experiences and internalizes the information and through which he transmutes it into continuous professional growth. This assumption leads to a model of learning which engages the student teacher in concurrent mastery of theory and responsible apprentice-training; activates feeling as well as thinking; and regards personal maturity as relevant to professional competence.

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9For a fuller description of this series see p. 20.
Accordingly, preparation for teaching at Bank Street College is concerned with self-knowledge as well as knowledge, while learning to be a teacher is seen as a dynamic process of self-realization through which the student is enabled to enact a new vocational role with strength and satisfaction. The knowledgability requisite for the teaching task is held to span a wide spectrum, including systematic information in areas as varied as child development, a “new” mathematics, or the culture of poverty. And it is expected that some content and learning in the student’s background may have to be “unlearned” before the student’s structure of knowledge can become successfully viable at the child’s level of understanding. (For example, the student who learned primarily through memorization during his own school years now needs to experience the productive outcomes of genuine inquiry as a mode of learning. The basic process is the same whether the student is engaged as a member of a graduate seminar or as the teacher-leader of a sixth grade discussion group.)

In addition to these assumptions and attitudes concerning the teacher education process, the program at Bank Street College rests upon a carefully developed and articulated concept of the teacher’s role. This has been rather fully described by Biber, Gilkeson, and Winsor and need not be reviewed here. It is appropriate to note that many of the principles referred to by Biber, et al, have much in common with general principles enunciated by other educators and other contributors to this volume. Rogers, for example, refers to certain elements of class climate which facilitate experiential learning. Clark and Beatty describe the role of a helping teacher and contrast this with a “director of learning.” Taylor summarizes the guiding principles of the San Francisco State College program in terms which are very similar to those describing the Bank Street program. There are, of course, important differences of priority and balance. But, if these are put aside, it is easy to recognize many common elements such as high value on learning through active participation in real problems; faith in the contribution of deepened inter-personal relationships (achieved through support, empathy, acceptance, and genuineness of response) to soundly-motivated learning; and commitment to the fostering of autonomous, creative processes in the pursuit of mastery and competence.

From several sources then—and amply if indirectly supported by the work of others—comes the courage and conviction to define teacher education as the task of moving the student from having learned deeply to readiness (and skill) to teach wisely. This means, in essence, that a program of teacher education must provide a situation in which the

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student can experience a change in his own psychological stance, a shift in position from the role of the student, partly dependent and not fully responsible, to the role of the teacher in which he is the one to nurture, demand, judge, and appreciate. Finally, it may be noted that any teacher's capacity for teaching excellence at the classroom level depends upon the degree to which he has internalized a coherent rationale which regards teaching as an ever-changing process, involving not only a thorough grounding in substantive content and the psychology of learning and growth, but also a constant dynamic of actions, observation, analysis, and new hypotheses for further action. The theoretical basis for this dynamic rests upon a recognition of learning intimately related to the total process of development in child and adult, and the conviction that intellectual mastery cannot be divorced from affective experience if the goal is to facilitate personal and professional competence and satisfaction.

**Teacher Education at Bank Street College**

Admittedly, teacher education is a crucial aspect of the total educational scheme. Proliferation of training programs and radical changes within these programs are commonplace. Demands for a broader base of knowledge and more specific competence in teaching have been reflected in the movement from normal school to college and, in some situations, to graduate level training as prerequisite to eligibility for the beginning teacher. Such standards have still to reach full and universal acceptance, but the development of a program of teacher education at the graduate level was undertaken as early as 1931 by the institution that has since become Bank Street College of Education. Although planned for teachers of young children, the program, even in its pioneering days, required a college degree in liberal arts as a prerequisite to admission and in other basic ways departed radically and significantly from conventional approaches to teacher education.

At present the program comprises a carefully designed sequence of work leading to a Master's degree in education and also an extensive curriculum for inservice training.

Requirements for the graduate degree now include a minimum of one semester of student teaching (For preservice students two semesters of individually planned field experience are typical.) with supervision by a faculty advisor; a sequence of thirty graduate credits in courses, seminars, and workshops, and a thesis, or independent essay, written with the supervision of a member of the faculty.

Although all aspects of the program are regarded as essential, the student's task of active participation in the life of teachers and children in classrooms occupies a position of unquestioned centrality. Here it is that the student has the opportunity to observe the validity—or in-
adequacy—of theories; here it is that he finds his first experience in being a teacher.

To facilitate individual integration of the totality of the training experience, the student group as a whole is divided into sub-groups, none numbering more than twelve students. Each group becomes the principal responsibility of a carefully chosen faculty member, or advisor, whose obligations to his students are threefold. He must (1) visit students in field placements; (2) lead his student group in weekly conferences; and (3) arrange regularly scheduled individual conferences with each student. Only full-time senior members of the faculty serve as advisors. All are also instructors in major courses where the students are met in a somewhat different context.

The Dual Role of the Advisor

The advisor-student relationship is not a conventional student-supervisor relationship; nor is it a client-therapist relationship. It is akin, in certain ways, to both and its dual aspect will be discussed in later sections of this paper. Matching the student to the advisor requires adroit balancing of many factors. On the one hand, there are considerations of the student's maturity and experience, the age level the student is interested in teaching, the level of the student's intellectual capability. On the other hand, the advisor's skills, experience, and special aptitudes for a certain style of student are also to be weighed.

Materials and observations obtained in the course of admission procedures are invaluable here. These procedures were developed jointly by research and teacher education faculty and were intended to serve not only as screening instruments but also as the source of pertinent material through which advisors could know, in some depth, the students accepted by the college at the time of their entry into the program.

It may also be noted that the admission procedures themselves established a style of communication which, for the student, anticipates the nature of the college program and particularly the character of the counseling relation in which he will be involved. A six-page application, which includes requests for the undergraduate transcript and references, is only the first of the admission procedures. If regarded as promising, it is followed by two interviews—the first with the Secretary of Admissions to discuss program and assess the candidate's competence, the second with a member of the advisor faculty who attempts to assess those personality factors which seem indicative of potential success in teaching. In addition, a projective test is administered which indicates the candidate's perception of child, teacher, and parent behavior.11

Finally, the candidate is asked to prepare a personal essay for which a guide is provided. Thus, when a student is admitted to the program, there is ample documentation along several dimensions of academic adequacy, behavior perception, and personal maturity and reasonable certainty that in the short space of a one-year program significant relationships can be developed between the advisor and student.

Following the student's acceptance and assignment to an advisory sub-group, a first responsibility of the advisor is the assignment of each student to a field placement. In the course of many years' work in public and independent schools, the College has developed a variety of resources for student teaching placement. The usual pattern is for each student to have three placements in the course of his training which vary according to social class, teaching style, and child age levels. The classroom teachers with whom the students are placed are chosen only when the College is reasonably assured of their high level of teaching skill and their interest in student teacher training.

Advisors regularly visit their students in these classrooms. Such visits are not restricted to observing a single lesson, but usually follow the class for a morning or a day. The advisor usually becomes familiar with individual children and their problems, the over-all curriculum for the year, and the position of the student teacher in that class.

The conference group, the second major responsibility of the advisor, deals with unstructured content, and here the advisor plays the leadership role as needed to define issues or clarify and enrich content. It is in these two-hour weekly meetings that the student is offered the opportunity to integrate his new experience in the presence of his peers and with the help of the advisor. Students gain a wider prospect of the possibilities and variations of teaching styles as observations and experiences from a variety of field situations are exchanged. At the same time the process provides experience in group thinking and problem-solving, offers a non-threatening arena in which conflicting, subjective feelings may be identified, examined, and coped with. Through the conference group, the advisor-leader of the group has the opportunity to probe assumptions, develop concepts, bring new material and resources to the group and moderate the discussion. Here also the advisor may study the student as a group member and find important content for individual counseling. Perhaps the most significant aspect of the guidance program is the individual counseling of each student. In many ways this is the most intricate, stimulating, productive, and difficult part of the advisor's work. Since student guidance is fully discussed in

12Since the program is approved for certification by the State Education Department of New York, the College takes responsibility for meeting requirements for certification in teaching or guidance at the nursery through elementary school levels.
later sections, it may be sufficient merely to indicate the structure of individual guidance, namely, a bi-weekly one-hour session scheduled for each student at the beginning of the year. Advisors and students may need and plan additional time for conference, but the regular sessions are regarded as minimal and required.

The advisors' keen involvement in the counseling task—and the high degree of interest and stimulation it offers them—is clearly revealed by the advisors' faithful attendance at bi-weekly seminars led by the chairman of the advisement group. These faculty seminars may be devoted to topics as different as an advisor's presentation of a particular student's problem or consideration of the processes and goals of the conference group. Whatever the topic, the goal is the consistent exercise and refreshment of that spirit of inquiry which Bank Street values in its faculty and seeks to instill in its students in order that they, in turn, may support and develop it in their work with children.

Guidance in Teacher Education

The need, place, and rationale for a guidance program is implicit in the principles upon which a dynamically conceived course in teacher education is based and in the practices which it adopts. However, the concrete nature of the guidance program to be incorporated into a particular professional training program requires reflection and experimentation. It is the purpose of this paper to review the development, analysis, and study of the program for guidance at Bank Street College of Education.

From the perspective of the student, the experience of becoming a teacher is one which has the potential for arousing deep feelings and personal responses as well as providing intellectual challenge. How, for example, do the humanist values and psychodynamic view of human interaction fundamental to a teacher education program like the one at Bank Street College fit with the image and ideals for human interaction which the student has previously formulated and which influence what he, as a teacher-to-be, wishes to do and be for children. Assume that, theoretically, the student affirms the basic goal of educating for competence and effectiveness through methods and relationships that build inner strength and autonomy and reinforce a constructive, non-predatory, way of life. What is involved in keeping faith with this goal? Does he see himself as a person capable of doing so? How does he feel about an approach to education in which the lessened distance between teacher and child leaves fewer barriers behind which he, as an adult, can hide? Will the expectation that the teacher be aware of the under-surfaces of behavior—emotion, conflict, aggression—be more frightening than interesting? Will the teaching methods requiring greater tolerance of ambiguity by the teacher and greater leeway for exploration
and discovery by the children be more frustrating than exhilarating? What special order of psychological strength does it take to establish control without depending on "bossism" and will all the giving, explaining, listening, guiding, managing, controlling, and succoring of the children add up to feeling depleted or regenerated?

Some of these questions and reveries, doubts and pleasures, await a professional future still remote. Others, the student must begin to cope with immediately as he moves into a training experience whose many aspects can well disturb established ways of acting, thinking, and believing. For example, it has already been noted that the techniques of teaching to be mastered are radically different from those the student may recall from his own experience of having been taught. The world of children—how they think and feel—moves into central focus, to be understood and lived with, and recalls the meaning and emotions of one's own childhood.

At Bank Street College, from the very beginning of the training period, great value is placed on participation as an assisting teacher in classrooms. This means that the student is in the position of taking an active part before he has learned professional skills or found his stance as a teacher-to-be. He needs all the talent for coping with the unknown that he can muster.

The intermeshing of the various parts of the program involve the student in a great variety of personal relationships. For example, the children often sense and exploit his anomalous position of being simultaneously, and in the same situation, both student and teacher. In the role of student to the cooperating school's supervising teacher, he must, like the children, defer to that teacher's authority. At the same time as a teacher of the children, he is in the position of needing to take the role of authority with them. Often the ways of the teacher with whom he is placed are in apparent contradiction with the goals and methods underlying the philosophy of his professional training. Does he feel his efforts to adapt to the teacher's ways as subservience? What kind of disagreement can he, a novice, express or act out? As in any new and important undertaking, there is the anxiety associated with uncertainty as to one's feeling of "fit" with one's decision as its reality begins to unfold. Anxiety is also aroused by the necessary, but sometimes painful, evaluation of one's skills and aptitudes by those whose experience and authority put them in a position to judge.

The arousal of feeling and the stimulation of self-inquiry coincident with accepting this model of professional training could become overwhelming and have a disorganizing effect if left unchanneled. Alternatively, it can become valuable experiential material through which the student grasps the basic meaning of the interplay between cognitive and affective functions in the learning process for himself in the
context of learning-to-be-a-teacher and, by extension, for the children he will one day teach. For this reason, the Bank Street College program has, almost from its inception, made individual guidance an integral part of the total professional training experience.

Bank Street College Program

With the growth of the total program, guidance practices at Bank Street College matured gradually. A salient feature of the method which emerged was an ongoing student-advisor relationship in which constant interaction between supervisory and counseling functions allowed the integration necessary to the achievement of its several goals. For the purposes of the present discussion, however, the two functions are considered separately and in sequence. Stated briefly they are:

Supervision. Supervision of student teaching begins with the advisor's observation of the student in the classroom situation and proceeds through the subsequent review of the perplexities and pleasures, conquests and defeats that occur there. Through the very questions chosen for consideration, the mode of critique, and the practical suggestions offered, the supervising advisor simultaneously influences the growth of the student's proficiency in the classroom and the integration of a conceptual system concerning the role of the teacher with children. In this aspect of his role, the advisor appears first of all as an experienced professional—well acquainted with the detail of classroom life and in a position to function as an invaluable source of practical advice and assistance. This same expertise contributes significantly to his authority role and adds to his qualifications for an evaluating function with respect to the student's performance. Finally, it is a matter of no small importance that the student, as he becomes aware of the kind and degree of learning accomplished through his work and relationship with his advisor, also begins to appreciate and understand (in terms of his own experience) what is meant by those who say that teaching is truly a task of great complexity and subtlety and who insist that it must be guided by concepts of mental health as well as laws of learning—that it must aim to foster ego-strength as well as cognitive power.

For some students acceptance of this view of teaching requires a basic reorganization of former concepts of the profession they intend to enter. For others, it is a matter of clarifying, reinforcing, and elaborating existing views and ideals. As is to be expected, the values inherent in the image of teaching presented by the training institution will be accepted and incorporated to different degrees by different students. It is crucial, therefore, that the concept of the idealized teacher's role be kept flexible and sufficiently open-ended to accommodate and approve varied styles of good teaching, individual differences in atti-
tudes, central interests, imaginativeness, preferred styles of interaction, and needs for autonomy in the process of synthesizing a personal-professional role.

Counseling. The second key aspect of the guidance program is counseling. It is primarily concerned with helping the student to make the necessary synthesis of the teacher's role. It is a requisite part of a program which regards learning to be a teacher as a complex process entailing a fusion of personal affective experience with intellectual mastery. It demands that the advisor understand the feeling and response patterns of the student as these are expressed in his reaction to the various aspects of the training experience. It moves toward helping the student to achieve a more differentiated, realistic self-knowledge of his growth toward becoming a teacher. With the advisor's help in diminishing the depleting effects of illusory self-concepts and irrelevant destructive displacements, the student is brought to a maximum use of the program as an opportunity for growth and learning.

The guidance program is a means for helping the student coordinate and cross-reference potentially disparate aspects of the training program. The ideas and ideals about children and teaching that are presented systematically and theoretically in instructional courses appear and reappear in the work with the advisor as questions which originate in the student's work with children in the classroom are discussed and examined. Similarly, in the analysis of concrete elements of student-teaching experiences and the consideration of alternate ways of carrying out the teaching functions, the student is engaged, on a down-to-earth problem-solving level, in thinking through the implications of what otherwise might remain a remote and amorphous philosophy of education.

Another important outcome of the integration of supervisory and counseling functions in this design for guidance is that it offers an unusual opportunity to connect different psychological planes that have relevance to the process of learning and understanding. There is a kind of "third person" thinking, analytical and conceptual, through which, for example, a student gains cognizance of the multiple factors which condition children's learning. By this mode, the student is led to reconsider the apparent validity of theoretical formulations by testing out how well they fit and illuminate his own direct observations of children in the school setting. There is also a "first person" kind of thinking, subjective, partly intuitional, through which insight into the same complex problems of understanding the multiple forces that condition learning can be advanced. Counseling that brings about self-understanding of the many factors which condition the particular course of learning that he, an individual, traces in becoming a teacher facilitates emphatic sensitivity to the learning experience of children.

In summary, then, the guidance program proves uniquely adapted to providing situations in which understanding, on a subjective level,
can be interwoven with objective analysis. In individual terms, its benefits are in proportion to the extent to which the student experiences a new way of learning, a new way of being received as a learner, and is able to internalize these modes as part of his developing image of the teacher's role.

The Task of the Advisor

It is significant, and typical, that, over the years and despite their increasing skill and experience, the faculty members chosen for the role of advisor were not satisfied that their knowledge of the psychology of human behavior and their background as psychologically-oriented educators prepared them adequately for their task and especially for the counseling aspect of the work. Increasingly, in fact, they became aware of areas of uncertainty and wished to probe further into theory, wished to evaluate and refine their own technique. For a period of two years, a consultant psychiatrist (with special interest in education and in the contribution that clinical specialists can make to members of the human relations professions) led the advisors in bi-weekly seminar sessions. Through this work the advisors advanced their professional skill and, as a staff, became clearer as to the central issues and dilemmas of their relatively complex task.

These sessions with the psychiatric consultant had two major outcomes. The first was the formal drawing up of a series of principles to serve as guidelines for the supervisory and counseling aspects of the guidance function. These principles were at the operational level and closely resembled a job analysis of the advisor's task. The guidelines which follow represented agreement in principle by the staff as a whole, although it was clear that there were substantial differences among the advisors as to how these ideas could be implemented and were being enacted.

1. The primary material for the guidance work should be the educational experience of the student; the purpose is to focus on analysis of observation and participation with children in the classroom, but to encompass, also, the student's position and performance as a student in a professional preparation program on a graduate level:
   a. The review and analysis should serve to concretize the role of the teacher, to bridge theory and application.
   b. The work should contribute to increasingly differentiated observation by the student of children, of teaching practices, and of the student's own response to the teaching responsibilities and opportunities presented.

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1St Viola W. Bernard, M.D., Clinical Professor of Psychiatry; Director, Division of Community Psychiatry, Columbia University.
c. The advisor should help the student become increasingly clear about the multiple criteria for evaluating all teaching performance by which, ultimately, his own competence to begin to teach will be judged.

d. The advisor should have had considerable experience in teaching children and thus be a resource to the student for searching out teaching materials and pre-planning learning experiences, as well as bringing a practiced eye to the analysis of observation of children and teaching practice.

e. The opportunity for active participation in classroom life should be paralleled by inviting and expecting the student's participation in all the lines of inquiry explored in the advising sessions; evaluation, for example, should become a process of continuous, mutual thinking.

f. The supervisory function of the advisor should be as pure an example as possible of non-didactic teaching.

2. The main task of the guidance work should be to deepen the student's understanding of the interdependence of cognitive and affective factors in learning, and to lead him to use self-knowledge in developing an individual style within the context of a given philosophy of education. The nature of the relationship between the student and the advisor is the major factor in facilitating this process:

a. The relationship should be built around a common interest in all aspects of teaching, and, more particularly, in the development of the individual student as a teacher; this should communicate to the student the advisor's genuine interest in him as a person who is undertaking a complex life task.

b. The interaction between advisor and student should be as free as possible of status barriers or forms of authoritarianism, while the actual authority, vested in superior experience and skill, should be accepted by both.

c. A measure of trust and confidence in the advisor needs to be established that will make it possible for the student to expose negative aspects of his training experience—confusion, conflicts, frustration—with the expectation that some resolution, rather than a lesser estimate of his ability, will ensue. This requires a general relaxation of anxiety which can be accomplished in part by a quality of friendly informality, but, more importantly, by the advisor's skill in elucidating the elements of the problem and offering new and useful ways of perceiving them.

d. The relationship needs to be sufficiently dynamic to make it likely that the student will internalize into his own pat-
terns of behavior and interaction those new insights which have been derived through analysis of the material, both personal and professional, which has been brought to the guidance sessions.

e. The counseling function requires that the advisor be qualified to understand the dynamic processes underlying the adaptive and maladaptive patterns in the student's functioning and requires, further, that the adviser be in control of the relationship between him and the student suited to the conditions of a counseling process which is integrated with supervisory functions and is part of a professional training program.

The second outcome of the advisor's sessions with the consulting psychiatrist was a plan for coordinating a study of the action-research type with the ongoing work of the advisors and consultant. This would seek not only to differentiate problems and analyze technique but also to formulate general principles that could provide a conceptual framework for the guidance approach. The study which, in fact, developed out of the work of these meetings treats the guidance program as (1) a methodological variant of counseling procedures and (2) an aspect of the teacher education program through which the experience of becoming a teacher is made individual and personally meaningful.

**Study of the Guidance Function**

The Preservice Teacher Guidance Study which, as has been shown, was a direct response to the needs and interests of the advisors was related in other meaningful ways to programs and practices of the college as a whole. To some extent this was determined by the structure of the college, the interrelated operations of its diverse divisions, and the multiple roles and assignments of key faculty members. More important, perhaps, is the integrative influence of common concern with understanding and enactment of a mental health approach to education and teacher education. This has historic as well as theoretical roots. Bank Street College was, after all, founded as a bureau committed to field study in child development and education, and now as then, research and practice are seen as mutually stimulating and reciprocally demanding. Thus, the study to which the remainder of this chapter is devoted expresses the relation between the need of the Teacher Education Division for clarification of certain issues and the capacity and interest of the Research Division for studying relevant problems. In a similar way other programs operated by the College or functioning under its auspices have—and do—provide other kinds of research opportunities. They are viewed not only in terms of their direct contribution but also as testing locales and sources for research problems to be investigated.
For example, three independent children's schools are a part of the total college program. They serve as strategic demonstrations of an experimental approach to curriculum development, school organization, and teacher training. At the same time, because these schools serve different social-cultural groups, experimental adaptation of the program to the needs of these different groups offers a constant check on educational philosophy, a constant challenge and opportunity to the psychologists and social scientists of the Research Division.\footnote{These three schools have the status of laboratory schools for the College. In the remaining pages they will not be distinguished from the other schools which serve as cooperating schools with the College in the teacher preparation program.}

Within the public school system, Bank Street's field service program affords further test of the validity of experimental outcomes and examination of these programs, involving the close cooperation of research and field services' staff and has led to research in the area of change process.

Two grants from the National Institute of Mental Health made possible a large and complex program of studies on the relation of schooling to personality development and mental health.\footnote{The study of the Psychological Impact of School Experience was supported under Grant No. M-1075; the Schools and Mental Health Program was supported under Grant No. MH-9135.} They represent the interests of both teacher education and research faculty in the processes and problems of psycho-dynamically oriented education and resulted in two major groups of studies. In one group were studies of children in school; the other group of studies dealt with teachers in school.

\textbf{Research Program}

Within the limits of this paper, only the briefest summary of the total program can be given. Still, it is important to do so because the study with which the present paper is primarily concerned belongs to the total sequence and the necessary frame of reference can only be derived from an appreciation, however fragmentary, of the range and orientation of the program of research as a whole.

There were three major studies of children in school:

1. \textit{The Psychological Impact of School Experience} tests the assumption that the quality of schooling affects the psychological growth of children. Four schools, representing a continuum from modern to traditional, were selected. Children at the fourth grade level were intensively studied, both individually and in groups.\footnote{Patricia Minuchin, Barbara Biber, Edna Shapiro, and Herbert Zimiles, \textit{The Psychological Impact of School Experience}. New York: Basic Books, Inc. (In preparation.)}
2. The Classroom Processes Study compares the teaching-learning syndrome in second and fifth grades in four schools representing different ethnic-social-cultural environments.\(^{17}\)

3. The School Entry Study deals with the initiation of the child into school life in the kindergarten year, and examines the dynamic processes involved for the family and child at a time of crucial change in family and child life.

In addition, there were studies related to such problems as teacher selection, teaching initiation, and preservice guidance. Thus:

1. The Teacher Personality Study investigates the relationship between student teachers' performance on a battery of personality tests and their subsequent competence in the classroom along carefully defined dimensions.\(^{18}\)

2. The Teacher Initiation Study studies a program in which a variety of field experience in teacher education was offered. The purpose was to find out whether the continuing supervision of the teacher by the training institution in the first teaching placement is productive of a higher level of teacher competence.\(^{19}\)

3. Educational Change-Process in a Field Project examines the movement of teacher-attitude and practice coincident with an inservice program combining individual consultation and group seminars.\(^{20}\)

The fourth study in this complex of studies was largely motivated and defined by questions and problems arising in the advisors' meetings described previously. Appropriately titled The Preservice Teacher Guidance Study, it develops a design for a process study of the Bank Street College of Education guidance program.\(^{21}\) It is a critical analysis of the guidance process when the advisor is simultaneously supervisor and counselor, and it is to this study that the present paper directs major attention.

\(^{17}\)Eleanor Leacock, Learning and Teaching in City Schools. New York: Basic Books, Inc. (In preparation.)


\(^{21}\)Initial support for this project was provided by the Field Foundation, New York City.
Purposes of Guidance Study

There were two phases in the study of the preservice guidance program and several years intervened between the parts of the study. The first phase, of the action-research type, was carried through by the advising staff and the consulting psychiatrist. In the second phase, a clinical psychologist undertook an analysis of the accumulated study records.

The study, as a whole and from its inception, was expected to serve two purposes and was planned accordingly. First, the advisor faculty wanted to become more skillful in the way they perceived the meaning of the student's personal responses to the training experience. They also wanted greater confidence for themselves as non-clinical specialists in education who were, nevertheless, concerned with psychological themes such as the relationships, motives, and conflicts underlying behavior and reaction patterns. Further, the advisors were interested in finding out, by extending and deepening their work with the consultant psychiatrist, how understanding an individual student on this level might lead to greater differentiation of guidance techniques.

The study's second and more general aim was clarification of the issues involved in delineating the appropriate scope and limits of a counseling function which helps to prepare the student for a profession in which human relations are a crucial component, at the same time that the initiation and termination of counseling are pre-determined by the established procedures and conventional calendar of an academic training program. These issues, of course, are relevant to training programs in other human relations professions. Bernard states:

In many fundamental respects the . . . guidance component of the Bank Street College curriculum resembles . . . (the training of psychotherapists) although of course the differing functions, goals, techniques and conditions of education and psychotherapy require many distinctive adaptations. However, similarities obtain in the one-to-one relationship between advisor and student-teacher, the fusion of intellectual and emotional learning to which it is directed, and its double focus on the student's job-aroused subjectivity and the objective aspects of her acquisition of knowledge and professional growth. The supervision process in psychiatric social work also offers comparable parallels.22

Within the context of the teacher preparation situation many questions called for inquiry, e.g., to what extent is it necessary for the advisor to be acquainted with the basic features of the student's personal life? Is the admission autobiography an important and appropriate source?

of information? How receptive and how probing should the advisor be in regard to the personal material that comes into the counseling sessions in connection with the mutual search for understanding the student's teaching performance?

But the question of the nature and depth of the relationship between advisor and student perhaps was, and is, the most complex one of all. Throughout the advisors had both theoretical and practical interests in analyzing how psycho-educational counseling (to give a label to the method being described) is both distinct from and overlaps with psychotherapy.

As was true also of others involved in the study, the advisors were well aware that the line between a relationship "sufficiently dynamic to make it likely that the student will internalize new insights" and the kind of relationship that is appropriate only to therapy of personal life problems is not easily drawn. Thus, in addition to the primary purposes for undertaking the study, there were certain subsidiary problems which had arisen and which the advisors wished to submit to the collective examination of their own group and the consultant. Singled out for special attention were issues such as dealing with problems of confidentiality and communication in the triadic relation between student, advisor, and the supervising teacher; helping the student to understand which needs can be met through the work with the advisor (and which cannot); discussing the need for intensive therapy and taking the appropriate steps for referring the student.

Study Procedures

The conduct of the study in its first phase depended on the capacity and readiness of the advisors to take on research tasks in conjunction with other ongoing responsibilities. These, as detailed previously, included reviewing admission material, observing the student in his placement, continuous collation of information on the student's work in the total program, individual counseling sessions, seminars with advisees as a group, selection and decision of appropriate practice teaching placements, continuous evaluation, seminars with the advisor group, acting as liaison between the student and his supervising teacher, and, finally, recommendation for qualification for beginning teaching.

For the duration of the study reduction of student-advisement loads enabled the advisors to continue to carry out these functions while undertaking a systematic plan for recording their various activities.

Since the focus of the study was the analysis of process and not the measurement of effects, those records constituted essential data for concurrent and subsequent analysis. After a preliminary period of experi-

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23See pp. 94-95.
mentation, it was agreed that records should be made after, not during, sessions in order to avoid interference with the student-advisor interchange. Also, it was determined that the records were to be narrative in style. Carefully structured guidelines were developed to aid the organization of the content of the sessions and to provide a common frame of reference. In final form the guide specified the inclusion of:

1. How the content of the conference is shaped, meaning what the student initiates, the questions that are raised for consideration by the advisor, how the problems or dilemmas or demands are met when brought in by the student.

2. The quality of rapport, the relative ease of communication, what seems to be the basis for rapport, the shifts in rapport, the momentum of the development of rapport, the degree of receptivity or competition or dependence that comes from the student, the points of blocking and difficulty and lack of progress, interferences such as note-taking by the advisor during the interview.

3. The level at which the advising relation is working: intellectual level and approach, degree of expressed feeling, the student's background as a factor in determining the level that the advisor considers suitable.

4. Ways in which the advisor is leading the student to seeing the connections between reaction to children, to program, to classroom atmospheres and student's own personal patterns of feeling and action as established through family, school, peer, authority experience.

5. How advisor makes use of insights, concerning this previous point, that have been gained from the seminar discussions generally, or the seminar discussions of particular students.

6. Ways of using knowledge that the advisor has from indirect sources, such as teachers' reports, conferences with teachers, autobiography, course instructors, and others.

7. Timing factors, such as decisions to pursue or terminate particular content that arises, or judging the readiness of the student to deal with certain problems and ideas in a given conference, or rescheduling of the plan of interviews for special reasons.

8. What the advisor considers important and possible in the student's growth in becoming a teacher, step by step, in the course of the year and in the long run, considering the total training period.

9. What the student's concept of the advisor's role is, judged from what use he makes of the counseling relation.

Since keeping complete records was not possible, for lack of time, it was agreed that parts of the material were to be treated in summary form while the material tentatively judged likely to be significant would
be recorded fully. Finally, it was decided that the records were to include the advisor's impressions and interpretations, either as a supplement to the records or as part of the narrative record, depending on the advisor's preference.

This approach to recording intentionally allowed a fairly free thinking-over of what had transpired. The task of recording was a much greater burden to some advisors than to others, for there were differences in style, completeness, and ability to fulfill the recording responsibility. Basic differences in counseling mode were also, in some cases, reflected in the records.

The advisor's meetings with the consultant psychiatrist constituted the basic work sessions of the study. At these sessions, the advisors made organized, successive presentations of the individual students who had been selected for the study. The presentations were based on the advisor's own records and on the reports of student work from course instructors and supervising teachers. They included factual material and attempted tentative thematic analyses of the student's response systems. The advisor presented for discussion the specific problems or uncertainties encountered in working with the student. The analysis of the material by the consultant psychiatrist led to a rationale for the direction future work should take.

It was mostly through the work of these seminars and in the subsequent opportunity to review in detail (All seminars were machine recorded and transcribed.) what had taken place that the goals of the study were realized. From their own analysis of the material on individual students and from further group discussion of that material, the advisors refined their counseling skill and clarified their counseling procedures. At the same time, the consultant psychiatrist raised the material presented to a more general, more theoretical, level. This allowed tentative formulation of the guidance principles that are discussed in the following section of this chapter.

**Principles Developed**

Two principles emerged from the study of the guidance process. First, by utilizing psychodynamic concepts of human behavior, it is possible to arrive at certain criteria as to the appropriate level and boundary of counseling in an educational milieu. Second, the fusion of the search for general insight into the learning process with concrete planning for the student's teaching role in a real classroom constitutes a model for the substance and process of guidance in an educational setting.

**Use of Psychodynamic Concepts**

A great amount of information accumulates about each student. Some of it is factual, some impressionistic, some evaluative, and some
introspective. It comes to the advisor from the advisee himself and from others having varying relations with and expectations of the student. Its value is in proportion to the extent that common meanings can be discerned from the mass of seemingly unrelated detail and across seemingly unrelated aspects of experience. The use of psychodynamic concepts in understanding of personality functioning is essential to this task. When clinical consultation is also available, a more penetrating grasp of the dynamic processes is possible.

The province of a guidance program which seeks to bring learning to a maximum by clearing its path of obstacles is bounded by the recognition that such guidance is not directed toward all the domains of personality. Nevertheless, it is a fact that any individual projects into a training situation the basic modes of feeling and response which he carries into any life situation. The training situation, therefore, must be perceived and dealt with also as a piece of the life situation.

An earlier statement that the primary material of guidance is educational should not be taken too literally. A psychodynamic approach includes understanding of and work on students' misperceptions, due either to a restricted vision of education or irrelevant projection and displacement from other life experiences. This brings into the province of guidance not only the educational material per se but the penumbra of unrealistic attitudes which may hinder learning and professional growth. The goal is always to close the circle, or rather the many circles, from a very concrete problem originating in the course of training through analysis of its analogous counterparts in other contexts, and back to a changed perception or new way of acting on the original problem.

Within the context of the educational material, explorations which try to get at the meaning of some current student experience may proceed horizontally, drawing into a single context material from other concurrent experiences, such as ways of utilizing opportunity, taking on responsibility, relating to children and adults, or some residue of feeling common to all these. It may also proceed longitudinally by calling into consideration actual events, aspects of past experience or established patterns of response.

At one level, this exploration takes place in the advisor's mind, as he constructs progressive hypothetical formulations about the basic mechanisms, motivational systems, or conflicts affecting the student's growth. For this kind of activity, the admission file, reports on student performance, and so on, often provide extremely useful material to complement what the student himself contributes in the counseling sessions. At another level, this exploration is undertaken together with the student. How far this should go is a decision that must take into account many factors. Is the student, by general personality make-up or by current psychological condition, receptive to this search for beneath-the-
surface meanings? What combination of circumstances provides the propitious moment for leading the student to greater self-awareness? What juxtaposition of events and feelings should be placed before the student so that self-enlightenment is facilitated? These are decisions requiring understanding of a psychodynamic field; they also benefit from access to clinical consultation.

Apart from the necessity to keep the procedure flexible because of the individual factors in each case, there is a clear limit to the pursuit of basic mechanisms or conflicts. Bernard provides an excellent definition of both scope and limits:

We recognize that many personal strengths and assets for teaching, as well as problems, stem from an individual's unconscious, and the full uncovering of it is certainly neither a desirable nor feasible aim of the guidance program. To the extent that below-surface conflicts, with their attendant anxiety and defenses, hamper a student teacher's learning and teaching performance, however, expansion of self-awareness proves helpful, to both the teacher and her pupils.24

It is important to note that this principle in no way replaces or supercedes the guidelines for the guidance work formulated earlier. Both statements rest on the basic qualities of the counseling relationship—trust, empathy, mutuality of interest. What has been added is clarity and definition for certain aspects of the advisor's role which had been too generally conceived to give the advisors the needed professional security and confidence. Thus, the initial statement that "the counseling function requires that the advisor be qualified to understand the dynamic process underlying the adaptive and maladaptive patterns in the student's functioning" could now be conceptualized as the need to perceive and understand the thematic constancies and dissonances of personality functioning. Significantly, the advisors were assured that this did not entail a more clinically-oriented search for the hidden origins of personality formation. Similarly, the concept that "the advisor must be in control of the relationship...suited to the conditions of a counseling process which is integrated with supervisory functions as part of a professional training program"25 gained working reality in Dr. Bernard's distinction between the expansion of self-awareness and uncovering of the unconscious at deep levels. This was important for the maintenance of the teacher-supervisor role of the advisor, as well as for the protection of the student who could suffer if levels of self-analysis more deep than those that could be brought to resolution by the pre-determined end of the professional training period had been aroused.

25See p. 95.
In some ways this calls to mind Tyler's concept of minimum change therapy in which she calls for more emphasis on the diagnosis and utilization of the strengths of the individual than is customary in the therapeutic approach. The goal of counseling is, from this view, a change of direction for the individual, "The discovery of some unblocked path in which he could move forward . . . even though there are many emotional complexes still unexplored, many interpersonal problems still unresolved." Extrapolated into the teacher training situation, this means not so much a change of direction as unimpeded movement in the direction of a professional role with full use of those personality assets and strengths which are particularly advantageous for the teaching role. Perhaps a certain stress should be placed on the phrase "movement in the direction of" to indicate how much the guidance work is a beginning, a foundation, and an orientation for the course of professional maturing to come.

**Fusion of Insight and Implementation**

Because the advisor is supervisor as well as counselor, his visits to the classroom give him and the advisee direct, common knowledge of the situation in which he works. By making use of this common experience, the advisor can add new dimensions to the student's range of sensitivity, can offer possible explanations for the student's difficulty with an individual child or point out the practical conditions that illuminate some part of the teacher's behavior which may seem unjustified to the student. Questions raised by the advisor, which can perhaps only be answered by further observation of particular children or specific parts of the curriculum can channel the student's interests and energies to a more differentiated, objective purview of the total situation. Too, the advisor can help him to become aware of psycho-social processes as well as cognitive interchange. As the student develops the capacity to maintain an objective perspective, as free as possible from the distortions which may result from preoccupation with his personal role, he becomes more adept at identifying with the totality of the educational process. At the same time, and often as a consequence, he arrives at a more balanced, objective view of his own position and function. The advisor's first-hand knowledge of the student's classroom situation, added to his general experience as an educator, is useful here because it makes the student's efforts to communicate what he sees, thinks, and feels much easier and encourages him to offer the content of his experience and introspection about it for objective review, critique or help.

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The advisor is in a position to establish continuity between the student's gains in knowledge and insight and the action which is taken in consequence. There are many ways in which this can be done. For example, if a student has become paralyzed because he fears the possibility of unwitting re-enactment of the harsh controls to which he, as a child, was subjected, the advisor can suggest alternative ways for him to carry, and exert, authority. Or, to a student who has become aware that his own feelings about underprivileged children inhibit his initiative in keeping his class interested in learning, the advisor can—and does—suggest the reading material and program activities most likely to work in with what the children are genuinely motivated to learn.

The advisor's own understanding of the mechanisms which determine a particular student's request for or acceptance of assistance, and his experience with the student's use—or rejection—of such assistance govern many of the decisions that he must make in the course of advisement. When, for example, he feels that a student needs help in translating understanding of children's psychic processes into teaching practice, he must make an extremely delicate decision about the kind, content, and amount of assistance to offer—and this decision must, of necessity, rest on his own assessment of the student's dependency needs or readiness for autonomous functioning as a teacher.

The advisor is a resource for the student in facilitating integration of the various levels and dimensions of learning involved in this program. The work with the advisor can serve to bridge the gap between the theoretical constructs of child development and the real behavior of children in school; it can help the student in the intra- and interpersonal adaptations he must make when moving from one supervising teacher to another who may have a sharply contrasting teaching style. The advisor can help the student meet the expectation of the training curriculum that he will not only master abstract theories but will be able to integrate these concepts with the material of his own observation and experience. In a more general and not easily defined sense, the advisor plays a large role in helping the student blend intuitional strength with acquired knowledge and thus develop a confident, natural stance as a teacher of children.

To support this integrating process, the advisor also acts administratively in ways that affect the total milieu of the student's training. He takes an active part in the selection of student teaching placements, he may suggest modifications of course requirements, he may arrange for experience in special fields of interest. The student's preferences and wishes, weighed with the advisor's judgment of his professional needs, are met where possible in the interest of fostering the student's autonomy, but are bounded by the reality of the given situation.
Advisement as a technique for fusing the search for insight with implementation in practice has another meaning from the viewpoint of communication. This arises from a relationship in which advisor and advisee are not restricted to verbal interchange in an interview situation. The student, for example, has seen the advisor’s way of being an observer in the same classroom, and, at the same time, the advisor has seen the student in action with children. The words they use in reviewing the behavior reality of that situation have definite experiential referents and thus are more likely to facilitate communication of meaning. Perhaps even more important is the extension of communication that can be presumed between two people who know each other as individuals even when no words were spoken at all.

Belenky has recently made a cogent plea for counteracting the tradition in counseling which leads to almost exclusive reliance on “imparting insightful verbalizations” by advocating that there be added to the verbal mode planned behavioral or intellectual action situations to be analyzed, interpreted, and reestablished for greater behavioral effectiveness.27

Interest in Further Study

However productive these formulations regarding the use of psychodynamic concepts and the fusion of insight and implementation, it was felt that the material had not been probed to the fullest possible extent. The work had been focused on refining and analyzing the rationale and techniques of a guidance method. There still remained the task of probing for the processes that would, presumably, account for learning and change and would also take into account the views expressed by others concerned with guidance in relation to teacher education. Thus, with the conclusion of the action study, certain important questions came into the foreground. These were reserved for study and investigation at a later date when, it was hoped, further analysis of the problems and the material at hand might be made to yield additional insights and new levels of understanding.

Second Phase of Guidance Study

The second phase of the study of the guidance program was undertaken a few years after the conclusion of the first. There, it will be recalled, the advisor’s role had been explored and clarified, and the basic principles of the existing guidance method had been formulated.

Now, the aim was to pursue the analysis of the advisor-advisee relationship and to inspect the dynamic processes presumed to be essential

to the fulfillment of the guidance goals. This analysis was undertaken (in collaboration with the senior author) by a clinical psychologist who was interested in teacher education and counseling methods and had had no previous part in the development or study of this particular program.28 An intensive analysis was made of a selected number of advisors' records of individual students and of the minutes of the seminars with the consultant psychiatrist. This analysis included making inventories of the problems dealt with in counseling, abstracting the processes inherent in the counseling relation and working up a series of case studies which integrated the advisors' complete records of an individual student with the presentation and discussion of the student in the seminar with the consultant.

Psycho-Educational Counseling and Psychotherapy

How guidance, as a psycho-educational counseling method, overlaps with psychotherapy was a question pursued with special interest at this stage of inquiry into essential issues. The inventories of problems dealt with in the counseling sessions were examined and were found to range across all areas of the training experience. The following are illustrations:

There was difficulty in completing assignments. One student, for example, found it difficult to complete her assignment because she could not confine her interpretation of the scope of the task to the prescribed time limits; another was disturbed about not being completely understood through the written word.

There was anxiety about how properly to exercise authority as a teacher. One student was worried about dominating the children excessively, thereby losing their affection; another was skeptical of indirect control methods since she saw them as disguised forms of manipulation.

There was distress over finding oneself less knowledgeable than the children in some areas and with the attendant fear of losing status in their eyes.

There was the problem of being treated as a menial aid by the supervising teacher rather than as an advanced student with a right to direction and supervision.

There was the problem of feeling personally and professionally critical of the supervising teacher, when at one and the same time the student was being criticized by her but had, nonetheless, to try to continue to find ways of carving out a productive and satisfying student teacher role.

There was the problem of feeling isolated from or rejected by other students who appeared to be building up solid bonds of common understanding and purpose.

28Samuel Moskowitz, lecturer (part-time), Hunter College, Department of Teacher Education. Much of the material in this section draws on a report, "Counseling the Student Teacher," by S. Moskowitz. (Unpublished).
There was the question of whether teaching was the right career choice or, more particularly, whether one was best suited to teach younger or older children; children who came from sheltered, protected families or those whose lives place major reparative responsibility on their teachers.

It becomes fairly obvious that these problems per se are not special to counseling as distinct from therapy once they are perceived beneath their manifest content as basic problems in interpersonal relationships, productivity, self-attitude, or vocational choice. This demonstrates, in one way, where counseling and therapy overlap. It is, in fact, another way of reiterating an earlier statement that learning to teach must be looked at as a piece of a total life situation. It does not, however, imply that counseling and therapy are identical. Important distinctions appear when methods are examined in detail.

A further step, therefore, in the analysis of the study material was to examine and compare the methods used by the advisors with those customarily considered suitable for use by therapists. Because of the advisor's dual role, the interaction between advisor and student included a wide variety of relationship procedures. Encouragement, support, approval, disapproval, direct advice, suggesting alternative paths to a goal, appear among others. From the analysis of one of the case studies, it could be seen that the advisor took different roles in the course of the year's work with the student. Among these appeared a supportive role (when the advisor promised help or gave his assurance and approval of the student's work), an evaluating role (when he asked to see some stories the student had written for his children to read), and a directing role (when he persuaded the student to take part in a workshop in which he had expressed no interest). The use of confrontation and interpretation techniques also appeared in the case of this student when the advisor pointed out discrepancies between the actual demands made of him by the program and his exaggeration of these demands by projecting his own higher standards for achievement.

Other instances of confrontation and interpretation, which appear in other case studies, were therapeutic in character. They have a place, for example, in the classification made in a study of group therapy techniques which included acceptance, universalization, intellectualization, and transference, among others. The use of these techniques in guidance counseling involves problems of choice, timing, and ethics just as it does in psychotherapy conducted in a clinical situation.

Here again, however, as in the examination of the kinds of problems reviewed above, common elements do not constitute identical methods. The recognition that certain fundamental therapeutic techniques do not

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appear in these counseling records is important. Thus, the transference phenomenon is not dealt with directly; childhood recall is elicited only to a limited degree; and the techniques for bringing unconscious forces to consciousness are absent. The fact that many therapeutic techniques are compatible with educational counseling goals is recognized; however, the absence of these last-named phenomena is one way, among others, of specifying the boundaries of the work undertaken in an educational counseling program. In a broader sense, these boundaries represent adaptation to the central characteristic of this program, namely, that the relationship between advisor and student is conceived and developed as one of the means for achieving competence, not psychological healing. Bernard has dealt with this issue and taken the position that "attempts . . . to define psychotherapy exclusively according to method or goal (the 'how' and 'why' types of definition) are . . . too limited. . . ." Instead she conceives of a therapeutic relationship as "a mutually agreed upon, deliberate and purposeful transaction . . . entailing processes which vary in each instance according to permutations of multiple factors and dimensions."30

To attempt to define counseling method in terms of techniques would be ill-advised, from the perspective of Rogers' theory of counseling.31 In his system the essential ingredients of the counseling process are not the techniques but rather are contained in the quality of the relationship established—the genuineness, the empathic understanding, and "unconditional positive regard" for the client. In his view, techniques have importance only to the extent that they serve as channels for fulfilling these essential conditions of the relationship, and there is no certainty that any technique will necessarily serve his therapeutic end. Rogers believes that technique per se may be used in such a way as to injure the attitudinal elements and so inhibit a growth-producing outcome.

There is no problem in agreeing with Rogers' emphasis on the centrality of the quality of the relationship. His essential elements are altogether compatible with the elements of the guidance relationship which, earlier, were defined as basic to the method that was the subject of this study. But, in contrast to Rogers' view, in this method the techniques are regarded as essential tools of learning and are the means for bringing about new perspectives—sometimes enlarged, sometimes altered—extending the breadth and depth of awareness in cognitive terms as well as generating a true communicative interaction between two people, advisor and advisee.


Modification of Counseling

The analysis of the materials also made it possible to document a change in the nature of counseling that had taken place during the period of self-study by the advisor group. Their work reflected at first tentative, then increasingly venturesome and confident interpretation of the dynamics of the students' life patterns as these were reflected in work patterns and adjustments. As the counseling role became less vague and its limits more clearly defined, anxiety about misusing the counseling relation diminished. At the same time that the advisors incorporated a more therapeutic function into their role, they became less concerned about theoretical differences between counseling and therapy. This change, in some measure attributable to their own part in the research, is seen more as a direct outcome of the work with the consulting psychiatrist.

In general, the psychiatrist offered support for the advisors to undertake a more therapeutically-oriented counseling role, thus also influencing them to change their concepts of their role. Her work was supervisory in the sense that she served as an authority, taking responsibility for communicating her specialized knowledge appropriately to the advisors. This involved coordinating the discussions and making judgments.

One of her methods was to be specific whenever possible. At one point she suggested to an advisor what to interpret to a particular student and what not to interpret. At another time she suggested that a student should be diverted from classroom teaching into other educational work. The transmission of general advice was also noticeable, and appeared to be closely related to the consultant's activity in defining the advisor's role. In one case, for example, she pointed out that it was advisable to deal with current feelings rather than with their infantile origins. Here the distinction was tied to the fact that the student was in analytical therapy.

A teaching function was clearly distinguishable. The transmission of general principles of dynamic personality theory was particularly stressed. Other examples suggest that the consultant's teaching function included communicating diagnostic insights and approaches to the interpretation of behavior. Interpretations of the meaning of a hand tremor, of an interest in a particular science, of a student's motivation for teaching, are noticeable examples of this approach.

A statement by the consultant psychiatrist further defines the mode in which clinical expertise can be incorporated into an educational counseling program:

In working with the advisor group, the consultant psychiatrist draws on ... clinical understanding in evaluating the meaning and significance of what the advisors bring ... and of reordering the various kinds of
data—admission interviews and autobiographies, counseling interviews, performance in practice teaching and courses—so as to bring out dynamic coherence from a mass of seemingly unrelated details. The psychiatrist’s use of clinical insight, however, is not for the purpose of a kind of therapeutic chain reaction: from psychiatrist to advisors, advisors to student teachers, and from the latter to the children in their classes. Such a risk is lessened by the fact that the psychiatrist’s direct contact is limited to the advisor group, who, as experienced teacher educators, can best incorporate applicable insight from the consultant for educational use with the advisees.  

Identification of Dynamic Processes  
Final and fundamental interest was invested in identifying those dynamic processes generated by the training program that could be presumed to facilitate the complex learning whereby the student, as he moves through the program, can mature into a teacher who is knowledgeable and skillful in the arts of teaching, understands how extensive are the psychological factors which condition learning, and has that awareness of self which supports a gratifying, creative relation to one’s chosen field of work.  

Identification. As has been said, the total program of preparation is a proportioned design, providing a variety of experiences—a familiar kind of listening, talking, and reading that goes with course work; a challenging try at being the teacher in a real classroom; and a valiant search, both subjective and objective, into the forces of motivation, creativity, and conflict which affect learning. The relationships to the people from whom the student learns (the college faculty, the supervising teachers, the advisor, his fellow students, and the children) vary, like the experiences from which he learns, in importance and potential impact.  

Within this constellation of individuals, the advisor is a central figure. With him the student develops a relation of deep personal meaning which involves the penetration of surface meanings of behavior, expression of emotion, support in the face of discouragement or crisis and always, at the center of things, the shared, gratifying investment in learning how to do a hard, important job well and with confidence. It is safe to assume that, for many students, the advisor becomes an identification figure, a person whose values, style of interaction, and personal qualities in real or idealized form merge with the past identification with other salient life figures of the individual’s personal history. To the extent that this is true, the identification with the advisor initiates

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a new gestalt with the accumulated identifications of the past and influences the molding of ego identity. Erikson reminds us that "while the end of adolescence is the stage of an overt identity crisis, identity formation neither begins nor ends with adolescence but is, rather, a lifelong development . . ."33

At the point of entrance to a profession at the graduate level, removed by important years of growth from the uncertain adolescent choice of vocation, there is another identity crisis to face. The acceptance into the program initially and the advisor's whole-hearted investment in the student's potential for the professional role give the student new and important recognition of himself as an individual contributing to his society and move him one step closer to the achievement of ego identity which, to quote Erikson again, "could be said to be characterized by the more or less actually attained but forever-to-be-revised sense of the reality of the self within social reality."34

For a professional program, however, the heart of the matter is not personality formation and ego-identity in its broad sense although, for the particular profession we are considering, these are highly relevant. It is, rather, the specific experiences and deeper processes that culminate in a particular kind of teacher identity, influenced by the student's identifications with the advisor as a teacher-model. For the advisor is a teacher, though not of some departmentalized aspect such as child development or curriculum planning or techniques for teaching reading. The advisor is a teacher of teaching. He is openly committed to explicit values and goals in education. He guides the complex developmental process which optimally eventuates in an integrated teacher's role—a blend of initiative, ingenuity, authority, organizational ability, intellectual competence, and investment of feeling. In his work with the student, the advisor rests on the authority of his experience in teaching; he manages his authority role as to favor student growth and expansion rather than to restrict or limit. Without making it a conscious lesson, he demonstrates, by the exercise of his own skills, how a teacher can help to liberate a student's potential for learning by bringing about a constructive alignment of the particular learning task with the psychic processes and basic strength of the student.

Awareness of having learned how to teach from this personalized experience in how to learn is often delayed. Several years later, after they themselves have analyzed their own teaching styles, students return, reporting this awareness as a highly personal, illuminating experi-

34Erikson, op. cit., p. 149.
ence and thus indicating how much of the identification process took place at an unconscious level.

Though the advisor is the strongest identification teacher-figure for the student, the fact that the students also have sustained meaningful relationships with other members of the faculty is of great importance. This diversifies the identification process which makes it possible for the student to create a teaching style that is truly his own (not a replica or imitation of any one model teacher) while also congruent with the goals and ideals of a given educational philosophy.

Within the Bank Street program, this congruence is part of the total design. Course work, for example, is not conducted in conventional lecture style. Presentation of content is balanced with open discussion. All the teaching structures are adapted to make room for communication, dissent, and active, personalized learning. The course instructors are thus additional models, in another context, of a teaching mode that respects and protects individuality in learning.

In the field, however, in the contacts with the supervising teachers, the students often encounter different, at times conflicting, teaching styles. Teacher identity, in the end, is forged out of processes of selective rejection as well as positive identification; it involves, also a re-ordering of the multiple learning experiences of a lifetime, including past identifications with teachers in childhood. The importance of multiple, varied identification figures for the development of a sound teacher identity is as great as it is for the maturing of ego-identity in the personality as a whole. Otherwise, there is the possibility that learning will be superficially imitative.

Maturation of Ego-Strength for the Teacher’s Role. Teacher ego-strength, which is quite different from bald technical competence, encompasses a strong motivational valence to the work and its internal rewards and also a realistic self-appraisal of one’s own contribution to it. The work of the advisor in dealing concretely with the application of theory to practice and in not leaving this to the student’s intuition and imaginativeness represents his contribution to mastery. He offers supportive supervision of all the enactment aspects of practice teaching. The emphasis placed on this part of the advisor’s function represents the conviction that the guidance function should be as clearly directed to achieving mastery as it is to helping the student achieve conflict-free attitudes toward the teacher role.

In the program here under consideration, it is the mergence of the supervisory and counseling functions that is expected to lead to professional competence conceived in terms of job performance, motivation, and an inner sense of pleasure and adequacy in one’s work. There is progress when deepened understanding acts back and forth in real, active
encounter with the task and with all the complex aspects of achieving mastery—even excellence—in its performance.

In this connection, it is interesting to note certain comparable trends in contemporary views on methods of counseling or therapy in situations where the particular requirements of a given professional competence are not involved. Discontent has been expressed, in several quarters, with counseling which depends exclusively on the counselor-counselee relationship and the insights gained therefrom and assumes that dynamic change will result without the counselor's engagement in behavioral follow-through on these insights. Hobbs is one who is skeptical of the assumption that the development of insight in therapy is a primary means for gaining the objective of more effective functioning. He inclines toward emphasis on the less verbal, more concrete and experiential components of the therapeutic process and "on specific and concrete opportunities for learning new ways of responding, new ways of relating to other people, and new ways of perceiving oneself. The stress is on immediate experience and specific behaviors."35

In another context Berlin reports the influence of ego psychology on the supervisory process in psychiatric training. He describes a method in which the supervisor engages in a prompt and early detailed examination of the trainee's work, in clarifying where and how certain tasks should be attended. In the course of the detailed review of the trainee's work and of the problems he faces, conflicts emerge which can then be understood and worked through. Interestingly enough, Berlin names conflict with authority as one of his illustrations and describes the supervisor's use of his authority role in a way that comes very close to what we have incorporated as part of the advisor's functioning. "In this process the trainee may have an important learning experience as he comes to feel that the supervisor's suggestions are not commands but are actually offered for the trainee's consideration and evaluation rather than undigested incorporation. He also learns that the supervisor's efforts are directed toward helping the trainee achieve the status of a collaborator who shares information freely, a colleague . . ." It is not surprising that Berlin comments on the unconscious identification with the supervisor and notes that it takes place at the same time as the trainee's "conscious learning . . . his increasing mastery results in a more spontaneous and creative functioning."36

A teacher needs strength to meet crises of many kinds—ideological as well as situational. In the course of training, there are two phases 

in becoming a teacher that are likely to have the quality of crisis situations for the student. The first occurs early in the training period when many students face a shift or reorganization of concepts and values about education, a period of personal uncertainty and intellectual doubt. This may involve a breakdown of previously established systems at a time when there is not yet available the experience through which a new synthesis of perceptions and ideals can be achieved. This vulnerable period demands sensitive adaptation of the guidance function so as to provide support and tension-reducing interaction rather than stimulation or confrontation. A different condition appears toward the end of the training period when the relative safety of the student status nears its end and the student faces the reality of taking on full independence and responsibility as a teacher. At this stage, which is often experienced as a second crisis, the advisor's support may be practical, taking the form of leads to appropriate job openings. Now, however, he expects that the student's self-knowledge as a teacher-to-be and his differentiated knowledge of the role to be undertaken will be self-supportive in the face of anxieties aroused by job interviews and final decisions of choice. Still, the advisor is available to help clarify the meaning of alternatives and relate these to the knowledge gained during the guidance work. There is no need to dwell on the advantage of positive crisis resolution for enhancing ego-strength in any life role.

Internalization of Ego-Syntonic Values. A highly significant fact is that all through his training the student is exposed to a convinced society. Not only through the advisor but also through other students and faculty members, the student moves in an atmosphere of great dedication to a clear system of values about education and vigorous commitment to a model of teaching excellence deemed essential to that system of values. The model is broadly conceived with a degree of openness that admits the saliency of autonomous growth. The conviction is strongest as to goals and ideals, but more open as to methods of achieving them.

The need for a clear statement of goals in an educational enterprise and the recognition of an implicit value system proved relatively easy to deal with in the early pages of this chapter. The problem of communication and acceptance of those implicit values cannot be so simply treated. This is so because the values implicit in the educational goals can neither be transmitted by persuasion or argument nor authoritatively imposed. The advisor's work is at the level of goals and practice, but it includes formulation, on a cognitive basis, of the rationale for the practices vis-a-vis the goals. Following this course, it is imperative that we consider what kind of person—for what kind of society—we are trying to educate. The advisor's mode of carrying on this part of his work calls to mind Smith's description of the role of the behavioral scientist whose
strategy is to bring into the open the causal nexus in which value-choice is embedded.\textsuperscript{37}

We need to remember, of course, the variety of personality styles within a student body which will, in fact, ultimately enrich the life of the school. However, this also means that not all of the educational goals and values implicit in an educational philosophy will be equivalently compatible to all personalities. For some, the freeing of curiosity and creativity may call out deepest personal investment; for others, it may be the high value placed on the worth of the individual which has the greatest psychological charge; and for still others, it may be the growth of autonomy, the vision of independent thinking and acting that becomes the core of the value system.

The place of values in the field of counseling has had increasing attention in recent years, and, though it would be difficult to derive a consensus view from the numerous writings on the subject, it seems safe to say that the position that the counselor can, or should, maintain a complete neutrality finds few protagonists. Reviewing the question in its philosophical aspects, Browning and Peters conclude that the basic philosophy of the guidance counselor inevitably influences interaction and points to the need for open recognition of this phenomenon in order to proceed with systematic study of its effects.\textsuperscript{38} Samler takes an unequivocally anti-neutralist stand. In his view, a change in values is a goal of counseling inevitably bound to the admitted objective of leading to modifications of behavior. Altogether aware of the possible dangers in his position, Samler is ready to draw on available models of the mature personality as a source for "testable hypotheses relative to the values to be supported in counselor-client interaction."\textsuperscript{39}

The neutralist position is not logically open to the educator. However, he shares with counselors, therapists, and all others in a guiding role the responsibility for a deep awareness of how values are operating and hard thinking about the congruence between the qualitative aspects of individual personality and the limitless variation of patterning within a repertoire of positive values. This is another way of saying that there are many ways of being a good teacher and, further, that the essence of the guidance work in a teacher education program is not to impart a monolithic code of good teaching but rather to help each student create


the best possible, in the sense of most self-suited, style within the larger ethos.

Summary and Implications

This paper has attempted to place the study of a preservice teacher education guidance program in the context of an educational philosophy and to trace the sequence of the program's development, the internal staff study of role and function problems, and the analysis of some of the theoretical issues involved. Much of the work reported here focused on the problem and theoretical feasibility of integrating supervisory and counseling roles in the person of a single figure, the advisor. The relationship techniques for counseling and the teaching and evaluating techniques for supervision were differentiated and systematized as a series of guidelines.

At the next level of generality, levels and limits for an education-based guidance program were delineated, using psychodynamic concepts and recognizing the realities of the conditions of guidance. Also, at this level of inquiry, a desirable model for the substance and process of the guidance work was found in the advisor's continuous, dynamic utilization of the relationship between understanding of the learning process (whether manifested in the way children learn or in the way an adult "learns" a profession) and the impact of first-hand experience in the teaching role.

Further study, necessarily conjectural, dealt with the nature of the underlying processes which could be presumed to bring this part of the training to successful fruition. As postulated, these involved: identification processes, more specifically, the synthesis of a teacher identity; the complex emergence of skill, self-knowledge and motivation that constitute ego-strength for the teaching role; and an organization of goals and values for the education of children that is both congruent with personal dispositions and relevant to a given philosophy of education.

The techniques of supervision and the function of teaching received less attention than did the questions concerned with the counseling aspect of the work. This was largely because the advisors were, by training and experience, well-schooled educators who felt secure in their view of learning as a complex cognitive-affective interaction process, convinced of the importance of deepening job-involvement, and reasonably confident of their own expertise in matters of curriculum, teaching techniques, and classroom management. What they felt less confident about and what they were seeking to investigate and improve was how to incorporate counseling in such a way that the student's own learning experience would be a model, consciously recognized or not, for an optimal learning mode for children.

This explains, partly, why the issue of counseling vis-a-vis therapy had such prominence. From comparison with others' views and prac-
tices in the field, it became clear that the therapeutic aspects of this method were aligned with those contemporary trends which favor extension from probing for insight to opportunity for behavioral enactment as part of the counseling, which endorse recognition of the counselor's value system, and which emphasize the reality of the counselor as an identification figure at the ego-identity level.

It is important to establish that the term therapeutic is used here as it applies to any of the many processes effecting improved, happier functioning. In a training program, a broad comprehensive goal, referring to the totality of personal living, is out of bounds. It is true, nonetheless, that a positive identification with work, and strength to maintain it at a deeply satisfying level is an essential part of adult living and may facilitate resolution of problems of a non-work nature.

There were many significant areas omitted from this study which are part of the program in operation. Among them are questions such as the impact of admission procedures and the complex lines of confidentiality to be maintained. The most significant omission is that of the conference group in which the advisor meets with his several advisees in a group session for which there is no fixed agenda and in which the force of peer influence, the exposure of self, and the reconstituted family-style composition are undoubtedly major factors in the total developmental course. Another regrettable omission is lack of information on the students' changing perceptions of the guidance experience from early to late stages.

These problems indicate the need for further study. Further experimentation in the method is needed, too, to begin to show how, and in what contexts and capacities, clinical specialists should be utilized. For example, advisors might meet individually, rather than as a group, with a clinically trained consultant and so make better allowance for variation in the kind and amount of consultation needed on a continuous basis. Or, a clinically-qualified person might be asked to work on analysis of the assembled admission materials and then, with the advisors, arrive at a working hypothesis and plan for the procedures with the individual student.

The ultimate problem of estimating effects is, as is so often true, the most complex one. It is compounded when criteria such as control groups are envisaged and in the light also of the wide variations in classroom situations where effectiveness would need to be judged. There is perhaps a mid-point in the kind of exploratory research here reported which enlists the staff actually involved in the work and supplements its efforts with the contributions of a study staff who, by the very nature of their non-involvement, are able to lend the objectivity of distance to the analytic and evaluative process. In a small way, this was attempted in this process study of a method in which, let it be noted, judging effect was not a goal.
In concluding, it may be interesting to note that this method was developed as an inherent and necessary part of a teacher education program by the members of the education discipline with the important collaboration and cooperation of clinicians, both in the refinement and self-study of the technique. As such, it represents a design thought out and worked through for incorporating mental health concepts into the fabric of the human relations professions which, for practical as well as theoretical reasons, is of major concern to the growing field of community mental health.
CHAPTER VI

An Exploratory Study of Teacher Education Curricula and Mental Health

BCB L. TAYLOR

In the spring of 1958 San Francisco State College was granted the funds by the National Institute of Mental Health to conduct a five-year, pilot study concerning the relation of teacher education to mental health.1 During the first year a study group analyzed the problem, explored possible approaches and procedures, and planned a line of action. A number of basic assumptions were identified by this group on which the actual project was formulated. These assumptions were:

1. The project should be concerned with the generalized promotion of positive mental health rather than the treatment of mental illness.
2. The schools constitute a great potential resource for the promotion of positive mental health and should be responsible for utilizing the opportunities and resources at their command.
3. The primary contribution a school should make to positive mental health is the provision of healthy learning activities in a wholesome and supportive milieu.
4. A program of professional education which consists of optimally healthy learning experiences should have a desirable effect upon the teacher's own mental health and should lead him naturally toward healthful teaching practices.

Professional Education Program

With these basic assumptions stated, the problem as identified by the project staff became "How can the program of professional education be adapted so that, in the normal course of learning the entire job of teaching, the candidate himself can move toward mental health and self-realization and so that his learnings will lead naturally to a style of teaching which will benefit the mental health of those he teaches?"2

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1Pilot project supported by the National Institute of Mental Health, Grant No. 2M-6625.
In addition, the staff named several criteria of a successful teacher education program. These became guidelines for the program which was developed.

1. It prepares teachers who are healthy, vigorous, and wholesome persons, personally well suited to work with young people.
2. It prepares teachers who are well educated in general, are especially competent in reference to the subject matter they are to teach, and have the motivation and the skills to carry on in continuing their education.
3. It prepares teachers who are professionally skillful and highly motivated for the tasks of the school.
4. It prepares teachers who teach and relate to children and youth on the basis of insightfulness as to the nature of the learner and learning.
5. It prepares teachers who carry on insightful awareness of the community and society and the forces operating therein.

Characteristics of Program

The project staff believed that the growth of a young person from a college student to a professional teacher was a deeply personal becoming. The job of a teacher education program was to help each aspirant make himself into not only the most competent practitioner but also the most fully developed person he was capable of becoming. There were several characteristics of such a program which were formulated by the staff. These were:

1. The program must be deeply personalized. It must be keyed to and worked through with each student so as to encourage and help him to understand himself and to build upon his unique strengths.
2. The program must be flexible.
3. The program must provide continuity of relationship in both instruction and counseling.
4. The program must be based upon the real experiences of the students; hence, the students must have significant relationships with youth and the school community.
5. The program must provide opportunity for the systematic and reflective study of the theoretical bases of education so related to first-hand experience as to promote the integration of the two.

Having identified these assumptions, criteria, and characteristics for a mentally healthful teacher education program, a plan was proposed. The features of this plan included a number of departures from the conventional program in teacher education.

Small faculty teams were organized who worked with a given group of students as long as the students were in the professional program. Each team included these instructional and professional competencies: proven familiarity with schools and school practices, expertness in
methodology and curriculum, psychological foundations, social foundations of education, and expertise in the study and use of the community. The size of the faculty team was dictated by the number of faculty members required to provide the competencies and the number needed to assure a reasonable spread of philosophies.

The size of the teams in the project was usually three faculty members. Each team was to have primary responsibility for its group in those things characterized by growth. However, the college was to supplement each team with those specialists needed to teach a particular expertise such as the use of audio-visual equipment and special methods in subject areas. The college was to develop a close, cooperative, and permissive arrangement with a group of schools to permit the exploration and development of new ways of working with the public schools and their communities.

In the light of the above commitments, the professional curriculum was not to be completely prestructured and no prescribed sequence of course content was to be followed. The idea was not to omit content, but to teach it when it seemed to be the most opportune time in the development of the student. The planning of the program stressed objectives, competencies, and the basic content which must be included in the program. The team had the responsibility for developing the learning situation as their professional judgment indicated. The instructional program was characterized by an evolving sequence of significant experiences with children in the schools and other agencies. This was to be tied in closely with on-campus seminars and with the use of special resource people. The usual content was to be handled against the background of real experience with the experience as the basis for the instruction. The evolving experiences and the needs of the individual students were to be the guides as to the content of the curriculum. To make this kind of program possible, a large block of time from the students' schedules was committed to the education program.

Objectives of Program

The objectives of the teacher education program just described were:

1. To help each student to develop his own unique self, to grow in all that mental health connotes, and to use his personal strengths to facilitate the learning of children.
2. To help each student to deepen his understanding of children and to develop a commitment to their welfare.
3. To help each student to deepen his understanding of the school as a community and of the larger community and to develop a commitment both to serving the community and to utilizing its resources in his teaching.
4. To help each student to acquire the skills and knowledge basic to proficient teaching which is founded both upon fundamental insights and upon efficient management and technique.
5. To stimulate each student toward high motivation in his liberal studies and toward a rigorous commitment to continuing his education after completing his teacher education program.

In the implementation of the project, the staff found it necessary to develop one program for the preparation of elementary teachers and one for the preparation of secondary teachers. Independent teaching teams were established composed of members with specializations in these two fields. The teaching teams then developed their own interpretations of the proposed program described above. While there were regular conferences and advising between the two teaching teams, they took somewhat different courses and developed programs with different characteristics. These two programs and their results are reported separately in this chapter. The elementary program and then the secondary program are described.

**Elementary Exploratory Group**

In their initial program the elementary teaching team stressed the exploration of the ideas which had been presented in the original proposal. They wanted to design a teacher education program that would be deeply personalized and flexible, would provide for continuity, and would interweave the theoretical base of teacher education with the student’s experiences with children in the schools and the community.

**Plan of the Elementary Program**

A faculty team of three members was used to advise, teach, and supervise the laboratory experiences of the elementary group during the exploratory program. There was continuity of both staff and students in this plan. The team was selected to provide a balance of expertness in the necessary areas of the foundations and professional curricula. The established faculty-student staffing formula of the college was followed, but the team members were given released time to meet the extra demands for planning and developing the exploratory program. This team was supplemented by specialists who had the needed expertness in such fields as arithmetic, music, art, and physical education.

A special arrangement was made with three near-by school districts for the laboratory experiences of the students. The plan was to work very closely with the districts and to promote freedom for exploration and the development of new ways of using the schools as laboratories. The school people participated in the planning of this phase of the project from the beginning.

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There were no special criteria established for the selection of the students who were to be in the project. It was hoped that they would be representative of the students majoring in elementary education at the college. They needed to have completed fifty-eight and one-half units of college work with a grade point average of 2.0 or better and to have planned to finish their degrees over a period of no fewer than four semesters. An attempt was made to maintain the usual proportions of men and women and of transfer students in the exploratory group.

Curriculum Features

A continuing seminar was used in which the content of teacher education was presented. The program was developed around a problem core which cut across subject matter lines. The team aimed at developing a core program stressing the relationships among the foundation areas, curriculum and instruction, and the laboratory experiences. Since the faculty and students worked together for a total of four semesters, it was possible to use the problem approach instead of the customary subject divisions of psychology, sociology, and methods. By using the problem-solving approach, it was anticipated that wasteful repetition would be eliminated and that continuous planning and evaluation with the students would keep the instruction centered on concerns with real meaning to the learners. At the heart of the learning experience was the process of problem identification, of hypotheses formation, data gathering, drawing of tentative conclusions, and finally the drawing of generalizations and applying them to professional situations.

The laboratory experiences were to be an integral part of the curriculum. They were to be the basis for problem identification, and were to stimulate learning, provide background for theory, provide data for the solution of problems, and bring reality to the instruction. It was planned that the question of how much field experience was needed to accomplish these aims was to be explored along with what experiences were needed to meet the needs of individual students.

Also, there was a commitment to a deeply personalized program which would be conducive to learning and supportive of personal development. The idea was to establish an atmosphere in which the students could identify their strengths and weaknesses and build on their strengths. If the atmosphere was free from tension, there would be greater freedom for making self-assessments. Under these conditions, the students would accept responsibility for their own learning and be more strongly motivated because of doing this. In this social climate the students would be able to identify the points of uncertainty in moving into the role of the teacher, and the staff could aid them in meeting these uncertainties with competence. The atmosphere was to be supportive in students' relations both with the faculty and with each other. This was to be accomplished by emphasizing student-faculty planning, providing opportunities...
for students to help each other rather than compete, and to provide opportunity for individual guidance through advising-counseling relations with the faculty team. Every effort was made to involve the students in the planning for their own development as individuals and as teachers.

**Principal Experiences in the Program**

Both group work and individual projects were used in the development of the curriculum. The initial experiences were used to introduce the students to the potential problem areas. A number of techniques were employed to promote this aim. Students were asked to describe and analyze the behavior of their favorite and most disliked teachers. From this activity, student groups came up with a list stating some of the important roles of the teacher.

Another activity was observing the behavior of children in varied school and community situations. Groups of students went out and observed in the vicinity of elementary schools located in different socio-economic areas of San Francisco. The students took note of the neighborhood, the extent of living space, the types of businesses, play areas for children, and what children were playing or doing. Also, they made in-class observations of children in the college demonstration school. These experiences were followed by observation and participation experiences in the cooperating public schools.

From these initial data-gathering efforts, a number of problems in teaching were identified. After considerable study and discussion, study groups were formed to investigate some of the most important of these problem areas. This activity culminated in oral and written reports accompanied by student discussion and evaluation of the findings.

Over the four semesters, many problems were studied in depth by the students including general elementary curriculum, elementary education content fields, and skill development. The field experiences were extended and deepened until the students had filled the teacher’s role in an extended teaching experience. Extensive provisions were made so that the students had experiences which were individualized and appropriate to their needs. Students had contacts with a variety of children, teachers, and school situations. Finally, the student teaching experience was worked in as an integral part of the laboratory experience and was used to contribute to the on-campus part of the program just as the other field experiences had been used.

**Evaluation of the Exploratory Group**

The aim of the staff with this first group was to explore the possibility of developing a new kind of teacher education program which would meet the guidelines of the project. Along with informal assessment made from student contacts, the staff gathered data through the use of several instruments. A Classroom Perception Test was used. This in-
instrument was planned to determine the sensitivities of the students to teaching-learning processes observed in classroom situations. Also, the instrument was used to aid the staff in deciding if the students were able to identify educational principles operating in the classroom.

My Perception of Group Work was an instrument used to check each student's sensitivity to the group process and his perceptions of group membership roles and role expectations. It employed a series of open-ended statements. Leadership skills are essential for an effective teacher; hence, these students needed to develop sensitivities to group process and resources contributory to effective group membership. General feedback to the class from this instrument helped to improve their effectiveness in the group work.

Several open-ended instruments were used to evaluate the field experiences of the students. These inquired about their first impressions of their roles as student teachers, their insights into their adjustments as newcomers, their perceptions of the school culture, their reactions to classroom teaching, and their assessments of their development and performance as teachers.

Finally, two questionnaires were used at the end of the exploratory program. These investigated the student's perceptions of his readiness for full-time teaching and his reactions to his experiences in the program. The students were very confident about their approaching teaching responsibilities, but they were realistic about their professional readiness. They recognized areas in which they would need further development.

In their final evaluation of the exploratory program, the students rated the field experiences as the most valued part of the program. Also, they were very favorable to the structure and organization of the program, to the curriculum, and to the study methods employed. Concerns were expressed about the amount of flexibility in the program and the degree of independence given. In total, the students were favorable to the problem-solving approach and felt that it was valuable. Also, they were pleased with the interdisciplinary approach to the theoretical content.

The staff found that their work with the exploratory group had reinforced their convictions that the original guidelines were, in general, sound; that they were ready to state in a more organized way a set of hypotheses to serve as the basis for working with a second group; and that their exploration of procedures of evaluation had uncovered some profitable procedures and indicated some procedures which were not so profitable.

Elementary Experimental Group

After their two years of experience in developing a program with the exploratory group, the staff approached their work with a second
EXPLORATORY STUDY OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Prior to starting with the second group of students, a set of hypotheses were formulated which became the basis for the development of the instructional program for this group and for the selection of evaluation instruments. Since there was a more formal structure to the project with the second group, it is referred to here as the “experimental group.” The hypotheses which were stated are:

1. When students have positive self concepts, are free from excessive worries and tensions, and recognize and accept their own weaknesses and strengths, they are likely to accept and prize differences and uniqueness in children and other persons, feel confident in moving into new situations and adjusting to new roles, and feel free to experiment.

2. When students experience with satisfaction democratic group processes in which they plan and evaluate their own experiences and cooperate in the solution of group problems, they are likely to understand, value, and use these methods in their own teaching.

3. Students who are able to test principles of learning and child growth and development in reality situations with children in schools are likely to understand the significance of these principles and utilize them in planning and guiding learning experiences when they are teachers.

4. When students have an opportunity to examine community forces and pressures and social class values by analyzing these forces in a study of a school neighborhood, they are more cognizant of the effect of community pressures and mores upon the school’s program and on children’s learning and of conflicts between the values of the school and the home, and they are better able to handle these pressures with understanding and empathy.

5. When students have had satisfaction with a wide variety of learning experiences which are based upon the best known principles of learning, they will use these methods in their own classrooms.

6. When the problem approach is used and students see the interrelatedness of theory and practice and of fields of learning and the reasons back of certain procedures and ways of teaching, they will use the problem approach when they teach.

7. When students have an opportunity to re-examine what they know about educational and psychological theory, learning, and child development after classroom experience, they are able to articulate rationally their own educational philosophy and the methods they use.

With this experimental group, the teaching team attempted to effect a synthesis of educational theory and philosophy after student teaching. Student teaching was scheduled in the first semester of the senior year so that the students in the final semester of the senior year pursued special needs identified during their student teaching experiences.
Evaluation of the Program

The research design used with the experimental group involved both pre- and post-tests with a comparison group for a control. The experimental group was recruited on a voluntary basis so it was not known how much of the group might be different from the usual students in elementary education, and it was assumed that the Hawthorne effect would be involved. To offset these problems, special volunteer control groups were established. Along with this measure, the attempt was made with the experimental group to get approximately the same composition as usual in the elementary education program in respect to the number of men and women and the number of transfer students. There were fifty-eight students in the group, six men and fifty-two women, ranging in age from nineteen to forty-four.

The following tests were administered to the experimental group and the control group early in the program and again near the end of the teacher education program: California Psychological Inventory,\(^4\) Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory,\(^5\) Gage Educational Opinion Inventory,\(^6\) and Manifold Interest Schedule.\(^7\) In addition to these standardized tests, the Teacher Education Examination\(^8\) was administered to both groups as a post-test.

Another important part of the evaluation was a series of informal instruments used during the program. These informal devices were: Classroom Perception Test, My Perception of Group Work, Student Teaching Evaluation, Beliefs About Education, Evaluation of the Program and Self-Perception Test.

Analysis of Data

There were forty-seven students in the original experimental group and sixty-one students in the control group. Of the original experimental group, thirty-eight, or 81 per cent, finished the program and were part of the final evaluation while only thirty-six, or 59 per cent, of the original students in the control group finished. This was an important difference in the performances of the two groups.

On the pre- and post-tests of the California Psychological Inventory, the control group made significantly more growth than the experimental

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\(^6\)See p. 140.
\(^7\)Louis M. Heil, Marion Powell and Irwin Feifer, *Characteristics of Teacher Behavior Related to the Achievement of Children in Several Elementary Grades*. Brooklyn, New York: Brooklyn College Bookstore, Brooklyn College.
\(^8\)Teacher Education Examination. Princeton, New Jersey: Educational Testing Service.
group during the two years in sense of well being, responsibility, socialization, self-control, achievement via conformity, and intellectual efficiency. Only in capacity for status did the experimental group have a significantly higher score than the control group.

The experimental group made a significant change in their attitude toward children and toward teaching from the beginning to the end of the program as determined by the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory. Also, the change in the experimental group was significantly greater than that of the control group on this scale. Nevertheless, both groups had relatively low scores in comparison to the national norms for college students in elementary education. Both the experimental and control groups made significant gains on the Gage supplement to the MTAI, but there were no significant differences between the gains of the two groups.

The Manifold Interest Schedule was used in this evaluation, but neither the experimental nor the control group scored significantly different from the established norms with the exception of interest in business and reading. They indicated interests which were low in the former and high in the latter. On this instrument, the experimental group had relatively low post-test scores on “magic” and “aggression.”

The Teacher Education Examination was given to both groups as a post test. There was no significant difference between the scores of the two groups. Since the experimental group had not had discrete, systematic courses in the usual areas of education such as psychology, foundations, measurement, and methods, it was evident that they had, nevertheless, mastered the content. The performance of the experimental group was somewhat above the national norms for the examination.

The program was designed to have the students test principles of learning and of child growth and development in reality situations with children in schools, and the students were in contact with schools and children during the entire program. The Classroom Perception Test was used to determine whether the students grew in sensitivity at analyzing teacher-learning situations as the program advanced. The students reacted to their observation experiences by writing in response to the following directions: “Describe briefly what you noticed in the classroom, describe in detail two of these things that looked important to you, and explain why these situations seemed important to you.” This instrument was developed by Hilda Taba for the Teacher Recruitment and Training Program sponsored by San Francisco State College from 1954 to 1959. Three statements were obtained from each student—one at the beginning of the project, one at the end of the first year, and one at the end of the second year. In using the observation reports, there

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was a problem of variability in the classroom observed since all did not observe the same classrooms.

A study of growth was made by tabulating the number of students who mentioned each kind of item in the test, the number and percentage of responses in each category, and the number and percentage of responses at each level. Evidences of growth in the students' perceptions of and insights into the teaching-learning process were gained by comparing the data from the three administrations of the instrument. In the first test, more students were concerned with the physical environment than with any other aspect, and although many mentioned the interaction among the children and the relation between teacher and pupils, their observations were not very insightful. On the second test most students mentioned the teaching-learning processes, and a high percentage were aware of all the areas checked by the instrument. With the third test, 100 per cent of the students expressed concern with the relationship between teacher and pupils and with the relationship between what they observed and theory. By the final test, after they had completed student teaching, the students were much more aware of everything pertaining to the teaching situation.

Another aim of the project was to give the students a wide and satisfying experience with democratic group process on the assumption that if they understood and valued it they would tend to use it in their own teaching. The students in the experimental group worked in small groups on a variety of projects. Several instruments were used to determine their perceptions of group dynamics and group processes and their perceptions of their roles as members of a group. One instrument, My Perception of Group Processes, asked the students to complete the following four statements:

Our group functions best when . . .
Our group functions least well when . . .
When a group is sharply divided about an important matter, we . . .
When the group loses focus, we . . .

A second part of the instrument dealt with the student's perception of himself as a member of a group. This instrument was given to the students at the end of their first group experience during the first semester and a retest was given three semesters later after they had several other experiences working in groups. While many more students gave positive, cooperative responses than gave negative, uncooperative responses concerning how their groups operated, they showed little shift in their perceptions about groups and how they operated between the two testing periods. Likewise, while the student's shifting perception of
participant roles was significant in some cases, the over-all shift in total responses from one testing to the next was not great. The most important shift was in the student's perception of his job in the group as one of responsibility rather than one of merely listening.

Other Evaluation Procedures

Several other evaluation procedures were used. Certain parts of their field experiences were evaluated by the students. These students reported that participation in the orientation week for the regular faculties of the schools where they did their student teaching was very valuable, and they recommended that future student teachers participate in these fall, preschool orientations.

Three instruments were used to gain the students' evaluations of their student teaching experiences. In one, they summarized the kinds of experiences they had had. In the second, they reacted to their experiences, and, in the third, they identified the areas in which they felt the least competent and in need of more learning. Most of them had taught a unit of work. All had had responsibility for long-range planning in one or more areas. All had had full responsibility for either the complete program or for one or more areas of the curriculum. Most had had assignments outside of the classroom such as yard duty and cafeteria supervision. About three-fourths had had contacts with parents either through PTA meetings or parent conferences. Nearly half of the students had worked with one or more children who were emotionally disturbed or educationally retarded. Many had had such experiences as putting on an assembly program, taking another teacher's class, or serving as a resource person.

In evaluating themselves as teachers, these students indicated that they were most concerned about themselves, their mental health, and the children; and that they were the least concerned about their competence in subject matter. About half indicated that they felt self-confident, relaxed, and equal to the demands of teaching. About one-fourth indicated that they felt tense, worried, flustered, indecisive, and insecure. About two-thirds indicated a strong interest and concern for their pupils, but nearly one-third indicated some ambivalence in their feelings. Most of the students indicated that they felt comfortable and accepted as professional persons by both the faculty of the school and the parents.

In identifying areas needing further improvement, they indicated that teaching processes and understanding of children and how to motivate them were the areas of greatest concern.

Evaluations were made by the supervisors of the students in their student teaching. With the exception of two students who were asked to take a second semester of student teaching, the students were reasonably successful in student teaching.
Both the experimental and control groups completed an instrument with six open-ended questions about themselves and their experiences in the teacher education program. In response to what they still needed to learn to become teachers, both groups put great stress on understanding children and knowledge of the curriculum and subject matter. The control group expressed a greater feeling of need than did the experimental group.

The largest percentage of the experimental group felt they had made their greatest growth in personal development and self-perception, while the largest percentage of the control group thought their greatest growth was in understanding the teacher's role and a philosophy of education. About half of both groups believed that they had made considerable growth in understanding children. Most of the experimental group assigned credit for this to the experimental program while the majority of the control group gave the credit for their growth to student teaching.

Both groups mentioned lack of satisfying growth in such professional skills as planning, discipline, parent-teacher conferences, presenting material, and elementary education. While the experimental group most often blamed themselves and their own lack of self-discipline for their lack of growth, the control group most often blamed the teacher education program. They complained of lack of depth and the ineffectiveness of certain methods courses. Both groups expressed considerable confidence in their competence to teach certain subject fields and felt secure in their relations with children. However, a large percentage of both groups expressed insecurity with respect to teaching certain specific subjects. The experimental group felt most secure in their relations with children, and the control group felt the most confidence in their teaching competence in certain subject areas. The experimental group cited the entire experimental program and the association with the faculty team as being of the greatest value to them while the control group cited student teaching.

Finally, the experimental group wrote a paper expressing their beliefs about education. These students articulated rationally their educational philosophies and explained the reasons for the methods they would use. Over half of the students saw education as all-embracing and going on everywhere individuals were having experiences. About half felt that the purpose of education was to develop the individual and to satisfy his innate needs. Most of them believed that learning must be purposeful and goal satisfying, and they stated that learning was personal and a function of individual perception. The majority saw the teacher as one who stimulates, motivates, and encourages the learner, and nearly one-half saw the teacher as one who guides and directs. Many others believed the teacher broadened the horizons of children, served as a resource, individualized instruction, and helped each individual child.
Appraisal of the Elementary Program

This section reports some of the personal reflections of the investigating team on selected operational features of the elementary program. While this was not an experiment in team teaching, team teaching was one of the more evident features of the program. Naturally, there is a need for a balance of competencies on the team, but there are some other factors to be taken into consideration when organizing a team. Since a team needs to work closely together over a long period of time, compatibility of the team members is of great importance. Team members must be willing to recognize the needs of other members. Since no two persons will hold identical ideas on education, they must seek a fair measure of agreement on basic matters in forming teams. Even then it is necessary for members to have the ability to think in terms of more than one frame of reference in order to arrive at a consensus for action. Each team member will carry different roles in relation to students at different times; hence, at a given time one team member may assume a major responsibility for teaching while his colleagues play subordinate roles. This requires equality of status in which each person can contribute his knowledge to the solution of problems in a free exchange of ideas. If this is to work, the teaching team must teach together, and they must be present with the students for most of the class meetings.

Continuity of Group

Another special feature of the project was the continuity of the student-faculty group. The same group of students had the same faculty members over a four-semester period. Rapport was developed between the faculty and students which could not be established in the usual semester period. Also, the faculty got to know the students well as individuals. Students could select from the team the faculty member with whom they related best for advising purposes. Yet another desirable feature of this arrangement was the close relationship which grew up among the students. Here was a group with whom they worked nearly two years, and informal evidence was strong that they found very important supportive friendships among this group who had common problems with them. One disadvantage was that strong group loyalties developed which made it tough on outsiders, both faculty and students, who needed to work with the students from the project group. Finally, this continuity helped to eliminate the common problem of repetition of subject matter. There was repetition, but it was purposeful. It occurred when there was a need to reteach or investigate an area in greater depth.

Use of Core Program

A third special feature of the project was the use of a core program. This was made possible because of the large blocks of time assigned
to the project, the long-term continuity of students and faculty, and the opportunity to use the varied backgrounds and experiences of the faculty team. The intent was to focus the teaching-learning process upon the learner rather than upon a body of content to be covered. Also, a better integration of the subject matter from several fields of knowledge with the field experience was to be brought about through a core program.

The identification of problem areas formed one center of the core. Starting with student questions, the student concerns were rephrased as the students worked together and gained first-hand experiences with children in the schools. The faculty attempted to provide common experiences for the students from which new questions and concerns could emerge and from which new information for problem analysis could be organized. Too, gaps in the students' experiences were identified, and the faculty planned new experiences to add new experiential dimensions. The ideas and generalizations arrived at from these experiences cut across the usual areas of teacher education bringing to bear the varied resources and backgrounds of the teaching team.

The intent of the teaching team was to develop insights into the teaching-learning process and the place of education in American culture as well as skills in diagnosing learning situations, in interacting with children, and in thinking about educational issues. Also, there was the hope of encouraging attitudes of self-reliance and assurance, of valuing oneself as a contributing person, and of openness toward children and their growth. As the students expressed a need, special skills and content were presented in detail to the students, but this was not arranged according to a predetermined instructional schedule.

**Problem-Solving Approach**

A fourth dimension of the project was the application of the problem-solving approach to professional education. The knowledge and understandings of professional education were to be used in solving the problems of which students became aware. Here the students helped fix their own curriculum through the identification of problems. At first, both the faculty and the students felt considerable insecurity with this plan, but eventually it proved to be one of the most exciting ideas in the project. The problems identified came from a variety of sources. Under the direction of the faculty, the problems were refined and areas of investigation were laid out for study. It was found that under this approach experiences acquired more purpose for the learners because of their prior involvement in identifying areas for study, that experiences had more meaning for the learners since the problems for study grew out of their own first-hand experiences, and that experiences had more reality for the learners as prospective teachers since the problems in many cases grew out of their direct experiences in school and community situations.
There were certain difficulties which became evident as the faculty and students used the problem-solving approach. The question as to whether student demand would actually provide an adequate coverage of the content was disturbing to faculty and students alike. This fear proved to be groundless as was demonstrated by the results with the elementary experimental group. Furthermore, the students experienced insecurity because of the absence of the usual means of evaluating their progress. Replacing the usual tests and grades were new and strange means of evaluating growth. Through the efforts of the faculty, evaluation was related to the students' experiences as learners rather than to simple recall of test items. Students became active in establishing their personal and group goals and in assessing their growth in relation to these goals.

The subjective faculty evaluation of the problem-solving approach was that the students were learning to think inductively. They were learning to solve professional problems, and the faculty was of the opinion that the problem-solving approach to learning in teacher education was an effective procedure for preparing teachers for their professional roles.

Design of the Secondary Program

While both the elementary and secondary teams worked from the same rationale statement, they developed their program differently. These differences reflected the interests and unique thinking of the members of the two teams.

The secondary team turned to Rogers' self-concept theory of personality for ideas on which to base a learning theory that would assist in planning their program. If a human being is viewed as a dynamic, ongoing process, then the person is always in the process of becoming. This means that there is no static goal toward which he is moving; hence, he is becoming more effective at expressing himself in such a way that life is satisfying or meaningful. The results of this are that the person is continually in the process of constructing and reconstructing a concept of the self in relation to the world. Through this process the individual integrates his cognitive and emotional reactions to stimuli by consciously symbolizing his experiences. He then behaves in accordance with the meaning which these symbols have in a particular situation. Learning takes place when there is some change in these symbols, or new behavior is attempted as a way of expressing this symbolized self.

In the secondary program, it was hoped that some good hypotheses would be identified which might be tested later through more carefully controlled experimentation. Since the goal was to understand the operation of a process or processes involving complex interactions among people, it was necessary to provide maximum flexibility in the design.
Plan of the Secondary Program

In the secondary program, two groups of students were used. The first group was composed of fifty-five students who began their preparation in teacher education in September, 1959, and finished in February, 1961. The second group consisted of forty-six students who began teacher education in September, 1961, and completed the program in February, 1963. For both groups there was a team of three instructors who remained with the same group of students for the entire three semesters. Also, the size of the groups was determined by the formula for the regular faculty load at the college.

Administrative problems such as course requirements, the outside jobs of the students, and the time demands of the exploratory program made it impossible to establish randomly selected groups of subjects. All of the students volunteered for the program and were individuals who seemed to be able to fit into the time demands of the programs.

There were important changes made in the nature of the program from the first group to the second group. With the first group of students, several different instructors actually worked on the team while with the second group three instructors worked closely together throughout the three semesters. Also, there were differences in the organization of the instructional teams, but with both groups there was a commitment to the same ideals concerning learning and mental health.

While many of the outcomes of the secondary program were evaluated in conventional ways, it was necessary at times to try new approaches. Folders were maintained on each student in which all the available information about him was gathered. Once a semester, the secondary staff taped a discussion about each of the students with stress on anecdotal material. This material was incorporated into case studies giving a picture of the on-going learning process experienced by the students.

Learning to Become Teachers

An assumption which guided the instructional team was that in developing learning processes teacher education could contribute to preventive mental health through the development of processes which emphasized student behaviors characteristic of mentally healthy people. These characteristics should then enable teachers to provide healthy experiences for pupils in school. As a guideline for evaluation, statements were developed attempting to picture what such a person would like. The statements were not all inclusive, but were aimed at characteristics which would be important for teachers. These statements were:

1. The students should move in the direction of seeing themselves as teachers.
2. The students should have increased self-insight.
3. The students should see their unique strengths as means for successful teaching.
4. The students should see teaching essentially as facilitating learning.
5. The students should be comfortable and spontaneous in their efforts to be understanding of pupils.
6. The students should acquire the technical knowledge and skills needed for effective instruction.

These statements were used as criteria for the experimental treatments and measures used rather than as hypotheses. It was assumed that if the measured changes were in the directions indicated by these statements, then the subjects were becoming mentally healthy and preventive mental health could be combined with teacher education.

A review of the existing techniques in teacher education proved that these were designed for developing certain skills and knowledge connected with teaching, and were not adapted to developing mentally healthy characteristics. Hence, there was much experimentation with new techniques. It was decided that the classroom atmosphere should be a warm, friendly, informal one. Students and instructors were called by their first names. A maximum of interpersonal interaction was used with a minimum of lecture. The students were treated as fellow adults who were trying to become teachers and who were being assisted in this by the instructors. All decisions in regard to activities and use of time were made through group planning involving the students and instructors. Students were encouraged to carry on independent study when their aims did not coincide with the group plans. Also, a technique from the field of group dynamics was employed. This was sensitivity training. Students were placed in small groups which met with individual instructors in unstructured learning situations. The purpose of these groups was to help the student understand some of the factors which influenced interaction within a group. The role of the instructor was to call attention to various processes which went on in the group, to raise questions about how people felt about interchanges which took place, to confront people with their own behavior when they were inconsistent or were unaware how they were being interpreted in the group, and to help the students understand the effect they had on others. The topics of discussion were left open and evolved; however, they frequently started with questions about the students' relations with high school pupils.

Other types of small groups were used. These were based upon common problems or interests such as working in the same school. The experiences in these groups were aimed at increasing self-insight, identifying individual strengths, facilitating learning, and helping students to be more spontaneous in their interpersonal relations.

In the class meetings, an emergent seminar plan was used. Here the planning was done only a few days in advance with the lessons reflecting the expressed concerns of the students. Films, tapes, lectures, discussions, and other standard procedures were utilized in teaching the knowledge and skill needed by the students in becoming teachers.
Continuing directed experience with high school youth was extensively used. The students went into the schools early in the program so that they were able to identify problems to be studied and skills to be learned from their contacts in the schools. From their enlarging roles in the schools, they learned about curricular materials and the role of the teacher. By examining these experiences, they gained better self insight which was related to the realities of teaching.

With the second group of students, a counselor was made available to the individual student, and they were free to go to him for interpretation of their test scores or consultation on individual problems. All such consultations were held confidential between the counselor and the individual.

Data Gathered

There were four types of data collected by the secondary team: measures of personality variables, measures of proficiency, measures based on an evaluation of the teaching program, and data from the follow-up of the first group of students after they had taught a year.

The first five statements of characteristics and the general mental health factors with which the study was concerned were closely tied to attitudinal and personality characteristics of the students. Several instruments were employed to measure the personality variables. The Interpersonal Check List is a list of descriptive phrases which a subject can check if he believes they are descriptive of him. This instrument was administered at the beginning and the end of the program. The California Psychological Inventory gives scores on eighteen scales which are supposed to furnish a complete survey of the person from the viewpoint of social interaction. The higher scores indicated more effective functioning. The first secondary group took this at the beginning and the end of the program. The Sixteen Personality Factors Questionnaire is an inventory for describing personality, and it was given at the beginning of the program to supplement the California Psychological Inventory. It was dropped before the end of the program; thus, no post-test was given. The Adult-Child Interaction Test is a TAT type of test which can be interpreted in terms of internal processes of reaction to children.

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10See p. 121.
12Gough, ibid.
It was given only at the start of the program and was extensively used in the case studies which were done on some of the students. The Person I Am Q-Sort measures certain personality dimensions and orientations of individuals.\(^{13}\) It was given as a pre- and post-test to determine if significant changes in the direction of mentally healthy orientations had taken place. The Index of Values and Adjustment is a measure of self-concept, acceptance of self, and ideal self.\(^{15}\) It was administered at the start and end of the program to measure self-acceptance. Finally, the Self-Insight Test was used.\(^{17}\) It consists of a series of statements which are generally true of people but which tend to represent socially unacceptable characteristics. A tendency to agree with the statements indicates greater self-insights according to the underlying rationale of the instrument. Pre- and post-tests were given to the subjects in the project.

After an analysis of the data from the first secondary group, a somewhat different set of tests was used with the second group. The California Psychological Inventory was used a second time. The Manifold Interest Inventory was given. It is scored on two sets of scales. One measures interests in various academic fields, and the other measures personality variables and modes of expressing one's self. Pre- and post-tests were given to determine if certain personality patterns were related to other outcomes or if there were changes in personality patterns. The Treatment Q-Sort was developed by one of the evaluators to measure the perceptions of the students about the kinds of experiences they had during the program. The items were so constructed as to show if the particular program emphasized self-development, relations with adolescents, and relations with peers as perceived by the subjects. The instrument was given at the end of each of the three semesters. The Dimensions of Divergent Thinking, a locally constructed test based on the work of Guilford\(^{18}\) was used to determine if students were becoming more creative as a result of mentally healthy learning processes. In addition to the students in the secondary program the California Personality Inventory and the Manifold Interest Inventory were given to a comparison group of sixty students in the regular secondary teacher education program at the college. Here, too, pre- and post-tests were administered.

Usually the skills and knowledge which a student has gained in teacher education are reflected in course grades which he has been


awarded. Since the secondary program departed radically from the usual plan, no grades were given for individual courses. The students were given only a "pass" grade at the end for the course work recorded on their transcripts. Hence, it was necessary to administer tests over the usual teacher education content to determine if they had gained the required proficiency. At the end of the third semester, these instruments were administered to all the subjects in the first secondary group and to a comparison group of students from the regular secondary teacher education program at the college.

With the second secondary group, the measures of skills and attitudes were administered at the start and at the end of the program to both the experimental group and to sixty students from the regular program. These instruments included the Education Division Examination which was locally constructed and had been used for several years as a diagnostic test for Master's degree candidates. It measured knowledge in eight areas of professional education. The examination was highly reliable and had a well-developed set of local norms. The Case of Becky Jacobs was a case study instrument which presented background data and a teacher's write-up of classroom observations of a fifth-grade child. The students were asked to make an analysis of the information in order to demonstrate their understanding of the child's motivation and her problems and assets, and they were to make recommendations as to how she might be helped. The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory was a standardized instrument to measure attitudes of acceptance and permissiveness. The Educational Opinion Inventory was a test which attempted to extend the MTAI so as to measure attitudes which were concerned with the kinds of things which a teacher might do to help a child cognitively rather than just emotionally.

While the usual examination and grades were not used, the instructors gathered several kinds of data from the students for evaluating the teaching program. Student reaction sheets, short student essays, unfinished sentence instruments, and logs kept by the instructors were all used to evaluate the program. Also, an extensive questionnaire was devised and administered to all of the students in the regular teacher education program at the college. This sampled students' beliefs on a number of issues in professional education, and it checked their attitudes toward the course work in professional education.

The first secondary group of students finished in February, 1961, and, by the following fall, twenty-eight of them were teaching at regular jobs. These students were all contacted in the spring of 1962 and visited by two members of the staff who observed two periods of teaching, interviewed the subject's principal, and interviewed the subject.
interpretation of Data

All of the pre-test and post-test data were analyzed by the analysis of variance and co-variance. Other data were scored and a comparison between the means of the secondary groups and comparison groups was made. Interview material, questionnaire data, observations, and other written data were summarized for generalizations. In addition, the data were also summarized and interpreted for several subjects as case studies. This longitudinal approach showed the impact of the long-term study on the individual subject.

Since this was an exploratory study, it was planned that a major outcome would be a deepened understanding of how learning progresses and the development of a number of hypotheses about these processes which could be further investigated at a future time with a more formally designed study. In the project, time was provided for meetings, informal discussions, and writing, with the idea that staff members should develop papers on subjects which had stimulated their interests during their experiences in the project.

Curriculum of the Secondary Program

What was the nature of the teaching-learning experience which was developed to implement the ideas presented earlier with respect to educating mentally healthy teachers? The learning situation centered around a flexible seminar with a continuing staff and student body over a three-semester period. The aim was to draw content from the questions and feelings of students as they were becoming teachers and to help each student structure the content so that it had meaning for him. It not only depended upon a radical break with the traditional, highly-structured college class, but it called for cooperating secondary school teachers and administrators to provide a permissive, friendly, individualized experience for the subjects in the public schools.

The description presented here will relate in some detail the special techniques used in the secondary program. Student groups were formed to study topics of special interest. The instructors worked with these groups and provided them with reading lists on the topics which they were studying. Some groups made reports to the class, but at other times they disbanded without any formal closure. The topics which were studied in this manner were: motivation, rapport, learning theories, adolescence, life space, peer culture, and anecdotal records. One group presented a play to the class which dealt with adolescent behavior.

After the students started teaching, they found it desirable to meet in groups composed of those who taught in the same school. The instructor who was supervising in the school met with his school group.
These groups worked together to understand the particulars of the school and to discuss problems in teaching some of the same adolescents as well as problems with some of the school personnel, school events, policies, and philosophy.

The sensitivity groups were another type of small group used in the program. The members selected the group they wished to join, and an instructor worked with each group. The members became very personal about their feelings, and at times gained catharsis from the experience. These experiences helped the students recognize their feelings, be more open to themselves, and be less defensive. The group members developed a depth of communication and displayed supporting acceptance of one another.

The total class met together for lectures, special speakers, films, project reports, planning sessions, and coffee hours. There were several special committees which facilitated the work of the class. The library committee handled the library for the class. This committee collected money, chose and purchased books, managed the borrowing of the books, and finally saw to the disposal of the collection. A steering committee was set up by the first secondary group to help plan the activities of the class. This steering committee actually planned a schedule for the instructors and class to follow during the last semester of their work.

A very important part of the instruction was individual conferences. These conferences were frequently lengthy and deep. The students usually initiated the conferences by coming to the office to talk about professional matters, and then they would stay on for several hours examining their problems beyond the professional areas. With the second group, the opportunity was provided for the students to visit a trained counselor. While this did not replace conferences with the staff, it did provide an opportunity of a special kind, and was used rather extensively by some of the students.

In addition to the regular team of instructors, there was other special staff. The three regular instructors were selected to represent strengths in several areas—educational foundations, human development, secondary curriculum and instruction, group process, guidance, evaluation, and supervisory and public school experience. Instructors from other departments of the college taught the special methods' seminars and participated as special-subject supervisors of the student teaching. Also, the audio-visual laboratory was conducted for the project students so that they might learn the uses of the equipment and how to develop materials.

**Continuing Direct Experiences**

The students throughout the program carried on continuing relations with secondary schools, teachers, and adolescents. These field experiences started as observations and moved rapidly into participating experiences. The students were given extensive responsibility in working out their field
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experiences. In conjunction with their high school supervising teachers, they decided just what they would undertake and when they would do it. The students arranged their own student teaching experiences so that they found supervising teachers with whom they could work. Some of them started instructing with small groups of adolescents, but others started with entire classes. The supervising teachers favored this since they preferred to turn over entire classes rather than just parts of classes. Students were free to move in and out of the teaching role as they and their supervising teachers saw fit. Also, they did extensive observing in many kinds of classes, and some of them even tried some teaching outside of their fields of preparation to see how they would like these other teaching fields.

As has been mentioned, all of the usual topics in teacher education were taught, but there were certain emphases which reflected the mental health concerns of the project. One goal was to foster the development of sensitivity; this was an increased awareness of the feelings of others, sharpened empathy, hearing better what others try to communicate, and a general awareness that a person's behavior represents the best choice of action he knows how to make. The staff tried to foster a positive regard for adolescents. This took the form of many special projects. The students participated voluntarily in several community agency services. They found three Spanish youths who spoke no English in one of the schools and tutored them for months. They followed high school pupils through their school schedules and did the things required of the adolescents. They arranged to have Future Teacher Clubs visit the seminar on campus. The staff tried to foster an openness to experience by supporting many kinds of divergent suggestions and by removing as many of the customary limits as they could. No grades were given except for a “pass” at the end of the project. Attendance was not taken, and students brought visitors to class whenever they wished. The staff tried to foster opportunities for each student in his unique way to see himself as a teacher. The students were helped to look at what it meant to them when they did a teaching act, when they helped a student, when they had to be severe, and when they facilitated learning. Finally, the teaching team tried to foster whatever autonomy the students had and to facilitate its development. The students were given every opportunity to make their own choices. Most of the students found this to be novel in their college experience, and it took some testing before they believed it. Most of them fully used their autonomy as persons when they were certain they would not be punished for it.

Findings of the Secondary Program

Extensive data of both an anecdotal and statistical nature were collected on the students in the program. These data were submitted to extensive and deep analysis. The results were used to help the staff in
day-to-day decisions about how to individualize the program, understand individuals, and check the communication processes; to understand available tests and to develop new instruments for measuring mentally healthy situations; and to evaluate the over-all program according to the design of the study.

**Application of Process Criteria**

The analysis and findings are not discussed here in detail, but the findings are presented from the viewpoint of the six behavioral statements which were identified earlier as important for mentally healthy teachers. Using the evidence gathered in the project, the following summaries were made with respect to the process criteria.

It was predicted that students in the program would move in the direction of seeing themselves as teachers. This did not seem to take place as had been expected. The students did not increasingly identify with teachers, and they did not approve of much which they saw teachers doing. Nevertheless, their Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory and Educational Opinion Inventory scores increased significantly, and, on the Index of Values and Adjustment, they became significantly more as they wanted to be. Also, those who completed the program did obtain credentials and most of them started to teach.

It was expected that the students would increase in self-insight. This was well substantiated, for a number of personality variables shifted in a positive direction. They became more introspective, achieved more self-acceptance, were more autonomous, were more reality oriented, and were more sensitive about recognizing their problems. In fact, several became involved in therapy.

It was anticipated that the students would see their unique strengths as means for successful teaching. These students through the program accentuated the personality attributes which were their original strong characteristics. They developed in the direction of their character strengths—leadership ability, persistence, self-reliance, and initiative. Also, they became more perceptive, observant, resourceful, confident; and they became more verbal. The students became more what they wanted to be, and they became more autonomous.

It was presumed that the students would see teaching essentially as facilitating learning. All of the data collected supported the criterion that these students would recognize teaching as a helping relation. Their Minnesota Teacher Attitudes Inventory scores increased during the project. They saw adults and teachers as facilitators. The students recognized teaching as an interaction between teacher and students. They scored low on authority orientation, and they displayed sensitivity on several tests. Finally, they used the kind of classroom activities which put them in a helping relationship with students.
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It was expected that the students would be comfortable (free of fears of guilt); spontaneous (transparent, undefensive) in their efforts to be understanding with pupils. Insufficient data were collected concerning how they actually interacted with students in the classrooms. It was established that they grew in the direction of being open and more spontaneous as well as more understanding of their peers. Also, they were more comfortable with their own selves.

Finally, it was predicted that the students would acquire the technical knowledge and skills needed for effective instruction, and, on a test of this kind of knowledge, they did as well as the students in the regular program at the college. Also, they were successful in getting and keeping teaching jobs on which they were rated as good teachers.

Follow-Up Activities

A small-scale follow-up survey was made of the students. Those from the first group who were teaching were visited by a team of two staff members. The team spent at least a half day in each teacher's school. They visited classes, interviewed the principal, and interviewed the teacher at considerable length.

A status survey was conducted to locate the students who had taken part in the program. This included those who were teaching, those who had received a credential but were not teaching, those who had not finished their credential requirements, and those who had dropped out of school. These conclusions were drawn from the follow-up activities.

1. On the average those in full-time teaching jobs were performing as well as or better than the average first-year teacher.
2. Those in full-time teaching were maintaining an active concern for the mental health objectives of developing good human relations in the classroom and individualizing education.
3. A high proportion of all students, including the dropouts, held positive feelings about their experiences in the program.
4. This program appeared to have superior holding power during the preservice period, and a larger percentage of its graduates went into teaching jobs.

Comparative Survey

A large questionnaire study was made of the students in the regular teacher education program at the college, and the same instrument was used with the students who were in the mental health teacher education program. It was found that the students in the project felt better about their experiences in teacher education. They felt more challenged and more stimulated by the curriculum, and they had more faith that it would be useful. They were more certain that this was a period of personal growth, and they were confident that the faculty liked and respected
and wanted to assist them. They thought the faculty treated them as adults, and they believed that their fellow students and the general faculty respected their decisions to become teachers. Finally, they were more willing to maintain an idealistic view of their relations with the students whom they would teach. They were more favorable to their experiences in teacher education than the students in the regular program at the college. In summary, it was found that:

1. The mental health project students were happier with the teacher education experience and had faith that what they were doing was significant and worthwhile.
2. The mental health project students responded like adults who were taking charge of their own life space, growing more sure that they counted as people, and were ready to take their places as professional teachers.

Conclusions and Implications

This program was aimed at the discovery of mentally healthy ways of educating teachers. Procedures were sought which would promote the mental health of the candidates and which would also help them in turn teach their future students in healthful ways. Naturally, it was also essential that the program produce teachers who were competent in every sense. There proved to be no dichotomy in these two goals, for it became apparent that the mentally healthy teacher was the fully effective one who was operating near his potential as a person.

Instructional Devices

Several devices were explored in the program to improve the effectiveness of teacher education. In contrast to the widely used arrangement of a final semester of student teaching in a public school which is frequently preceded by a short period of observation, the project used a more flexible setup with the students being in the schools during much of their professional preparation. There was a wide variation from student to student, but these students used field experience extensively and in a highly individual fashion. It was learned that the public school people found this to be workable, and they were favorable to a more extensive experience for the students in the schools.

The field experience was used for new purposes in the instructional program. In the usual plan, it is the final practice of the theory which has been learned in earlier courses. Here the students used it in highly individualized fashion as laboratory experience for their study of theory. The students studied the practicing teachers to better understand themselves in the professional role, observed the behavior of students to deepen their understanding of them, used the school community as a source of data to gain insight into the school-home culture, and
discussed curriculum based on what they had seen operating in the several schools where they were working. The old stress on practice has its place, but it was found that much could be gained by supporting the study of theory with field experience. Furthermore, it was learned that when students were left free to seek their own experience by planning with cooperative public school teachers, they participated in a wide variety of highly profitable experiences. While there is much yet to be done, the importance of early and continuing field experience in the development of theory was demonstrated.

The usual courses in psychology, sociology, and principles and methods were replaced by a continuing seminar which ran throughout the entire program. The aim was to bring to bear everything needed from various disciplines for the development of the students in their becoming teachers. Heavy dependence was placed on field experience as the source of content for study, and extensive faculty-student planning was used in identifying and planning the content areas to be studied. The problem-solving approach was frequently used. The plan worked, and demonstrated that this was a feasible approach to teacher education.

In the instruction, teams of three professors were used. These instructors worked with the same group of students during the entire sequence of their teacher education. This proved to be a workable plan, but team teaching has its drawbacks. Some teachers did not have the temperament to work in this type of situation, and they found it very uncomfortable. Also, the expected division of labor did not occur as anticipated. All members of the team had to keep up with what was going on in the class; hence, it proved to be very time consuming. On the other hand, when the members of a team were working well together, their combined effectiveness was certainly greater than the results of the usual individual efforts.

The continuity of faculty and student group mentioned above proved to be helpful. The original purpose in this arrangement was for the student to be known well over a period of time by the faculty so that greater individual adaptation could be carried out in the program. This proved workable. Moreover, an unexpected result of the continuity of the student group was the cohesive, mutually-supportive relations which developed. They did a good deal of informal counseling among themselves, and they aided each other's growth in self-insight and acceptance. This proved to be an important part of the curriculum.

Finally, stress was placed on every student having a high degree of freedom and of responsibility for his own learning experiences and that, as a group, they were to be deeply involved in shaping their program of instruction. This kind of adult treatment was successful, and the students did grow in their capacity to take responsibility and their initiative to utilize freedom.
It became the belief of the investigators that mentally healthy teaching was an interaction where a teacher helped another person become his potential by reacting fully and helpfully to him. Ideally, this means that a teacher is willing to put all of himself into interaction with all of his students. While most of the help which the students need does not require a total interaction, the teacher's willingness to be congruent and his willingness to accept the student entirely must be communicated if the relation is to be mentally healthy.

The self-autonomy of the students was encouraged in the program. Students who understood this did things on their own, made decisions about their learning, and experienced autonomy. There were difficulties in helping students become autonomous. The more autonomous a student is, the less help he needs, but the more dependent he is, the more help he seeks. However, it is harmful to give him much help if he is to gain autonomy. It was evident that there was confusion between being dependent upon a person and being accepted by that person. It was necessary to establish that acceptance was not doing something for a person but allowing him to do things for himself. To the extent that a teacher thinks for the student, makes decisions which the student could make, guides him, directs him, controls him, makes him dependent—to that extent the teacher is reducing the possibility of mentally healthy autonomy.

Sensitivity groups were used in which a faculty member communicated his willingness to listen, to care, and to accept without judgmental reservations. When students perceived themselves as listened to, cared about, and accepted, they in turn began to listen to, care about, and accept first themselves and then others. A very important discovery was that college students found this a unique and satisfying experience. In their school lives, teachers had not customarily related to them as warm, live, whole individuals. The results of this experience were that these students became more accepting and sensitive to other people.

These students became more reality oriented. They began to look at data objectively, and they began to ask the right kind of questions to get at their problems. They probably became more questioning because they were questioned. For mentally healthy processes to be promoted, these questions must communicate helpfulness and acceptance, and it means that the questioner must be very sensitive and skillful in his questioning.

An atmosphere of informality was promoted in the program. It was believed that the easy, good-humored, informal relations between faculty and students was one way of communicating that the students were accepted as mature, responsible, autonomous individuals. The good relations led to the students sustaining each other in their efforts, and the good humor balanced idealism. They could look at things realistically,
and they could experiment within this framework of good-humored acceptance. The results of this dimension of the program challenged the maintenance of social distance in the conventional classroom. The principle of accepting other people seemed to preclude a great deal of traditional formality. Social distance as a defense for teachers is as much a limit to freedom as is any defensiveness.

The aim in the program was to develop all the content of the seminar from the problems which the students identified in their field experiences. This procedure gave the students responsibility for their own learning; accepted the legitimacy of their concerns; fostered their independence; assumed that this was the only learning the students would be really working on at any one time anyway. This meant an emerging curriculum in which the content of the program was organized uniquely by the students around their own becoming teachers. Thus, the content was not the preconceived organization of an instructor, for it was the concerns of each student. The fact was that this emerging curriculum with two groups of students did cover all of the conventional areas of teacher education. The evidence was strong that it was possible to work in this fashion and that it made for autonomy, sensitivity, and effectiveness in the individual student. The results challenged all pre-structured courses in professional education, for in reality they may be hindering rather than aiding in the development of the individual student.

Identification of Basic Assumptions

Two basic assumptions about teacher education were identified in the project. The first assumption was concerned with learning and the learner. It was that learning is a power within and under the control of the learner. The learner may be coerced into doing things, but in the end he will retain and become only those things which have positive and rewarding meaning to him. If this is true, then there are implications from this for teacher education.

1. Teaching must be a cooperative process. It must be a process for facilitating learning.
2. Teaching must be a process adapting to individual differences. A teacher is facilitating when he is responding to the meanings being communicated to him by the learner.
3. If teaching is the facilitation of learning, then teacher education must be the facilitating of the learner as to how to facilitate learning. Teacher education must provide an example of how one facilitates learning.
4. In teacher education, we must help each student to discover himself so that he becomes aware of how he is using his learning powers.
5. In teacher education, we must mix theory with experience so that the student grows in skill as he grows in understanding of the teaching process.
The second assumption was that the behavior of a teacher is a function of his own personality. Therefore, the most important thing about a teacher is the kind of a person he is. This, too, has some important implications for teacher education.

1. Teacher education must be concerned with personality and with methods which will change personality. The student must find that his learnings fit him personally. If the student's personality characteristics interfere with facilitating and, if this personality is not alterable, he should be screened out of teaching.

2. Teacher education is a period of personal ferment and development. This is a period of reorganization and change directed at the student becoming a teacher, a mature person functioning effectively.
Almost everyone who will ever occupy a bed in a mental hospital was once in some teacher's first grade. So was every physicist and poet; every healer, murderer, pusher, and priest. Through the hands and minds and feelings of teachers pass all our children. In the face of such opportunity, what is the teacher's task in mental health? What, in fact, is mental health? How can a researcher or a teacher think about mental health?

Mental health can be thought of as subjective well being, as feeling good. But many great men did not feel good and were often racked by pain both physical and psychic.

Is mental health the absence of unconscious conflict, something a psychologist must define? No, it is not, for often productive, functioning men produce the same kinds of test protocols as hospitalized psychotics.

Mental health then is more than the absence of illness, more than well being, more even than joyfulness. We have conceived of it here as the developing capacity to cope. In behavior, it is successive hypothesis testing: marshalling one's resources to make a guess, trying out the guess, listening for results, using the results as new information to make a new guess, then trying that out. Mental health is this kind of going on as opposed to giving up.

The teacher's job in mental health is to expand each child's ability to cope. How can he do that? This is one way:

The student teacher and her supervisor had watched and discussed the short sound film of the student teacher teaching. The supervisor asked why one boy brightened up after an inaudible conversation with the student teacher. The student teacher said, "He hardly ever takes an interest. Everyone's about given up on him. I walked back to his table because he was drawing something while the class was doing arithmetic.

\[1\] This research was carried out under NIMH grant No. 2M6635 and is being continued under USOE grant No. OE 3-10-032 in the PTETB project. Initiator of the research and director of both projects has been Robert F. Peck; associate directors, Carson McGuire and O. H. Brown; school administrator, M. K. Ilage (principal, Highland Park School, Austin, Texas); research associate, Herbert G. Richer.
He said the drawing was a test tube. We’d had a science lesson that morning, and I could hardly believe it, but he must have gotten interested in the test tubes.” The supervisor asked her, “What did you do?” “Oh, I gave him a bigger piece of paper.”

Sometimes a teacher can help a child develop the ability to cope by seeing the child’s act as it is meant, by getting behind his eyes. A psychotherapist might smile about the symbolism of the test tube and the teacher’s easy encouragement of a small boy’s wanting to enlarge it. But all that can be skipped; this teacher did not need to know that impotence and underachievement are hypothesized to be related. He did know that a child can start to want to learn to cope; a simple act can help; the act can be as homely as giving him a bigger piece of paper.

Sometimes a supervisor can help a teacher develop his ability to cope.

Student Teacher: (talking steadily) I’m doing just what I said I’d do—talk, talk, talk, talk, talk. A motor mouth. How can I quit it?
Supervisor: Why try to quit? Could you make your talking more effective?
(Silence) Don’t talk less. Make it better. (Silence)
Student Teacher: I never thought of that. (Long silence)

Just as the test tube found a bigger piece of paper, so the “motor mouth” might find a “bigger piece of paper,” too—a larger scope instead of a smaller tongue. He might be helped to make both his talking and his listening more effective rather than to be advised to quit talking, which he probably couldn’t do even if he tried. More important perhaps than the talking symptom, is someone’s attempt to improve, rather than eliminate a part of him. Having experienced, himself, acceptance aimed at enhancing his ability to cope, he may be better able to accept limitations in others; to appreciate rather than eliminate children’s differences; to enlarge, not dessicate, their powers.

This then was how we defined the construct “mental health:” guessing, revising, re-guessing and going on, coping.

**Applying Knowledge to Practice**

Concerned primarily with the application of psychological insights, the Texas project emphasized discovering and demonstrating practical, day-to-day ways to implement widely accepted psychological formulations in an ongoing undergraduate program of teacher preparation.

To measure the effects of these procedures, a research plan paralleled the demonstration. Detailed observations such as verbatim transcripts described what happened when procedures were tried. This information about the procedures and their effects was fed back to those devising the methods and trying them out—to instructors, university supervisors,
psychologists, and all other participants. On the basis of this information, some procedures were eliminated or revised and new ones were devised in a kind of leapfrog succession.

This complex co-existence of research and demonstration meets a need for research which bridges the gap between controlled laboratory studies on one hand and general practice in the classroom on the other. It also makes reporting voluminous and complex. Hence, not all methods tried can be recounted in this limited space. Emphasis will be given to the threads which survived rather than those which faded. This will include the psychological formulations which were selected for application to teacher preparation, the procedures used to implement these formulations, and the new directions and procedures still emerging. The research and measurement aspects of the project are described elsewhere.2

**Psychological Formulations**

One initial orientation of the Texas project was a developmental-social psychological approach to teacher education contributed by the project's director, Robert F. Peck. Peck pioneered what might be called a “depth-breadth” approach to individualizing teacher preparation. In this approach, whole populations are studied first through depth analysis of individuals.3, 4 From these laboriously derived “hand-made” models, mass procedures are devised which are feasible on a larger scale. One direction this is taking is Peck’s current research into machine scoring of projective data. To take the simplest example, sentence completion tests usually analyzed clinically can be limited to one word responses and this one word scored for communality by noting how many other students responded with the same word. Another direction is Peck’s current attempt to specify through computer simulation how human assessors doing depth analysis reach their conclusions.5

Another orientation was akin to that described by Carl Rogers in Chapter II. This was the viewpoint which Oliver H. Bown, the project's associate director and a student of Rogers, brought to Texas. From this Rogerian beginning arose the project's initial counseling program and the psychological consultation services which evolved from it.

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Basic Premises

Five premises stemmed from these two viewpoints.

The first was that the teacher's primary job is to maximize significant or experiential learning in students, i.e., learning which makes a difference in the individual's behavior.

A second premise was that teachers teach far more than just intellectual content in their total interactions with students. Students learn from teacher's attitudes and ways of responding which comprise part of their ability to cope, but which teachers may not be conscious of teaching. Whether there is, in the strict sense, incidental or unintentional, learning is as yet unanswered question. There seems to be little doubt, however, that there is incidental teaching. To adapt an adage, oftimes what teachers do speaks so loudly that students cannot hear what they say.

A third premise was that changing what the teaching does involves more than changing what the teacher does. If changes are to occur in what teaching does (i.e., in students' experiential learning) changes need to occur in teachers too; in how they think, feel, and respond, as well as in what they know; in short, in their, the teachers', experiential learning. If this is so, the teacher preparation institution's primary job is to maximize experiential learning for prospective teachers.

A fourth premise was that selected psychological assessment techniques can be helpful in understanding prospective teachers as individuals.

A fifth premise was that personal growth is facilitated by the presence of a serious meaningful problem and by a therapist who is congruent, accepting, and empathically understanding. Ways were sought to create for prospective teachers (and ultimately, for children who are their students) a climate with the same meaning that a therapeutic climate, a climate facilitating personal growth, holds for clients. The therapeutic skills of listening, of discovering the client's concerns and perceptions, and of empathizing can contribute to the creation of such a climate in the classroom.

Related Administrative Decisions

Six fundamental decisions regarding operation of the project were based on these premises.

First, the ecology was allowed to vary naturally.

As a result, this was not a showroom demonstration. It did not take place in a laboratory, but was, instead, a part of the regular ongoing operations of the College of Education of the University of Texas. Student teachers were not segregated into special demonstration schools.

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but were scattered through many public schools. Available university faculty taught regularly offered courses. In brief, the facilities and personnel employed were "old." Only the applications of ideas and the attempt to assess and feed back the effects of these applications were new.

To preserve the seriousness and meaningfulness of the problem for faculty, investigators, and consultants, the areas to which applications were made were selected on the basis of probable fruitfulness, rather than ease of operation. We reminded ourselves regularly of the story of the inebriate who dropped his key on his dark front porch but went out into the street to look for it because the light was better. The impulse to search out in the lighted street was resisted. The dark porch was the melee of university registration rather than the quiet orderliness of preselection, the colorful diversity of working school principals rather than the comforting sophistication of one research oriented administrator, the fervent hopefulness and hot hostility of student teachers who played for real; the mess and tangle, hell and heaven, of getting in where people really lived, without the aseptic protection of "research," i.e., the implication that it's safe because it's make believe. In every instance elegance succumbed to ecological reality. This decision was made not only to preserve the meaningfulness of the problems for participants, but because it was hoped it would increase the probability of discovery and the generalizability of findings.

Second, mental health was not added as another subject to either the school day or the university curriculum. Instead, personal growth of individual prospective teachers was the focus. What is believed to foster personal growth was practiced. The goal was to imbue the teaching of teachers with the elements believed to encourage experiential learning.

Third, provisions were made for the personal growth and therapy of the teachers of prospective teachers, i.e., of their professors and university supervisors, on the assumption that mental health is conveyed by professors to prospective teachers more by example than by precept, just as it is by teachers to pupils.

Fourth, psychologists assigned as consultants had had experience in psychotherapy and had demonstrated ability to establish the climate in which experiential learning, as defined here, is possible. For them also provision for personal growth and therapy was made in a kind of infinite regress of richer and richer systems.

Fifth, the assessment program was to extend from top to toe excluding no one. All project participants from director to file clerk—students, secretaries, psychometrists, research assistants, supervising teachers, university faculty, psychologists, administrators—all were offered assessment, and all except clerical staff had available opportunities for filming, recording, and other feedback as these evolved.

Sixth, both description and measurement were used in assessment of individuals and in reporting results. The descriptions in this chapter
were derived from tape recordings, on-the-spot records of trained observers, clinical write-ups, case notes and, from a current project, sound films of student teaching, counseling, and consultation.

An empathic understanding of student teaching as a psychological experience—or of any of the tasks of the prospective teacher—is not much assisted by reference to the literature. As Sarason said in 1962, “No problem area in education is as unstudied and as important as the practice-teaching period.” At the start of the Texas project in 1958, that was the situation. Teacher preparation was then psychologically almost unknown.

Vantage Points for Understanding

Psychological understanding of teacher preparation requires at least three vantage points.

One is the point of view of the teacher educator—the teacher preparation institution, the university supervisor, the public school supervising teacher, and all the professional persons involved in teacher preparation. This point of view is well represented, even over-represented. Most teacher preparation programs and most texts for prospective teachers, although attempting to consider the problem from the student’s point of view, are based primarily on guesses by teacher educators about the prospective teacher’s concerns and tasks.

A second vantage point required is one behind the eyes, between the ears, inside the viscera of the prospective teacher himself.

A third vantage point is that of some omniscient observer—all seeing, all hearing, all instituting—who can with perfect accuracy, art and resonance, reflect all the events seen and unseen of the classroom and the school: the precise moment a child first feels that math is hard or reading sissy; the teacher’s glance that fires a first faint impulse to choose ulcers as a favored symptom; the sudden secret knowledge of power; the rapture of first communion with a word; all the trillion, trillion messages received and sent each day in school.

To approach these last two vantage points, one inside the prospective teacher and one beyond infallibility, many hundred hours of mouse-in-the-corner observation and mechanical recording were undertaken.

As a result, one outcome of the Texas project has been a myriad of empirically derived portraits of teaching tasks as becoming teachers see them, not just those perceptions of which they are conscious but rarely verbalize, but also those of which they are not conscious but which may be apparent to specially trained observers.

A second outcome has been a "mural" of the prospective teacher's task as it might be seen by an omniscient observer. A composite of these two portraits of the teaching task, one drawn by the prospective teacher and one by the uninvolved observer, became the basis for instruction and for all psychological services to prospective teachers. They were used to answer the questions prospective teachers were really asking, rather than to answer, however well, questions no one was asking.

**Through the Eyes of Prospective Teachers**

The tremendous psychological complexity of teacher preparation, and especially of student teaching as it was communicated by students in the midst of it, almost defies description except in the words of the students themselves. These words come from many sources: from the typescripts of tape recordings of three semesters of weekly counseling-oriented, student teaching seminars, from near-verbatim accounts by psychologists of over two hundred hour-long confidential "depth" interviews with student teachers before and after student teaching, from the case notes of therapists' "test interpretation" or counseling conferences and from tape recordings of many informal contacts between psychologists or curriculum supervisors and prospective teachers while the latter exploded, whispered, cried, smarted, gloated, beamed, or fussed over their most recent encounters with teaching. Currently a stimulated recall method, after Bloom, is being used to investigate more systematically covert concerns and perceptions. For this purpose, student teachers watching a film of themselves teaching a class, attempt to recall their feelings, thoughts, expectations, and perceptions while teaching.

**Composition of the Sample**

The words that follow as examples come from some of almost one thousand students, primarily young women between the ages of nineteen and twenty-six and, except where noted, these are their concerns, their perceptions of a teacher's developmental tasks.

The composition of the sample is important. For example, one freshman education course was labeled completely useless by well over 90 per cent of all the student teachers seen in a confidential post-student-teaching interview, but it was judged brilliant, deep, enlightening by a selected subsample. The subsample was composed of student teachers

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over thirty-five: retired men, foreign students, musicians, artists, housewives, and other mature persons returning to college for certification. The context of these interviews indicates that the young inexperienced majority was unable to formulate the questions the course was designed to answer and only this young majority termed the course irrelevant, or, less elegantly, "mickey mouse."

Three arbitrary divisions will be made in reporting prospective teachers' experiences: (1) the concerns of student teachers as they progressed through their first semester of teaching in public schools, (2) their developmental tasks as they saw them, and (3) their reported and observed responses to these tasks. It should be noted that in reality, however, these comfortably neat divisions were neither neat nor comfortable, but more typically a flowing, intermingling, often baffling whole.

Concerns of Student Teachers

In order to secure frank statements from student teachers about their real concerns as these developed through the student teaching experience, it was necessary to create an environment which they perceived as appropriate for free expression.

A prior review of the case notes of approximately two hundred confidential depth exit interviews with individual graduating student teachers in this population had indicated that student teaching was generally regarded as crucial and often stressful, that student teachers rarely voiced their failures, and that a protected but purposeful environment would be necessary to insure honest self-report.

Dr. Geneva Pilgrim had suggested that student teaching seminars, already a part of teacher preparation, become "counseling-oriented seminars." These were similar to what is sometimes called an intensive group experience or the T-group mentioned by Carl Rogers in an earlier chapter of this volume. Between 1960 and 1962, groups of five to nine student teachers met once a week for two hours for the twelve to fourteen weeks of their student teaching semester with one or two experienced counseling psychologists. The counselors did not structure sessions or provide leads for topics. They maintained confidentiality; they did not contribute to evaluation or grading of student teachers. University supervisors who assigned course grades were not present during any of the discussion used as data in the study of teachers' concerns.

Discovering concerns of student teachers had not been the original or even the principal purpose for conducting the seminars. The main purpose had been to discover how to apply group therapy techniques to an ongoing program of teacher preparation. Lumpkin and McGuire
had reported it feasible and accepted by volunteer student teachers when conducted outside the college program.10

In order to provide units for analysis, complete typescripts of tape recordings of seminars were divided into “communications” and these units were classified into thirteen categories. The arbitrary names given these categories were student teachers’ concern with: Curriculum, Discipline, Grading and Evaluation, Parents of Pupils, Peers, Psychological Approaches to Teaching, Public School Situation, Pupils, Research Project, Routine, Self-Attitudes, Supervising Teachers, University.

Concerns classified were not necessarily the most obvious topic of the student teacher’s statement in the seminar. When considered in context, the event or topic mentioned was often merely a vehicle for conveying an underlying concern. It was the underlying concern which was of interest in this analysis. A verbatim comment by a student teacher may illustrate the difference. The teacher here may seem to be talking about the tedium of teaching spelling:

I got so blasted ego-involved and I wanted to do something sooo meaningful, and then to get up there and teach those stupid spelling words! There’s nothing wrong with it. It’s not that. But it was so flat.

Teaching spelling was, in context, not really central. Even the implied condemnation of a system which killed enthusiasm was incidental. Her underlying concern was her own disappointment.

From inspection of category frequencies, a pattern of concerns became apparent during the first seminar which was repeated in broad outline during the two succeeding semesters. During the early part of the semester, student teachers’ concerns centered on themselves, and, as the semester advanced, they became more concerned with their pupils. The earliest concerns of student teachers were almost disregarded by us during early seminars as mere concern with routine and unrelated to the “real” business of teaching. Student teachers were eager to learn what school and class they were assigned to, who would ride in their car pool, the name of their supervisor and above all the public school supervising teacher to whom they would be assigned. It was during this period that they were most vividly aware of themselves and least aware of their pupils. When they did become aware of pupils, it was with a jaundiced eye, often seeing pupils as no more than potential “discipline” problems.

When the problem of control was resolved, and pupils could be seen as individuals, awareness of self began to be replaced by awareness of

others. Student teachers gradually became less aware of themselves and more aware of their pupils. What they were teaching became of less concern than what pupils were really learning. It seemed that when the individual student teacher became more secure, it became possible for him to consider the welfare of others. As one student teacher put it, “When we have the class under control, that’s our food and shelter.”

Some student teachers never got enough “food and shelter” and, still cold and hungry, were unable to share the later concerns of their more fortunate friends. Such self-protecting student teachers typically avoided subsequent discussion of their own personal attitudes and values and the influences of these upon communication of subject matter, discussions to which student teachers advanced who had resolved problems of self-adequacy. Such self-concerned student teachers frequently changed the subject, introduced incidents others felt irrelevant, “forgot” or lost the trend of the conversation, sat silent, or otherwise avoided discussion of the more advanced concerns.

Stages of Concerns

Six stages of concerns emerged from the seminars. They were:

Stage One: Where do I stand?

Here student teachers were concerned with the coming student teaching situation and with their position in it. They were literally sitting on the edges of their chairs waiting to find out about their assignments, the school, the grade level, the supervising teacher, the university supervisor, the rules of the school, the orientation of the principal, and especially the expectations of supervising teachers, the requirements of the task and the limitations, both verbalized and tacit, upon them.

S.T. 1: I don’t know. I mean, is it going to be my class? Or is it going to be the teacher’s class? Can I teach what I want to, really? Can I try out new things?

S.T. 2: Does she tell you what to do? Or can you make up your mind?

S.T. 3: And what if she doesn’t approve of the way I’m doing it?

S.T. 1: And that’s not all of it. I can’t put my finger on it.

S.T. 2: Oh, I think the anticipation—knowing the action is actually coming.

S.T. 3: The big day when the bomb will fall.

When assignments have been made, the problem of discerning real expectations, the behaviors for which real rewards are given as opposed to those which just get lip service, the search for the real power structure, has just begun. Things are not always what they seem:

S.T. 1: My supervising teacher is so good. She gives them a free rein. But she has them under perfect control.

S.T. 2: They feel free with her. They just don’t dare not to discuss.

S.T. 1: Well, they get an “F” if they don’t.
Even when the facts are plain, knowing where one stands is hard:

S.T. 1: (Excitedly) I went to a conference with a mother today. It was actually a mother.
S.T. 2: A real mother!
S.T. 1: Mrs. M. said we are not student teachers, we are real teachers.
(Pause) I sat there and didn’t say a word. But they talk to you as well as the teacher.

In one school, student teachers reported being criticized as “unprofessional” because they avoided the teachers’ lounge; and in another, the telephone as well as the lounge were explicitly forbidden them. One principal felt that student teachers who sent pupils to his office for punishment were abdicating their responsibility; another backed them up and even invited them to witness the paddling. If they ignored noisy members of another class in the hall, they might be judged irresponsible; if they took action, they might be told to stop “interfering.” Even worse, the children might ignore them. Evaluating the subtle cues on which such judgments could be based called for social sophistication and sometimes two-faced inconsistency. Many otherwise committed, knowledgeable student teachers couldn’t—or wouldn’t—“play it smart.”

**Stage Two: How Adequate Am I?**

This was another self-preservation phase. One concern was with subject matter adequacy. What do you do when a child asks about the past tense of “lie” and “lay” when this is something you’ve never been clear about yourself? What will the class think when you have to say, not the first or fourth, but the tenth time, “I don’t know” or “Let’s look that up.”

A second, and overriding concern was class control. This is, of course, no surprise to anyone who has supervised student teachers. As hunters discuss the chase and sailors the shipwreck, student teachers from K through 12, but particularly in junior high school, talk about “discipline.” Resolution of the need, on one hand, to be liked by pupils and, on the other, to frustrate their impulses in the interests of socialization, caused discomfort to most student teachers. For some, however, attempts at class control were deeply traumatic. For a student teacher who was a lonely only child, “discipline” meant alienating potential “playmates” in the class or even brothers and sisters whose late arrival made them more precious still. For the rebel, class control was “going over to the enemy.” Unconsciously hostile student teachers sometimes panicked in fear of their own rage; passive ones cried; narcissistic ones were titillated and manipulated.

Discipline in student teaching is vastly complicated by the presence of a supervising teacher. First, his standards, if even slightly different regarding tolerable noise level and impulse expression, add another dimension to an already complex situation. More important, his aims and those of the student teacher are at odds: the teacher’s aim is success; the stu-
dent teacher needs the freedom to fail. As one so vividly documented it, they certainly can muff:

I cannot control them at all. They do everything they can to tease me. They take the little slips I have to send to the office. Then I have to hunt for them. They finally give them back. And they run around the room. Yes, they do.

Their repertoire of "staring them down," snapping fingers, making pupils "freeze," writing names on the board and so on, works only temporarily. Remaining in control is more complex than merely keeping order.

The view that "discipline problems," like a fever, are merely a symptom was relatively infrequent. Discipline problems were initially treated as discrete events susceptible of cure by prescription, although the "symptom" hypothesis was given lip service. The reason for this seemed to be that once class control was seen as a product of emotional interaction between teacher and class, what the teacher is (and cannot change quickly, if at all) instead of what the teacher does, is subject to inspection. So are many values of doubtful lineage, unexamined feelings, shaky convictions. In the area of discipline, it is not possible to abstain. Doing nothing is always doing something.

**Stage Three: Why Do They Do That?**

At this stage, student teachers were concerned with individual students, generally the "problem" students and their strange behavior. They saw masochistic behavior:

But I can't give her the scissors. The others cut the paper, but she just sits and slices little pieces off her fingers.

And fear:

I know how his father looks to him—like a great big ogre. I don't blame him for lying to his father about me, but what am I going to tell the father when he comes to see me?

Or withdrawal:

She's no trouble, but so strange—just not there at all.

Children disdain them:

When I said who I hoped would win the fight, I heard this one little boy say, "Nigger lover." I didn't know what to say.

Or take up arms against them:

She doesn't like me and she is arousing the others against me.

Occasionally, the problem resides entirely within a child too troubled for any teacher's help. But more often it is the teacher's own feelings about the child which are troublesome, not the child's feelings about
himself. To resolve this concern, more than knowledge of “child psychology” is required. A revision in the teacher’s attitude as well as an addition to the teacher’s knowledge is necessary.

**Stage Four: How Do You Think I’m Doing?**

During this stage, some students merely worried about their student teaching grade, but most tried to discern how parents, supervising teachers, principals, and others were evaluating them. Sometimes such an evaluation was crucial:

I won’t apply if I don’t have a chance. I know you shouldn’t be grade conscious, but what if I make a C? If I did, I wouldn’t go on teaching.

Important as they are, dependable evaluations seem hard to get:

Yesterday I had a parent come down and complain about me. Yesterday he acted lovely to me and today he is talking to Miss S.

Even principals can be distrusted if they try too hard to be agreeable:

The principal came in and said I did a wonderful job. I guess he liked the way I took roll. [Laughter] Then when he left he said to Mrs. M., “What is her name?” [Laughter] And I have to have his recommendation!

It is hard to ask frankly for honest evaluation:

S.T.: The only thing Dr. T. said to me was, “L., if your lesson plans were a little more detailed I could help you.” Of course, he was standing there with one tiny little piece of my notebook paper. [Laughter almost hysterically.] If he had only said, “Now look, you’ve got to get busy.” [Bangs on table to imitate fantasied supervisor gesture.] Of course I’m asking to be babied. [Laughter] But if he smiles I just sit there and tell him stories about what happened and we have a good old time. I hope I’m not going to get slapped in the face at the end of the course.

Counselor: You mean the babying may stop all of a sudden?

S.T.: Golly, yes. I said to my supervising teacher, “Has he said anything to you?”

**Stage Five: How Are They Doing?**

At this stage student teachers were concerned about what the pupils they taught were actually learning as distinguished from what they believed themselves to be teaching. In our early seminars, student teachers rarely asked the question, “Will the class remember that?” Although they often discussed with their supervisors outside the seminar the responses their classes made, and even devoted considerable time to an evaluation of what learning had taken place, this question was not raised spontaneously by the student teachers themselves in the early seminars.

Student teachers obviously knew in an intellectual way at least that evaluating what their pupils were learning was important in the eyes of their university supervisors. This became apparent when a university
supervisor unknowingly set off a near panic by suggesting immediately before the start of a counseling seminar that she would like the student teachers to reflect in their lesson plans the provisions they were making for individual differences among their junior high pupils and for evaluating the individual learning which took place.

As she spoke, the student teachers rapidly made notes, and when she asked if there were questions, there was one about the form this was to take. The university supervisor left and, as soon as the door closed, there was a loud explosion of comments:

Several: What did she mean? Someone run after her.

[Someone started out the door]

S.T. 1: (Shouting over the din) Wait a minute! Maybe we can figure this out!

S.T. 2: What did she mean about individualizing your lesson plans?

S.T. 3: I think she meant individual levels.

S.T. 1: I don't think she meant that although we've been talking about it in here. I think maybe that I have not been applying theory. I mean I have given a lot of individual attention without their knowing it. [Illustrates by recounting an incident from her class.]

S.T. 4: I think that is what she means but in the plan, not in just telling the child, but on a mass level of individual attention and planning. For example, a variety of assignments. Since you have a feeling of confidence now about the mechanics of teaching, start putting more time in on the planning. Is that what she means?

S.T. 5: Yes, that makes sense.

S.T. 4: Before we looked up and saw a sea of faces and you could just tell when someone was eating candy or the main thing was when someone wasn't working. Now we can change the lesson or explain it more thoroughly and look out for individuals more than just getting the work done.

Stage Six: Who Am I?

From the first, many unconscious interactions, between student teachers and their pupils, were apparent to the counselor. The impact one student teacher had on her pupils would often be apparent to some of the others in the seminar, but not to the student teacher herself. In an early meeting, for example, one student teacher had a "minor discipline problem."

S.T. 1: I say, "Yes, that's your homework." Then they wave their hands to ask questions and they let "Mama" slip out.

Several: They really do?

S.T. 1: And I say! Imagine! Thirteen year olds!

S.T. 2: You mean they know they're doing it?

S.T. 1: Maybe some of them do. But I can remember when I was in grade school, I used to let "Mama" slip out all the time.

S.T. 2: Yes, but not in high school.
At a later meeting:

Counselor: Do they still call you “Mama?”
S.T. 1: No, they’ve grown up all of a sudden.
Several: They have?
S.T. 1: Well, they were the ones that were calling me “Mama.” (Laughs)

I wasn’t calling them. No, but really, they’ve quit calling me “Mama.” One even asked what my married name would be.

At the last meeting of the group, without referring to the “Mama” incident, Student Teacher 1 said: “Oh, I know me—I’m the mother hen.”

The group knew, if she did not, that what she was, a “Mama hen,” spoke so loudly to the class that they could not hear her tell them not to call her “Mama.” They were rather like the little girl who was cautioned not to look at the enormous nose of the distinguished visitor. When she took his proferred gift, she said, eyes carefully averted, “Thank you, Mr. Nose.”

To know oneself requires first deciding how much self-knowledge one can bear.

S.T. 1: How much do I want to know about myself? [Long silence] I don’t know. [She expresses doubts about her qualifications for teaching.]
S.T. 2: It makes me feel sad.
S.T. 3: I feel we want to keep her [S.T. 1] in as a teacher, but more important, we want to get her found. I mean if she decided right now she wanted to be a doctor instead of a teacher and she was just very sure, I don’t think any of us would be sad. It is just that uncertainty.
S.T. 2: Well the reason I feel sad when she was saying that was because I have had feelings identical to those, except that I just happen to be more a conformist than you are, so I just pushed all my fears and doubts away. (Softly) So when you say that—well, I am sad because it makes mine come back.
S.T. 1: Do you want yours to come back?
S.T. 2: (Very softly) No, I don’t want them to come back. But, I really am proud of you for standing up and saying, “Well, I’m not sure.”

**Teachers’ Concerns and Teachers’ Tasks**

A pattern approximating this six stage sequence cropped up not only in other seminars which followed but in the case notes of interviews with scores of student teachers.

These stages were considered sufficiently important to become one basis for selecting content and procedures for instruction of prospective teachers. Their concerns were considered important for two reasons.

First, the path from knowledge of subject matter to communication of subject matter is not simple and direct but complex and devious. The proponents of scholarship alone as preparation for teaching are doomed
to empirical embarrassment simply because persons and, of course, teachers, are not fixed ratio input-output mechanisms, but rather jungles of intervening, and interfering or facilitating, variables. One simple-minded but powerful class of variable is the teacher's own needs and concerns. Before pupils' interests and needs could be sensed by the student teacher, his own most pressing needs had to be satisfied.

Second, the student teacher's stage of concern emerged as a rough index of his readiness to learn to teach. A student teacher preoccupied with a defiant child rarely could internalize instruction by university supervisors about teaching concepts, for example, no matter how many lesson plans he wrote. Too, his stage of concern indicated to some extent how he felt while teaching, how much he was able to learn and change in the actual classroom situation.

When the events observed in classrooms of student teachers were compared with their statements in seminar, the statements usually jibed with the facts, but there were wide differences between the covert experience as it was revealed by the student teacher in the seminar and his overt behavior while teaching. Students varied tremendously in their ability or willingness to appear more confident than they felt, to channel anxiety, and particularly to persevere.

These differences seemed due, in part at least, to the individual student teacher's life situation and his consequent need to teach. Lower class men and women, for whom teaching was a step up the social ladder, admitted fewer problems to their university supervisors than to counselors. So did newly married girls under pressure to put a husband through graduate school, and duller students less likely to find opportunities outside teaching. In brief, highly motivated students could mask felt inadequacies. As a consequence, the more likely the student teacher was to remain in the profession and the more he needed help, the less likely he was to seek it except in counseling sessions. The students said, "Don't tell your supervisor what you are really wondering because then you won't get a good grade."

Because student teaching was stressful and student teachers were not likely to divulge their real concerns during the student teaching semester, three new tacks were taken. First, test interpretations which were, of all the psychological techniques, the most likely to arouse anxiety, were conducted before student teaching, generally in the junior year, and no longer administered during student teaching. As O. H. Bown, associate director of the project, put it, "A test interpretation during student teaching is like conducting psychotherapy with someone climbing Mt. Everest." Second, the concerns' stages were defined in terms of developmental tasks, i.e., the actual operations teachers had to perform. Third, ways were devised to teach student teachers how to anticipate and, when possible, to perform these developmental tasks before student teaching began. In
brief, our knowledge of concerns was used to increase the prospective
teacher's capacity to cope with the coming student teaching task.

Developmental Tasks of Student Teachers

The developmental tasks related to each concern were defined as follows:

1. The concerns of the first stage, finding security in the total school
situation, seem to involve the abilities to explore the physical plant freely;
to discover with some degree of certainty what school policies are regarding
such things as conferences with parents, administration of punishment,
and handling emergencies; to estimate the amount of support which can
be expected from the school principal and other supervisors in a great
variety of situations; to build working relationships with other teachers;
to utilize school resources such as audio-visual aids, libraries, visiting
teachers, and community counseling services; in general to determine
the limits of their acceptance as professional persons in halls, cafeteria,
library, playground, teacher's lounge, and principal's office.

2. Feeling secure with one's class seems to involve the ability to un-
derstand and explain subject matter, to answer pupils' questions, to say
"I don't know," to have the freedom to fail on occasion; to mobilize
resources and make effective changes when failures reoccur; to master
the fear that students will hang from the chandeliers, climb out the
windows, or merely refuse to cooperate; to catch an eye, give a warning
glance or an approving nod without missing a beat; to feel bigger and
stronger than the children if only because society has designated the
teacher as its representative; to speak clearly, to be understood; to
make out schedules, to estimate the time required to finish assignments; to
anticipate problems peculiar to the social class, pecking order, habits,
expectations, or just plain idiosyncracies of this particular class; to locate
objects; in general to create an atmosphere in which teaching is possible,
as distinguished from minding children or merely playing with them.

3. Coping with individual children seems to involve the abilities to
establish behavior norms; to sense what is usual, what is strange; to
interpret test scores, clinical write-ups and a variety of data such as
that in permanent record folders; to master the anxiety aroused by the
pitiful child and the whole gamut of emotions aroused in a teacher by
children's unceasing acceptance, brutal honesty, and amoral disregard for
propriety; to decide how to react to the boy who cries for hours, the girl
who is forever bruised, burned, or bandaged, the small boy who pats her
posterior, or the bigger one who mutters aft, "I wish I had a swing like
that in my back yard;" to do something with the child who lies, fights,
or urinates in the classroom; to talk to parents in person or on the phone;
to differentiate behavior which is the child's reaction to himself, from
that which is his reaction to his teacher; to understand that doing noth-
ing is usually doing something. Even more, it seems to include the ability of the teacher to estimate his own differential impact on different children, to realize that the very same act may have one effect on one child and a very different effect on another child.

4. and 5. Concern with supervisors' evaluations of the student teachers seems only to be resolved when stage 4 and stage 5 concerns are merged, for they must be able to evaluate their own teaching product, and this in turn requires that they be able to estimate the effect their teaching has had on students. Evaluation involves a willingness to ask and then to hold still and listen; to take into account and to partial out the biases and prejudices of those who are responsible for evaluation; to evolve at least short term goals for themselves and their classes; to devise measures both formal and informal which will estimate the effects of what they have done; to attend to those estimates; to understand that estimate is not measurement, and finally to react constructively by trying new procedures, rather than blaming someone else or giving up.

6. The stage six developmental concern “Who am I?” could not be operationally defined with the early seminar groups since too few student teachers were then sufficiently secure in all the preceding developmental tasks to address themselves to this question in the context of their public school teaching. One objective of our work with experimental groups later was to specify how teachers would behave who were resolving this question in the classroom. This objective was partially achieved much later by observing and recording the classroom behavior of teachers who had been helped to cope with earlier concerns by the experimental procedures described below in the section “Preparing Teachers to Cope.”

**Observed Behavior of Student Teachers**

Tape recordings and other observations yielded information about how student teachers actually behaved in the classroom and how they addressed themselves to their tasks. From these observations, two kinds of classroom incidents were selected for inclusion in teacher preparation courses: those which brought the actual resources available to the student teacher to bear on classroom problems and those which were judged to be damaging to pupils. They were presented as coping teacher behavior and problem teacher behavior.

**Coping Teacher Behavior**

One kind of coping response was the insightful pairing of instructional method and pupils' needs.

Juan is nine and still in second grade. His parents are migrant farm workers. He tries to read but only produces a sing-song chant of indistinguishable sounds. When the student teacher introduced addition, he called answers so fast that no one else got a chance and he set up a howl when the lesson was over. He's counted many baskets of beans. His student teacher gave
individuation of teacher preparation

him written word problems in arithmetic, first mostly numbers, and now is gradually increasing the proportion of words to numbers in his assignments.

Student teachers used instructional material and procedures to help them handle diverse problems, sometimes in ways reminiscent of bibliotherapy and other times of play therapy: fictional heroes at once intellectual and masculine for the boy who thought reading sissy; a chance to paint the sky in swooping sweeps for the anxious, clumsy, tense aggressor; a speaking part behind a mask for the shy child.

Another kind of coping response utilized instruction to turn problems into opportunities.

Right after the smoke bomb went off, the assistant principal came to the door to collect the absence slips. Some boys were rolling on the floor coughing and the girls were letting out little screeches. Of course, first I had to get them out of there to be sure everyone was O.K. Afterward, we got interested in the thing and did an experiment on the effects of that kind of gas on human tissue.

This student teacher was more concerned with protecting the class than with protecting herself. When this same incident was included in a free response pencil and paper instrument, many teacher responses were self-protective, punitive, passive, or just exasperated: "Explain to the principal it wasn’t my fault.” "Punish the ringleaders.” "Punish the whole class.” “Send them to the office.” "Boys will be boys.” “Laugh at the ridiculousness of it.”

Another way of coping was the search for relevant information. Teachers sometimes used pupils’ poetry, art, and other class work for this purpose, much as psychologists use projective data. Some understood the language of emotions:

He actually threw it at me! I was so scared I shook for a week. Then yesterday I read what he wrote. [To psychologist] You’ll LOVE this. We were studying seeds, and they all wrote, if I were a seed. He said [Holds up a large wide-lined rough sheet] "I am a watermelon. I am going to be eaten. I am cut. I am screaming. All my pink is running out. Even if they cut me, I am not good. I am calling, calling. Goodbye.” [There was a gasp from the seminar.] When I read that, I thought, he feels like he’s coming apart. (She cupped her hands as though to scoop him up.) He needs me to hold him together. And I’m not afraid of him any more.

[At a later session] Well, I don’t know if he’s any better, but I know I am, and so is the class.

Students' art work often communicated to their teachers their perceptions of themselves, of their school, their tasks, their world. Some teachers asked pupils to draw self-portraits or respond to music with drawings, poems or prose, and used these productions to make assignments, to
divide students into groups, and to individualize instruction in many other ways.

Student teachers used new information to formulate and test hypotheses. Sometimes, as in the case above, the method was helpful with a single child, but it was also useful in parent conferences, group instruction, any situation that needed to be "researched."

Teachers often brought to bear on developing neurotic patterns their own healthy responses, much as therapists use themselves as instruments in therapy. For example, they sometimes reacted spontaneously against rewarding unhealthy behavior or punishing healthy behavior.

Phil hardly ever says a word, just stares out the window. I let him be George Washington in the play because he only had to say one line and to shade his eyes to look across the Delaware. His mother came to see the play. At first, he just looked down, but then he said his line just like we practiced. I gave him a big smile. Then I noticed his mother crying. The better he did, the more she cried. [Pause] They weren't tears of joy, either. I think she must need him to need her. [Pause] I don't know what I'll do. But he's going to have one woman in his life who doesn't need him to be a baby. Me.

A lot of boys (and men!) need one woman in their lives who doesn't require them to be dependent or ineffectual; who appreciates their masculinity, and can socialize it without hostility; and who can understand (not necessarily in words) that tenderness can be wedded to aggression without demasculinizing either. Like many other teachers, this one bypassed the psychological lingo: withdrawal, Oedipal conflict, impotence, underachievement. She acted on a basic, healthy notion that, though mothers love their children, to grow to manhood little boys need to learn to do things on their own. Most of all, she fully wanted little boys to be just what they are, little boys.

Another coping response seemed to be the teacher's reliance on his or her own deepest feelings about what was possible for him in a given situation. Here, student teachers' misperceptions about psychology were sometimes roadblocks. Student teachers were sometimes surprised to discover that behavior they considered psychologically disapproved but their "last resort" was not disapproved at all. Their surprise pointed up a frequent theme: the discrepancy between what they called "theory," (usually permissiveness) and application, i.e., what they felt they had to do, even if in secret, to survive. They often sought their most important battle for class control, and for their role as teacher, with what they considered illicit weapons. As one who did survive said, "I didn't want to hurt his little ego, but it was him or me."

Another positive response was an unwillingness to become overcommitted emotionally, stemming from a knowledge of one's own limitations and resources.
She's so pitiful. Her mother works to support five of them and has no time for her. She asked me to take her home to be my little girl. I just ached. But I told her I couldn't take her home, but I loved to be her teacher and loved to see her every day. What I have to do is help her make good friends in the class.

The acknowledgment that others besides the teacher, especially age-mates, can contribute to solutions was a coping response. Student teachers still concerned with their own security were most likely to think of the teacher as the only helping agent in the classroom. Others could use pairing or grouping of children, sociometric devices, extra-class and social activities, particularly in junior high and secondary school, to tap the rich resources of classmates.

**Problem Teacher Behavior**

Student teachers also responded to their tasks in ways which seemed to us damaging to children and sometimes to other persons. Rarely did this take the form of sarcasm or threats, never of physical cruelty. Instead, it was subtle, often even unconscious.

Student teachers sometimes responded negatively to incidents like those recounted above, or did not respond at all. They might demand what a pupil could not do and so discourage his trying at all; refuse to accept a small but maximum effort instead of rewarding it with a "bigger piece of paper;" increase frustration beyond the necessary minimum by placing unnecessary obstacles or proscriptions in the way, like holding to a lockstep the bright, curious, creative students; refuse release of insistent natural physical needs like the needs of primary children for activity after excitement; shame students without providing means of restitution; reward self-defeating behavior or punish coping responses. Rarely did a teacher know his behavior to be hostile. In this sense, destructive teaching is mainly "incidental," that is, related to limitations in capacity and unconsciously held attitudes.

Social class and sexual attitudes of which the teacher was not aware, were a frequent source of what seemed to be damaging teacher behavior. A fairly common example is the sixth grader or junior high school girl, precociously mature physically, but still a child inside, still in need of maternal affection but "too big" for it. She may elicit patient disdain from the women whose support and guidance she asks for in her backward, self-defeating way:

S.T. 1: She's one of those—well, she's only thirteen, but she wears those cheap tight sweaters and gets up every five minutes to sharpen her pencil or something. She's always asking me, "Do you like the sorority house?" or some other silly question. But her last theme was the end. She told about meeting some boys at night
and then said her girl friend got very friendly with one boy. And then (reading from scrawled paper) she says, "They got very, very, very, very, very friendly."

S.T. 2: What's that you wrote there on it?
S.T. 1: Well, I knew I shouldn't be too hard on her. They're probably poor and all. So I just wrote in the margin "NOT CLEAR."

The pathos of a big bosomed child, using to gain affection the only thing she felt she had, her body, and naively reporting it to her glamorous student teacher in the hope she would impress her idol, was all lost on her student teacher. The student teacher admitted more of the truth than she knew when she wrote, "Not clear."

Sometimes unconsciously-held attitudes severely limited or distorted student teachers' perceptions of what was happening in the classroom. For example, student teachers reported that they had not "seen" children's masturbation in the classroom until it was pointed out to them, although they had been looking at it for several months. After it was pointed out, they would say they hadn't known what it was, or they hadn't stopped to think what it was or didn't "want" to see it.

Upwardly striving teachers reared in economically deprived families were sometimes hostile toward bright advantaged children who did not have to work as hard as their teachers had had to work. Children whose scholarly parents provided them with stimulating intellectual fare at home were sometimes barely tolerated by their limited—and limiting—teachers. Such teachers labeled these children "lazy." The children, bored, retaliated by misbehaving. When such a student teacher was assigned to a supervising teacher whose background was similarly limited, they could stand against the world together in their misguided righteousness, especially if they were both hard workers with good scholastic records.

Coping with Supervisors

Student teachers' greatest astuteness, best kept secrets, and most agonizing problems were reserved for their relationship with their university supervisors and supervising teachers. Most student teachers "played it smart," i.e., they adapted themselves to their supervisors when they could. When they sized up the supervisor as someone who needed to be needed, they were full of questions, needs, and gratitude, phoned him at home and dragged their tired bodies at semester's end to one last reunion. If the university supervisor was busy with a Ph.D. in process, they put on minutely planned teaching shows at school for his infrequent visits, kept a stiff upper lip in trouble and carried on alone or leaned on one another for support. They openly admitted competing with one another in their group meetings with their supervisor to give good reports of themselves and bring up only high status and interesting problems, rather than the dull, messy, or resistant ones.
Their relationship with their supervising teachers was almost unanimously conceded by graduating student teachers to be the single most critical experience in all their teaching preparation (and, we might say parenthetically, the least supported by teacher preparation institutions). Most student teachers who survived were well aware of their supervising teacher's covert attitudes toward them. If they were often sent out of the classroom for library books which were already in the classroom, they knew they were in the teacher's way. They demonstrated considerable skill in establishing relationships attuned to the supervising teacher's needs.

Even so, explosions occurred: Witness the pairing of Miss Mamie Goode, striving lower class supervising teacher, and Ann Van DeVee. Expensively dressed, full of stories of her European tour, a novelty, Ann flashed about the room, seducing the class, her principal, and her supervisor into pity and disdain for the brown-hen teacher who was, ultimately, held responsible for the class.

Such explosions were almost always the product of attitudes and values whose etiology, and sometimes even existence, was unconscious. Many such combinations were reported: the devotee of unpopular causes and the clucking homebound mama; the woolly psychoanalyzer and the well defended big-time-operator. A whole gamut of collisions was possible when total strangers were paired in this intimate relationship.

More often, though, there was no collision even when one seemed likely. When it was, the student teacher generally tried to absorb it. The most common consequence was an effort, often futile, by the student teacher is to imitate his supervising teacher:

Sobersided Prudence read to the class, from a collection of humor, the story "The Man Who Lost His Head." Her supervising teacher, a flamboyant woman, sat in the back gesticulating energetically, trying to help. Prudence tried to ham it up. It was an embarrassing failure. She was tense and gawky and the class lost interest. At the end, one boy asked, "Was it supposed to be funny?"

Even in routine matters like giving directions, student teachers often had to find their own idiosyncratic style:

My supervising teacher can say "Take out your arithmetic books and work these problems" and they do. If I say that, there's bedlam. I have to say "Take out your pencil and nothing else" and wait until they do. Then, "Take out your book and nothing else" and wait. I don't know why it is, but what they do for me and what they do for her are just two different things.

In summary, the total task with which the prospective teacher is concerned is psychologically complex. But with some complexities many of them cannot be concerned, at least not deeply, such as those involved
in the communication of varying content, in the reliable, valid measurement of effect, in their own real impact and their limitations. The sum of both is a towering task. As the plaques they frequently hung in their dorms put it, "Anyone who remains calm simply does not understand the situation."

Preparing Teachers to Cope

Complex though the teaching task is, most prospective teachers felt that, except for student teaching, they had received little preparation for it. In exit interviews, student teachers almost unanimously expressed disappointment with their preparation for teaching "real live students."

This did not seem due to any dearth of qualified instructors or lack of information. Rather, the questions being answered for them in their courses were not the ones that they were asking at that time. While they were wondering what it would feel like to stand before a class, how to quell a riot or face an irate parent, or most important, how to wangle an assignment to a favored university supervisor, they were being taught what they called "theory": scientific method, developmental stages, instrumental conditioning, statistics or sense modalities—all with the admonition that psychological research could not be applied literally, if at all, to classroom problems.

The problem to which we then addressed ourselves was to devise ways of meeting prospective teachers' concerns and of helping them cope with their real developmental tasks before the student teaching semester began, so as to push the point of readiness to learn to teach back to the beginning, instead of the end, of student teaching. For these purposes, three kinds of procedures have been and are being tried: counseling, instructional, consultative.

Counseling Procedures

Three kinds of counseling were offered: traditional individual voluntary counseling, group counseling, and required test interpretations.

Individual counseling on a voluntary basis was the sole means of offering psychological assistance to prospective teachers for only one year, but it continued to be available in addition to other types of consultation throughout the project.

Group counseling, begun as counseling-oriented seminars, was tried for three student teaching semesters and abandoned in favor of a counseling-oriented educational psychology course accompanying third year (junior level) observation and teaching.

The test interpretation, initially the most radical innovation, became the standard mode of contact with individual undergraduates and, in a current research project, it is a required procedure. Test interpretation conferences are now available to all prospective teachers in the regular
The individualization of teacher preparation programs. The selection procedure and assessment instruments which evolved from the project furnished the basis for a college-wide admission and evaluation program.

The instruments devised in the assessment program, on which the test interpretations and the admission program are based, now comprise a first way of knowing students in depth and as such have become important, not just in counseling and test interpretation, but in the instructional and consultative aspects of the program.

Some instruments were devised to assess the personality and mental health of prospective teachers before they embarked on their professional program and at various points along the way. Other instruments were devised to assess teaching behavior. Some of these instruments were used to determine what changes occurred. Sometimes these same instruments plus others were used as the raw material for clinical write-ups which were shared with the students assessed in counseling-oriented conferences or test interpretations. Later both personality assessment instruments and teacher behavior instruments were used in "consultation," i.e., in pre-planning the student teaching experience and in the student-supervisor-psychologist conferences which eventually evolved. The goal of the instruments devised to assess personality characteristics and attitudes was to obtain data which would provide an understanding of individuals which was both objective and sufficiently deep to reflect overt, covert, and unconscious functioning. These instruments included structured questionnaires, for example, published inventories like the California Psychological Inventory, experimental questionnaires like the Bown Self-Report Inventory, semi-structured instruments like the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), sentence completion blanks, and situation-reaction instruments. One deceptively simple but unusually revealing projective technique originated by Veldman, the Directed Imagination Test (DI), simply instructs the prospective teacher to write four stories about teaching, each in four minutes or less.

Sociometric techniques were used and were not popular. Student teachers were asked to evaluate one another, and supervising teachers were asked to evaluate each other. Reactions of both groups were almost uniformly negative. Interestingly enough, however, pilot studies indicate that such peer judgments have considerable reliability and validity even when raters protest, "We don't know each other."

The instruments finally selected for test interpretations were those which the psychologists doing test interpretations felt yielded the largest amount of valid information for the smallest investment in testing time.

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13Peck, Bown, and Veldman, Ibid.
These were the Peck Biographical Information Form, Peck One-Word Sentence Completion, Bown Self-Report Inventory, Directed Imagination, and Group Administered Thematic Apperception Test (TAT).

Test interpretation conferences focused both on the prospective teacher as a person and on his coming student teaching. Some common patterns became apparent in protocols and related teaching behavior. The TAT indicated the dynamic. The Sentence Completion indicated directionality. The D.I. indicated how these two might manifest themselves in teaching. The Biographical Information form supplied an etiology for the dynamic.

Unconscious hostility is one of the more obvious examples. If TAT stories are replete with violence, accidents, unhappy endings, broken violins, lovers killed, justified revenge, one dynamic may be hostility. Sentence Completion responses may specify the direction of the hostility: toward peers ("Most girls my age are flighty"); toward teachers ("The average teacher is bourgeois"); toward males ("Women often hate men"). Sometimes, in the course of counseling, a third-year student could come to be conscious of her irrational irritation with a future supervising teacher she had not even met and to realize, often with horror, that she had been about to antagonize someone she consciously wished to please. Sometimes such a student had to be, with her knowledge, assigned in such a way as to circumvent her own self-defeating tendencies—to a male supervising teacher perhaps instead of a woman.

Test interpretations, like other procedures designed to help students cope with the coming student teaching experience, were related to the individual student's own perception of his developmental tasks, and to the possibility that one developmental task, class control for example, might prove more worrisome to him than other tasks.

Instructional Procedures

In the educational psychology class, developmental tasks determined the selection and sequence of content and the procedures used to prevent that content.

Stage One Tasks. To help students cope with their first-stage developmental tasks (exploring and discovering the realities of the school environment), an attempt was made to help them become sophisticated observers and shrewd guessers. To this end, psychology course content centered initially about perception: variables which limit and distort perception and observation, the personal equation, differences in reaction time, observation as a step in scientific method, psychological constructs and operational definitions of them; theoretical frameworks which dictate the kinds of observations which are selected; hypothesis formation to make sense of observations; hypothesis testing; perceptual defenses; mild impairments in communication (speaking, writing, listening, reading); severe impairments (autism, schizophrenia).
Stage Two Tasks. To help students cope with their second-stage developmental tasks (achieving class control and subject matter mastery), an attempt was made to help them estimate the quality of their impact on individuals and groups in general and their own pupils in particular. To this end, psychology course content included a detailed case study of an angry, aggressive, anxious, acting-out boy, another of an unconsciously hostile student teacher—both with illustrative films. Research presented in lectures concerned social class, self-concept, authoritarianism, environmental deprivation, peer interaction, sociometrics, conformity, creativity, divergent thinking. Harry Harlow’s research with monkeys was especially popular, perhaps because the great Dr. Harlow admits himself bested by Kathie, the elementary education major!14

To make relevant to individual behavior this intellectual learning, each student had a one hour conference (a “test interpretation”) with a therapist, in which the probable behavior of the student as a teacher was one focus. These contacts and their impact on students and therapists had complex outcomes. Briefly, whether the student felt helped or whether the student resisted the contact depended more upon the therapist than upon the student. Given a therapist with characteristics which were favorably perceived by students, prospective teachers were, as a group, overwhelmingly “therapy ready” when therapy was viewed as an impetus to self-realization. In any case, the student had the opportunity to voice and work out concerns regarding feelings of inadequacy, class control, relationships, and other stage two developmental tasks.

Stage Three Tasks. To help students cope with their third-stage developmental tasks (understanding the behavior of individual children), and their learning capabilities, extensive use was made of case studies. Each junior teacher selected a child for special study with the objective of getting behind his eyes and seeing the world as he saw it. To get information, in addition to using the usual sources, students interpreted projective type data (sentence completions, autobiographies, art work), analyzed their tape recorded conversations with the child and sociometric information about him, and, where appropriate, tested their successive hypotheses and reported their findings. Tape recorded conversations between therapists and children were played and discussed in the university classroom to illustrate approaches which might be useful with both parents and children. For one hour, graduating student teachers let down their hair with these new junior teachers. For another hour, junior teachers talked with specialists in the area of mental retardation, orthopedic handicaps, speech problems, and so on. Finally, small groups were presented with vignettes of incidents reported in depth

interviews by graduating teachers. The group evolved procedure papers, specifying what they would do, how, when, and why.

Stage Four Tasks. Stage four concerns with evaluation and grading were dealt with through a long-continuing, generally two-year, contact between supervisor and student teacher, through assignment for two semesters to the same public school and the same university supervisor. However, it must be noted that the problem of university letter grades for student teachers was never resolved to the satisfaction of the student teachers involved.

Stage Five Tasks. Stage five instructional content was what is usually called educational psychology: measurement, statistics, intelligence, achievement, cognition, motivation, learning, retention. Writing test items, item analysis, reliability, and validity—the evaluation of learning generally—become important only when student teachers began to evaluate their teaching in terms of what their pupils were learning.

Criteria for Procedures

In addition to developmental tasks, several criteria guided instructional and supervisory procedure.

1. Everyone is equal.

Every person involved in an interpersonal situation influences it. The therapist has been shown to influence the outcome of therapy. Researchers have been shown to influence the outcome of their research even when their subjects are animals. A person's attitudes and experiences can limit or distort his perception of events more concrete than teaching, and like or dislike can be a massive determinant of interaction between people.

As a corollary then, every individual in contact with prospective teachers was a research subject, too. Psychometrists who administered tests took them; instructors who viewed teachers' films were themselves filmed; the mental health of a prospective secretary, janitor, or therapist was of as much concern as that of a research subject.

Often such "equality" had the unanticipated result of solving problems or preventing them from arising. For example, before undergraduate subjects were asked to consent to having their teaching performances tape recorded or filmed, the professors who required this of them were themselves taped or filmed while teaching the students who were to be filmed later. This practice of filming the professor gradually became recognized as a means for systematic desensitization15 of prospective teachers to filming. Using it, it became unnecessary to limit the sample to volunteers, since "desensitized" subjects did not object to being filmed.

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Not only was each person involved in the program equally tested and filmed, but each was subject equally to evaluation. In the same way that prospective teachers were evaluated by their university supervisors and supervising teachers (a common practice) and by their pupils (a less common practice), the university supervisor, instructors, and psychologists were evaluated by their students and student teachers. Therapists were systematically evaluated by their clients, not merely by rating scales or check sheets, but in anonymous confidential depth interviews by other therapists.

Student teachers furnished in their evaluation interviews a rich lode of live data about that "unstudied problem in education," the experience of preparing to be a teacher. Old hands became accustomed to facing evaluative data about themselves and even to building in assurances of anonymity for the evaluators. For example, instructors being evaluated by students would ask the students to mail the unopened evaluations after grades had been distributed.

In time, supervising teachers took the research test battery and had the tests interpreted; principals examined their interactions with teachers; supervisors kept running notes on their feelings, and anger, anxiety, and apathy were not excluded.

2. Communication is open; awareness and self-revelation are appropriate.

One therapeutic skill is the creation of a relationship in which self-revelation is appropriate, even if the revelation is temporarily anxiety arousing. One example of such revelation is admission of ignorance. Saying "I don't know," is a necessary first step in learning. Who can newly learn what he already knows? But, for many, an admission of ignorance arouses anxiety. Even admitting that some things exist can be anxiety arousing. A case in point was a teacher's response to the question of a second grader whose "show-and-tell" was an article recounting a rape, "Rape means pushing a person." Sometimes a little distortion goes a long way.

In order to provide a climate in which necessary awareness and honesty were appropriate, instructors attempted themselves to be honest and open. For example, instructors asked formally organized classes at their first meeting to discuss their (the instructors') teaching style. Instructors encouraged negatively loaded statements and had some ready if none were forthcoming.

To help students accept and understand distortions not only in their own perceptions, but in their supervisors' perceptions of them, psychology classes early included information on perceptual defenses. Psychological defenses were introduced when instructors pointed out their own defensive maneuvers with the aim of helping students to differentiate between self-enhancing, realistic coping mechanisms, and self-defeating ones.
In one class experiment, words were tachistoscopically presented to demonstrate that "happy" words were seen accurately more often than "painful" words. The Ames window demonstration usually convinced doubters that things are not always what they seem.

A kind of desensitization to self-exposure evolved, as a response to many kinds of self-exposure. The battery of assessment instruments was administered to each student, and these were interpreted by a psychologist routinely for all, not just for volunteers. Students saw films of themselves teaching and listened to their tape recordings and discussed these with their instructors. They participated in seminars with psychologists, three-way conferences with instructor and supervising teachers, and were as often as possible rewarded in all contacts for appropriate honesty and risk-taking while defensive behavior was not remarked.

3. Emphasis is on what the teacher is, rather than on what he does.

Acts themselves and ways of performing them are, within broad limits, less important than the attitude of the doer. The hour at which a baby is fed is less important than whether his mother does so gladly or resentfully. So it is with teachers. Pupils rarely laugh with the sober-sided student teacher trying hard to tell a humorous story. One student will report that a child is a "terrible discipline problem" while a second will report that the same child is "just darling," thus pointing out more vividly than any psychologist can that one teacher's poison is another teacher's pet.

This interaction among teacher, method, and child was considered in individual test interpretations, in film feedback sessions, in three-way conferences, and in counseling if this occurred. It was also considered in a new procedure discussed below—the psychological pairing of student teacher and supervising teacher.

4. Teach teachers as they are expected to teach children.

The way a teacher selects behavior to fit what he is probably depends in part on the models he has available, in much the same way that symptoms are "chosen," so that any one of a number of neurotic symptoms may satisfy the same need. The prospective teacher has had many models: all the persons in authority he has ever known, particularly his public school teachers, university professors and supervising teacher. Instructors in professional education courses have a unique responsibility as "models" because of their close association in time and professional identity. University students are not, of course, pupils, but they object to boredom even more vehemently.

Instructors used as often as possible methods reflecting a variety of applications of psychological thought.

Sociometrically formed groups interpreted the protocol of a student teacher simultaneously, each group working from a verifax of the protocol. Laboratory procedures from different behavioral sciences of-
ferred unlimited possibilities for direct manipulation of materials by students.

Instructors illustrated Jerome Bruner's contention that any subject can be effectively taught in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development provided it is divorced from its technical language and studied through materials the child can handle himself. Extending this to the university classroom, the concept "psychological construct" was taught using Bruner's box problem. The instructor held up a box saying it contained something which the class would try to guess. If it can't be guessed, it can at least be defined in terms of observations made about it. Students cannot ask what it is, its color, or shape, but they can propose doing anything to it except opening it. At first they say "Is it hard?" and so on, but eventually they realize they must ask for the results of operations: "What will happen if I weigh it, boil it, hold a magnet to it, X-ray it?" They never find out for certain what it is, but they can describe it, and perhaps give it a name: "intelligence," "paper clip," or "X." In much less than thirty minutes, every member of an unselected group could conceptualize and verbalize "psychological construct," a feat many graduate students cannot match. This method of working directly with what is concrete, e.g., case studies, and of by-passing terminology seemed to be effective in developing interpersonal insightfulness as well.

Another way instructors worked as "models" was by exposing their professional labor to those trying to learn. For example, if the psychologist held a conference with a parent, the principal was present; if a child was seen for diagnosis or counseling, it was on the condition that the teacher and junior teacher be present, and interact as they could. This, too, had unlooked for rewards. An incident is illustrative: The teacher refers a child who procrastinates continually:

Child: I don't know why. I just do it.
Teacher: Sounds like me with my ironing.
Child: (Voice cracking) I keep saying, this is no good, want to make it better.
Consultant: Do you know that if you got all the words wrong, Miss C. would still like you? [Child sobbing] She might not like what you did but she'd still like you. [Sniff] Ask her if she would.
Child: [Sniff] Would ya?
Teacher: Of course I would. [Pause] And I'll bet your mother would, too.
[Child sniffs]
Consultant: Well, we can't answer for her mother. She's a different person and we don't know about that. But Miss C. can answer for herself.

Do you believe her?
Child: [Sobbing] I made a "C"—a "C" on a notebook.
Teacher: Was that this year? [Pause] I don't remember it.
Child: I did
Consultant: Do you know that you can get a "C," and still be an "A" person? [Long pause] You don't believe that either, huh?
Child: I do, but I didn't know it.

Not only did the teacher learn, as she put it, to "stay quiet and wait for what they'll say" but she became conscious of her own power to be an agent of change in a child's life.

We have not space to illustrate further how university instructors can extend to their own teaching the precepts they give prospective teachers to individualize learning, arrange for discovery, and so on and on. Whether or not the university instructor in the professional course attempts to practice what he preaches, he is still a model, helpful or no. Here, as in therapy, doing nothing is impossible, because doing nothing is doing something, often something unhelpful.

5. The disadvantages of manipulation are controlled by feedback.

When an individual wants to change his attitudes or behavior, the attempt of others to work toward this end is called help. If he doesn't want to change, it is interference. To prevent any "playing God" by our therapists (or by our subjects, who became quite powerful) two sets of checks were built into the system. One has already been summarized: equality of all participants in exposure to treatment and evaluation. A second check was feedback.

In spite of the risk of Hawthorne effect (the chance that just knowing one is an experimental subject will change one's behavior), all participants were constantly informed about their "treatment." No subterfuges or dummy interviews were attempted to disguise the fact that one half of a group received test interpretations, the other half did not. Participants had constant access to counsel and were free to question procedures, to request changes, and to get them.

Consultation Procedures

Consultation extended to all activities which concerned any individual prospective teacher. It was the use of the insights gained through assessment instruments and intensive individual contacts with prospective teachers to foster their professional growth. It included the psychologically knowledgeable assignment of a student teacher to a school, a classroom, and a supervising teacher; and manipulation of the environment or changes in procedures, which were designed to tailor the experience of student teaching to the individual student teacher.
For example, the psychologist and supervisor, on the basis of psychological testing and one semester’s experience with the student, attempted to make predictions about anticipated teaching behaviors of the student teacher—his responses to “slow” and “fast” classes, to rigid and flexible supervising teachers, to acting-out and withdrawn children, to supportive and challenging supervision, and so on. Then an assignment was made or a needed situation created. In some extreme case, for example, a cooperative class was “structured” into temporary passivity to recondition a badly frightened, but potentially effective, student teacher. In most cases, however, the objective was not to promote a smooth operation, but rather to present the student teacher with an opportunity to learn. Student teachers were even deliberately assigned to potentially upsetting situations (Elsie Dinsmore to Auntie Mame, for example) in order to create a learning situation for a student teacher who had been judged sufficiently adequate to endure the experience and learn from it in the comparatively safe environment of understanding supervision.

Troubled student teachers were referred for individual counseling or even hospitalization. Supervisors were helped to untangle their own knotty feelings about student teachers; people were separated, assigned together, or merely brought into communication with one another. Principals and supervisors were helped to partial out the contribution a student teacher was making to an interaction. Above all, the objective was to place the student teacher in the circumstances in which he was most likely to learn to cope, and to teach children to do so, too.

Findings on Experimental Procedures

Some data recently obtained indicate that stages of concerns of student teachers can be advanced in groups with which the procedures described above have been used. Between 1958 and 1963, these procedures were tried as they evolved at different times with different groups. Since 1963, they have been applied in systematic fashion, and the first full experimental group has just completed student teaching as this is being written (1966). Their concerns and the concerns of non-treated groups were sampled during the semester. Individual student teachers were classified according to what they reported as their principal concern at that time.

No test of significance was necessary to demonstrate the differences between the groups. At the beginning of the student teaching semester, almost three-fourths of the experimental group were concerned primarily with what children were actually learning and their own impact on that learning. In the non-treated groups, only one of the fifty student teachers
was deeply concerned with this in day-by-day teaching and covert experiencing.

For the first time it was possible to state in student teachers' terms "stage six tasks" and to begin to specify the developmental tasks of this stage. Some statements of the students at stages five and six can be subsumed under eight preliminary categories:

1. **Taking into account the characteristics and learning capacities of the class.**
   - It bothers me when I forget they are in fourth grade.
   - I want them to like everything.
   - I work on phrasing questions so they'll answer with new ideas.
   - The record folders in the office only go so far—not far enough at all.

2. **Specifying objectives in teaching content.**
   - The thing with me is to get them to see the whole picture, not just one part.
   - My worst problem is that I need some big direction.
   - They need generalizations bigger than those I have myself.

3. **Specifying one's own limitations.**
   - I talk too much instead of letting them experience it themselves.
   - All I can hear is the criticism. If she says one small thing is wrong, I feel as though she said the whole thing is wrong.
   - I have that kind of face. If I'm not stonefaced at first, I can't tighten up later.
   - I had to have someone baby me then or I'd have quit teaching.

4. **Partializing out one's own contributions to difficulties.**
   - Mrs. S. says it is her worst, most diverse class in eleven years, but I have the problem of knowing when I can be free with them and when not.
   - I call that type "smart alecks" to myself, so you can tell I have a personal problem with them.

5. **Trying out new ways and accepting the discomfort that many accompany change.**
   - Working in committees is frustrating to me but helpful to them.
   - Letting them walk around bugs me because I never could do it.
   - These children demand to be taught as individuals and that is hard, but I see what it's like to teach a different way.

6. **Evaluating one's effectiveness in terms of children's gain.**
   - How can we rate ourselves until we see how much they have retained?
   - Seeing a face light up like he's got it is the best reward.
   - I know and the children know, so what if she (the supervisor) doesn't stop by.

7. **Relating to and evaluating supervisors as colleagues.**
   - We combined forces. She gives me ideas and I give her ideas.
   - She snaps at me, but even her husband tells her he's not a mind reader.
INDIVIDUALIZATION OF TEACHER PREPARATION

8. Selecting a teaching job considering what one has to give as well as get.
I'm no scholar. I'm just a nice guy. That school is in the poorest section, but it's got a market for nice guys. I'm only applying to private schools. I wouldn't like lower class students and I'm sure they'd know it.

New Directions

A research project now in its last year, the Personality, Teacher Education, and Teacher Behavior Research Project, is testing specific hypotheses flowing from procedures devised under the Mental Health in Teacher Education Project. The effects of different types of feedback, for example, will be examined. Experimental "feedback" teachers who have had test interpretations and/or seen their own films, and/or had psychological consultation, will be compared with "no feedback" control groups.

The Research and Development Center in Teacher Education which began operation in the fall of 1965 will attempt to devise methods of extending the procedures of these two earlier projects to lower class schools, rural schools, and bi-cultural schools.

Can teachers be therapists? If by therapists we mean persons able to take responsibility for the treatment of deep disturbances, the answer is probably no. If we mean persons who can contribute to the treatment of disturbed children and the growth of all children with problems, the answer is equivocal. Teachers can be persons in whose presence difficult changes in attitudes and feelings come a little easier. As one child put it, "She likes me back." And when love is not enough, teachers can become psychologically sophisticated, knowing that some problems have one solution, some have many solutions, and some have none now.

Young teachers can and do use their knowledge of what is natural in the classroom to help children in deep and abiding ways. Some children need more help than any teacher can ever give, because, no matter how sound or sophisticated she may be, she has a whole class to consider and cannot allow the acting-out behavior which may have to precede improvement. Some symptoms need the emotional equivalent of staying in bed. When a person is sick and cannot function in his usual environment, a protected environment in which he can function, the sickroom, is provided for him until he is better. He is kept from his work, from catching a bus or even from providing for his own biological needs. The teacher, just because she is in a classroom, cannot provide this kind of therapy for a child. The classroom is the child's office or shop, the place where he must meet certain minimal demands.

The teacher can, however, create a therapeutic climate in the classroom. When children are referred to professional persons for individual
help, teachers can become aware of the goals of therapy and assume a posture toward the child which is consistent with professional recommendations. Teachers can do this more ingeniously than any psychologist or psychiatrist simply because they are aware of the resources of the classroom. A psychologist might feel that a certain child needs to "explore the limits," but not think of letting the same child paint the sky in a class mural. A psychologist might feel another child needs a "masculine model" but not know which children's books on a certain reading level provide such a model. Tense children need outlets, we say, but it was a classroom teacher who gave a child a piece of putty to knead instead of nagging him about his tapping a pencil on his desk. Teachers even utilize acute discipline problems on learning situations. Witness the dismantling of the smoke bomb to see what effects irritating gases have on human tissue.

When such ingenious procedures are recounted, teachers who are already overwhelmed by the complexity of the classroom situation may protest that there is not time for all this extra work. We submit that the most time and energy consuming activity of all is uncertainty. If one can only feel some certainty about a course of action, the course of action can be integrated into the day's work. If children are putting on a play anyway, it is probably less time consuming to assign parts which go with the grain. It is certainly less stressful for a teacher to have a willing child than an unwilling one.

How can a teacher, without other help, formulate a course of action about which he feels some certainty? These student teachers were taught successive hypothesis testing. They formed a notion based on some kind of observation. In the classroom a teacher may wonder why one boy is slow. He might have the notion that the boy is slow because he feels guilty about any little mistake he makes. The teacher checks this out by different kinds of observations. For example, he asks the children to write a story about a broken lamp, and the pupil tells about a little boy who is falsely accused of breaking a lamp. The hypothesis is supported. The teacher might seek further support of it by other observations. On the other hand, the child might say he smashed and smashed the lamp to bits, so the teacher might form the new hypothesis that the boy is angry, and then make successive observations until one way he feels some certainty about this new hypothesis. He will never be absolutely certain until it is possible to predict exactly what a child will do and no one yet can do this. But he will be coming closer and closer to an understanding of the child.

Knowing another person is exploring a strange country. One must first be allowed into this new country, and then guided around it by its owner. On the basis of previous experience in other countries, one
draws conclusions about what is seen, sometimes true and sometimes false, and they must be checked constantly. For example, one might see a palm tree and hypothesize that this is a tropical country, warm and sunny. But if its owner wants to, he can say “That’s just a potted palm I keep for show. Come a little further and see what is really here.”

Such exploration is not always pleasant. There are dragons and stinging jelly fish as well as potted palms. But it is above all learning, and to those who have chosen children as their life’s concern, it can be a deeply rewarding journey.
CHAPTER VIII

An Exploratory Study of the Impact of Teacher Communication on Mental Health in the Classroom

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The Wisconsin Teacher Education Research Project was one of four projects, supported since 1958 by the National Institute of Mental Health, which was designed to study the influence of teacher education programs on the professional development of teachers. The project was an expression of the desire on the part of the School of Education staff of the University of Wisconsin to investigate certain aspects of its teacher education program. The study relied heavily on the fact that the University, being the major educational institution in the state, had maintained over the years a close working relationship with the school systems of many urban and rural communities. Throughout the state of Wisconsin, more than sixty school systems now cooperate with the University in programs of teacher preparation and educational research.

The focus of the Wisconsin study was the elementary teacher education program. Notwithstanding an interest in all levels of the teacher education program, it soon became evident to the project staff that the logistics of working with the several secondary education programs was too great to make their inclusion feasible. The undergraduate elementary program seemed to allow greater coordination of the total academic activities which the students experience.

Design of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of different instructional approaches upon college students preparing to be elementary school teachers. Although the major concern was with the mental health of the pupils, these students ultimately would teach. Two related questions were asked which influenced the design of the research. These questions were:

1. What is the influence of different instructional approaches in a teacher-training program upon the perceptions and communication behavior of student teachers?
2. What aspects of perceptions and teacher communication behavior, if any, have a measurable influence upon mental health in the classroom?
The research was recognized and explicitly defined as an exploratory-descriptive task.\(^1\) This led to the further recognition that the original design of the research would be limited necessarily to a skeletal one, with more detailed designed to evolve as the research progressed.

The broad design delineates the investigation of three sets of variables and their interrelationships. The first variable, different instructional approaches, is considered an independent variable; the attitudes and perceptions of the pupil-subjects in the classroom are considered to be the dependent variable; and the intervening variable is conceptualized as the communication behavior and perceptions of the teacher-subjects, since any effects of the instruction at the university level would have to be transmitted through the teacher-subjects to the pupils in their classrooms and presumably would be affected both by the underlying perceptions and the communication behavior of these teachers.

The first, or independent, variable is an experimental variable which, it should be noted, further characterizes the study as quasi-experimental: three different instructional approaches were employed in two required courses in the elementary teacher education program at the University of Wisconsin—Education 73, “The Child: His Nature and Needs,” and Education 75, “The Nature and Direction of Learning.” Approach I, the “concept-centered” approach, focused on the development and understanding of principles and concepts derived from the subject matter of Education 73 and Education 75. Approach II, the “case study” approach, handled the subject matter of Education 73 and Education 75 from the point of view of its relationship to and impact on the learning and development of the child as a unique individual; this approach emphasized the use of case studies of children. Approach III, the “learner-centered” approach, characterized by freedom of expression and self-selected learning, aimed at developing better self-understanding on the part of the students enrolled in Education 73 and Education 75. These instructional approaches have been studied primarily in two ways: (1) by analysis of the communication pattern of the instructor during the class sessions, and (2) by analysis of questionnaires from the students indicating their attitudes toward various aspects of the courses.

The teacher-subjects whose communication behavior and perceptions comprise the intervening variables have been studied as they progressed

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\(^1\)Claire Selltiz, Marie Jahoda, Morton Deutsch, and Stuart W. Cook. Research Methods in Social Relations. New York: Henry Holt & Company, Inc., 1959, p. 50. These authors define exploratory studies as those whose purpose is “... to gain familiarity with a phenomenon or to achieve new insights into it, often to formulate a more precise research problem or to develop hypotheses;” and they define descriptive studies as those whose purpose is “to portray accurately the characteristics of a particular individual, situation, or group (with or without specific initial hypotheses about the nature of these characteristics);... to determine the frequency with which something occurs or with which it is associated with something else (usually, but not always, with a specific initial hypothesis)...”
from students in the university to full-time teachers in elementary classrooms. Their attitudes, values, and perceptions have been recorded over this period through interviews and questionnaires in order to obtain some understanding of the kinds of individuals they were when they began their training, how they changed during this period, and whether these changes were related to the different instructional approaches which they experienced in Education 73 and Education 75.

In thinking of these subjects as potential transmitters of any influence experienced at the university level, it was clear that we also needed to study in some systematic way their behavior in the classroom, both during their practice teaching and fulltime teaching, since only through their interaction with their pupils would they transmit any effects. Although it is possible to observe and study behavior in many different ways, the communication behavior of the teacher was selected as representing a major part of the significant interaction of teachers with their pupils.

In studying the dependent variables—the attitudes and perceptions of the pupil-subjects in the elementary classroom—we have selected two aspects of the individual's functioning. One is the way in which the individual sees himself, and can be defined operationally in terms of his self-concept and his ideal-self. The other is the way in which the individual perceives the interpersonal classroom environment, measured by the child's perceptions of his peers, his teacher, and his learning experiences.

This over-all design is summarized in the following diagram:

**Analysis of Population**

The research subjects for this study consisted of those individuals enrolled in the Education 73—Education 75 sequence in the fall-spring semesters, 1960-61. The subjects were randomly assigned to one of three sections of Education 73, which had as its main concern the study of child growth and development. The same grouping was maintained for Education 75, where the emphasis was on human learning.

With one exception, the population was female. The population totals over the three years, as shown in Table 1, give an indication of the attrition rate of subjects of the study.
The teacher-subject population was concentrated in and around Madison during the undergraduate and student teaching experience. Upon graduation and employment, the population extended across the United States (see Table 2).

In addition to the teacher-subject population, data were also collected on the pupils of each of our teacher-subjects. For clarification of presentation, population of children will be referred to as pupil-subjects.

Table 3 indicates the pupil-subject, teacher-subject population distribution by approach and grade level. The dual figure shows pupil-teacher ratio in each category.

**Scheme for Data Collection**

The data collection may be described in three phases: (1) Junior Sequence—Education 73—Education 75, and Education 31, (2) Senior Sequence—Education 41, and (3) First Year Full-time Teaching. Table 4 gives a chronological breakdown of the schedule for data collection.

**TABLE 1**
Distribution and Attrition by Sequence and Approach of Teacher-Subjects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approach</th>
<th>Sequence</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>II</th>
<th>III</th>
<th>Totals</th>
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<td>22</td>
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<td>Seniors</td>
<td>(1961-62)</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>51</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>(1962-63)</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
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<table>
<thead>
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<th>II</th>
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<tr>
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<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
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<td>Illinois</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Totals</td>
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<td>35</td>
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### Table 3
**Distribution by Approach and Grade Level of Pupil-Subjects and Teacher-Subjects**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
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<th>Totals</th>
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<td>.....</td>
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<td>32</td>
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<td>.....</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Pupils</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>51</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>1 &amp; 2</td>
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<td>27</td>
<td>.....</td>
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<td>27</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Teachers</td>
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<td>.....</td>
<td>.....</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>.....</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>.....</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Pupils</td>
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<td>59</td>
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<td>103</td>
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<td>Teachers</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 &amp; 6</td>
<td>Pupils</td>
<td>.....</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>.....</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>.....</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.....</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>Pupils</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>692</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>35</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

### Table 4
**Scheme for Data Collection**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruments</th>
<th>Data Collection Period</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Junior Sequence (Ed. 73-75 and Ed. 31a-31b)</td>
<td>Pre-Sept.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication pattern—</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Taped Observation (Ed. 73-75 instructor)</td>
<td>(every class session)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. &quot;Live&quot; Observation (Teacher-subject in 31a-51b)</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Sequence (Ed. 41)</td>
<td>Pre-Sept. or Feb.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication pattern—</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Taped Observation (teacher-subject)</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. &quot;Live&quot; Observation (teacher-subject)</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Impact of Teacher Communication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Year Teaching</th>
<th>Pre-Sept. or Oct.</th>
<th>Middle Jan. or Feb.</th>
<th>Post-May or June</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher communication pattern—</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Taped Observation (teacher-subject)</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. &quot;Live&quot; Observation (teacher-subject)</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children's Battery—Perception of self and others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Child Report: Teacher Communication Scale (Actual-Ideal)</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Child Report: Actual-Ideal Behavior Scale</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Child Report: Peer Behavior Characteristics Scale</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Child Report: Children's Personality Questionnaire, Early School Personality Questionnaire</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Child Report: School Attitude Scale</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Child Report: Peer Choice Rating Scale</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Education 73 and Education 75, the regular fifty-minute class sessions of each of the three instructors were routinely tape-recorded during the two semesters. Six times during the year, the three instructors were observed and their communication categorized by trained observers, using the Fourteen Category Observation Scale. As part of their sequence of courses, elementary education majors were enrolled in their junior year in Education 31a (taken concurrently with Education 75). Education 31a-b was designed to provide curricular instruction in social studies, reading, arithmetic, language arts, and science. In addition to the campus meetings, the students also spent two half-day periods per week in a public elementary school classroom as a teacher-participant. Once during each semester, while working with children in the classroom, the teacher-subjects were observed and their communication categorized by trained observers using the Fourteen Category Observation Scale.

In Education 41, the senior year course which constitutes the student teaching requirement of the professional sequence, two recordings, one early and one late in the semester, of the communication behavior of each teacher-subject were made and analyzed.

In the full-time teaching experience, the data collected about the teacher during three visits to the classroom in October, January, and May included three tape-recorded observations of his communication behavior. The children's battery consisted of measures of the children's perceptions of themselves, their peers, and their teacher, as well as attitudes toward school.

The Communication Model

As indicated earlier, one of the primary ways in which we hoped to study our teacher-subjects was through observation of their behavior;
it seemed that only in this way could we hope to gain some understanding of the ways in which they transmit some of the effects of their university experience.

In developing a method of behavioral study, our first requirement was to select an aspect of behavior which we could assume represented a significant part of the teacher's total behavior in the classroom and at the same time could be observed and recorded in a reasonably objective fashion. Much of the early thinking was devoted to this question and the construct of communication was consequently developed as an "umbrella construct" under which much of the significant behavior in the classroom could be subsumed, conceptualized, and gradually clarified.

Development of Rationale

What do we mean by the term "communication?" What sort of conceptual framework facilitates our looking at the classroom processes and understanding them? Although a considerable body of literature has developed in the very complex and technical field of communication, most of it deals with much more precise and controlled situations than exist in a public school classroom. However, even the bare schematic model which it seemed possible to develop served to sharpen our thinking about various aspects of communication and some of the determinants.2

First, a definition.

Communication is a social function. . . . It is essentially the relationship set up by the transmission of stimuli and the evocation of responses.3

Here the emphasis is on the relationship which is set up, in contrast to some earlier definitions in which the occurrence of "influence" or "response" was the essential condition of communication. In the classroom, there may be no immediate responses evoked by what the teacher has said and "et communication may have occurred in that the pupils have understood what the teacher has said.

In any conceptualization of communication it is essential to represent the speaker (the sender or encoder), the listener (the receiver or decoder) or listeners and the "message" (see Figure 1). The sender or encoder transmits a message, verbal or nonverbal, which is received through the sense organs by the receiver or decoder.

A fundamental and also obvious requirement for the successful communication of a message is that both sender and receiver must have a sufficiently common background of experience so that whatever is

Field of Experience

SOURCE UNIT

Message

DESTINATION UNIT

Overlapping Fields of Experience
Shared Space

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said or expressed through gestures can be expected to convey at least approximately the intended meaning to the listener. This background would include the possession of a common language and a cultural background with some common elements. In other words, in the accumulated experience there must be an overlap of the "fields of experience" of the sender and receiver if communication is to occur between these two individuals. They must have at least general agreement on the meeting they attribute to certain words or gestures if the message sent by one is to be understood by the other. The misunderstandings which occur so easily between individuals of different cultural or social class backgrounds in the meaning attributed to a simple gesture amply illustrate the importance of the overlap of the "fields of experience." However, even when these "fields" overlap so that there is approximate agreement on meanings, some individuals "get the message" much more clearly than others. One hypothetical explanation for this is that these individuals and the sender of the message agree much more closely in their perceptions of and meanings attributed to aspects of the message and the situation in which it is sent than other potential receivers in the same group.

We have developed the construct of "shared space" to describe the instances in which sender and receiver hold identical perceptions which are relevant to the message. The greater the shared space, the more effective we would assume the communication to be between these individuals. It is possible to test this assumption, for example, by collecting data regarding the perceptions held by the teacher and the pupils toward significant aspects of classroom interaction—such as the teacher's role, the teacher's behavior, and the pupils' behavior—and studying the degree of agreement between these perceptions and the relationship of this agreement to the pupils' attitudes toward school.

Returning to a consideration of the "sender" of the message, it is essential to take into account the process occurring before the sender transmits the message—the process of selection. Out of the totality of material which might be transmitted, the sender selects only a small part, and chooses a particular way of verbalizing it. A teacher may have a wealth of information about the life of Eskimos, for example, but he selects only a small part of this information to tell to his class and expresses it in a particular way. This process of selection is conceptualized as one which includes cognitive and emotional aspects, both recognized and unrecognized needs, and one which is not completely known or understood by the person doing the selecting. However, it is possible

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to make certain inferences about this selection process from a careful study of the messages transmitted by a given individual. For example, it could be inferred that a message which includes greatly detailed information represents a different perception of the teaching role than a message which includes only a small amount of information and numerous questions about a topic. A message which includes praise for previous behavior in connection with introducing new activities for a given project represents a different perception of the pupils in the classroom than a message which includes reprimand and threats. We assume that teachers' perceptions of the total classroom situation, of their own role in the classrooms, and of the children in their rooms (whether perceived as the "well-behaved" or the "badly-behaved," to give a simplified example), will all have a profound effect upon the kinds of messages which they select and transmit to the class. Further, we would suggest that although teachers may not be fully aware of these determinants, clues to their differential perceptions are to be found in the particular kinds of messages which they transmit.

Similarly, we assume that the pupils do not simply "listen to" or "get" the messages sent by the teacher. The material received through each pupil's sense organs must go through a "selection process" before it is understood. One way of conceptualizing the selection process is to think of a series of filters. The individual pupil's readiness and ability to receive and comprehend depends not only upon his attention at the moment and his possession of a vocabulary sufficient to comprehend the words used by the teacher, but also upon his attitude toward school in general and toward the activity at the moment, his perceptions of the teacher, of the interaction process in the classroom, of the other pupils in the class, and of his own role in the class, as well as upon his particular mental set and his needs at the moment.

Communication in the Classroom

Clearly the process of communication in the classroom is extremely complex. Focusing on one aspect of it, however—the verbal messages transmitted by the teacher—it has been possible to collect objective data and work toward a reliable method of analyzing these data.

The verbal message was selected only because it could be recorded electronically on tape; and by use of the Vega microphone, a clear recording of the teacher's verbalizations could be assured. An adequate...
recording of the pupils' verbalizations is also highly desirable but much more difficult to obtain, and we have only partially succeeded in this. A clear recording of the teacher's verbal communication seemed particularly important because the teacher is assumed to be the primary determinant of the classroom climate and generally the primary communicator as well. The teacher affects the pupils and the social situation which exists in a given classroom largely through verbal interaction. Hence, an understanding of the ways in which he communicates and interacts is basic to any description of the classroom.

Two tape recordings were made of each of the teacher-subjects during the semester devoted to student teaching, one early and one late in this period, and three recordings during the first year of full-time professional teaching, in the fall, mid-winter, and late spring. An attempt was made to record the teaching of the same subject matter area—either social studies or science—at each observation time. In addition, since the three observations during the first year of full-time teaching covered an average of an hour and a half, the teacher's handling of other subject matter was also recorded.

**Method of Analysis**

Once the tape recordings were collected, there remained the task of analyzing them or describing them systematically in some way which permitted summarizing the behavior contained in each one. The earlier

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category Title</th>
<th>Original System</th>
<th>Revised System</th>
<th>Extended System</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asks for Information</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>1b2</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeks or Accepts Direction</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All of the non-verbal messages transmitted both by the teacher and the pupils, such as gestures, posturing, and movement about the room, contribute importantly to the total communication process, but it was not possible to record them adequately. The Vega microphone was used to obtain the recording of the teacher's voice. The teacher wears a small battery-operated microphone which is not connected with the receiver in any way; hence, his freedom of movement around the room is not restricted. The Vega microphone receiver is connected with a Wollensak tape recorder to produce the tape recording. The recorder and receiver both may be placed outside the classroom, if desired, and still be in range for the Vega system.
### Table 5 (Continued)

<table>
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<td>3a</td>
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<td>3b</td>
<td>3c</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
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work of Bales\(^7\) in categorizing the behavior of members of small groups and of Withall\(^8\) in categorizing the behavior of teachers served as an initial stimulus for the development of categories. In attempting to develop a communication construct, it became apparent that most of the teachers' verbal behavior could be described either as “sending” or “receiving.” “Sending” could be subdivided into categories such as giving information, giving analysis, or expressing personal opinion. “Receiving” could subsume both listening and the “intent to receive,” and could include such categories as asking for information, asking for analysis, or asking for personal opinion. An original set of fourteen categories was developed\(^9\) and used during the early years of the study. It was subsequently expanded to seventeen categories, later to twenty-four, and finally, in the summer of 1963, to thirty-five categories. Many, although not all, of these changes resulted from a subdivision of existing categories in an attempt to analyze more precisely the kinds of teacher communication occurring.

Included in Table 5 are the identification numbers for each of the three major stages in the development of the categories from the original system of fourteen to the extended system of thirty-five. Extensive use was made of the revised system of seventeen categories, and most live observations made during the 1962-63 school year utilized this revised system. The availability of data in each of the three systems is reported in Table 6. No tape recordings were made of our teacher-subjects during

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<th>Stage of Subject Participation</th>
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<th>Revised</th>
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<td>Junior Year</td>
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<td>Senior Year</td>
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<td>First-year Teaching</td>
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their junior year. Only “live” observations were made. Inasmuch as data for the junior year were all collected prior to any extension of the category system, all analyses of junior-year data must be in terms of the fourteen categories. The extended system of categories was never used in classroom situations for general data collecting, although its development was dependent upon both live and taped episodes. Thus, all analyses utilizing the extended category system are based on tape recordings.

Descriptions and examples of the categories in the original and extended systems follow. Although there is some duplication for all but five of the categories, several differences between the fourteen and the thirty-five category systems will be noticed. The revised seventeen category system is illustrated in part by each of the two systems presented. Eleven of the fourteen categories in the original system were kept intact in the revised system. The nature of the three revisions in this system (categories 3, 7, and 8) is best understood by noting the appropriate category number in the extended system.

Fourteen Category System for Analyzing Verbal Interaction

1. Asks for Information
   An act having as its major intent the eliciting of a response which presumably may be evaluated for accuracy, either by objective operation, general acceptance, or reference to an authority (such as the teacher or a textbook).
   Examples: Asks question about content of lesson; asks for report; asks for confirmation of response previously given; asks for repetition of what has been said; offers incomplete statement with the expectation that another will finish it; asks any question in such a way as to imply that there is a “right” answer; asks name of an object; asks for definition; asks for enumeration.

2. Seeks or Accepts Direction
   An act of implying willingness to consider suggestion or direction from another, or if suggestion or direction has already been offered, an act or statement indicating compliance.
   Examples: Asks how to begin an assigned task; asks what to do next; asks which procedure to follow; asks for volunteers; follows directions of another; agrees with suggestion or direction; indicates that direction will be followed at some future time; asks for permission for a specific act.

3. Asks for Opinion or Analysis
   An act intended to elicit problem-structuring statements from others, either affective-evaluative or cognitive-interpretive.
   Examples: Asks for opinion, wish, feeling, belief, or preference; asks for evaluation of behavior; requests interpretation or explanation of some phenomena without implying that there is one “correct” answer; requests elaboration or examples of a concept; requests statement of relationships
by others; reflection of feeling or alternate meaning of what another has said for purposes of clarifying meaning; asks for interpretation of another's personal experience (as distinguished from asking for a report of experience).

4. Listens
An act of listening or attending to another individual for five consecutive seconds or more out of any ten-second interval (less than five seconds is not scored).

5. Gives Information
An act intended to convey, confirm, or infer "facts" which may be evaluated by objective operation, general acceptance, or reference to an authority.
Examples: Giving data such as names, dates, speed, capacity, etc. relevant to a topic under discussion; providing information requested by another; confirming the accuracy of others' responses; denying the accuracy of others' responses; giving report on what one has seen, heard, read, etc.; giving repetition of what has been said; naming object; giving definitions; giving enumeration.

6. Gives Suggestion
An act intended to structure action or indicate alternatives for others which, at the same time, implies autonomy for others by providing more than one alternative or allowing for refusal.
Examples: Offering a procedure in a tentative way, offering two or more procedures, leaving choice to others, stating a preferred behavior without indicating that the preference holds for others; volunteering own services.

7. Gives Direction
An act intended to structure some action of another person in which compliance seems to be taken for granted, or in which non-compliance would probably elicit some form of disapproval.
Examples: Calling class to attention; calling attention to some detail; getting attention of another by calling his name; routine administrative directions or orders; stating expectation of behavior to be followed; setting limits on behavior; stating consequences of behavior; granting a request; denying a request.

8. Gives Opinion
An act intended to structure or give direction to a topic under discussion by use of speaker's internal, private, or unstated criteria.
Examples: States opinion, wish, feeling, belief, or preference; makes a statement or asks a question reflecting a personal point of view; verbalizes retrospective processes; gives criticism or evaluation of a behavior or concept; agrees or disagrees with opinion voiced by another.

9. Gives Analysis
An act intended to structure or give direction to a topic under discussion by reference to a frame of reference or a criterion that is explicitly stated and external to speaker's personal point of view.
Examples: Gives interpretation or explanation of some phenomenon without implying that it is the only "correct" way of looking at it; elaborates or gives examples of a concept; points out relationships between examples and concepts or between two or more concepts; points out discrepancies between concept and examples; proposes hypothetical example or case to illustrate a point or raise a question.

10. Shows Positive Feeling
An act which implies positive evaluation of some behavior or interaction in the observational field, regardless of whether the referent is the self or some other person.
Examples: Any friendly act of overture, such as greeting or responding to a greeting; praising, approving, encouraging, rewarding, or showing active attention to others; sharing or sympathizing with others; expressions of satisfaction, enjoyment, or relief; joking or laughing "with" others.

11. Inhibits Communication
An act which implies unwillingness or inability to engage in the ongoing process of communication, regardless of whether the act stems from negative evaluation, internal tension, or disinterest.
Examples: Does not respond when response would ordinarily be expected; is cool, aloof, or disinterested in what is going on; is inattentive to or ignores a question or request; does not comply with a request; shows tension by blocking, "fright," etc.; accepts criticism or rebuff without reply.

12. Shows Negative Feeling
An act which implies active negative evaluation of some behavior or interaction in the observational field, regardless of whether the referent is the self or some other person.
Examples: Disapproving, disparaging, threatening, discouraging another's behavior; lowering another's status; defending or asserting self; poking fun, belittling, or laughing "at" others; expressing fear, rage, hostility, disappointment, discouragement, displeasure, unhappiness, etc.

13. No Communication
The behavior occurring in the classroom is not relevant to teacher-pupil communication for a 10-second interval.

14. Perfunctory Agreement or Disagreement

Thirty-five Category System for Analyzing Verbal Interaction

1. Asks for Information
   a. Asks for academically verifiable information. An act which has as its major intent the eliciting of a response which is academically verifiable.
      Examples: Where is Chicago? What is the title of the story? What is another word for "our Sun's family?" Spell "discount."
   b. Asking for information about or information regarding the occurrence of past, present, or future experience of an individual child or
IMPACT OF TEACHER COMMUNICATION

small group of children which is either non-routine in nature within the class or is outside the class.
Examples: How many of you have seen the mailboxes here in town? How many of you have been to the zoo at the park?

b. Asking for information about or information regarding the occurrence of past, present, or future experience of the class as a whole, which is either non-routine in the class or is outside of the class.
Examples: Can you see the flag? Do you remember when we went to the bakery last fall?

b. Asks for objective information within a personal frame of reference. This includes either individual children or the class as a whole.
Examples: What is the name of the street you live on? Is your father a fireman? Do you know where you were born?

c. Asks for other kinds of information, primarily having to do with class process and procedure. Includes all routine classroom experiences.
Examples: Who has the book? Where is the paper cutter? Have you finished your work? Who needs extra work sheets?

2. Seeks or Accepts Direction
An act implying willingness or desire to consider suggestion or direction from another person, or if suggestion or direction has already been offered, an act or statement indicating acceptance.
Examples: Who else has an idea? Recognizing a child by calling on him. "John?" (not in response to a prior question on his part)

3. Asks for Opinion or Analysis
a. An act requesting interpretation or explanation of phenomena, elaboration of examples of a concept, a statement of relationship between concepts, a statement of causation or analogy, a statement of deductive or inductive reasoning, statements of generalizations or hypotheses.
Examples: How would you explain this, John? Can you give us examples of this? What conclusions would you draw from this?

b. Asks for personal opinion, personal interpretation or feelings about subject matter.
Examples: What do you think he will do? How do you feel about President Lincoln's stand on secession? Would you like to be an astronaut?

c. Asks for report of personal opinion, personal interpretation or expression of feeling about things not related to subject matter.
Examples: How did you feel when you couldn't go? Are you still a little bit afraid of it?

4. Listens
a. Listening or attending to an individual in response to communication initiated by the teacher, either asked for or directed.
Examples: Responses to: Read the next paragraph. Tell us . . .

b. Listening or attending to an individual in response to communication initiated by someone other than the teacher.
5. Gives Information
   a. Gives academically verifiable information.
      Examples: The sun is a star. Today is Tuesday. Here is the location of Panama.
   b. Gives information about (or information regarding the occurrence of, or regarding the meaning of) past, present or future experience of an individual child or small group of children, which is either non-routine in nature within the class or is outside the class.
      Examples: Lou knows what it is like to feed a puppy. Sally has seen the Fountain of Youth in Florida.
   b'. Gives information about (or information regarding the occurrence of, or regarding the meaning of) past, present or future experience of the class as a group, which is non-routine within the class or is outside of the class. (The teacher may or may not include herself in giving this information.)
   b''. Gives objective information within a personal frame of reference for an individual child, small group or entire class and/or the teacher.
      Examples: Mike brought a picture of a tugboat today. There is a squirrel outside the classroom window. Goodness, you remember lots.
   c. Gives other kinds of information primarily pertaining to classroom processes or procedures. It may also include routine classroom experiences.
      Examples: The reference books are over here. Tomorrow we will start work on these maps.
   d. Gives information about an experience or the occurrence of an experience of the teacher which is either non-routine within the class or outside the class.
      Examples: I have seen the nation's capital. I have a mailbox at home and the mailman comes to my door. I have a dog, too. (Note: Comments about the meaning of the experience would go into 8b or 8c.)

6. Gives Suggestions
   An act intended to suggest action or indicate alternative for another person which, at the same time, implies autonomy by providing more than one alternative or allowing for refusal.
   Examples: You might want to see what the encyclopedia has to say. Maybe you can think of a better title later.

7. Gives Directions
   a. Gives Administrative Directions
      An act intended to structure some action in which compliance seems to be taken for granted, or in which noncompliance would probably elicit some form of disapproval. Structuring is related to administrative aspects of the situation.
      Examples: John's reading group will start now. Take out your paper.
b. Gives Disciplinary Directions
   An act intended to structure some behavior or other in which compliance seems to be taken for granted, or in which non-compliance would elicit some form of disapproval. Structuring is related to disciplinary aspects of the situation, but is not accompanied by negative feeling.
   Examples: Shh. We're too noisy. Please sit down and wait for me. If you do that again, I will have to ask you to leave the group.

8. Gives Opinion
   b. Gives personal opinion, personal interpretation or expresses feelings about the subject matter.
      An act intended to express opinion, attitudes, feelings about subject matter.
      Examples: I like that one better. I'm sorry, I didn't understand what you said. Then it's my fault, I'll change your mark.
   c. Gives report of personal opinion, or personal interpretation, or expresses feeling about things not related to subject matter.
      Examples: I will always remember how badly we felt when the barn burned. It makes me feel very happy when you do things like that.

9. Gives Analysis
   An act intended to structure a topic under discussion by reference to a point of view or criterion that is explicitly stated and/or external to speaker's personal point of view; if made up of a series of 5a's, then put brackets around them in order to indicate that their total equals a 9.
   Examples: When things are different temperatures, they are different colors. It couldn't very well be, with all the hot gases.

10. Express Approval of Pupil or of His Behavior
    a. An act implying or expressing approval of a child's behavior, e.g. academic performance, ideas, etc. The act implies that the child is viewed as an object rather than a unique individual. It may be expressed with or without feeling.
       Examples: That's a fine report, John! You're really perking today! That would be a joke on all of us, wouldn't it?
    b. An act implying that the teacher is expressing the prizing of the child as a unique individual, i.e. shows acceptance of the child as he is now, positive regard of the student as a unique person.
       Examples: John, you're a fine boy. I like you a lot.

11. Inhibits Communication
    An act which implies unwillingness to engage in or inattentiveness to the ongoing process of communication, regardless of whether the act stems from negative evaluation, internal tension, or disinterest. (This is often scored with another unit when the teacher raises his voice and disregards what the children are saying.)
12. Expresses Disapproval of Pupil or of His Behavior
   a. An act which implies or expresses disapproval of a child's behavior, e.g. academic performance, ideas, etc. The act implies that the child is viewed as an object rather than a unique individual. It may be expressed with or without feeling.
      Examples: Wally, will you sit down! We can't have that.
   b. An act implying that the teacher is expressing the devaluing of the child as a unique individual, i.e. shows disapproval of the child as he is now.
      Examples: Gary, you're a pest all the time. I really don't like you now.

13. No evidence of communication or interaction although voices can be heard.
   No evidence that the teacher is responding to communication in the classroom, although voices can be discerned on the tape.

14. Confirms or Denies Accuracy of Response
   a. An act which has as its major intent the confirmation or denial of the accuracy of a response. It may be said with or without feeling.
      Examples: No. That's right.
   b. An act which confirms the partial accuracy of a response and implies that additional information is desirable or needed. The act must have an encouraging tone for the respondent to continue.
      Examples: Yes, but what else? Right, but who else knows a reason?
   c. Perfunctory remarks, which may imply mere closure.
      Examples: Okay. Um-hum. Well.

R  Repeats what the student has said, either verbatim or general context.
F  Fact
O  Opinion
A  Analysis
E  Experience
Q  Questions

N  Calls on the child after a discernible pause, following a question.
   Examples: 1. John? 2. Who is the president? John?

F  Fragmentary comment—incomplete and not a meaningful unit by itself. The teacher must change the direction of communication in order for this to be scored, i.e. repeating, pausing, ah's, etc.

Unit of Analysis

Up until the summer of 1963, the category system was used as a time sampling method—first with a ten-second unit and, later, a five-second unit; for each five-second period a category was recorded which in the judgment of the observer represented the teacher's "dominant intent" during that interval. Later it became clear that since several communica-
tion acts frequently occur within one five-second interval, the use of only one category to represent this period of time gives only a partial picture and also reduces reliability among judges.\textsuperscript{10}

For these reasons, during the spring and summer of 1963 we developed the communication unit as the basis for analysis. By this method, a much more complete picture of the classroom interaction can be obtained, because everything the teacher says is categorized in sequence. For the definition of a communication unit we have used Saporta's early definition of a psycholinguistic unit as the "segment of the message which is 'functionally operative' as a whole in the process of encoding and decoding."\textsuperscript{11,12}

The problem of developing criteria to determine when a segment is "functionally operative as a whole" is essentially that of identifying and defining "boundary markers" or objective indications that the sender has completed a unit of communication which, in addition, is "functionally operative" as a unit for the receiver. Intonation pattern has been our principal criterion; a drop in the voice (or a rise, if a question is asked) almost invariably indicates the end of the unit. However, the context within which words are spoken and the grammatical structure must also be taken into account at times in making the decision. There are certain words in our language which, when spoken singly in response to another person (such as "good," "no," and "yes") convey a functionally operative meaning. Occasionally a teacher may say such a word and then continue with an elaboration. In these instances the separate word would be counted as one unit and the elaboration as another, since each could stand alone in this context and convey meaning to the listener. Grammatical structure as a further criterion is useful both when the

\textsuperscript{10}After intensive training, the intra-rater stability coefficients, using the Spearman statistic rho, ranged from \textasciitilde{.69} to \textasciitilde{.99} for six categorizers. Their inter-rater agreement, using the same statistic, ranged from \textasciitilde{.84} to \textasciitilde{.99}. In both instances, identical segments taken from tape recordings were categorized independently at two different times by each categorizer. However, this statistic appeared to provide spuriously high coefficients because of the preponderantly high frequency of relatively few categories in the segments and the very low frequency of most of the categories. Hence coefficients were computed to show inter-rater agreement in each five-second interval, correlating each of five categorizers with a sixth who was most highly practiced in using the system; these coefficients ranged from \textasciitilde{.33} to \textasciitilde{.74}.

\textsuperscript{11}Saporta, "Relations Between Psychological and Linguistic Units." Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology \textbf{49}:61, 1954.


Many researchers have encountered the problem of defining a "verbalization unit." In summarizing methods of studying speech development in children, Irwin discusses the problem of defining the sentence or verbalization and indicates some of the ways in which different workers have handled it. Both a "thought unit" and an "expression unit" have been defined in terms quite similar to our criteria for determining a "communication unit."
sender is expressing units in succession (as, for example, several independent clauses strung together without a drop in voice, in which case each would be counted as a unit), or expressing an after-thought following a drop in a voice. If the after-thought is of a dependent nature (a qualifying phrase or clause), it would not be counted as a separate unit as it could not stand alone or be functionally operative.

Agreement is high in the identification of units. Five different persons, two of whom analyzed each of forty five-minute segments, showed a range of 81 to 100 per cent agreement in the number of units identified, with the agreement in over half the segments 95 per cent or higher.

There are primarily two advantages in using the communication unit as the basis for categorization instead of a time-sampling method: (1) categorizers are categorizing the same verbalization of the teacher instead of having to decide which verbalization represents the “dominant intent” during the interval of time covered, and (2) a complete sequence of verbalizations is recorded so that sequence analysis can be carried out.

Assumptions Influencing System

The goal in the work on category systems in this project has been to develop an objectively defined set of categories relevant to the communication construct and reasonably complete in the description of the kinds of teacher communication behavior. As we have worked with the systems, it has become increasingly apparent that even an analysis of the teacher's verbal communication which is intended to be objective and non-evaluative can be conducted from many different points of view and levels of inference and abstraction. Furthermore, the particular vantage point selected will reflect (intentionally or not) the assumptions made (with awareness or not) about what are some of the important aspects of classroom interaction. In an attempt to clarify our own point of view, we have stated the following assumptions which have influenced our thinking about the teacher's behavior in the classroom. We assume that it makes a difference to the pupils if the teacher:

1. Is interested in finding out what kinds of personal experiences (both cognitive and non-cognitive) the pupils have had or are having, and what personal meaning or interpretation they give to these experiences.
2. Shares his own personal experiences with the pupils, and expresses his personal interpretations and feelings.
3. Has created a climate in which spontaneous reactions are expressed by the pupils, rather than a climate in which he calls on pupils and listens to them only for responses to his questions and directions.
4. Expresses approval of a pupil's behavior or contribution, or merely confirms the accuracy of his answers.
5. Expresses disapproval of a pupil's performance or merely denies the accuracy of his response.
6. Encourages a pupil at the same time that he denies the accuracy of at least part of his response.
7. Asks for pupil's suggestions and preferences and accepts these when expressed.
8. Analyzes some of the material presented, and asks the pupils to analyze it, and illustrates it rather than presenting material as factual information to be learned as stated.
9. Gives suggestions which need not necessarily be followed, rather than giving frequent directions to be followed precisely.

Summary of Conclusions

The conclusions will be summarized in the context of the specific questions of the study:

1. Did instructional approaches at the college level differ in ways which might be anticipated from the stated goals and theoretical frames of reference as enunciated by proponents of the respective approaches?

   a. Was the general classroom behavior of the instructors, including the establishment of the nature of class meetings, the nature of instruction, the role of the instructor, and the general nature of course content, congruent with the expressed goals and theoretical frames of reference of the proponents of each approach?

   The analyses of tape-recorded college classes indicate that all three university instructors did actualize the central focus of their respective approaches through their general communication behavior. The concept-centered instructor did rely upon the presentation of concepts he deemed crucial to the content area of knowledge with which he dealt from session to session of the class. The case-study approach instructor did utilize many case studies as he worked to clarify the meaning of growth and function in childhood and their implications for the learning process. The learner-centered approach instructor did concentrate upon relationships with his class which allowed and encouraged students to pursue their own interests and goals.

   b. Were the communication behaviors of the university instructors congruent with the expressed goals and theoretical frames of reference of the proponents of each approach?

   The communication behavior of the university instructors, each using a different instructional approach, was differentiated to a large extent as hypothesized from the instructors' stated goals and frames of reference.

   The concept-centered approach instructor and the case-study approach instructor utilized a total of about 50 per cent of their class time in giving information and in giving analysis and only 27 and 13 per cent, respectively, in listening; whereas, the learner-centered approach instructor utilized approximately 56 per cent of the time in listening and only
15 per cent in giving information and in giving analysis combined. In the concept approach, the instructor gave directions more than in the other approaches; in the case-study approach, the instructor gave information and analysis more than in either of the others; and in the learner-centered approach, the instructor listened and gave suggestions more than in either of the other two approaches.

2. Was there an impact of the university instructors' instructional approaches on the classroom communication behavior of the students as teachers in elementary classrooms?

There was no evidence that the communication behavior of the teachers either during their laboratory experiences as student teachers or during their first year as beginning teachers was related to the communication behavior of their college instructors in the three experimental treatments.

3. What was the nature of the classroom communication behavior of students during their laboratory experiences in undergraduate preparation and during their first year as beginning teachers?

Dimensions of teacher communication were less consistent when data were obtained via observational systems of categorization than when they were obtained via perceptions of pupils. Nonetheless, the regularity with which three dimensions resulted from various analyses seem to indicate that teacher communication behavior may be analyzed in terms of structure, content, and personal orientations of teachers.

Apparently the structure dimension of teacher behavior is represented by the extent to which the teacher directly manages the instructional activities in the classroom. Teachers high on this dimension tell children what to do, give information, give directions, and give suggestions more than teachers who are low on this dimension. Teachers who score high on the content or academic dimension seem to be those who ask questions, give information, and listen to pupils respond to teachers' questions and discussion. The personally-oriented teacher relates the content of the lesson to his own or to his students' personal experiences, and shares with his pupils how he thinks and feels about a variety of things either related or unrelated to lesson to.

During the three-year period from the time students first worked with elementary pupils as a part of their laboratory experience through their first year as beginning teachers, the communication analyses reveal that the subjects of the study asked for less information, gave more information, and decreased their expression of both positive and negative feelings.

4. How were the major dimensions of teacher communication related to the school adjustment of elementary school pupils?

The personal dimension of teachers' communication was consistently related to various measures of school adjustment. School attitudes, self-satisfaction, and self-concepts as socially acceptable were positively related to the personal dimension of teacher communication. Negatively
related to the personal dimension were self-concepts as aggressive and as withdrawn. The structure dimension was apparently related less to school attitudes and more to concepts of self, positively with social acceptability and negatively with aggression and withdrawn tendencies. The academic dimension was positively related to school attitudes and was generally unrelated to concepts of self.

5. How did pupils' perceptions of self, teachers, peers, and school differ by sex and by grade?

Pupils' perceptions of teachers, school and peers differed by sex, although perceptions of self did not. Boys perceived teachers as more structurally-oriented and less personally-oriented than did girls. Boys were reported by their peers to be more aggressive than were girls, and girls reported higher school attitudes than boys. Intermediate pupils had higher self-concepts of aggressiveness and withdrawn tendencies than did primary pupils. They were seen by their peers as more socially acceptable and more withdrawn than primary pupils. They were more satisfied with their teachers, and they reported their teachers as less structurally-oriented than did primary pupils.

Implications of Study

The present study, designed as an exploratory-descriptive investigation, provides numerous insights into problems of classroom instruction, teacher education, and additional research. Notwithstanding the many limitations of any study of this type, most of which seem applicable to this study, this section of the report is designed to draw implications from both the personal experience of the researchers while the project was in process and from the statistical results of the study. There are those who will question the judiciousness of ranging as broadly as the authors do in their search for meaningful insights from the present study. Still others will wish that less timidity had been used in the exploration of implications for education in classrooms, in teacher education programs, and in further research needs.

Certainly the study has not been designed and projected through the five years of exploratory work in the expectation that definitive answers would be found to problems which have so long concerned educators interested in the role of various aspects of mental health in the classroom. On the other hand, it seems reasonable to expect that if curriculum development in our schools is to proceed upon generally acceptable premises, the interplay of ideas gleaned from research and from experience need to be maximized. Too often those persons gleaning ideas from research and those gleaning ideas from experience are not adequately communicating with each other. In the instance of the present study, the authors represent in the final sections of this report implications which hopefully reflect in an adequate manner the findings from both research and experience.
There seems to be clear evidence that the affective domain of the classroom is in part a product of the teacher's communication behavior. The results of the present study repeatedly pointed up the relationship of the personal dimension of teacher communication behavior to desirable concepts of self and of school attitudes. This dimension represents the teacher who gives of his personal self and relates instructional tasks to the personal lives of his students. Apparently, teachers need to be made increasingly aware of the impact which this personal element in teaching has on the learner.

The effectiveness of the pupil perception instrument in comparison with the observational scales seems to imply that greater use of this kind of instrument should prove feasible. The simplicity of designing an instrument which would provide for the classroom teacher a minimum amount of information and the ease with which this information could be collected, analyzed, and interpreted should make it a technique used by all teachers interested in better understanding the impact of their instructional procedures on the learners in their classes.

The present study is hardly needed as a source of data to prompt the implication that clearer statements of the objectives of teacher education programs are needed. Is the professional education sequence designed to provide information about the educational enterprise? Is it designed to provide the student with skills, tools, and techniques needed in day-to-day classroom instructional procedure? Is it designed to enhance the student's understandings of self and others? Is it designed to alter the mental health of teachers and consequently of pupils? Or, is it a combination of all four kinds of objectives that give direction to the planning of teacher education programs?

Apparently it is possible for a teacher to prepare himself to teach using a specific approach and maintaining congruence between his scale of instruction or theoretical frames of reference and his communication behavior. Inservice and preservice teacher education programs perhaps should provide resources and experiences whereby the teacher develops a particular instructional style or approach. Systems of analysis of teaching behavior could be utilized to inform the individual about his teaching approach and to provide information upon which he might base attempts to make specific changes in his teaching behavior.

Since the nature of the classroom communication behavior apparently can be analyzed in terms of structure, content, and personal orientations of teachers, attention should be given in teacher education programs to methods for measuring these dimensions of communication and for analyzing and presenting results to practicing teachers and especially to teachers in preparation. Techniques which provide the means by which teachers can better understand themselves need to be developed as a part of the technical repertory of each teacher. The use of such techniques throughout the teacher education experience should provide assistance to
the developing teacher as he fashions his own classroom communication style.

The present study is only one of many which have pointed up the differences between the sexes in terms of school achievement, perceptions, aspirations, and needs. The boys perceived teachers as exhibiting different kinds of communication behavior than that perceived by girls. Was this the result of different perceptions of the same behavior or do teachers, indeed, employ a different mode of communication with the boys in their classes than with the girls? How is the perception of teacher communication related to the achievement problems of boys in the early elementary school grades? Is it possible for teachers who are made aware of the difference in boys' perceptions of their communication to make appropriate adjustments so that the perceptions of one group of pupils (girls) will remain constant while, at the same time, the second group of students' (boys) perceptions will change?

Individualization in teacher preparation is implied in the varying perceptions of children according to age and sex. The desirability of differentiated selection and preparation programs to maximize teacher differences as teachers are prepared for assignments with specific sets of learners should be explored.

Importance of Pupil Perceptions

The data reported tend to indicate, in at least two ways, that pupil perception of teacher communication behavior was valid. The consistency of the factors over the period of the three observations provides some indication of construct validity, whereas the increasing significant relationships established between these factors and other pupil perception data provide evidence of concurrent validity. Neither form of validity was as well represented by the observed teacher communication data when either the fourteen category or the thirty-five category systems were employed. Neither of the observational systems resulted in consistency of factors over time. This lack of consistency raised some question about the construct validity of those methods of describing teacher communication. In addition, the relationship data reported for the two observational systems and the pupil perception data resulted in fewer significant relationships and less consistent relationships. Thus, concurrent validity was likewise weaker for the observational systems than it was for the pupil perception data reported in this study. If the pupil perception data are more valid and more reliable than the observation method of reporting teacher communication, some real questions can be raised about the feasibility of utilizing interaction analysis techniques in attempts to describe teachers' communication behavior in the classroom. Certainly it is easier to collect data from pupils than to train observers and then record data during a series of observations in a classroom. In addition, the problem of sampling the teacher's behavior is lessened in that it can
be expected that pupils report their perceptions of the teacher as a continuing influence in their classroom experience. When using outside observers one is never quite sure, the teacher no less than others, how much of his behavior at the time of the observation is his regular classroom manner.

Bales’ original category system was used for purposes of reporting the interaction of small groups in relatively short time periods. Certainly there were fewer reasons for securing information from the participants than there are for securing this kind of information from pupils in a classroom. Could it be that interaction analysis techniques are less appropriate for classroom use than would seem to be indicated by the rather large number of investigations currently underway in this field? Perhaps more time should be spent in developing instruments with which a variety of aspects of teacher communication could be described by pupils in the classroom? Is it possible that if one wants to know what a teacher does, one should consult the learner?

The teacher perceives his role in the classroom as a social role. He is concerned with the impact he has on a group. The learner, on the other hand, views his participation in the classroom in a personal or individual manner. More attention has been given the problem of helping the learner understand his role as a member of a group than has been given to the problem of helping the teacher understand his role as a personal relationship expectation on the part of each learner. Research is needed which will provide insight into the manner in which teachers in preparation and in service may be helped to appreciate this individual-personal role expectation pupils have.

Are there, as Krathwohl and others speculate, developmental stages through which individuals move as they become teachers? There was evidence in this study that communication patterns changed as preservice and first-year experience passed. The trend in the communication pattern seemed to be toward the cognitive aspects of teaching and away from the affective aspects which may have been emphasized in the teacher education program.

This lack of consistent communication behavior throughout the observation periods as measured by the instruments may suggest that the student was open for, but not seeking from the institution, ideas about methodology, technique, and content knowledge. As the student became more involved in teacher behaviors, in the context of his first full-time teaching position, the concern was focused on matters other than mental health. The value position which the institution or an instructor expressed

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regarding teacher functions (e.g., that mental health of the individual is an important aspect of teaching) appears to have been internalized by his students to a minimal degree. A sequence of compliance to the instructor's methodology and value position while in class, an identification with the preservice experience situation and with the value position of one's initial teaching situation may have developed. A further follow-up of these teachers to determine when they establish a consistent behavioral pattern and what seems to be the greatest influence of this pattern might establish the existence of a third stage—internalization of values regarding teaching—resulting in a series of stages which include compliance at the university level, and finally internalization at the level when the teacher's experience has been extensive enough to provide security enough for individual development.

Finally, it needs to be said that any extension of the research undertaken here which focuses on the treatment variables of this study would need to include, as a minimum, all professional education sequence courses. It can hardly be expected that a small portion of the total university work can indirectly and without the specific knowledge of the learners effect a dramatic and readily measurable impact on prospective teachers.
CHAPTER IX

Teacher Education for Mental Health:
A Review of Recent Studies

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An ideal design for research on the effects of teacher education on the mental health of pupils would include the identification and measurement of the following sets of characteristics:

1. The specific aspects of the children's actions and feelings which constitute "mental health," the ultimate criterion of effective teaching.
2. The particular interactions among teachers and children which directly influence specified aspects of the children's mental health; this would include both curricular content and personal interactions.
3. Specific attitudes and actions of the teacher which bear directly on particular aspects of children's mental health.
4. The characteristics of the teacher education program designed to influence specified characteristics and behaviors of teachers in training; this would include both curricular content and the personal interactions among student teachers and their instructors.
5. The actions and attitudes of particular teacher-educators, as these bear directly on the learning of effective, healthy attitudes and action patterns by student teachers.

Lack of Research in Field

Such a research has never been attempted anywhere in its complete form. The reasons are obvious, and have been insuperable obstacles in the past. Such a design, like the reality which it represents, is extremely complex. The sheer number of variables which must be considered and measured, in their multiple interactions, require a tremendous amount of time for development and validation of appropriate measures and appropriate kinds of action programs. Until recently, it was literally impossible to manage so many variables at once in the computation process. Only the development of high speed computers with extremely large, fast-access memories, such as the present generation of computers is just now reaching, has permitted the kind of multivariate analysis which is essential to this task.

A second major deterrent has been the expense involved. A large, complex research design like this costs millions of dollars a year to carry...
out adequately. Until very recently, there was no tradition in American science to support such expensive research in any field, and particularly not in the behavioral sciences. Only within the relatively immediate past have fiscal support policies for research approached this level.

Finally, there are many human obstacles to the conduct of this kind of study. Perhaps the most dramatic example is the furor on the national scene over "personality testing." The fact that hearings are being conducted at the present time in both houses of the national Congress, and the fact that an administrative order has just been issued forbidding the use of personality testing by any government contractor, sufficiently illustrates the sensitivity of this aspect of research in the mental health field. There is simply no way to assess mental health characteristics without risking "invasion of privacy." The crucial social issue of balancing the long-term well-being of children and teachers, against the feelings of at least some people that no investigations should be made into the personal attitudes or conduct of any individual, has yet to be resolved.

Quite apart from this potentially explosive issue, there is another recurrent problem which dogs the steps of any research into human interactions. A great many college instructors and school teachers feel acutely uneasy about being directly observed in their teaching. While some may have good reason to fear observation, because they are not doing a very effective job, in the majority of cases the anxiety appears to be quite unfounded. Many excellent teachers are unwilling to be observed, or at least are highly resistant in many obvious and subtle ways. Such reluctance to participate, no matter what scientific values may be at stake, rises to an acute pitch when such value-loaded issues are in the limelight as mental health, personal adjustment, and their component behaviors. These issues involve some of the most important aspects of human living, and they inescapably require evaluative judgments. Perhaps because most teachers tend to be highly self-critical perfectionists, the thought of being found less than perfect in such crucial respects appears to be too painful to tolerate for many members of the profession. Ironically, this is true at the college level as well as the public school level, even among psychologists who profess a complete dedication to the objectivity and the investigatory zeal of behavioral science.

The closest approaches to such a research design have taken place in the four programs reported in earlier chapters, which were supported by the National Institute of Mental Health at the Bank Street College, San Francisco State College, the University of Texas, and the University of Wisconsin. In fact, there is only one other partial exception in literature: the Brooklyn College Study reported by Heil. When the research literature of the past several years was reviewed, for the purpose of con-
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Restructuring this chapter, it became starkly clear that there has been extremely little research on the specific topic of how to train teachers to promote the child's mental health, aside from these four studies. The moral seems obvious: the only way to mobilize talent and resources to study a difficult and complex topic such as this is to allot large-scale funds for this specific purpose, and find research centers which are interested in attacking exactly this problem.

Free-enterprise research, at least up to now, simply has not begun to approach the conceptual complexity in research design, or the large scale operations necessary to encompass all the relevant parameters, sufficient for a really adequate attack on the problem. What one finds in the literature, instead, are excellent research efforts here and there, addressed to small fractions of the total problem. These studies, where they are well conceived and executed, could conceivably be used as pieces for a mosaic which might be eventually constructed. They are only bits and pieces of the total picture, however; and there is so much diversity in the choice of dimensions, the kinds of population samples, and the research instrumentation, that to put these together into a mosaic yields far more empty space than connected pieces of the picture. It is like a jigsaw puzzle with three-fourths of the pieces missing.

Moreover, there is not even very much research that bears directly on the central issue of teacher education for mental health. Most of the studies to be reviewed here are tangential, with implications for teacher education, but not directly concerned with it. All in all, it appears that the Joint Commission on Mental Health and the Congress were extremely wise in deciding to allot substantial resources for relatively large-scale programs aimed directly at teacher education which would foster child mental health. Even in these four programs, impressive though the level of funding was for the year 1958, the size of undertakings was not sufficient for the entire, comprehensive research design to be encompassed in any one place. That over-all job still remains to be done.

Milt's observation of 1962 seems just as accurate today:

There is no doubt about the fact that many, many reputable and reliable, competent, and judicious professional people believe that these educational materials and these educational procedures (in parent education) do help people to make a better adjustment, to be relieved of undue stress and conflict, to develop a better understanding of themselves and others, and through that understanding a better control of destructive and unhealthy behavior. But, belief is not proof, and faith is not proof, and conviction is not proof. The only positive and convincing proof is proof by controlled research, and in the field of education for positive mental health this is about non-existent.2

Experiments in Mental Health Education

There is a large number of projects which have studied changes in teachers' attitudes and personality characteristics during professional course work in educational psychology, teaching methods, and student teaching experience. The majority of these studies report that attitudes and personality characteristics are measurably influenced by professional courses; e.g. Leton, Costin, Dutton, Hoover, and others. Leton cautions that professional courses are not the only determinant of teacher attitudes toward children; among the other determinants are what he calls the basic personality traits of the individual. Cook found an increasing size of correlations with increasing teaching experience, suggesting that there may be personality changes with increased participation in professional work. In a later study, Leton found that teachers' ratings of student personality characteristics correlated significantly with the same students' scores on most scales of the C.P.I. He offers this as evidence that teachers can be trained to be aware of their student's personality characteristics. Miller's paper, Evaluating Teaching Personality Before Student Teaching Begins, calls for early recognition of student teachers whose attitudes toward children and teaching, or whose personal qualities, seem to render them unfit for teaching. He presents results of a survey of practices in thirty teacher training institutions. Twenty-five of the thirty reported that they do have a personality evaluation program for Education majors which is designed to identify and redirect students whose personality characteristics make them appear poor risks for effective teaching.

Thus, although research has not yet definitely established the relationship between teacher mental health and pupil mental health, schools of

teacher education are nonetheless attempting to take preventive action in extreme cases.10

**Therapy and Teacher Mental Health**

Several investigators, Cutler and Cowen, among others, have demonstrated that participation in a training program can induce meaningful, significant changes in teacher self-appraisal, in the direction of greater mental health.11, 12 The question remains, of course, whether such changes are at the level of what teachers say they think, feel, and do, or whether the changes represent what the teachers actually think, feel, and do. An excellent review of this problem can be found in an article by Cook and Selltiz.13

The proponents of psycho-therapeutic approaches will be particularly interested in the findings reported by Jersild, Lazar, and Brodkin in their book *The Meaning of Psychotherapy in the Teacher's Life and Work*.14 This constitutes a most absorbing investigation of more than two hundred teachers who had undergone fairly intensive individual treatment, ranging from psychoanalytically oriented therapy to formal psychoanalysis. Chapter Thirteen, "Therapy and the Teacher's Role," considers the degree to which self-understanding assists the teacher to guide students toward increased self-knowledge. The authors report that therapy did have important effects on the professional work of the teachers. Different examples of such effects include the teacher who has become more thoughtful in dealing with the affairs of his own life and in his relations with students and colleagues; the teacher who feels a diminished need to exploit the teaching situation for his own subjective needs; and the teacher who feels a much greater freedom to examine the current of emotions aroused in the normal course of his professional work. With regard to the risk that people who have undergone therapy may see themselves as amateur psychiatrists, a number of teachers who have experienced therapy remarked that they were especially aware of this, and had good success in keeping to their primary function as educators. Approximately two-thirds of the group studied felt that they were more sure of their goals and better able to enjoy their work, as a result of therapy.15

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Unfortunately, no quantitative data are presented in the book which could answer the question of whether this reported improvement in the teachers' attitudes, outlook, and personal adjustment did, in fact, hold up under independent examination. Furthermore, of course, since the study did not address itself to the question of effects on pupils, there is simply no evidence on the question of whether the teachers' "improved" mental health did contribute to the promotion of positive mental health in their pupils.

Tyler, using Q-sort methodology, offered support for the Rogerian conception that a close similarity exists between the ideal student-teacher relationship and the idea of therapeutic relationship. The literature contains numerous papers describing group psychotherapeutic approaches in which the subjects are leaders or teachers (e.g., Berman, Nass, Daniels, et al., Buckley). Angrilli and Leibman described the use of small voluntary discussion groups of future teachers. They emphasized the distinction between these groups and psychotherapeutic groups, and reported that student attitudes were changed in a positive direction. Empirical evidence for this impression was provided in a study by Ziobrowski. However, none of these papers contain any data indicating that the mental health of the teachers' pupils was ultimately enhanced.

There are both evidence and opinions on the other side of the scale, of course. Ross notes,

Psychotherapy is all too often viewed as a panacea and many people believe that if we can just get psychotherapists into the schools, most of the problems of the schools would be solved. Where the school psychologist succumbs to these pressures, he vitiates his potential effectiveness, for I

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strongly believe that he has found more vital things to do with his valuable time...22

Albee and Fein have pointed out that neither unlimited manpower nor unlimited money are or could be made available for this kind of program.23, 24 The number of professional people trained in the mental health field will not be sufficient, for generations to come, to undertake individual or group therapy. One new answer which has been proposed is illustrated by the work of Rioch, et al.25 In her pilot study, eight forty-year-old married women were extensively trained for four semesters in psychotherapy. After two semesters, the investigators reported, “As therapists, they have all performed some useful services to patients during this past year, and none have done any harm.” They further remarked, “We do not contend that the work of the trainees with their patients was highly skillful. Some of it was skillful; some was adequate; some was awkward. The fact of the matter is that favorable change sometimes occurred in spite of awkward, blundering work.”

If a “corps of workers” trained to do low-cost psychotherapy could be built up, opportunities for their utilization in the schools would be many. The report of Project Re-Ed throws some light on what other countries are doing regarding “low cost therapists” to enhance mental health in the schools.26 France, for instance, has established a professional group called “educateurs.” This group is said to possess some of the “skills of the teacher, the social worker, the psychologist, and the recreation worker.” In Glasgow, Scotland, the school psychology service is manned by carefully selected teachers who have been given about two years of on-the-job training in a guidance clinic. In the two demonstration schools of Project Re-Ed, the key therapeutic and educational person is the “teacher counselor” who, when fully trained, is eligible for a Master of Arts degree in special education. It should be noted, however, that the two Project Re-Ed schools are residential schools for emotionally disturbed children. The pertinence here of Hobbs’ work, as well as the experience of Scotland and France, is that these three approaches are in agreement with a point of view in which middle-aged housewives, as well as mental

health professionals, can be psychotherapeutically effective. This idea is not without its objectors, of course.27

Research on Analogous Training Groups

In 1961, Brim reviewed more than twenty studies of parent education programs, and left unsettled the question of their effectiveness.28 This matter is of some significance here because, if parent education techniques were of dubious efficacy, the question could well be raised why teacher education techniques of similar kinds should be assumed to be any more effective. Rosen and Tallman studied the acceptance of mental health information by the public, and found no convincing evidence that the public either accepted or made effective use of such information.29 On the other hand, 70 per cent of their sample believed that information about mental health problems, and the avoidance of mental illness, should be taught in the schools. Furthermore, their respondents felt that such instruction should be provided by teachers, and by other qualified persons, starting not earlier than high school.

Belken reports a more positive finding in the study of a training program for doctors and nurses.30 He found that as the professional personnel increased their knowledge of appropriate techniques of treatments, the mothers who were the ultimate recipients of the treatments showed more effective and more favorable reactions. Two groups of doctors and nurses were given a short course in conference techniques with parents and tested at the conclusion of the course. Those doctors and nurses who had scored high on the examination were rated significantly higher, by mothers whom they saw, than were the low-scoring doctors and nurses. Such results, at least, suggest that professional people trained in methods of working effectively with people to promote mental health might, indeed, be more successful in achieving good results as a result of such training.

In another relevant study, Lucero and Currens describe a clinical training program of twelve weeks' duration for Lutheran ministers. They discovered that although clinical pastoral training has been in existence for thirty years, there had been no objective evaluation of such programs.

prior to their study. Using the MMPI as a measure at the beginning and end of the training program, they found a number of favorable changes. The changes included improvement in scores on the MMPI, and shifts in self-reported attitudes in the direction of greater mental health.\(^{31}\)

Perhaps the most impressive study bearing on the question of education for positive mental health in parents and children is that of Hereford.\(^{32}\) As Holtzman stated in the foreword:

A considerable amount has been written about educating parents through the group discussion method, but the number of well designed, objective studies evaluating the effectiveness of this method for changing parental attitudes and behavior is exceedingly small. Indeed, one might say practically nonexistent. It is a most difficult feat to maintain the experimental controls necessary for rigorous evaluation of the method when working with volunteers from community organizations, and with parents who are completely free to choose whether or not they wish to participate in such research. Implementing a community research plan is quite a different matter from designing it to meet scientific standards in the first place.\(^{33}\)

This study seems worthy of some detailed discussion not only because it could serve as a model for the cooperation of diverse elements in a community, but because its research may serve as a sound guide for studies in teacher education. In this project, a privately endowed organization, the Hogg Foundation for Mental Health, worked with a county mental health society, a PTA, the Austin Independent School District, and the University of Texas, with some support from the National Institute of Mental Health. A noteworthy facet of the research design was its emphasis on the goal of attitudinal change in the parent, rather than the mere providing of information and knowledge. Unlike most such projects, nonprofessional leaders were trained to lead the group discussions with parents, rather than have professional people act as the group leaders. All leaders resisted measurement, and attempts to obtain even biographical data, let alone Q-sort or sociometric instruments, were unsuccessful. Hereford explains that the leaders had come not to serve as research subjects but to develop their skills and talents as discussion leaders and to give volunteer service to the community.

The evaluative data included an attitude survey and an interview with the parents. Entirely independent measures of the children's behavior were obtained by teacher ratings and by sociometric descriptions.

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\(^{33}\)Hereford, op. cit., p. vi.
by age-mates. Lecture-control groups were matched with the experimental discussion groups.

The results are rather striking and significant. Parents who attended the discussion group series showed significant positive changes in their attitudes and in their behavior. Furthermore, these changes were significantly greater among the discussion-group parents than among those in three kinds of control groups. Most significantly, the children of parents who attended the discussion groups improved in their relations with age-mates over the course of the three-month experiment more than did the children of parents in the control groups. Thus, in one of the few studies ever designed to both influence adults and measure the results of this influence on children, the findings show a beneficial effect of the adult training program.

Many teachers and supervisors of student teachers would be interested in the details of the educational program to which both the experimental discussion groups and the lecture-control groups were exposed. There is a list of movies and plays which were used. Many seem admirably suitable for use in teacher training. In short, there is much in this book which could be transferred directly to teacher education.

There are many other articles on discussion groups, on group counseling of parents and students, and on the group approach in general. These publications, however, with rare exceptions, are of the "clinical" or "anecdotal" variety, with almost no quantitative data to indicate their effectiveness. Such reports are, at best, suggestive; but those interested can look to Mental Hygiene. This publication has many excellent reports of group work. Zinberg and Shapiro, for example, have described a group case study in which nurses, psychiatrists, educators, and college students participated in psychoanalytically oriented group sessions.34 Their main thesis is that education and therapy are not to be sharply divided, but that there exists a continuum, with the group approach placed in the middle of the continuum. Bower describes the group counseling methods used with parents in a California research project.35 His brief description foreshadows the findings of the Hereford study. Gildea describes the large scale use of group discussion techniques in St. Louis with PTA groups, with apparent success; but the design did not permit definite conclusions about the effectiveness of this particular approach.36

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Teacher Personality and Mental Health

Ryans' Characteristics of Teachers is the classic work in this field.\(^{37}\)

As Biddle has commented:

Ryans' design is classical in the sense that teacher characteristics are abstracted from the classroom context. Thus, classroom situation and teacher-pupil interaction are ignored for the most part. At the same time, Ryans' efforts have been characterized by methodological sophistication and breadth of variables considered. His work is unique in that he has established relationships between the ten "characteristics" described and both formative and outcome variables. Other researchers would do well to begin their more complexly designed programs of research with the assumption that Ryans' general variables are of significance.\(^{38}\)

Recent research literature refers repeatedly to these variables, e.g., Veldman and Peck.\(^{39}\) In a later paper, Ryans reports:

Good mental health, or emotional maturity, generally is assumed to be a requisite for satisfactory teaching performance. Emotional instability and maladjustment are believed to be not only detrimental to the teacher's efficiency but also to be reflected in both the intellectual and emotional behavior of the teacher's pupils. Among the elementary school teachers participating in the teacher characteristics study, emotional maturity (as estimated by the $S_m$ and $S_d$ scores yielded by the teacher characteristics schedule) was correlated, moderately, with warm, understanding teacher behavior, with stimulating teacher behavior, with favorable attitudes toward pupils, with favorable attitudes toward administrators, and with measured verbal ability. Among secondary teachers, emotional maturity was positively (but not highly) correlated with favorable attitude toward administrators, favorable attitude toward pupils, and warm, understanding teacher behavior.

High mean emotional stability scores ($S_m$ or $S_d$) were attained by groups of teachers who, in making self-appraisals in other sections of the teacher schedule, (1) frequently named self-confidence and cheerfulness as dominant traits in themselves, (2) said they liked active contact with other people as examples, would prefer supervising a summer playground to arranging books in a library, or would prefer to direct games at a party rather than send the invitations, prepare refreshments; (3) reported their childhoods to have been extremely happy; (4) said they engaged in

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hobbies and handicrafts; (5) reported they seldom had been scolded or berated by parents when children; (6) expressed favorable attitudes toward other persons (as examples, confidence in intentions and efforts of their pupils' parents, belief that most people keep their emotions under good control); and (7) said they had engaged in occupations other than teaching for at least three years.

Lower emotional maturity scores were attained by teachers who (1) said their memories of childhood were unhappy; (2) seemed not to prefer active contact with others—for example, would rather send invitations for a party than direct games; (3) expressed distrust of intentions and reasonableness of parents and of their pupils; (4) were directive; and (5) were cautious in attitudes expressed toward their pupils.40

One of our major tenets has been the necessity for research which will demonstrate a relationship between teacher personality and pupil behavior. Ryans' data do provide some indication of this, although the pupil behavior criteria he used were not synonymous with mental health criteria. Still, the mental health implications of the following kinds of pupil behavior seem evident: (1) "apathetic-alert," (2) "obstructive-responsible," (3) "uncertain-confident," (4) "dependent-initiating." A wide variety of relationships emerged which Ryans summarizes as follows:

"Pupil behavior" appears to be rather closely related to "teacher behavior" in the elementary school. In the secondary school it seems almost unrelated to teacher behavior in the classroom.

In the elementary school, productive pupil behavior apparently is related to such teacher behaviors and characteristics as: understanding-friendly teacher behavior, systematic-businesslike teacher behavior, favorable teacher attitude toward pupils, favorable teacher attitude toward democratic classroom procedures, stimulating-imaginative teacher behavior, child-centered-permissive educational viewpoints, teacher emotional adjustment.

In the secondary school, productive pupil behavior seems relatively unrelated to all of the characteristics studies except "stimulating-imaginative" teacher behavior.

Productive pupil behavior appears to be most evident in classes of elementary school teachers who are between thirty and fifty-four years of age, and in classes of secondary school teachers who are between the ages of forty and fifty-four. (Productive pupil behavior seems lowest in classes of elementary school teachers over fifty-five years of age, and classes of secondary teachers below thirty years of age.)

In the elementary school there seems to be little or no productive pupil behavior difference between classes led by men and those led by women teachers. In the secondary school, productive pupil behavior appears to be most evident when the teacher is a woman.

Productive pupil behavior in the elementary school appears to be about the same in classes of married and unmarried teachers (with a slight difference favoring married teachers). Similarly, among English or social studies teachers at the secondary school level, there appears to be no significant difference in pupil behavior when marital status of the teacher is considered. However, in mathematics and science classes in secondary schools there does seem to be a difference suggesting more productive pupil behavior in classes of single as compared with married teachers.

In the elementary school there appear to be no productive pupil behavior differences attributable to the grade level of the class (and the associated grade level taught by the teacher). In the secondary school, however, productive pupil behavior is high in social studies classes and low in English classes. It appears to be highest of all in mathematics classes taught by women teachers and lowest of all in English classes taught by men teachers.41

Ryans summarized his 1964 report with a long statement of cautions about drawing any conclusions from his quite monumental study. We tend to agree with Wattenberg that Ryans' scientific caution, although laudable from the point of view of a scientific purist, may not be the most useful course of action for an educator. In fact, Wattenberg believes Ryans' impressive work has deserved to have much more impact on educational application than it has apparently had. He attributes this, in part, to the fact that Ryans was "modest, almost self-depracatorily tentative with respect to the manner in which he presented his findings."42 Hansen has thoughtfully discussed this entire question of basic versus applied research, when to wait on the findings of empirical inquiry and when to act, in a paper entitled Responsibility of the Sociologist to Education.43

Studies of Teacher Effectiveness

Biddle and Ellena have provided a fine review of research studies on teacher effectiveness. Each chapter is a report by the author or authors of their own research in this field. None of the research reported bears

directly on teacher personality in relationship to pupil mental health, or on promotion of positive mental health in the schools. Yet there are implications for pupil mental health in virtually every research described. Flanders, for example, in his chapter entitled “Some Relationships Among Teacher Influence, Pupil Attitudes and Achievement” described a study in which teachers were placed in three categories under the dimension of directness of teaching style, while pupil behavior was categorized as dependent or independent. Teacher directness or indirectness was defined as the degree to which freedom of student participation was encouraged or restricted. One finding was that the most constructive and independent pupil attitudes were found to be associated with the most indirect patterns of teacher behavior. Even with regard to achievement in mathematics and social studies, indirect patterns of teaching were related to higher pupil achievement scores. Flanders emphasizes that there is no purely direct or indirect teacher and that every teacher, over a long period of time, blends direct and indirect acts into some kind of balance. However, he found the more indirect teachers to be more flexible in that they made more changes in their behavior during early and later phases of training. These findings are consonant, of course, with the rather large body of research dating back to the pioneering work of Harold Anderson on dominitive and integrative teacher behavior. Amidon and Flanders also earlier reported their techniques of interaction analysis.

Peterson’s study of teacher roles found that age is an important determinant of teacher-student relationships.

Previous views of teacher roles have seen the teacher in ageless abstraction. Studies of teacher-pupil interaction usually differentiate among teachers in terms of subject matter, grade level or other formal organizational characteristics of school assignments. It is the contention here that such studies ignore the important facts of aging, commitment, and job satisfaction.

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Perhaps the most sophisticated research design ever carried out on the impact of teacher personality on pupils is the Brooklyn College study. For once, the conceptual design of a research approached the complexity of real life. Heil and his colleagues assumed that there are numerous kinds of teachers, and that they have differentially effective impacts on different kinds of children. Using a test which is unfortunately still unpublished as of this writing, four groups of children were defined: Conformers, Opposers, Waiverers, and Strivers. Using another questionnaire, which is likewise unpublished, they determined three major types of teacher personality: A. Turbulent, impulsive, variable, B. Self-controlling, orderly, work oriented, and C. Fearful. The type B teacher apparently is the most effective with all four categories of children, when academic progress is the criterion (Stanford Achievement Test). Type A obtains different results with different kinds of children leading the authors to state that their data suggest that the gains made by different kinds of children depend basically on the combination of teacher personality and child personality, and the interacting effects. The anxious, insecure teacher of type C achieved less academic gain with her pupils than the other two kinds of teachers.

Their data also showed effects on pupil personality. For example, with the type B teachers, negative, hostile children tended to develop more positive feelings and lessened anxiety. Children with the type B teachers also became significantly more friendly toward each other than did children with either the type A or type C teachers.

At the level of college teaching, Whiteis has conducted an experiment in the teaching of psychology whose results seem to be a rather impressive refutation of the view that education should properly be exclusively subject matter oriented, and conducted in a strictly impersonal, "purely intellectual" manner, as the Council for Basic Education would have it. Whiteis used two approaches, the "Disciplined Intelligence" approach, and what he calls the "Therapeutic Education" approach. The students who experienced the latter fared significantly better in college on the criteria of (1) grade point average, (2) completion of work for the degree versus dropping out of college, (3) fewer absences, and (4) tests used as indices of mental health. Whiteis' findings are congruent with those of Jones, except the latter investigator did not use academic progress as a criterion, but rather changes in self-acceptance as a consequence of a year-long "self-knowledge workshop."Experimental students in a girls' preparation school showed a significant increase in

49Heil and Washburne, op. cit.

self-acceptance over the year, while control subjects did not. In fact, Jones reports that the control students became less tolerant of themselves, less open to novelty, and less likely to seek meaningful encounters.\textsuperscript{51}

Reed’s study in science education leads him to list as one of the implications of his results, “teachers with higher scores on warmth tend to affect favorably pupils’ science interest; the characteristic of warmth probably cannot be easily augmented through teacher training experiences.”\textsuperscript{52} Other studies which have emphasized the importance of teacher warmth, empathy, enthusiasm, and similar attributes in teaching effectiveness include Dixon and Morse,\textsuperscript{53} Isaacson, McKeachie, and Milholland,\textsuperscript{54} Solomon, \textit{et al},\textsuperscript{55} Mastin,\textsuperscript{56} and many others.

As always seems the case in psychological research, there are some studies which are at variance with the findings of the majority and, hence, run counter to the prevailing generalizations. Not all investigators have concluded that teacher personality is, always and everywhere, a significant variable in child learning. Gump doubts its relevance and suggests replacing personality with the concept of the teacher-structured environment.\textsuperscript{57} Dutton found that teacher personality was not of significance.\textsuperscript{58} McKeachie, in his oft-cited review of experimental studies in the techniques of teaching at the college level, includes several studies whose findings are not compatible with those of Flanders, especially with regard to the relationship of academic progress and the indirect method of teaching.\textsuperscript{59} Delp, in an excellent review of research literature on “Mental Health of Teachers: Still a Problem” states “evidence of the effects

of maladjusted teachers on their pupils is far from conclusive.\textsuperscript{60} He cites the work of one investigator who believes that all the important situations, relationships, and problems that influence or determine the formation of the individual's personality have been experienced in the first six years of life, hence, occur prior to a child's entry into school. On the other hand, another researcher concluded that the effects of many teachers on the mental health of their pupils is definitely "bad."

One could attempt to reconcile these divergent findings, perhaps, by pointing out the different populations (college students, sixth grade students, junior high school students); by noting the differing criteria employed, whether of academic gain or personality change; or by noting the greatly different operational definitions of the variables in the different measuring instruments employed. In the present state of research, such reconciliation seems out of place. The pieces do not all seem to come from the same jigsaw puzzle, it might be said; or, if they do, they were not all cut according to the same basic plan.

School Programs in Mental Health Education

The most effective program for directly teaching mental health concepts and skills to children is undoubtedly the one begun years ago by Ojemann.\textsuperscript{61} He gives an excellent summary of the theoretical rational underlying this work in his 1961 report. Ojemann and Snider more recently report a research study where it was found that children can be taught to understand and appreciate the dynamic nature of human behavior, and that this understanding has a positive effect on the children's behavior.\textsuperscript{62} While most of this program has been directed to the development of appropriate content and teaching strategies for use with children, Ojemann's 1961 report contains a brief description of a teacher training program which is designed to prepare teachers to use this approach, so the children can be guided to a more causal orientation to their social environment, thus contributing to the prevention of confusion and mental illness.

An excellent report of the School of Mental Health Project of the Michigan Society for Mental Health is presented in four papers by Kipfer, Morse, McNeil, and Cutler, all appearing in the American.

\textsuperscript{60}Harold A. Delp, "Mental Health of Teachers—Still a Problem." Journal of Teacher Education 14:142-149, 1963.
Journal of Orthopsychiatry, April, 1961. This was a six-year project involving approximately 4,000 teachers and administrators. The key people in the project frankly accepted the public health approach to mental health, as indicated by their focus on classroom teachers, because of the length and intensity of their contact with children, and because of the real and potential influence the teacher has on the individual child and the group climate. Work was carried on with teachers in areas removed from metropolitan Detroit, where psychiatric and clinical resources were non-existent. No direct clinical treatment was provided to any school or individual. The school was conceived as offering a dynamic setting, suitable for fostering change in emotional, social, psychological, and physical growth (Kipfer). Morse pointed up the negative impact of mental health programs on schools as those mental health programs were once conducted in the past. He stressed the need for a "true school mental hygiene program, based upon a concept of the educational milieu." McNeil described the programs, including the executive development seminars for school principals, special service seminars for teachers, and direct work with teachers to train them in both group and individual methods of working with children. Cutler described the research design and the major findings. For example, on nine of the sixteen dimensions of the Leary Interpersonal Checklist, the inservice consultation program produced meaningful changes in teachers' self-perceptions.

Cowen, et al describe the Rochester, New York, study, whose basic hypothesis was that a preventive mental health program in the school would produce measureable positive effects. The population included 144 boys, 127 girls, 123 parents, and 58 teachers in one school. Included in the data were objective tests, projective tests, interview data, parental attitudes scales, teacher evaluation measures, GPA, attendance records, and referrals to school nurse.

Three hypotheses with regard to children were tested, two concerning teachers, and two concerning parents. An experimental and a control group were set up to test each hypothesis. While the statistically significant findings are limited, they are quite interesting. The experimental program appears to have made the experimental children less anxious

than the control children. The parents of experimental children were found to have changed favorably in their child-rearing attitudes, becoming less dogmatic, and better able to accept negative feelings in their children after participating in the program. Changes in the teachers were in the predicted direction, but fell short of statistical significance. Concerning the teacher seminar series, and its impact on the teachers, the authors state:

In so far as we can detect evidence of teacher change as a result of the experimental program, the straws in the wind appear to be encouraging and again point to the need and the worthwhileness of teacher oriented features of a comprehensive mental health preventive program.68

Since the Rochester study represents what can be accomplished with limited manpower and finances, school systems and small universities or colleges with equally limited resources might find much of interest in the design and methods of this investigation.

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68Cowen, op. cit., p. 348.
Introduction

In the original charge to the writing chairman, this yearbook was to accomplish three tasks. It was to present a focus and a theoretical position in teacher education and mental health. It was to summarize the research in the field with up-to-date bibliography. It was to report on the four National Institute of Mental Health projects. These were extensive tasks, and the effort to achieve them has resulted in an extensive yearbook. Many, many fresh, exciting ideas have been presented here which have far-reaching implications for teacher education. The tough job of culling out and boiling down from this work that which had the most importance for teacher education was assigned to Fred Wilhelms. The results are highly satisfactory, for he has written a classic. This yearbook ends with Dr. Wilhelms’ solidly-packed, hard-hitting, terse summary of those things which can and should be used. In the long run, the importance of this yearbook and the impact of the research reported here can only be judged by what changes take place in teacher education.
CHAPTER X

Applications in Teacher Education

FRED T. WILHELM

Where do we go from here?
What can we really do?
These are the questions that stir the mind as one nears the end of this volume. Is what has been described here only an idealistic never-never land? Or can real, practicable programs be developed to convert the ideal into reality? One by one, the chapters have added up toward a new vision of the very nature of teaching. Less surely—rather gropingly, in fact—the book has explored a few dawning conceptualizations of the professional education program it will take to produce the teaching we need.

The groping has been all too appropriate. As one reviews in his mind the evidence presented in this book, nothing stands out more clearly than the extent to which the education of teachers is still an “unstudied problem.” It is an anomaly (a downright shame, to call a spade a spade) that the data should still be so meager. For the people who manage professional education programs are the world’s best-equipped persons to study them. The faculties of departments and schools of education are full of experts who serve elementary and secondary schools as consultants on curriculum development. As consultants, many of them rail constantly at the curricular “tinkering” that goes on at those levels, and at the failure to carry on research and use its findings. Yet these same faculties have rarely researched their own programs, and such changes as most of them have made have generally been of the order of mere tinkering.

The education of teachers took its set decades ago, and its basic outlines have generally remained pretty much the same ever since. It embodied two notions: (1) that “good teaching” consisted of a body of practices (“methods”) which could be taught as so many skills; and (2) that the thing to do was to teach a “foundation” of theory and philosophy first, then teach the methods, and then bring the whole thing together in the culminating experience of student teaching. Even the students knew that the second of these represented a silly way to organize a learning program; and sophisticated professors of education were quite aware that it violated the very principles of learning which they were using it to teach. Yet, in the majority of institutions, very little was done to remedy the situation, beyond the development of
some rather trivial palliatives, such as more observation in the early stages and perhaps some “participation.”

When, finally, the strains on the traditional theory first-application later system grew too great, a fairly common response was to move to a pseudo-internship. To be sure, there were cases in which the internship was genuine (i.e., built upon an already-complete program of preservice training), but these cases were rare. In the main, the so-called internship was little more than a program of learning by doing, generally at considerable expense to any theoretical/philosophical study. In fact, most internship programs went beyond the traditional program in conceptualizing “good teaching” as a body of practices, to be learned this time by practicing under the supervision of a practitioner who had already mastered the techniques. In a kind of desperation, many colleges had leaped from an over-academic approach to an equally indefensible opposite extreme.

It is a sorry record, for a set of institutions whose raison d’être is the improvement of teaching and learning, a record of anything but mature curriculum making based on scholarly analysis. We dwell on it to our distaste only to hammer home the point that the next adaptations of teacher education have to be far more fundamental and radical. And they must, as the Wisconsin report put it “... include, as a minimum, all professional education courses.” The time for tinkering has passed.

One Dominant Idea

As I see it, one idea dominates this book: an emphasis on “the person inside the teacher”—what that person genuinely is. Note, for instance, that all four of the NIMH-sponsored studies moved toward this emphasis. The San Francisco State College project started there; in its very first year, it articulated the position that “what a teacher is may be more important than anything he does.” However, in retrospect, that initial statement came to seem like only a dimly intuited hunch, which gained clarity and an ever-deepening commitment as the project moved forward. In the end the staff conceptualized the period of professional education almost as a second adolescence, a period of great personal ferment and becoming. It was more and more willing to subordinate all else to this becoming. Similarly, the Texas project, embodying a very wide range of initial approaches, centered more and more on the developmental tasks of the professional students. Its psychology courses shifted toward awareness of one’s perceptual framework. Its student-teaching seminars became “counseling-oriented seminars,” more and more analogous to T-Group sensitivity training (which also became increasingly a center of work at San Francisco). Eventually, the Texas project seems to have concentrated very heavily on the building of a therapeutic environment.
The Bank Street College project seized the opportunity to deepen the college's long-standing program of "psycho-educational counseling," carefully staying away from pure psychotherapy and yet going far beyond the usual conception of educational counseling, with the special assistance of a consulting psychiatrist. It is significant that, in reporting on this broad project with many lines of activity, Winsor and Biber chose to concentrate on "An Analysis of the Guidance Function in a Graduate Teacher Education Program." The University of Wisconsin group committed themselves to a technical research design using modes of communication as indices of teacher behavior. Yet apparently they, too, eventually found special significance in the "personal dimension" of teacher communication. ("The results of the present study repeatedly pointed up the relationship of the personal dimension of teacher communication to desirable concepts of self and of school attitudes.") Their recommendation that future studies of teacher behavior make more use of pupil perceptions may imply a growing interest in the personal side of the teacher since, as compared to the transactional records of trained observers, pupil perceptions would almost inevitably be affected more by what the teacher is over time than by the specifics of his action.

(Perhaps it should be added that all four of these projects were at the same time working hard at cultivating the prospective teacher's knowledge, competences, and theoretical understandings. The projects never put cultivation of the young teacher as a person in opposition to the development of knowledge and competence. They sought ways of combining the two elements in a mutually reinforcing relationship.)

Now let us be realistically tough with ourselves. It is an open choice for each faculty whether it will accept as an overriding goal the personal development of each candidate as a mature, autonomous professional. But if it does accept this goal, then the effect upon its program of professional education must be a profound one. The traditional sequence of education courses has probably had little, if any, more of the aspect of "psychoeducational guidance" than any other set of academic courses. And, while the traditional final semester of student teaching has opened up much opportunity for self-revelation, it has done so in a period of such high emotional strain as almost to preclude calm self-assessment and insight-based growth. Furthermore, there have commonly been factors of something approaching thought-control in professional programs which have actually made them antithetical to free and open autonomous development. No superficial rearrangements of such programs is going to effect the fundamental outcomes we seek.

Guides for Program Development

No one can yet say with assurance just what sort of program will do the job, but it seems to me that we can lay down a few general guides.
Selection of Healthful Candidates

If the nature of the person doing the teaching (what the teacher is) is as important as this volume indicates, then it is obvious that only healthful candidates—or those who can be brought to a healthful condition—should be accepted and credentialed. (The word "healthful" is used rather than "healthy," to connote probable impact on the candidate's pupils.) In other words, we must develop cogent programs of screening out candidates who are undesirable on personal grounds, no matter how high their grade-point averages may be.

Obviously, it will take a great deal of study to put such a screening program on a sound intellectual footing, for the traits involved are ill-defined and hard to measure. Public institutions, particularly, must proceed on the basis of known and justifiable criteria which can be given virtually legal status. And even though private institutions can legally act more arbitrarily, they will in good conscience want to base their actions on a defensible rationale. Nevertheless, the job must be done. Faculties will properly seek ways of salvaging marginal cases who might possibly be brought to an adequate state of health. But in the short time at its disposal, professional education cannot go the full length of psychotherapy—and even psychotherapy could not convert every candidate into a healthful teacher.

Of course, this is no brand-new theme. But it must be underlined that as we swing to a new evaluation of the person teaching—as against his purely cognitive equipment—the screening function takes on new importance.

Development of Self-Understanding

In one way or another we must provide optimum opportunity for the development of self-insight and a valid self-concept. The possible means are many and varied. Bank Street College's psychoeducational counseling, depending chiefly on a close one-to-one relationship, is obviously a thoughtful effort in this direction. So is the sensitivity training employed at San Francisco State College and the University of Texas.

But we need to think beyond such special aspects of a program and try for a system in which the program as a whole will yield opportunities for self-understanding and acceptance, one which will make the very process of becoming a teacher a health-producing process. For example, if a progressive pattern of experiences with real children in real schools and communities can be devised to run continuously through the entire program (instead of being concentrated in a final semester of student teaching), it will likely yield a series of deepening self-revelations. Some little experience early in the program may show the student a good deal about himself. (One of the great problems with the traditional series of preliminary-to-student-teaching courses is that they have so little of this guidance quality. A history major with a "B" average will probably earn a "B" in an educational psychology course, too; but he will learn little in the process about himself as a future professional.)
APPLICATIONS IN TEACHER EDUCATION

If, then, the climate in individual counseling, in courses, or in counseling-oriented seminars is such that students can bring their evocative, challenging experiences—with all the questions and doubts and exhilarations they arouse—into the open with fellow students and/or faculty, the stage is set for something highly therapeutic. One of the nicest problems of teacher education is how to secure a constant intertwining of reality experience and foundation studies, so that each progressively reinforces the other.

This point undoubtedly deserves far more thought than it has generally received. With the cooperation of the public schools, teacher-education institutions have commonly worked hard to provide a great deal of reality experience. But they have often placed most of it so late in the program that it cannot resonate through the rest of the professional learning. Furthermore—and this may be even more fundamental—they have conceived it primarily as practice, as a way of acquiring skill. Certainly this is a highly desirable objective, especially in the later stages of the professional program. But there is another set of reasons for reality experiences, too often neglected—the provision of personal feedback to the student along with the arousing of his drive for professional learning as he meets situations that reveal his technical inadequacy. Obviously, if reality experience is to serve these functions well, a fair share of it must come early in the program and spacing, in relation to other professional studies, will be of great importance.

This is more than a technical or academic matter. What we need is an open situation where each student can explore freely, finding out more about himself as well as about teaching. If the exploring is to be done boldly and in a genuinely inquiring way, it will need to be in a relatively tension-free, supportive climate. A long series of "little" exploratory experiences, none of them crucial to the student's success, is likely to generate a relaxed, clear-eyed approach.

There are many other ways to open up personal/professional feedback. Simulated experience may have great value. The student who hears his own recorded classroom talk, or better yet, sees and hears himself on film, will be learning a great deal. Even if what he is seeing is someone else's teaching, discussion and thought can be directed toward his perceptions, his feelings. The experience at the University of Texas shows quite clearly that, over time, students can become quite at ease with highly objective self-analysis based on tests, recordings, and the use of closed-circuit television.

One clearly important point in all this is that it must be done in a warm, supportive environment free of undue stress. A key problem with traditional student teaching is that too much is at stake too suddenly. Every experienced supervisor knows that student teaching has all the classic stress effects of narrowing perception and shutting down free communication. If, by contrast, there can be more "little" experience spread over time so that the emotional loading is lighter, particularly, perhaps, if some of those can come early enough so that the student is not
yet "supposed to" know a great deal or have great skill—if, that is, nothing much is at stake—then the student can keep his perceptions open. He can chuckle tolerantly at little failures, even while resolving never to have them again.

Personalization of the Curriculum

We must help each student to value his unique self and use it as an instrument of teaching. Teacher education has been burdened far too long by a vague notion that there is one ideal type of teacher performing in one "right" way. Many outstanding candidates for teaching have felt forced to play the hypocrite, to behave artificially, and ultimately to distort themselves to fit the pervasive, vague ideal. (This writer may as well confess that he was bothered for years by the notion that the only people who could be good teachers were those who could love all their students—which he knew he didn't.)

The plain fact is that there is no one universal type of good teacher, no one right set of methods for everybody. We need a great many kinds of people in teaching, a great many ways of teaching—if only because we have an infinite diversity of students. There is no need for any healthy, healthful person to make himself over as a teacher, to pretend to be what he is not. On the contrary, he should be encouraged to be himself in a degree few persons ever dare to be.

Well, if Suzie is to be an autonomous, self-expressive teacher next year when she has a full-time job, she had better be practicing right now. The history of teacher education is over-replete with students forced to follow a faculty's "party line." (Few faculties, or individual faculty members, will care to believe this. But this writer studied the perceptions of one professional student body and found disturbing—and convincing—evidence that the feeling was there, and not always for unreal reasons. He suspects that in varying degrees the same thing is true elsewhere.) Student teaching, which presumably should climax the professional student's growing autonomy, is, in a woefully large proportion of cases, a period of maximum dependence and subordination. As matters stand, for many students, the program of professional education is more negative than positive in its effects upon openness and autonomy.

Furthermore, unfortunately, most students come into professional education already conditioned by years of authoritarian methodology. They are so conditioned that it will not be enough merely to let them be autonomous and self-responsible. It will take an aggressive and artful campaign to convince them that their freedom is real and persuade them to use it. Telling them will do little good. There must be deep and growing involvement in planning their own curriculum, analyzing their own needs, finding their own experiences, living with the consequences of their own decisions.

Finally, if we really mean that we want each student to be "more himself," we have an obligation to see to it that his preparatory curriculum is itself unique. The program of teacher education we need must be able to be different in kind for students whose needs are also different
in kind. What this demands is not simply “individualization” but a genuine “personalization.” And the only person who can intuit what it needs to be is the student himself, though even he will need help in clarifying his perceptions.

We are all so conditioned to conformity and most of us are so inhibited in being and expressing ourselves that few educational tasks in the world can call for so much artistry as the seemingly simple one of “cutting the student loose.”

Promotion of Faculty Self-Study

Teacher education must be planned and judged at least as much in terms of its environment and process as in terms of its products. We have already said that the products—knowledge, competences, understandings—are important and never to be neglected. But if, for each professional student, the paramount thing is his own personal/professional becoming, then total environment and process are also paramount.

Since climate and process are set largely by the faculty, it follows that they need to involve themselves in a searching reexamination of their own motivations, the impact of their behaviors on others, and the teaching processes they employ. They, no less than their professional students, need some sort of continuing sensitivity training. It is a disturbing thing that at the University of Texas, when a wide range of possibilities were opened to the faculty for its own self-improvement, few, especially of those with the most status, cared to be involved. It is a fair guess that most other faculties would react similarly. But we delude ourselves if we think we can encourage the personal characteristics and growth of students which this book has called essential through the kinds of instruction and curriculum organization most of us are accustomed to. (As a veteran of the San Francisco State College project, I can myself attest to the fundamental and anxiety-producing shifts in attitude and habit that are likely to be needed.)

Provisions for Professional Education

Faculties of schools of education, hopefully with the aid of their colleagues, must fight for more time for professional teacher education and for freedom to organize the program as the needs demand. The times, have been running against us. In many states the time for professional education has been cut to the bare bones; often, simultaneously, there has been prescription of what must be taught; in not a few cases the rest of the faculty has constricted the life space of the school of education; and the climate of public opinion has been such that it has been hard for educationists to make their case. The net result is that many teacher education faculties are being forced to do what they can in patently inadequate programs.

It is time to mount an aggressive campaign and fight back. As education has grown more complex and demanding, the needs of teachers for
professional preparation has grown. As the behavioral sciences have reached new insights and educational research has accumulated new findings, faculties in education have developed an increasingly valuable corpus of helps for teachers. It is time to expand professional education, not to shrivel it.

This would be true even if we sought only to teach professional students the body of theory and practice they need to know. It is doubly true when we conceive our mission with them as also involving a time of personal/professional becoming. Becoming is a slow business. It probably needs a longer period than the common year and a half or two years of professional training. Furthermore, at least in some stages, it probably needs its time in bigger “chunks”—to facilitate the use of experience in school and community. Courses meeting an hour at a time three days a week may be fine for some purposes, but other purposes require blocks of time analogous to those used in science laboratories.

There are other demands, too, that we must make. There is no real reason why teacher education must be so much cheaper than other forms of professional education. We must have lower faculty-student ratios as well as better equipment and facilities for many forms of “laboratory work.” Furthermore, we need (and can successfully build) a different relationship with the public schools, to facilitate a much broader range of experiences over a longer period of time, in a less formal arrangement than that required in student teaching.

Any seasoned educator knows full well how difficult all this will be to achieve. I simply feel that we are entitled to a new level of self-respect because we have so much of value to offer. And I believe we should assert ourselves.
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MENTAL HEALTH AND TEACHER EDUCATION


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BIBLIOGRAPHY ON PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION OF TEACHERS
From July 1, 1964 to June 30, 1965

Prepared by Professor Margaret Lindsey with the assistance of the following doctoral students in residence at Teachers College, Columbia University:

Mohammad Amin, Merlyn McClure
Lillian Franc, Maurice Recchia
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Categories in which the references are presented were determined by analysis of the total set of documents. They differ from categories used in previous Annual Bibliographies. Although there would be merit in maintaining the same groupings over a period of years, it seemed to the bibliography editor that the emergence of new and different categories is one indication of shifting emphases. It therefore seemed important to make such shifting emphases visible in organization of the bibliography.

Many of the references reported here could be placed in more than one category. Each has been listed only once, in the category to which its content was most pertinent.

1. Teacher Education—General
2. College Teaching
3. Preparation of Teachers in Teaching Specialties
4. Content and Organization of the Professional Component
5. Student Teaching and Internships
6. Preparation of Teachers for Urban and/or Depressed Areas
7. New Media in Teacher Education
8. Recruitment, Selection, and Assignment of Teachers
9. Certification
10. Team Teaching

I. TEACHER EDUCATION—GENERAL


Reports discussion at the College of Education, University of Illinois, on Conant’s The Education of American Teachers. Presents an analysis of several of Conant’s criticisms and proposals. Raises several questions regarding Conant’s criticisms and proposals.


Discusses the forces acting upon and within the learner. Emphasizes the importance of the teacher’s acts in fostering mental health and learning.
Declares that the curriculum is crucial in the total development of pupils, for the facts, concepts and generalizations embodied in the curriculum provide the learner with a way of testing reality, and offer him various routes to make his way more effectively in the world. Suggests how these three forces may be combined to produce a person who is rational and highly competent.


Asserts that there are two basic and fundamental aspects of a strategy for change in the curriculum: (1) there must be created a social, political and educational climate among the people who are in a position to influence or control decision making on educational matters that is conducive to and supportive of educational change; (2) the people who are to make such changes in such a supportive and germinal climate must themselves favor such change, understand the reasons for a change, be sympathetic with the new programs and practices to be tried out, and have a personal disposition and desire to improve the quality of education provided children and young people.


Reports results of a study indicating that teachers (1) perceived their professional preparation to have been of greater value to their teaching than their academic preparation; (2) saw all aspects of their training programs to have been of value to their teaching; and (3) recommend even more extensive professional preparation for teachers.


Describes an investigation analyzing ninety-two novels. Studies attitudes and reactions of the American novelists toward education and educators. Draws inferences, and suggests implications for those engaged in teacher education. Concludes that if educators wish to foster creative inventiveness, they may have to risk granting novelists greater autonomy.


Describes a study designed to determine the quality of students' achievement and native ability with those students in fields other than teacher education. Results of the study indicate that students preparing to teach scored slightly superior to the total group of college graduates on nearly every item considered.


Provides an historical analysis of teacher education in America. Focuses upon liberal education and its relationship to teacher education. Discusses
arguments related to teacher education and liberal education during the first one hundred years of teacher education in America.


Argues the need for colleges and universities to consider changing and revising their course content designed to prepare teachers of English. Suggests that the recommendations of the National Council of the Teachers of English would be an appropriate guide for these considerations.


Relates the efforts of the "Joint Commission to Improve the Education of Teachers in California" to establish campus-wide teacher education committees, including faculty members from other areas, at all institutions having accredited teacher education programs.


Asserts concern for the relationship between cognitive growth and pedagogy. Sees teaching as continuous interaction between child and teacher. Argues the need for a psychology of the disciplines. Essays notable in their searching for pedagogical processes.


Reports the methodology and findings of a study of curriculum changes in the elementary teacher-preparation program of nineteen colleges for the decade 1953-1963. Findings indicate a trend toward more student choice in course selection. Major anticipated changes indicated by 27 percent of the institutions polled include a trend toward the five year plan, more liberal education in preservice programs, fewer methods courses, more subject matter preparation, and less professional preparation. The author questions whether change as reflected in this investigation occurred as a result of censorious literature.


Presents the theme of the program of the Annual Meeting, AACTE, February, 1965. Discusses five major areas of action for the improvement of teacher education: (1) liberal arts, (2) technical tools, (3) equality of educational opportunity, (4) international interest, and (5) shared responsibility for improved teacher responsibility.


Presents five statements of opinion concerning the report to the National Commission on Accrediting by John R. Mayor.
Discusses the major differences between training and education. Urges that we maximize the values of training and minimize its weaknesses by linking it with education. Concludes that training without education dulls the mind and kills creativity.

Reviews recent literature concerning the influence of the teacher's classroom personality on children's behavior. Urges that teacher education institutions give greater attention to the development of desirable personality traits in their prospective teachers. Summarizes with a number of implications for the preservice education for teachers.

Discusses the aims, orientations, and priorities of a report for the Harvard Graduate School of Education made by a committee, chaired by Professor Israel Scheffler. The report concerned problems of program organization and integration, ways of improving teaching and organizing research activities, and the relationship between the Ed.D. and the Ph.D. in education. Discussion is by Harry S. Broudy, University of Illinois; Roald F. Campbell, University of Chicago; Ben Morris, University of Bristol; Dan C. Lortie, University of Chicago; and John S. Brubacher, University of Michigan.

Points out changes taking place in the world and discusses five important areas of transition which are affecting the field of education.

Lists those doctoral dissertations accomplished during 1963-64 dealing with the education of teachers. The list is divided into 11 categories: (1) provision and administration of teacher education; (2) education of administrators: preservice and inservice; (3) preservice education of teachers: objectives, curriculum, practices, certification requirements; (4) education of teachers for particular subject fields; (5) student teaching and other preparatory experiences: laboratory, field, direct; (6) students of education: psychological and sociological characteristics; interest in teaching; achievement; prognosis; (7) personnel services: recruitment, selection, counseling, placement; (8) beginning teachers and administrators: problems, induction, follow-up; (9) inservice education; (10) evaluation of preparation; (11) teacher education in other countries.

Argues that every teacher, beginning in the preservice period and continuing for the rest of his career should give scholarly attention to three
fields: (1) educational policy—asserts that if the best teacher is to be more than a competent technician, he must be intelligently aware of the moral and social responsibility of the school and his own work; (2) science of education—states that the place at which the psychology of learning and epistemology meet may well mark the locus of highly productive investigations into the phenomena of teaching and learning and the experimental design of the curricula; (3) teaching as a form of art—concludes that if we can find the intelligence and the imagination to examine and study the art of teaching as we have other performing and interpretive arts, we may be able to add an element of immeasurable importance to teacher education.


Suggests that the community junior college participate in teacher education in the following ways: (1) provide that portion of general and liberal arts education for prospective teachers that is ordinarily reserved for the lower division college levels; (2) provide introductory courses in professional education, such as psychological foundations; (3) provide certain professional content courses, such as art and music for elementary school teachers; (4) provide student teaching experiences or teaching internships for future college teachers; (5) utilize junior college staffs to assist in the supervision and direction of the student teaching experience in public schools; (5) prepare teacher aides or classroom assistants for public school teachers; (7) prepare teachers for nursery schools, and for other pre-elementary schools. Concludes that the community junior college should play an important role in the inservice education of teachers.


Declares that commitment is a process so closely fitted to occupational structure that changes in it would necessarily involve structured change in teaching as a profession, which would in turn, affect the organization of the school system. Offers several suggestions for change in the teaching profession that might lead to professional commitment.


Declares that the prerequisite to keeping human beings human is that the teacher develop his own human qualities and achieve a freedom within himself that can be achieved only when he has the courage to look at restrictive forces and willingly accepts the consequences of resisting those forces.


Focuses on the time and impact of the Conant attack on teacher education. A position is taken that at the time of the report both the teacher educator and other scholars were feeling pressures to assume responsibility for the demands placed upon them by their culture. Encouraging signs indicating that both groups are indeed taking steps in this direction are discussed. The future seems to give promise of “something new, something more 'mindful' than before.”

Summarizes various theories of the development of the self-concept. Covers the following topics: (1) the self as mirrored in others; (2) what is maturity? (3) the importance of the development of self-identity in adolescent students. Discusses the role of the teacher in enabling students to arrive at a healthy self-view. Concludes that a teacher can only help others as he brings his own personality into a state of integrity.


Describes difficulties schools of education have had in getting started and in continuing on due to a lack of funds. Reports that, despite obstacles, they have grown both quantitatively and qualitatively in terms of teachers produced, research, and services to schools. Today the schools of education represent one of the stronger assets of many land-grant institutions.


Asserts that the education of teachers should be planned for. Urges the establishment of a framework for planning that should aim at the correction of the fundamental insufficiencies of present programs. Suggests that planning is the individual responsibility of those who choose to pursue learning in all its aspects. Planning must focus on the local level and must not be limited to a single product—there are too many things to plan for.


Examines the question of licensure and the college teacher. Suggests notion of accountability rather than a guarantee of having met specific standards. Refers to accountability as being answerable to any and all professional actions. Describes present condition of accountability as laissez faire, with no formal requirements describing minimum levels of competence or contribution established for college teachers. Asserts the need for a more formalized pattern. Outlines characteristics of academic accountability as (1) providing opportunity to demonstrate one's competence; (2) conducted by competent representatives of the academic profession; (3) a readily communicable program; (4) characterized by standards dealing with entry-level competencies; and (5) providing for an endorsement of the individual.


Discusses six factors the beginning teacher should consider when seeking a teaching position: type of community, type of school, school curriculum, teaching assignment, professional growth and salary. Suggests guidelines to beginning teachers to help them reach a sound decision in selecting a teaching position. Recommends several ways to locate vacancies. Provides sample letter of inquiry, sample application, and sample résumé. Lists
several sources of information regarding certification, salary, graduate study and placement services.


Discusses the need for understanding of self and emotional problems by teachers which can also lead to an understanding of others. It is suggested that there be voluntary group therapy in teacher education institutions for future teachers and in every sizable school faculty. Feels this could be rewarding to the beginning teacher.


Reports a study conducted to determine whether the notion of profiles was feasible and useful in describing teachers. The ultimate aim was to identify those profiles which were most characteristic of successful and unsuccessful beginning teachers. The results seem to indicate that teachers can be described in terms of profiles, and that certain families of profiles are associated with high ratings as beginning teachers.


Argues that communication is a problem in real-life teaching—communication between teacher and student, between teacher and parent, and between teacher and the office. Urges teachers to become aware of children's modes of communicating. Beginning teachers have certain advantages over experienced teachers such as zeal and fresh, untried approaches. Declares that the attributes most important to any teacher are a sense of humor, physical and intellectual stamina, and a love of children.


Argues that one of the dimensions of effective teaching is being sensitive and responsive listeners to children. Asserts that in order to sense important factors that lie behind a student's overt response a teacher needs a sound background in child psychology. States that discovery teaching is heavily dependent upon the teacher's ability to capitalize upon teachable moments. Concludes that making the most of teachable moments requires of the teacher sensitivity, flexibility, intense involvement and self-discipline in listening carefully, consistently, and thoughtfully to what children say.


Suggests a hypothetical proposal based on ideas drawn from a number of actual proposals submitted to the US Office of Education. Serves as the basis for discussion of fundamental problems and issues in the preparation of teachers for disadvantaged children and youths at the Concurrent Session on the Preparation of Teachers for Depressed Urban Area., AACTE's Eighteenth Annual Meeting.
Insists that the major task of the educator is to redefine his theory in light of the field of practice. Within this field of practice are indications of the nature of the phenomena with which educators deal. Being able to understand the values and expectations set forth by various elements of civilization will lead the educator to more wise decisions and make theory more related to practice.

Discusses the need for counteracting the growing tendency toward depersonalization of our modern schools. Believes that students learn best when the teacher is in communication with them. Emphasizes the role of the teacher in stimulating and guiding the learning and the self-development of the student.

Reviews various studies made by sisters, prior to and since the emergence of the Sister Formation Movement in 1954. Concludes that (1) the Movement has given considerable impetus to the upgrading of the education of sisters; (2) there is a need for follow-up studies on the preservice preparation of sisters to determine more accurately the influence of the Movement; (3) there is a need for improved testing programs and rigorous screening prior to entrance into religious life; (4) the preservice programs have been lengthened and inservice training is more systematic and based to a greater extent on the needs of the teachers; and (5) well qualified lay teachers to supplement the work of sisters are of great importance.

Urges that teacher education be geared less to the methods of teaching and learning and more to the aims, purposes and proper content of education. States that in the preparation of teachers nothing is of greater importance than the cultivation of competence in the consideration of human values. Cites the development of federally-funded curriculum improvement projects including inservice programs for teachers and the development of more effective ties between subject matter departments and schools of education as positive trends in teacher education.

Discuss the encounter between the teacher and the pupil. Sees need for the encounter to be on the most personal basis. Emphasizes the feeling that the teacher is not, nor ever should be, a machine. A machine does, the teacher does not do—he is! Suggests the only way to train a teacher is (1) to leave him free to train himself, i.e., by not training him, and
(2) by inviting him to take account of some people who are already teachers. Feels that teachers cannot be chosen on the basis of any objective, public criteria. Sees the basic qualifications for the election of a teacher as the possession of character.


Presents a plea for the development of the aesthetic within each teacher in training. Stresses the need for aesthetic education in art, music, and poetry. Compares the teacher to an artist working toward the realization of a design. Concludes that the teacher can help students to see, to hear, to feel, only as he has learned to see, to hear, and to feel.


Proposes the improvement of instruction through the application of knowledge concerning the processes of cognition on the part of the learner. Calls for instruction to become less concerned with mastery of knowledge and more concerned with creativity and students' ability to apply knowledge. Suggests methods which can be used with students to achieve this type of learning.


Discusses the attitude and problems of older men and women returning to college at forty years or older to take courses preparing them for teaching. Habits and attitudes developed in living and working outside college are not always compatible with requirements for college courses, although the maturity by some of the older students is often very outstanding.


Points to the fact that schools should be concerned with helping children mobilize their inner resources. Asserts that teaching should not be concerned only with curriculum areas, methods and materials, but it should also be concerned with helping students develop an adequate concept of themselves, and others. Suggests that the teacher should be able to differentiate between his feelings and the child's, and to distinguish between his values and the child's. Concludes that teachers must be specialists in accepting the sensitivities and sensibilities of the pupils before them.


Remarks on the proposition that new trends in the school program must be understood by college professors if teachers are to be prepared to function in such programs. Discusses a few of the issues identified at the Eighteenth Annual Meeting of AACTE.

Compares conceptions of teaching and teachers of the late 1930's with those of the mid-1960's in the United States. Prescribes "photographs" of the American teacher at the beginning and at the close of the period to identify the important respects in which the later picture differs from the earlier one. Concludes with a glance at some of the developments in teacher education which appear to be corollary to the changes noted in the conception of teaching and teachers.


Discusses four ways the profession can broaden its role in teacher preparation: (1) the entire profession should be involved in the initial selection and preparation of persons entering teaching; (2) it is the responsibility of the organized profession to assist in clarifying the concept of the career teacher and in identifying the consequences which flow from an acceptance of the concept; (3) the organized profession must help in any attempts at innovation in the continuing aspect of teacher education; (4) the organized profession must participate, directly and indirectly, in research and inquiry into teaching.


Explores the social environment in which our children and youth are educated. Discusses goals of conservative educators and liberal educators. Describes what is meant by effective teaching and cites problems and pressures that affect the teacher and teaching. Examines the racial problem in the United States and suggests ways that the school may aid in resolving some of the problems. Reports on the current picture of American education touching briefly on forces and personalities in Europe that affected its history. Summarizes four schools of educational philosophy—idealism, scholasticism, realism, and experimentalism. Reviews key factors that make up a school system including the instructional and organizational design, financial structure, and personnel policies and procedures. Concludes by discussing teaching as the mother profession—the one on which all others depend.


Invites the attention of members of the Eighteenth Annual Meeting of AACTE to three areas of decision-making: (1) the essentials of teaching-scholarship, (2) the quality of direct experience and (3) the relationship of teaching and research. Perceives these as central areas of decision-making. Concludes that one needs to look hard at what one is doing, and to view in perspective the bases of his actions and whether the actions promise to achieve the goals toward which he is working.


Assails critics of education as not being able to agree on what is wrong and therefore also unable to agree on the remedies. Considers the vari-
ances of opinions as to what should be expected at the various levels of professional education training, i.e., baccalaureate, master's and doctoral levels. Calls for a careful job analysis of the role expectations in the various educational positions to determine the knowledge and skills required.


Argues for less debate and controversy about recommendations for the improvement of total teacher education programs. Suggests more discussion and exploration of those individual recommendations which, if implemented, seem most likely to improve conditions. Choices to be based on more research dealing with a functional analysis of objectives in order to determine explicitly what the teachers who are products of a training program are expected to know and be able to do.


Asserts that a good undergraduate liberal arts or professional program must be carried on in an atmosphere of dynamic change. Predicts the following seven changes in the future of teacher education programs: (1) secondary and elementary education are going to attract a much larger share of the most brilliant students; (2) shift in every professional field from descriptive data and technique to theory and principle will continue to affect the training of teachers; (3) increasing responsibility will be placed upon the student for his own learning; (4) years of study will be increased; (5) more individualization of instruction will recur; (6) there will be an increasing stress on proficiency rather than credits; (7) teachers will learn foreign languages, travel and study abroad.


Suggests nine concepts crucial to the development of competencies all teacher education programs should seek to develop: (1) each institution should declare the competencies sought; (2) teacher education should be a total institutional program; (3) content courses should make sense in terms of a discipline and the public school curriculum; (4) persons seeking to enter teacher education should be carefully screened; (5) teacher education should be conducted in colleges built around investigation; (6) teacher education will provide a variety of undergraduate programs; (7) teacher education requires a different content in the professional sequence; (8) inservice education must serve several purposes; (9) public school personnel should become effective partners in the teacher education process.


Discusses liberal studies in teacher education and suggests implications for AACTE. Presents (1) human dynamics in problems of liberal studies in teacher education, and (2) definition and purpose of liberal education and possible action for AACTE. Encourages the individual campuses to continue to develop their own definitions and techniques of liberal studies.
Recommends to AACTE that it undertake to involve other appropriate associations in exploring ways of improving the relationship between liberal studies and teacher education.

2. COLLEGE TEACHING


Raising questions as to the relationship of the recitation periods held in college general chemistry classes and the performance and achievement of the students. Compares outcomes with students who did not have the recitation periods but instead had weekly quizzes and open periods.


Examines alternative methods of teaching the physical science portion of the science program in general education at Michigan State University. Concludes that both the lecture-demonstration method and the individual laboratory method were equally effective means of teaching natural science for the aims and objectives of general education.

Brottman, Marvin A. "Typescripts as 'Observational Experience' for Prospective Teachers." The Journal of Teacher Education. 16:466-468, December, 1965.

Reports the experimental use of tape recordings of class sessions and typescripts made from the tapes as presenting a simulated classroom experience. Suggests that this method may have value when facilities for student observations are limited. Found typescripts very useful when concerned with an analysis of the content of the interaction.


Attempts to redefine discussion as a teaching technique. Results of a study described provides a basis for the construction of a speculative model for instruction. Incorporated into the model would be (1) utilization of many activities when instructing average or below average students, (2) information presented in verbal or written form would be appropriate with gifted children, (3) use of activities in the presentation of new information, and (4) a few highly productive discussions would aid in adding unity and meaning to the lesson. Assumes that the discussion phase would substantially aid in developing critical thinking and problem-solving skills.


Reviews recent studies of teaching methods and materials. Reports that, like previous studies, no clear cut evidence is forthcoming on the superiority of any one approach. Questions definition, design, and instrumentation. Testifies to the possibility of influence of tradition and competition for grades.

Reviews recent research in the area of classroom leadership. Describes study undertaken at Purdue University to identify patterns of instructor's handling of their discussion groups. Three basic patterns emerged: (1) instructors are directive, lead discussion according to their own plans, and have very little student project activity; (2) full teacher direction and control, but many student projects were used; and (3) persistent teacher efforts to get students to initiate their own plans, activities, projects, and discussions. Concludes that warm, friendly, young instructors who are interested in teaching will produce fairly uniform, instructional effectiveness when the instructor is free to use those techniques which suit him best. Presents a selected bibliography on teacher effectiveness.


Declares that greatness in teachers lies not in extraordinary methods of teaching but in capacity for self-examination and growth. Self-actualizing teachers tend to be the creative and imaginative teachers. Asserts that the self-actualizing teacher acts as an external stimulus to the student, leading him to self-examination and the beginning search for truth. Concludes that it must never be forgotten that the essence of the educational process is student self-actualization and the truly great teacher personifies this concept.


Discussion of a paper that appeared in Harvard Educational Review, Fall, 1964, authored by Thomas F. Green. Discussants were Jonas F. Soltes—Teachers College, Columbia; R. S. Peters—University of London, Institute of Education; James E. McClellan—Temple University. Focuses on difference between "learning that" and "learning to" and Green's concern for rules, norms, and principles.


Tells about a field study approach to educational psychology at Dickinson College, starting with two months of accelerated traditional emphasis on ideas, concepts, theories, and principles and field study of a subject in a school for six weeks by a given committee. Emphasis is put on pragmatic and scientific approach to study of a child and his development with research into various methods of understanding individual differences. Small groups report and do research on one child.


Explains steps taken to improve methods in professional courses such as School and Community Guidance, Secondary School Methods, and History and Philosophy of Education, on the premise that teachers teach as they were taught. Variations were made in grouping, library visits instead of a bibliography, frequent use of an overhead projector, films and tape
recorders, and student group reporting. Evaluation from the students was favorable to student presentation in place of term papers and the variety of methods used. Continual evaluation of the procedures will continue with modifications to include more media and procedures in the professional sequence.

Investigates former student ratings as the criteria of teacher effectiveness. Concludes that particular teachers have lasting effects on student attitudes and behavior.

Combined a traditional classroom method with independent study. Offers no documented support for feeling that procedure is worthwhile. No indication of drop in levels of learning but did indicate enjoyment was greater.

Treats the mutual relation between college teacher and student where each retains his own identity and master teachers who neither seek narrow allegiance nor produce divergent excellence. Four suggestions are given for teaching: (1) do not try to teach about what you are not interested in; (2) do not be afraid to show feelings; (3) celebrate and reward student enthusiasm; and (4) encourage growth toward identity by establishing self-criticism based on adequate self-respect. Calls for teachers to study and continually improve their own effectiveness.

Reports an experiment using two groups of students, one group having two class periods and one observation period weekly and a control group having three class meetings a week. Pre- and post-tests, using the MTAI (Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory) showed a significant gain for each group, but no significant difference between the scores of the two groups. It was concluded that there was no demonstrable gain in attitude towards children due to observations. Nor was there any large gain in knowledge of learning process or growth and development due to the extra class sessions.

Describes how team teaching was employed in a graduate extension class. Declares that team teaching requires many personal-professional adjustments and demands far more of teachers than do conventional techniques. Concludes that team teaching is applicable in vocational education when one teacher specializes in the "why" and the other in the "how"—with interrelationships emphasized.

Defines the term general education and explains how it has become a surrogate for liberal education. Using the example of teaching the humanities, Jones describes some of the problems in teaching a general course, finding that "we shall teach more if we teach less" and urges that teacher-education programs will have courses that will make some portion of the past vivid and dramatic.


Considers suggestions for teachers using electronic equipment without forfeiting human characteristics. Explains how a computer could be used to analyze a test given after every large group instruction by projecting material on the screen and checking the process dimensions. Much more data could be collected from each student after each lecture for the purpose of finding what was learned and what was not.


Examines the criticism made by three hundred beginning teachers interviewed in thirteen teacher-preparation institutions of professional education courses as to the validity and reasons for these criticisms both good and bad. Calls for stronger alliance between teacher education institutions and the public schools in training teachers and making them see the application of theory to practice and extensive work by all in improving the courses and attitudes of all involved.


Presents a framework for a teacher model which he feels gives promise as an alternative to the "potentially disastrous" teacher. Sees the teacher as a creator of "discord" whose interest is the development within students sharper perceptions and more full insights. Sets forth the proposition that a teacher's role is threefold: to bring about encounter with each pupil, to provide dialogue between teacher and pupil, and to enlarge pupils' perceptions of themselves in relation to the world. Builds this model on the premise that the price for growth is "discord" and "disruption."


Discusses ten aspects of the job load problem. Declares that very often a poor teacher is an overworked teacher, that classroom failure may accompany community or research success, that what passes sometimes for serious incompetence in a teacher is not rooted in his professional qualifications but his simple lack of judgment in apportioning his time. Concludes that if some of our institutions want their faculty to be better teachers, they should free them to a greater extent from other responsibilities.

Argues that college students today need breadth of curriculum within which their attention is drawn to interesting fields where they can immediately begin to achieve specialized mastery. They need, along with some standardization, a high degree of individualization in the teaching given them. Maintains they need the warmth, intimacy, the identification possibilities which come only from a teacher who believes in them as individuals and has enough time, thought and patience, leisure, imagination, and faith in human nature to be able somehow to offer all this so that the individual student feels it.


Illustrates that the best test of a teacher's competency is the "mass judgment" of the pupils.


Reports a study designed to determine students' viewpoints as to motivating and non-motivating factors of teachers, and agreement between experts and students on the identification of these factors. Although degrees of importance varied, both the students and the experts mention the same factors prominently.


Declares that like so many other values in democratic life, the proper balance between teaching and research is an ideal which can productively be sought even though never perfectly realized. Argues that when a university gives recognition to teaching as one of its prime sanctions, reasonable guidelines for other commitments will follow. States that teaching and research cannot be separated in a university that means what it says about the pursuit of truth and the impact of knowledge upon society. Asserts that reasonable teaching load and an institutional philosophy that considers student-teacher relationships of primary importance are essential in promoting good teaching. Concludes that in an age that calls for the utmost utilization of our human resources, the teaching function necessarily commands major attention among the priorities of both today and tomorrow.


Proposes that in preparing teachers to teach, students must be taught by methods which help them understand that discipline they are going to teach not from a "factual point of view" but from a focus which uses their rational powers. To prepare teachers with an ability to think means that we cannot teach them only facts.

States that for the teacher to be successful in developing inquiry in children, he must have an underlying understanding of the process; have skill in introducing focal stimuli and conceptual organizers; know the subject in which children are about to delve; and be prepared to suggest sources of information, beyond his own knowledge, to which children can turn. Concludes that these ingredients are essential for a successful inquiry experience.


Surveys various courses required at UCLA for elementary, secondary, and junior college credentials to determine (1) the objectives, (2) kinds of behaviors expected, (3) content of the courses, (4) possibility of duplications or omissions of content, and (5) the sequential development of objectives. Using Bloom's *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* as the only classification instrument, the following was evidenced: (1) discrepancies existed between the descriptions and the content of courses; (2) knowledge, as a behavior, receives considerable attention; (3) little attention is given to sociological and economic ideas; (4) topics of learning, learning opportunities, and measurement appear in several courses; (5) professional characteristics appear to be the most significant factor in student teaching; (6) no attention is given anywhere to the development of skills of inquiry into the discipline of professional education; (7) though the affective and performative domains are crucial in the student-teaching courses, little attention is given to these domains earlier in the program.


Gives a critical reaction to existing part-time faculty positions at colleges and universities. Suggests four principal aspects of a new type part-time position: (1) it would carry academic rank; (2) it would be remunerated in accordance with the salary scale for full-time staff members; (3) it would come under the same type of contract that determines full-time positions; and (4) the new faculty member would be assigned advanced as well as elementary courses.


Suggests that "the devotees of cybernetics and automated teaching" create the impression that there is no limitation to the contribution the computer can make to teaching. Questions whether automation can deal with teaching as a man can. Raises the questions as to how the machines can behave as a mentor, how they can deal with the problems of transfer, how they can organize subject matter in an interdisciplinary manner, how machines can interpret meaning, how machines can contribute the uniqueness of meaning shared in a great book, and in general how machines can deal with education as "paideia."
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Maintains that students at all levels should be used as teachers; that learning by teaching is a much neglected educational practice. Proposes that a number of universities and colleges, high schools, and elementary schools work together to devise experiments in learning by teaching.

3. PREPARATION OF TEACHERS IN TEACHING SPECIALTIES

Describes a graduate program of preparation for teachers of emotionally and socially maladjusted children. Discusses the selection of students, the practicum and internship experience, the weekly seminar, and program development. Follow-up study indicates that a preponderance of graduates have filled positions for which they were trained.

Discusses the need to help adolescents to become intelligent fully-functioning citizens. Proposes that in order to aid pupils in their becoming process teachers need to possess the following characteristics: (1) to care about democracy, (2) to care about themselves, (3) to care about helping pupils to develop healthy self-concepts, (4) to care about making content meaningful, (5) to care about teaching in the junior high school.

Describes experimental program carried on in an art education course for prospective elementary school teachers. Purpose of the experiment was to help prospective teachers discover relationships between theory and practice in teaching art. Outlines prospective teachers' experiences with public school children when they carried through an art project with them. Concludes that experiment was profitable for all concerned.

Davis, Jerry B. "The BSCS Program's Variable Factor." Science Education. 50:221-222, April, 1966.
Gives a rationale for the importance of BSCS biology teaching and suggests that training in this new biology teachers must begin in the freshman year. Recommendation is given for certain courses continuing into a fifth year. Cooperating teachers using BSCS biology should be helped to make the student teaching experience harmonious with the project.

Gives a paper presented by the distinguished science educator, president of the National Association for Research in Science Teaching and director of the Science and Mathematics Teaching Center, Michigan State University to the Visiting Foreign Scientists on June 22, 1962. Explained are teacher education requirements for undergraduate and graduate students
by the college and state accreditation societies. Dr. Booth defines professional education, a teaching discipline, general education, and the nature of the National Science Foundation Summer Institute, for science education programs.


Refers directors of summer institutes to the "Manual for the Preparation of Proposals" which makes the purposes of NDEA institutes clear. Suggests that many directors know little of the needs of the teachers attending. Describes four objectives in the social studies that should be inherent to the institute's program: (1) the development of critical thinking skills and abilities, (2) the attainment of goals in the affective domain as described in Bloom's "Taxonomy of Educational Objectives," (3) development of skills in using the mode of inquiry of history and of the social sciences, and (4) development of a knowledge of the subject. Discusses the types of teachers, strategies, materials, and aids useful to the attainment of these goals.


Discusses the need for science courses specifically designed for the non-major in science which are not survey courses. A rationale is given for an interdisciplinary course in science and a description is given of such a course at Teachers College, Columbia University including the methods of teaching, text materials and laboratory experiences used. A summary of the outcomes is given.


Urges teachers to combine love, laughter, scholarship, and effective methodology in their teaching. Maintains that the combination will assist teachers to help young people to determine the paths of their destinies. Avers that the most important elements in the teaching-learning situation are the teacher and learner. Notes that anything which augments, compliments, and enhances this relationship is good; argues that anything that interferes with it is bad.


Reports the methodology and findings of a study of the effect of modern mathematics programs on the teachers of such programs. One hundred fifteen elementary teachers reacted to a questionnaire consisting of thirty-one statements designed to sample positive and negative attitudes toward the new mathematics. On the basis of the findings the author recommends that teachers with no prior training in mathematics should not be required to teach modern mathematics and that one and preferably two
full courses in modern mathematics be given teachers before they begin
the new program.

Jones Reginald L. and Nathan W. Gottfried. “Psychological Needs
and Preferences for Teaching Exceptional Children.” Exceptional
Reports the methodology and findings of a study of the relationship be-
tween psychological needs and preferences for teaching exceptional children
as investigated in 726 prospective and practicing teachers of special and
non-special education. Results suggest that preferences for teaching various
types of exceptional children are related to certain psychological needs
and gratifications. Warns against practical application of the findings
without further research and investigation using larger and more repre-
sentative samples of subjects.

Kenney, R. A. “Mathematical Understandings of Elementary School
Reports an investigation of strengths and weaknesses of elementary school
teachers in arithmetical understandings. Concludes: (1) inability of teach-
ers to understand the language and vocabulary of mathematics, (2) lack
of teachers' understanding of concepts, relationships, or mathematical
generalizations, (3) teachers who had had recent courses in arithmetic
did no better than those who did not have such courses.

Kitchen, R. D. “Course in Preparation for the Lower Streams.” Times
Education Supplement. 2643, 75, January 14, 1966.
Describes a program for future teachers preparing to teach slow learners
in Worchester College of Education. States that lectures are focused on
methods of diagnosis, educational treatment of basic subjects, especially
reading, and the human problems encountered by slow learners. Notes
that a study of slow children and actual teaching of these children is an
integral part of the program. Declares that future teachers of slow learners
are encouraged to experiment with new ideas, especially those ideas
related to informal methods. Concludes that at the end of the program
the future teachers are requested to present a display of any teaching
apparatus they have prepared for school use.

Knight, Willis B. and Muriel Mae Kelly. “Madison College Initiates
Describes undergraduate program designed to prepare teachers of handi-
capped children. Declares that mentally retarded adults educated in
special classes make better personal and community adjustments than
those who were educated in regular classroom settings. Urges prospective
teachers to consider the specialization as a teaching career.

Kranyik, R. D. and B. A. Wagner. “Creativity and the Elementary School
Argues that creative ability in teachers is a potential that can be
activated, nurtured, and refined. A creative teacher is described as (1)
sensitive and flexible in thinking and in relationships with pupils;
(2) eager to provide situations in which pupils may experience, experiment, and risk themselves intellectually without fear of retaliation or rejection; (3) encouraging individuality and respecting uniqueness; and (4) constantly seeking improvement. Course work in teacher education devoted to the creative process and to creative teaching can make valuable contributions to the teacher's creative ability. One necessary ingredient for the success of such course work is an instructor who is a creative teacher.

Discusses the need for behavioral objectives in teacher education. Refers to the work of Gagne and presents a model for teacher training based on Gagne's work. Describes the model as follows: (1) constructing behavioral hierarchies, (2) identifying learner difficulties, (3) demonstrating behavior-shaping strategies, (4) resolving learner difficulties.

Describes a survey designed to determine whether the various aspects of the social sciences have been neglected in the preparation of elementary school teachers. It was found that, to a great extent, those preparing to teach in the elementary schools have not been adequately prepared in the foundations of the social studies curriculum.

Riley, C. W. "In My Opinion, Special Subject Area Teachers are Necessary for a Complete Elementary School Program." Instructor. 75:41, December, 1965.
Contends that teachers in self-contained classrooms should not be expected to be proficient in more than their normal subjects. Maintains that trained special teachers can develop the sequential skills children need. Believes that junior and senior high school art, music, and physical education programs would be more effective if boys and girls received adequate foundation.

Recommends eleven criteria for a content course and nine criteria for a methods course for the preparation of elementary school science teachers, K-grade 9, by the Minnesota Mathematics and Science Teaching Project. The content course should be a liberal arts course to educate citizens but should not try to cover all science without depth. Suggestions for the methods course should include school observation, tutorial situations and interning in school systems utilizing modern science and mathematics materials.

Gives the background of and reports on this project at the University of Illinois. In a search for the most effective teaching methods and
selection of science content best suited to serve current and future needs, activities are focused to meet these aims. Materials are selected from a variety of disciplines such as physical and biological sciences, earth sciences, mathematics, linguistics and design and are tried, evaluated and under constant development to meet a focus on continual change of the world. A need is found for the direction of more improvement in teacher-education programs.


Argues that the chief goal in training future teachers to teach economics should be to help them develop in their students an interest in economic policy issues and to provide them with a minimal analytical tool and a systematic way of applying these tools so that they can make more intelligent policy decisions on economic issues than would otherwise be the case. Argues that this can be accomplished at the undergraduate level in introductory economics courses. Discusses how this was accomplished at Carnegie Institute of Technology during 1964-65 school year. Outlines a basic three semester economics sequence for future teachers, aimed at achieving the chief goal stated above.


Analyzes the professional background of teachers. Concludes (1) there is a definite pattern of balance between professional education and the social sciences in the background, (2) not enough of these teachers are being trained in graduate school, and (3) with the public interest in, and critical analysis of teacher education, no corresponding innovations are reported in the training of social studies teachers' teachers.


Reports on three studies related to the comparison of the self and other images of the high-school teacher. Investigates the relationship between real and ideal self-image of the group.

States that studies I and II indicated that there are differences in the image of the "ideal" high-school teacher as viewed by teachers and non-teachers. Reports that the two studies indicate that the non-teacher group wishes the teacher to be more active, aggressive, and forceful, while the teacher group seems to think of their role as a more passive, conforming, "seen not heard" pattern.

Asserts that Study III indicated that it is the older, more experienced teacher who views the teacher role as that of one who is "seen and not heard." Younger teachers, and especially student teachers, are less satisfied with the passive, conforming role which society has cast the teaching profession into. Concludes there appears to be some indication that society at large is changing its image of the "ideal" teacher.


Gives reasons for problems in English grammar courses for future teachers whether traditional, structural, or transformational grammar because
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of the time required to learn all the forms; the confusion engendered because the texts or curriculum will be different in actual practice; and, the problem of having students well-grounded in traditional grammar. Calls for a need for careful and intelligent exploration of all possibilities.

Discusses the problems of preparation of elementary school teachers in the field of mathematics. Stresses the impact of developing curricula, the limitations of a twelve-hour requirement in mathematics, and the difficulty of securing staff.

4. CONTENT AND ORGANIZATION OF THE PROFESSIONAL COMPONENT

Proposes a series of projects by the Project for the Orientation and Induction of New Teachers (POINT) shared by teacher education officials in the state of Washington, WEA, and NCTEPS. Projects consist of various plans for closer supervision of student and beginning teachers for longer periods by the college and school. One plan starts employment and student teaching in the junior year and continues into the third year of teaching. Other plans being tried are use of TV mirror teaching and comparison of actual teaching levels and performance on videotapes and kinescopes with which to instruct future teachers.

Argues that six-year programs prepare teachers with a breadth and depth of knowledge exceeding the liberal education of the average, well educated citizen. A teacher completing the full program should be extremely proficient in professional practice. Areas receiving greatest priority in developing professional knowledge and skills are: observation and analysis of behavior, maintenance of group learning, assessment of individual development and learning abilities, social milieu and school settings, learning and curriculum, communication and analysis of media.

Calls to the attention of the teacher the importance of individual differences. Discusses eight areas of significance to a teacher who wants to become more effective in the relationship between adjustment and learning problems.

Gives a critical reaction to certification standards in Missouri. Presents ideas on the total educational sequences of elementary and secondary school teachers. States that the organized teaching profession in Missouri
has the opportunity and obligation to bring together the representatives of the several special interest groups and of the State Department of Education to work together for a fifth-year program or whatever solution best moves education in Missouri "one jump forward."


Cites three roles of the teacher: the teacher as a person, the teacher as a member of the education profession, and the teacher as a specialist. Asserts that education as a professional field of study has to have distinctive problems of practice and resources of knowledge that can be used to deal with these problems. Such problems arise out of the need to formulate and justify educational policy, to design and justify curriculum designs, to formulate and justify strategies of teaching and learning. Declares that the teacher needs specific knowledge as an instructor or specialist in teaching. Suggests four major areas of knowledge: (1) foundations of the specialty, (2) professional content, (3) technological study, (4) research.


Annotates recent research in teacher effectiveness. Finds most studies have been conducted from a psychological view rather than in a theoretical framework within explicit philosophical orientation. Relates Dewey's philosophy of experimentalism to looking at classroom practices. Contends that in order to understand evaluations by observer-judges of teachers we must know who the judge is, what he values, and where he stands when observing and judging.


Discusses a series of twenty key words which have a bearing on the excellence of instruction. Begins with the word plan and ends with clarify.


Reports the development of the Regional Educational Research Laboratories. Lists the following major staff functions: (1) coordinating educational research programs, (2) using educational research data in the solution of educational problems, (3) stimulating creative innovation, (4) distributing and disseminating educational research information, (5) developing instructional models and theories, (6) encouraging inquiry, (7) providing a full range of research consultation services, (8) assisting the improvement of inservice and preservice teacher preparation programs.

Describes Antioch-Putney MAT Program in the social sciences to develop teachers that are sensitive to the critical issues of our day. Program is focused upon problem-solving in four areas: civil rights liberties, poverty, the non-Western world, and the emerging nations.


Discusses difficulties encountered within the professional sequence. Suggests the need for the answers to two basic questions: (1) Is there a significant body of professional lore (theory, data, principles) which should be learned by the prospective teacher? (2) Is there a common set of expectancies expressed in behavioral objectives which the future teacher should seek to acquire? Sees hope for the future in the current curriculum reform movement, new instructional media, team placement for the beginning teacher, the residency concept, and research and curriculum planning.


Describes two experimental groups involved in a unique teacher education program emphasizing indivisibility of theory and practice, individuality, flexibility, challenge and commitment. Concludes: (1) responsibility and freedom afforded will develop a dynamic sense of purpose in students and instructors, (2) the challenge will result in discovery of heretofore unknown and unsensed resources within students and instructors, (3) each student and instructor will develop to his fullest capability.


Sees need for prospective teachers to study the history of education more intensively. Suggests that such study will provide historical evidence which can be used in drawing valid inferences about current problems.


Describes the first phase of a pilot study of an integrated program of professional preparation initiated to solve the problems created by the theory-practice gap in the preparation of teachers. Nine honors students participated in the experimental integrated program. A control group of nine students followed the more traditional approach. Follow-up evaluation of the experiment will be carried on during and after the first year of regular public school teaching.

Believes the most important task for a student in a teacher education program is to feel like a teacher. Presents her views as to what it means to feel like a teacher and some of the ways in which teacher educators can help students feel like teachers. Proposes use of the student-aide program—a period of three or four weeks of morning work in a public school classroom at the start of the student's introduction to professional course work in education. Discusses the results of this program as applied at the University of Chicago.


Notes the shift in educational research from "good" teachers and "good" methods to what is really happening in the classroom. Emphasis here is placed on the whole teaching act, with the preactive behavior being a highly rational process and the interactive, a spontaneous one, doing what he knows is right, and the differences in three instructional modes—public (class), semiprivate (small group), and private (individual). Suggests teacher preparation courses take note of these factors. Warns that teacher-producing learning may be a fallacious metaphor and that the real job of teachers is getting students involved in learning.


Discusses the rationale of teacher education that controlled the University of Chicago Elementary Teacher Education Program during 1964-65. Cites five components, each designed to produce control over an area of reality considered essential to teacher performance: (1) educational decision making, (2) control over teaching styles, (3) control over the analysis of teaching, (4) control over research skills through the research component, (5) control over self. Views teacher education as clusters of activity (components) designed to produce control over reality. Maintains that each component can be conceptualized through research and analysis. States that evaluative devices should be used to test the theories of the components.


Urges vigorous study of Soviet pedagogy. States urgency of the need for scientific study of the problems of "developing thought, will, emotions, attention, memory, and temperament." Suggests that pedagogical science must provide the party and the government objective information based on analysis of experience. Reports some of the work that has been done by the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences.


Reviews the methods of assessing teacher effectiveness by the identification of patterns of behavior using classroom observation used by such people as Horn (1914), Puckett (1928) and continuing down to Hughes

Reports an empirical study aimed at identifying significant elements of the teaching process. Supports descriptive research focusing on concepts to be used in the future for scientific explanation of the teaching process. Conceptual framework of study based on Wittenstein's "language games." Major outcome of research was system of analysis of typescripts of teaching sessions. Categories included four pedagogical moves, substantive and substantive-logical meanings, instructional and instructional-logical meanings, and three dimensions of the teacher's emotional style. Rules of teaching were suggested. System of analysis seen as a fruitful tool to help in phrasing new questions about pedagogical relationships.


Discusses three major convictions concerning programs for preservice and inservice school personnel that have been reinforced by the results of Project Aware (a study of programs for the education of disadvantaged youth): (1) research about learning and development is not being utilized properly; (2) there is a necessity for a greater range of practical experiences in the training of teachers; and (3) there is a need for more research and experimentation dealing with the structure of learning.


Discusses four operating alternatives, and presents the fifth one (TEAM project) for approaching professional teacher education development. States that a refined version of the TEAM project plan offers each institution the opportunity for developing its own unique program.


Views the beginning teacher as fundamentally a learner. Believes that to understand him, we must find some way of depicting his learning of the teaching role. Suggests a partial model tracing the development of the learner (novice) from student to instructor. Describes model as: (1) first year or two of teaching—day to day coping with immediate demands—a kind of struggle to get through without major damage to students or self, (2) innovation—attempts new approaches, (3) crystallization—after first five years of teaching—occurs when teacher settles into more or less stable set of routines and practices.


Reports the methodology and findings of a study of the fears and concerns of prospective teachers. Lists in order of decreasing emphasis the following major topics as the basis of a course in high school methods:
(1) developing interest and motivating students; (2) presenting lessons effectively and guiding class discussion; (3) attaining and maintaining discipline; (4) adapting instruction to student needs, interests, and abilities; (5) planning activities, materials, and procedures; (6) teaching effective reading and study habits; (7) testing, evaluating, and grading the work of the student.


States that man lives in a world of metaphors; and his metaphors become his myths, if they are accepted uncritically. Discusses six myths of instruction and some other possibilities, then questions their validity. Asserts that those six myths were created to describe instructional processes. Argues that they have unknown probability of being valid as a basis for prescribing instructional practices. Suggests that what we need are more and better theories, and not less theorizing.


Describes the INSITE Project at Indiana University: a plan whereby the student may attain a master's degree in four years including summer study and the resident teaching experience. Elements of teacher preparation are to be offered in one semester, the Acroclinical Semester. Major elements within this semester are presented in detail and include the methods—principles—student teaching phase of the teacher preparation program.


Proposes that sensibility differentiates the teacher from the technician. Discusses the following elements of successful teaching: (1) teacher response-ability—a willingness to be seen as a human being; (2) teacher recognition of, and response-reaction to, student respondents; (3) productive questioning; (4) provision for diversity.


Argues that there is a great deal more to be done in identifying the nature of the teaching process. Feels we must manage greater precision in our conception of what teaching is. Raises and answers five questions related to (1) components present in all instances where teaching occurs, and (2) indispensable elements of teaching activity. Concludes that a concept of teaching is not easily arrived at. Teaching is synthetic and not analytic because of its complex of functions.


Describes experimental program for training teachers at Northwestern University. Students must meet general academic standards of the univer-
sity (not special ones of the School of Education); the academic major of a student planning to be a secondary school teacher (or the majors of those planning to be elementary school teachers) is planned jointly with the appropriate college of arts and sciences department, and the student must meet the requirements of that department; all instruction in the methods and materials of teaching is through tutorials and related clinical experiences, with no formal course work in professional education, and with emphasis on what to teach, not on how to teach. Discusses the activities of the nation's first clinical professor. Points out the difference between Conant's 1963 proposal for clinical professor and Northwestern's view of clinical professor.


Discusses the guidance function of the classroom teacher in relation to the work of the guidance counselor. Recommends preservice preparation in guidance for the future classroom teacher. Suggests general topics to be included in a special course in guidance for the classroom teacher.


Deals with various stages of child development as proposed by Piaget and reports research dealing with Piaget's theory.


Describes the contribution of the foundations of education to the production of a teacher-scholar. Aims for the development of an individual who is a powerfully intelligent and self-directed member of the professional and larger community life. Feels Project I Program at the University of Rochester attempts to provide through the foundations an integrated professional program within the context of the student's personal frame of reference. Emphasizes the democratic context for teacher education.


Reviews some of the literature concerning the functions of laboratory schools. Discusses the interrelationships between the four major functions of laboratory schools: (1) teaching children, (2) observation, participation, and demonstration, (3) experimentation and research, and (4) student teaching. Believes that the teaching of children is improved by all of the other functions. Suggests that when the school's major emphasis is on student teaching or research there will be a conflict with the other service functions. Observations, participation, demonstration, or experimentation as a major function will not interfere with the other functions as these functions can be quite flexible.

Describes the experimental "study-teach program for the preparation of career teachers" established at George Peabody College for teachers. Established on the basic assumption that much learning about teaching needs to be done in the schools rather than in colleges, program enables students to earn college credit during their first year of teaching as a result of combined school-college efforts.


Presents the view that the study of the history of education should be brought up to date. Argues for a view pertaining to the impact of education on the American society, rather than as an inspirational subject. Suggests that the study of our educational traditions should give teachers a clearer view of the development and functions of the major American educational agencies, the play of ideologies, the interaction of school and society, and the lost causes and permanent innovations.


Examines new concepts concerning TEAM teaching project. Suggests six implications for teacher education. Concludes that unless programs provide for natural expressions of clear conceptual understandings in the minds of those who carry them out, they have little power, and power in our programs is what we need greatly.

5. STUDENT TEACHING AND INTERNSHIPS


Discusses three issues in student teaching—control, quality, and finance. Includes three groups of brief observations about the present situation, and some of the problems and their background to serve as a backdrop for the discussion of the three issues. Proposes state programs of financial support for student teaching programs.


Describes the student-teacher-training program at the Lafayette Clinic (a psychiatric hospital located in Detroit, Michigan). Under close supervision the student is offered both extensive and intensive experiences in educating disturbed children. This will provide them with the ability to function as competent special education teachers of disturbed children in any educational setting.
Reports the methodology and findings of a cooperative school-college pilot research study of a team teaching project involving 141 pupils in four senior English classes, one regular teacher and two student teachers. Data indicated little difference in the effectiveness of team teaching methods and traditional teaching of senior English. Tangible results included the production of television tapes of various classroom experiences that will be used in the college teaching method courses and the use of university research facilities by a school district.

Deals with the testing of an instrument designed to determine the nature of learning opportunities provided in elementary school classrooms. The instrument was found to be valid as a self-appraisal device for teachers to use in appraising the kinds of learning opportunities which they are providing in their classroom.

Examines teaching principles and relates them to problems of planning and teaching. Discusses unit planning and points out its relationship to teaching and daily planning. Presents special teaching problems, e.g., control, readiness, motivation, and individual differences. Explores programmed instruction, team teaching, television instruction, and school housing as they relate to secondary instruction. Cites experiences from actual teaching situations.

Presents possible bases for assignment of student teachers. Sees need for a theoretical framework including consideration of all of the important elements affecting behavior when interacting with others: (1) perceptions and self-concept, (2) need-dispositions and role expectations, (3) sources of conflict, and (4) personality-types and compatibility.

Alerts the student teacher to the kinds of problems he is likely to encounter and offers methods of handling these problems. Progresses from an orientation to student teaching, through classroom management, finally to professional and personal growth and evaluation. Emphasizes the need for cooperation among all those who participate in the professional activities associated with student teaching.

Describes how 8mm film and a recorder were used to assist in the evaluation of student teachers. Points out that this approach will not replace other
established methods of student teaching evaluation. Maintains that it
does add a precise audio-visual record, however.

Discusses the concerns of beginning student teachers. Proposes the follow-
ing techniques for meeting expressed needs: (1) brief weekly planned
conferences between the college supervisor and the cooperating teacher,
(2) student seminars focused around specific topics as identified in the
planning conference, (3) brief written evaluations by the student after
each lesson, (4) taping of occasional lessons, (5) seminars partially
planned by the students, (6) students to sit in on each others' classes
if they so request.

Farrell, M. "Let's Insist on Quality." New York State Education. 53:16, April, 1966.
Suggests that to maintain quality in the preparation of teachers "doubtful
students" should be helped to see limitations as professional persons.

Identifies five recurring questions posed by both experienced teachers and
student teachers of industrial arts. In answer, discusses what can be done
(1) to motivate students, (2) to differentiate instruction, (3) to help
the nonreader, (4) to remedy overcrowding, (5) to cope with lack of
equipment and supplies.

Presents some pointed suggestions for the cooperating teacher in his
treatment of a student teacher. States that a student teaching assignment
can help (1) the student teacher to learn from the cooperating teacher;
(2) cooperating teacher to learn from the student teacher; and (3) pupils
to learn from both. Urges a gradual orientation of the student teacher
to the classroom. Notes that the student teacher wants to be included in
school activities, needs support in discipline problems, and requires free-
dom.

Calls for three-way type evaluation of a student teacher based on his
lesson plans: the first is by the cooperating teacher in terms of objectives
in the lesson plan; the second is self-evaluation by the student teacher;
and the third is by the college supervisor from a more objective point
of view.

Reports a study comparing teaching behavior of interns (liberal arts
graduates) with regular first year teachers. A team of outside observers
gathered data by means of Ryan's Observation Record. States that interns were rated generally higher by observers, that differences between interns and first year teachers were not due to differences in programs. Concludes that differences were due to characteristics and attributes of individuals selected as interns.

Describes how prospective teachers as aides were provided with a wide variety of experiences with approximately half the time spent working directly with children, and the other half used doing the "behind the scenes" work, such as correcting papers and tests and keeping records. A small amount of time was spent observing. Asserts that the teacher aide program provided much support to course work.

Describes a study designed to determine the influence of student teaching on students' expressed feelings of competence in selected teaching techniques. Students ranked twenty-five teaching techniques on the basis of how competent they felt in each area both before and after student teaching. Results generally indicate student teaching raises the students' levels of competency.

Calls attention to the nature of supervisory behavior related to the nurturance of selfhood in beginning teachers. Uses Reynolds' five stages of professional development of social workers to point out the nature of supervision needed by beginning teachers. Takes the position that public schools heretofore have not provided this type of guidance. Feels that the three key ingredients of this concept of supervision are: clearly defined functions, well qualified supervisors, and supervisory relationships which promote growth.

Reports on the ways talented teachers judge their professional success and the qualities of classroom life from which they derive major satisfaction. Discusses interviews with twenty elementary school teachers who were considered outstanding by their principals and superintendents. Reveals that professional success is determined by student behavior during teaching sessions. The student's expression of interest, enthusiasm, his willingness to become involved and to participate in classroom affairs are used to determine a measure of success in teaching by the teachers inter-
viewed. Declares that teaching satisfaction is derived from helping children, observing their progress, being remembered by them, and recalling achievement of former pupils.

Describes students’ reactions to having spent their student teaching internship as a member of a team of teachers.

Discusses the minimum requirements for successful student teaching. Proposes that the evaluators of requirements need a standard to "circumvent" certain value orientations to the preparation of teachers.

Reports the development of the Duo-Specialist Training Program, a cooperative university-public school endeavor implemented in answer to a need for educational specialists in small and medium sized school districts. Teachers were recruited for one-year university programs providing for intensive study in two areas of specialization. Intern teachers under the supervision of the university replaces the regular teachers. Follow-up evaluation of the project indicates significant positive educational changes occurred in most school districts represented in the project.

Covers all aspects of student teaching from pre-teaching activities to securing a position. Describes roles of the student teacher, cooperating teacher, and the college supervisor. Stresses cooperation between all those engaged in the student teaching process. Provides information for the student teacher on planning, resources, discipline, and evaluation.

Points to the need for off-campus student teaching programs. Discusses the requirements of teacher education programs at Missouri State College. Outlines the requirements for admission to teacher education programs. Specifies the professional sequences for students majoring in elementary and secondary education.

Analyzes the role of the supervising teacher. Describes in detail the following six basic responsibilities of the supervising teacher: (1) being a friend, advisor, and counselor; (2) being an outstanding teacher of boys and girls; (3) being a director of observation; (4) being a professional person and a good model; (5) being an evaluator of teaching proficiency; (6) being an innovator and experimenter.

Reports a study designed to establish the consistency of student teachers’ educational ideas. Study concluded that students generally were consistent about their ideas concerning education prior to student teaching. There was a significant decrease in consistency of ideas after the students had completed their student teaching.


Tests the plausibility of comparing instructional behavior to the length of time elapsing between a student's completion of the course and the beginnings of his student teaching. Concludes that no significant differences were found between the three groups with respect to their observed use of any of the instructional principles.


Describes a study concerned with the relationship between the professional preparation of teachers and their subsequent classroom performance. The basic question asked was: Would the modification of course content in the general curriculum and instruction course be reflected in differential student-teaching behavior? The results of the experiment noted that there was a significant difference between the groups. It was concluded that the student teachers who had completed the modified curriculum and instruction course had employed the principles stressed in that class to a significantly greater extent than had the other group.


Reports implications for student teaching experience in relation to a team-taught high school English course. Project was an attempt to develop a cooperative program between Louisville Public School System and the University of Louisville. Team consisted of seven people: master teacher, regular teachers, student teachers, and an aide. University specialists augmented the program. Position is taken that this type of experience is highly valuable for students of high academic achievement and better than average stability and self-confidence.


Identifies the teaching intern as a liberal arts graduate, engaged in a fifth year program leading to certification. Suggests that a large percentage of interns (1) come from professional and upper middle-class families, (2) do not really understand the value systems of students of a lower class, and (3) their education has widened the social distance between
themselves and those of a lower class. Suggests many interns find great difficulty in their sociological naivete both as interns and as new teachers. Recommends systematic observation and study of educational sociology as possible alternatives.

Discusses students' responses to questionnaire concerning student teaching. Identifies students' primary concerns while student teaching. States that students' reactions and suggestions can aid in improving orientation programs and teaching climate, thereby reducing student teachers' apprehensions.

Declares that teaching experience in health education provides the college student with the opportunity to apply and combine his knowledge about the psychology of learning and good health principles. Urges student teacher involvement as soon as possible, and illustrates that each student teacher is different and that ways of working with them must differ accordingly. Notes sixteen principles formulated by cooperating teachers and student teachers related to student teaching. Lists ten points to consider when evaluating student teachers.

Reports on comments by education department staff members related to the professional sequence. Points out relationship between course work and student teaching. States that micro-teaching in some methods courses helps solve the dilemma of relating theory to practice. Analyzes role of the supervising teacher and college supervisor.

Discusses two issues in student teaching and teacher education: (1) indispensability of student teaching as part of the professional sequence (suggests period of internship following strong academic concentrations and award of bachelor's degree); (2) involvement of faculty from other departments in the planning and operation of the professional courses and experiences.

Discusses current patterns of student teaching, time requirements and manner of assigning college credit. Reviews various practices of accreditation of teacher preparing institutions and state certification of teachers in reference to student teaching.

Discusses the concerns the cooperating teacher needs to have in order to provide the proper environment for student teachers. Suggests six com-
ponents to be established as goals for a good program. The student teacher should be given the opportunity to develop the ability to (1) determine learning activities, (2) provide for classroom situations, (3) assign learning activities, (4) measure and report student achievement, (5) establish teacher-student rapport, and (6) effect and provide guidance for students.


Suggests that student teaching will be successful only if approached with specific goals in mind. Briefly outlines some student teaching "dos" and "dont's."


Describes "action research" in the classrooms of student teachers. States that each student teacher wrote a thesis on her experiment. Reports that the learning from the exercise exceeded the conclusions reached in the experiments.


Reveals that high school students believe the classroom atmosphere does change when an administrator visits. Reports that the teacher "sticks" closer to the material, students pay closer attention, and the classroom takes on a formal atmosphere. Implies that administrators may never see a typical class in operation. Administrator ratings of teachers based on observations of teacher and student behavior are, at the least, called into question.


Evaluates the student teaching program as viewed through the eyes of the cooperating teachers. Concludes that the cooperating teachers in this survey gave very helpful information in their evaluation of variable phases of the secondary student-teaching program at the University of Utah.


Summarizes the program's various facets, including selection, experiences, and relations with the schools and colleges. Centers primarily about the initial six-week preservice phase.


Describes an interview carried on with children to gather their opinions of student teachers. Advises student teachers to maintain standards of classroom behavior, and to remember that they have much to contribute in terms of subject matter knowledge and methodology. Declares that how well student teachers do and how well they are accepted by children is determined by the behavior they display.
6. PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR URBAN AND/OR DEPRESSED AREAS


Proposes way of improving the education of the culturally disadvantaged children in the elementary school. Discusses the latest research and reports in the field as they relate to the many dimensions of education for the culturally disadvantaged. Suggests specific paths that can be taken in developing more effective methods and materials for working with the culturally disadvantaged. Discusses characteristics and preparation of teachers, the dynamic role of the principal, and the urgent need for mobilization of community resources to achieve goals.


Reports on the role of the Office of Economic Opportunity and the National University Extension Association in the organization of Project Headstart, Summer 1965. Discusses major areas of concentration in training of teachers who participated in the program: general problems of disadvantaged children and the remedial purposes that the child development centers were designed to fulfill, the medical and nutritional features of the center program, the relationships between the child development centers and social service programs, the sociology of the disadvantaged, the education program and daily activities at the centers, the child's problem situations and involvement of parents in the work of the center, and the use of volunteers in the child development centers. Concludes that the true measure of this undertaking may not fully be assessed for a decade, perhaps longer, after the Headstart youngsters become fifteen, sixteen, or seventeen years of age, when many in these age groups normally would become school dropout statistics.


Suggests preparation of future teachers for teaching the disadvantaged in becoming familiar with the groups before actually teaching, having special education about the disadvantaged, and having stressed the need for research on the problems of the culturally disadvantaged. Other suggestions are for building early interest in young, idealistic teachers to teach in the inner city, developing active future-teacher clubs in schools of the disadvantaged and hiring them as teacher aides, and making future teachers realize the impact they can have on children.


Describes day-to-day life of children and teachers in two New York public schools, one in Puerto Rican East Harlem and one in Harlem itself. Discusses children's psychological and physical problems and how they affect school work. Reveals children's reactions to teacher authority.
and home environment. Reports actual classroom conversations between teachers and children.

Reports on training program of teachers and community workers for their work with three- and four-year-old children in pre-school centers. Highlights of the program included: field work experience, professional reading, inspirational and informational consultations, exposure to community resources, group discussion, use of audio-visual materials, individual conferences, opportunity for feedback from participants in order to keep communication going and evaluation constant from which the formulation of future plans would evolve. Concludes that good education applies to any subculture. If we can carry it out in the culturally deprived areas, perhaps we can become strong enough to educate more effectively in all areas.

Declares that the classroom teacher will have to make a deliberate, personal commitment to improve instruction for the disadvantaged children with whom he is already acquainted in his classroom, in the same school staffed by the selfsame personnel, under almost identical administrative policy, within the context of the same community norms and expectation as he is presently teaching. Argues that the teacher will have to bring new life to the classroom. Urges each teacher to seek better understanding of the conditions which blunt, twist, and regress the constructive learning potentialities of disadvantaged children. Maintains that upon the basis of this deeper understanding, the teacher can recognize and respect the ability of disadvantaged children to learn within the conditions under which they are being reared.

Discusses new curriculum approaches to teaching the disadvantaged. The rationale of this book is based on the theory that children from disadvantaged homes have intellectual capacities far greater than they are commonly believed to have, and that the school can to a great extent counteract the effects of cultural deprivation. Presents thirty-one exhibits as samples of current programs which illustrate types of approaches important to the intellectual development of the disadvantaged child from pre-kindergarten through grade twelve.

"Research in Teacher Education at the University of Texas." School and Society. 94:121-122, March 5, 1966.
Describes the University of Texas Research and Development Center in Teacher Education which will conduct a long-term program of research, demonstration, and dissemination of materials focused on teacher education. Fourteen southern and southwestern colleges and universities, the Texas Education Agency, and several public school systems will form a regional network with the University for cooperative research and
development in teacher education. The Center's principal objective is to improve methods for educating Spanish-speaking children and children from underprivileged backgrounds. Studies to be undertaken include: an evaluation of child characteristics which influence the design of curriculum and teaching methods, an assessment of student teachers' grasp of their subject matter and its adaptation to children's learning through newly developed testing measures, teaching style, and the impact of technological innovation.


Describes a plan to bridge the gap between the limited experiences and responsibilities of student teaching and the full responsibilities of a classroom teacher. Proposes various levels of preparation and teaching: (1) preliminary studies, usually liberal arts with study in depth of a major area, (2) assistant teacher, on a reduced salary schedule, to become familiar with the various responsibilities of a teacher, (3) beginning teacher whose classes will be adjusted to insure success, along with enrollment in a graduate education program, (4) second-year teacher with a bit more responsibility and continued enrollment in the graduate program (full time during the summer), (5) third-year teacher, with full status of staff membership, ready for assignment to any teaching position. The graduate program continues through the third year and entire program culminates after the third year with the award of tenure in the school system and a master's degree in education.


Concurrent Session on Preparation of Teachers for Depressed Urban Areas, AACTE's Eighteenth Annual Meeting—panel discussion.


Suggests that professors of education should spend increased time in direct confrontation of the problems faced by beginning teachers in slum schools. Maintains that becoming involved as a close observer, participant, and teacher in these schools will enable the professors of education to understand better the problems faced by the new teacher and in turn enable them to plan more effective ways to prepare these teachers.

7. NEW MEDIA IN TEACHER EDUCATION


Describes a microteaching experience developed for neophyte teachers by the School of Education at Stanford University. Microteaching clinic consists of three phases: (a) a tutoring program where an intern candidate plans a specific program and works with one student twice a week; (b) individual microlessons for three weeks when the candidate teaches
five or ten minutes on a single concept; and (c) microclasses where teams of three or four plan a unit of work for four or five students, with criticism of each other's teaching. Half of the lessons are recorded on videotape for the candidate's self-evaluation. Seen as a possible method for predicting success in classrooms and for researching teaching methods and gathering data on technical skills of teaching.

Criticizes A-V courses taught in colleges by such types as the hobbyist, technician, gadgeteer or good joe who do not give adequate foundation and inspiration. Calls for recommendations to improve college courses to meet the demands and expectations of public schools for teachers trained in A-V.

Describes the University of Connecticut School of Education's automated equipment operation laboratory where students are self-instructed in course work, learn to use equipment, and are also programmed in sequences of techniques such as picture mounting, stencil and scribe lettering, camera operation, splicings, and several methods for production of overhead transparencies. By learning to use these instructional systems, it is felt future teachers will be able to develop plans in their own fields.

Tells about the part a community college can have in training media aides for the schools under the Manpower Development Training Act. These aides, in a six-months program of "learning by doing" and over-the-shoulder instruction were trained to make transparencies, record lectures, produce slides, operate duplicators, clean equipment, plan displays and bulletin boards. Each student is being evaluated for the program.

"Studies reflect preoccupation with effectiveness of familiar instructional techniques." Well designed studies show "no significant differences" or "slight edge" to techniques which were described as less formal.

Describes the DATAGRAM learning system at Oklahoma Christian College. At present the system is used for courses in public speaking, English, world literature, American government, political science, art appreciation, music appreciation, general biology, introduction to the theatre, introduction to business, Old Testament survey, and intermediate algebra. Students are provided with individual permanently assigned electronically equipped study carrels.
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Explains a new procedure by a small college for making low-cost classroom operations using the audio-slide. Audio tape recordings are made of an actual class situation, slides are made by reconstructing the class situation and then at the college, the tapes are edited and slides synchronized. This is also done with student teachers for evaluation purposes. For $2,000 two tape recorders, multiple microphones and mixers, a synchromat, a 35 mm camera, a screen and the film and tape have been purchased for ninety sequences. Multiple use of these auto-slide programs are made for classroom orientation to teaching situations and personal student use for study of particular teaching situations.


Gives cost specifications and operation of a mobile TV unit used to make observations at actual schools for teacher training at Marywood College, Scranton, Penna. The classes are taped using remote cameras controlled by a professor-producer expert in teaching methods, and an assistant professor in the field of study being taped. It is hoped that available tapes and 16 mm films of these lessons may be made available to other institutions on a sale or rental basis.


Takes the example of the micro-teaching development at Stanford University to show how the neophyte teacher can learn to experiment with learning theories and can then experiment as a more professionally trained teacher with materials and resources in the classroom to provide feedback for the producers of materials. Predicts the teacher of the future will do more experimenting and innovating to improve the teacher-learning act.


Delineates between uses of TV for preparation of future teachers: (1) taking cameras into the classroom; (2) bringing children to the TV studio for a class; (3) mirror for teachers to see themselves; (4) where a class of educable children ages seven to fourteen are taught by a special teacher in small groups at a TV studio and then segments of these tapes are taken for training teachers in observation; (5) a college professor teaches a special group of children; (6) and a mobile unit was sent out to a school to tape seven classes from which a 40-minute classroom lecture is made. Describes the preparation of six different kinds of observation video tapes made for classroom training of future teachers.


Tells how the Educational Resources Center at Western Michigan University serves students, professors and school personnel as library, audio-visual center and curriculum laboratory. Located in the school of educa-
tion, it contains a graphics classroom, reading room, library workroom, listening-viewing rooms, student-faculty conference room, materials and equipment room, equipment laboratory, darkrooms, and photo lab and office facilities.

Elaborated descriptions of the various spaces are given. Preservice students learn to operate the equipment in the equipment laboratory and must demonstrate competence before graduation; they may also borrow materials and equipment to use in their own student teaching. The staff is also described.


Relates new techniques to the established background of educational principles and declares that both theory and practice may be due for a significant change. Argues that programmed learning has enormous potential as a theory of instruction. Describes three progressive stages in the development of educational theory: (1) The stage of craftsmanship—at this stage communication is mainly by word of mouth and the emphasis is almost exclusively upon the individual practitioner's skill. Theory scarcely enters into the picture at all. (2) The stage of techniques—theoretic considerations begin to play a part in influencing the teacher's tactics, though not a decisive part. Teaching methods become more varied and more specialized. To the extent that the methods work they are rationalized as: theory. (3) The stage of technology—theory will initiate and direct new practices. Practices will direct theory. More advanced systems of communication will come into operation, opening up new strategies for the teacher. Fingertip control over groundwork routines will insure higher all-around standards of instruction and higher levels of attainment.


Compares the ratings on preparation of senior students being educated in eight institutions of higher learning who offer programs of audio-visual education with 1.5 million public school teachers surveyed by the NEA Research Division in 1963. Similar patterns of response were found such as, over 20 per cent felt they get too much in history and philosophy of education; about 27 per cent thought there was too little in subject matter; but, over 60 per cent felt there was too little in the area of audio-visual materials and equipment preparation. It is suggested, with increasing emphasis on the teacher as scholar, five years will be needed to include a course in new media and education professors must be encouraged to use media in their teaching.


Determines some of the problems behind the poor use of instructional materials in the classroom as (1) college teachers of future teachers are poor examples in not using instructional materials or the latest
equipment; (2) school administrators do not use the instructional materials nor do they facilitate usage or make suggestions; and (3) when school administrators find poor usage, they do not speak out to teacher training colleges. A plea is made for more effort in closing the poor usage gap by school administrators and colleges preparing teachers.

Explains ways the convention of standardization helps facilitate media use but also inhibits experimentation and exploration by challenging several myths about motion pictures, tape recorders, overhead projection and bulletin display. For example, the myth that a tape recorder cannot replace a teacher is not always true as it can drill vocabulary, spelling, tell stories, review yesterday’s homework, give directions, play the accompaniment to songs and make soft music while you work.

Investigates the idea and finds the data suggest that the teachers viewed media with terms implying automation as threatening to their role; this was also found true of teachers in training. Describes two studies that had teachers rank the usefulness of instructional media. Found teachers have greater fear of automated named devices, particularly those with the word “tutor” on them, and teachers with experience in the media had a more positive attitude than those that did not. Points up need for more training of teachers.

Describes a new project to provide pre-classroom experiences for teacher trainees to (1) determine the classroom simulator’s effectiveness for students in identifying and solving classroom problems; (2) learn if this knowledge is transferable to a real classroom; and (3) find out if the trainee’s self-confidence is improved. A classroom simulator facility has a simulated classroom, an equipment area with three or four movie projectors and a rear screen, and the simulator materials. Students are faced with a single sixth-grade class and a total of sixty problem sequences on film including feedback sequences. This experimental group was matched against a control group and evaluated, with the experimental group showing more effective results. A number of implications for future research are given.

Reports a survey made of fifty-two colleges in Wisconsin to determine (1) what proportion of future teachers received adequate training; and (2) the nature of the courses for this training with newer instructional media. By analysis the data reveal only 16 of every 100 teachers undergoing training are prepared in this area. The state colleges who are ahead leave 72.5 per cent untrained. With this survey-report, Wisconsin’s state
superintendent of education called a meeting of all deans of education and then media specialists. Interest was aroused and plans for correcting the programs of teacher education were made.


Gives a way of evaluating student teachers at the beginning and end of the student teaching by making a record on 8 mm film and tape recording. Evaluation by the student, college supervisor and classroom teacher can be reviewed together with repeated showing. States possible cost and alternatives in equipment from various sources.

8. RECRUITMENT, SELECTION, AND ASSIGNMENT OF TEACHERS


Explains the provisions of the National Teacher Fellowship Act of 1965; incorporated in the 1965 Higher Education Act, providing for 24,500 fellowships over a three-year period at a total cost of $475 million for graduate teachers, recent college graduates, and persons who prepare, guide, or supervise elementary and secondary school teachers.


Emphasizes the crucial need of men teachers in elementary schools. Discusses the side-effects of the female dominance on male elementary children, and looks forward to seeing an increasing number of men graduating with elementary degrees.


Deals with research in testing for various phases of teacher education programs. Finds limited uses being made of measurement applications designed for (1) selection and admission, (2) advisement and human relations, (3) evaluation and counseling, and (4) the certification of teaching competency.


Investigates (1) the availability of instruments useful in teacher education programs, (2) the existence of technical and potential normative data for these instruments, and (3) current practices in the use of these scores. Concludes that the reported use of tests was generally consistent with the intentions of the authors and publishers of these tests; locally constructed tests and experimental efforts did not produce the expected number of promising developments.

Reports on a survey made by a Special Committee appointed by NCTEPS on the assignment of teachers: 59 per cent of teachers did not have subject matter competence appropriate to the grade and/or subject taught; 25 per cent lacked training in teaching methods appropriate to the grade level and/or subject taught. Misassignment is more common in rural than urban schools due to the shortage of teachers, being particularly bad in secondary science, English and foreign languages. Urban misassignment comes from shortage of teachers, inadequate evaluation of a candidate's teaching credentials, combined with sudden need to fill teaching positions. Solutions are suggested for teacher education institutions and state associations.


Analyzes teacher supply by level and field and describes in detail the scope and objectives of each teaching field. Discusses the preparation and common responsibilities of all teachers. Reviews unique responsibilities peculiar to each field. Declares that this background of knowledge should undergird teacher preparation and help prospective teachers make a better informed choice of field. Stresses that teaching is one of the most important professions in any society.


Cites those states that offer assistance through scholarships and/or loans. Includes patterns, and amounts of assistance. Reveals the lack of direct financial aid to students in twenty-three states. Implies that aid programs will increase in the future.


Analyzes reasons why people have chosen teaching as a career. Urges teachers to examine carefully their reasons for selecting teaching as a career. Concludes that teacher's self-understanding leads to better understanding of others.


Reveals that the supply of new candidates for high school teaching is in excess of the number of new teachers employed. Majors in the social sciences, speech, and in man's health and physical education are far more numerous than prospective full-time assignments in those fields; majors in biology far exceed those in the physical sciences. Declares that the chronic shortage of adequately prepared elementary school teachers will continue with no prospect of relief in sight and with a new factor emphasized—focus on early childhood education and work in disadvantaged areas. New problems and new shortages of adequately prepared elementary school teachers are the result.
ANNUAL BIBLIOGRAPHY


Discusses important facts concerning selective shortage of teachers in 1965. Traces trends in teacher shortage since 1950. Reports that a considerable oversupply of secondary teachers in certain areas, (speech, men's health and physical education and social sciences), will exist in the face of shortages in other areas, and in the face of a continuing shortage of elementary school teachers. Predicts expansion of early childhood programs in teacher education.


Provide continuous up-to-date information in its eighteen annual nationwide studies of teacher supply and demand in elementary and secondary schools. Divides the study into four parts: Part I presents a composite of reports from all institutions of higher education concerning students who may qualify for standard teaching certificates as a part of their college programs; Part II shows the occupations on November 1, 1964, following the graduation of those reported as eligible for teaching certificates in 1964; Part III classifies each newly employed teacher according to his teaching assignment; Part IV groups all elementary school teachers according to their level of preparation, with the new teachers shown separately.


Declares that the data provided by the research gives considerable insight into the strong relationship which prevails between teacher personality and disposition toward authoritarianism and teamwork. Concludes that disposition toward authoritarianism and teamwork is a function of age and sex of teachers. Men and women, except in the middle years, thirty-one to forty, tend to be at opposite poles with respect to authoritarianism and teamwork. Authoritarianism and teamwork are, except in the middle years, inversely related to a significant degree. The disposition toward authoritarianism and teamwork in a male or female teacher changes with the acquisition of experience.


Summarizes a cooperative program which is a specially authorized work-study organization for preparing teachers. Relates the effects of the program in providing experience in the school on the forty-three co-op students used in the first experiment. The project was designed especially to recruit potential teachers from among those students who would not afford the financial burdens that a college education imposes. Views an experiment of this type as the opening up of an untapped potential for future teachers.
ANNUAL BIBLIOGRAPHY


Argues that problem of quality teaching is acute among culturally disadvantaged, and suggests that a solution to the problem is recruiting teachers from the ranks of the disadvantaged: (1) help prospective recruits develop an interest in teaching as a profession at an early stage, (2) involve prospective recruits in actual experiences during early years of elementary school, (3) provide continuous follow-up and encourage prospective recruits from inception stage to period before certification is obtained, (4) provide recruits with opportunities to teach boys and girls whose backgrounds parallel their own.


Analyzes some existing conditions in supply and demand of teachers. States that a workable personnel policy for schools might be to take a team approach to instruction that would place every minimally qualified person with an adequately qualified person; increasing federal funds will probably increase the schools' abilities to compete for trained personnel. Proposes that the schools of education should prepare the professionals, the team leaders, the supervisors and instructional leaders. Suggests that the student identified in high school or general college as a potential instructional specialist would begin his program in the psychology of the individual and in sociology.


Discusses the following four pieces of advice in respect to choosing science as a specialty: (1) do not decide too narrowly too soon, (2) consider teaching or a combination of teaching and research as a possible career, (3) prepare not only for science but for the responsibility of citizenship in a democracy, (4) do not overestimate science as the exclusive answer to all problems.


Reports that preparatory programs for different levels of schooling tend to attract and/or retain teacher candidates with different motivational characteristics. Suggests inquiry into possibility of taking into consideration personality variables (other than age, sex, and health) in order to find and retain those best fitted for a certain curriculum.

9. CERTIFICATION


Expresses concern regarding the granting of licensure to teachers whose credentials are lower than standards required forty-one years ago. Recommends the following six steps to improve the present situation: (1) escalate the requirements for partial fulfillment credentials; (2) create a process for designating educational disaster areas; (3) activate the
Professional Standards Commission; (4) obtain annual reports regarding the preparation on which credentials are issued; (5) direct the Professional Standards Commission to study junior college licensure; (6) encourage districts to set a substantial salary differential between teachers with four-year and five-year preparation programs.


Reports that the Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction has granted Lehigh University unusual authority to experiment with previously untried methods in teacher education and to develop further the university's graduate degree. Lehigh has been authorized to eliminate from its teacher education program all of the required courses mandatory throughout the Commonwealth for state certification of elementary and secondary school teachers and been given sole responsibility of recommending master's degree recipients for state certification as teachers.


Believes that the new elementary education credential requirements in California, including greater depth in an academic area and less training in professional education, will have the following consequences: (1) teachers will work with abstractions in their special area but will have less time to translate abstractions into meaningful experiences for children, (2) teachers will be less able to deal with the wide range of differences found in the classroom, and will best be able to accommodate the child who can work in the abstract.

suggests that minimum requirements that have been established by legislation for academic preparation are quite adequate. Sees the minimum for professional preparation as too low. Feels it is unlikely that the teachers will learn the skills necessary for dealing effectively with problems associated with urbanization.


States the present condition of reciprocity between states in accepting certification requirements from one to the other. Notes the work of regional and national conferences in studying national accreditation by National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification (NASDTEC), the Association for Student Teaching, the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards (NCTEPS), and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE). Points out the problem of older career teachers crossing state lines and requests proposals and suggestions from local teachers and groups.


Furnishes summaries of state by state requirements for the certification of teachers, counselors, librarians, administrators for elementary schools,
secondary schools and junior colleges for 1965-66. Provides a map of regional accrediting associations, recommendations of regional and national accrediting associations, and sources of information regarding teacher applications in the United States possessions.

10. TEAM TEACHING


Describes the common characteristics of team teaching. Avers that both logical and psychological arguments seem to offer themselves against such instructional arrangements. Raises questions concerning: (1) teachers as individuals, (2) facilities, (3) the curriculum, (4) the administration, (5) the students. Stresses that more carefully structured and controlled research on the learning achievement of pupils instructed by teaching teams as compared with more traditional approaches should take place. Concludes that wholesale acceptance of team superiority in instruction be approached with caution.


Points out that schools today are rapidly modifying classroom programs and procedures to broaden and extend children’s curricular experiences. Discusses significant changes that have been made in content, instructional materials, and methods in recent years.


Reports an investigation of pupil achievement in five public junior high schools to determine the actual effectiveness of team teaching. Concludes that students of low ability did better in English under team teaching conditions than under homogeneous grouping, but did not do better in social studies.


Describes how team teaching evolved as a method of instruction. Declares that theoretically team teaching allows teachers to pool their knowledge, to utilize their strengths, save instructional time, and provide for inservice training. Asserts that team teaching offers more opportunities for flexible scheduling, and provides the administration with a new staff structure. Reports on team teaching experiments being conducted in elementary schools, high schools, and colleges. Reveals that there are many pitfalls to team teaching, i.e., presentation methods, proper evaluation techniques, grouping and facility problems. States that these problems are not indigenous to team teaching but are a part of the problems of education per se. Argues that careful planning will help preclude the many pitfalls encountered in team teaching.

Describes a program where school dropouts were trained to become sub-professionals. Students were carefully supervised as teacher assistants. Prognosis: Future is uncertain but hopeful.


Argues that too much of the teachers' time is taken up by essential but inconsequential chores. Believes that help for teachers could come through teacher aides, trained to function at a level below the professional teacher and under her direct supervision. Suggests that aides be trained in community or junior colleges, technical institutes, and semi-professional schools. Concludes that freeing the teacher of inconsequential tasks will increase her efficiency as a teacher.


Reports on a $3,500,000 five-year grant to Stanford University's School of Education from the U.S. Office of Education to establish a major center for research and development in teaching. Studies will evolve around three basic questions: (1) When the teacher adopts a certain pattern of behavior how does this affect his educational impact on the pupil? (2) What modifications in teacher education will increase the teacher's effectiveness? (3) How do administrative practices and conditions in the schools affect the teacher's effectiveness?
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MEMBERSHIP LIST—1965-1966

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MINNESOTA

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MEMBERSHIP LIST—1965-1966

Oregon

Library, 2080, U. of Oregon, Eugene
Library, Oregon College of Education, Monmouth
Library, Southern Oregon College, Ashland

Pennsylvania

Green Library, West Chester S. C., West Chester
Hamilton Library, Edinboro State College, Edinboro
Lehman Library, State Teachers College, Slippery Rock
Patton Library 208, Pennsylvania State U., University Park
Riverside High School Library, Elwood City
Rohrbach Library, Kutztown State College, Kutztown
St. Jley Library, Indiana State College, Indiana
University Library, U. of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh
Library, Kutztown S. C., Kutztown
Library, Bloomsburg S. C., Bloomsburg
Library, U. of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia
Millersville S. C., Millersville
Bureau of Teacher Education, Dept. of Public Instruction, Harrisburg

Rhode Island

Warwick School Dept., Warwick

South Carolina

Clemson College Library, Clemson College, Clemson
McKissick Memorial Library, U. of South Carolina, Columbia

South Dakota

Library, South Dakota S. C., Brookings

Tennessee

Library, U. of Tennessee, College of Education, Knoxville
Library, Middle Tennessee S. C., Murfreesboro
Tennessee Technological University, College of Education, Cookeville

Texas

Library, Lamar S. C. of Technology, Beaumont
Library, West Texas State College, Canyon
Library, Rice University, Houston
Library, U. of Dallas, Irving
Library, Serials, U. of Texas, Austin

Utah

Library, Weber S. C. Ogden
Library, College of Southern Utah, Cedar City
Library, Utah State U., Logan
Library, Periodicals Division, U. of Utah, Salt Lake City
Library, Serials Section, Brigham Young U., Provo
Periodicals Division, U. of Utah Library, Salt Lake City
Brigham Young University, Provo

Vermont

Guy W. Bailey Library, U. of Vermont, Burlington

Virginia

Johnston Memorial Library, Virginia S. C., Petersburg
Radford College Library, Radford
Library, Longwood College, Farmville

Washington

Victor J. Bouillon Library, Central Washington S. C., Ellensburg
Washington U. Library, Serials, Acquisitions Division, Seattle
Whitworth College Library, Whitworth College, Spokane
Curriculum Library, Administration Bldg., Tacoma
Library, Western Washington S. C., Bellingham
Library, Serial Record Section, Washington State U., Pullman

West Virginia

Ona Junior High School Library, Ona Jr. High School, Ona
Library, Davis and Elkins College, Elkins

Wisconsin

Anderson Library, Wisconsin State U., Eau Claire
Chalmer Devoe Library, Wisconsin State U., River Falls
Cronin Library, Wisconsin S. C., Superior
Florence Wing Library, Wisconsin S. C., LaCrosse
Forest R. Poik Library, Wisconsin State U., Oshkosh
Memorial Library, Marquette U., Milwaukee
MEMBERSHIP LIST—1965-1966

Robert L. Pierce Library, Stout S. C., Menomonie
Library, U. of Wisconsin, Milwaukee
Library, Wisconsin S. C., Stevens Point
Library, Wisconsin S. C., Whitewater
Dept. of Education, Marquette University, Milwaukee
Director of Instructional Services, Fond du Lac.
Elementary Coordinators, Board of Education, Eau Claire

WYOMING
Library, U. of Wyoming, Laramie
ASSOCIATION FOR STUDENT TEACHING

Membership List - 1965-66

Position or rank is indicated by the following key:

1. Supervising teacher; teach children or youth and supervise student teachers; classroom teacher or Laboratory School Teacher.
2. College teacher or college supervisor; teach college courses; supervise student teachers; etc.
3. Administrator: Director of Student Teaching or Professional Laboratory Experiences; Chairman or Head of Department; Dean; President; Principal; State Department of Education; Professional Organization Staff; etc.
4. Miscellaneous: any role not covered under 1, 2, or 3.

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Dr. J. W. Carrington, Professor Emeritus of Education, Normal, Illinois
Miss Edna M. Heilbronn, Emeritus, Central Michigan College of Education, Mt. Pleasant, Michigan
Dr. A. R. Mead, Emeritus Professor of Education, University of Florida, 1719 N.W. 16th Avenue, Gainesville, Florida
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Dr. Florence Stratemeyer, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York
Dr. E. I. F. Williams, Heidelberg College, Tiffin, Ohio

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ALABAMA

Baggett, Dorothy, 3, Bellingrath School, Montgomery
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Cannon, Frances, 4, Alabama C., Montevallo
Chaves, Nanette T., 2, Howard C., Birmingham
Cookston, Helen Marie, 1, 23 Eastwood, Tuscaloosa
Crew, A. B., 2, U. of Alabama, University
Evans, Zelia S., 3, Alagoma C., Montgomery
Johnson, Sarah H., 1, A. M. & N. College, Pine Bluff
Lewis, Elizabeth V., 2, U. of Alabama, Mobile
Phillips, Roy C., 3, Auburn U., Auburn
Frisbie, Chester C., 3, Alaska Methodist U., Anchorage

ARKANSAS

Alexander, Rogenia B., 2, A. M. & N. College, Pine Bluff
Baggett, Dorothy, 3, Bellingrath School, Montgomery
Blankenship, Myrtle Wright, 2, Miles C., Birmingham
Cannon, Frances, 4, Alabama C., Montevallo
Chaves, Nanette T., 2, Howard C., Birmingham
Cookston, Helen Marie, 1, 23 Eastwood, Tuscaloosa
Crew, A. B., 2, U. of Alabama, University
Evans, Zelia S., 3, Alagoma C., Montgomery
Johnson, Sarah H., 1, A. M. & N. College, Pine Bluff
Lewis, Elizabeth V., 2, U. of Alabama, Mobile
Phillips, Roy C., 3, Auburn U., Auburn

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Barkley, Margaret, 2, Arizona State U., Tempe
Beck, Roland L., 2, Grand Canyon C., Phoenix
Bressler, Bertha M., 2, Arizona State U., Tempe
Duncan, May M., 3, Arizona C., Flagstaff
Freese, Harriet L., 1, Wilson School, Phoenix
Friedman, Bill J., 3, Arizona State U., Tempe
Griffin, Thomas P., 4, 714 North 5th Street, Phoenix
Griffith, Earl G., 2, Arizona State U., Tempe
Howland, Marilyn, 4, Arizona State U., Tempe
Kiesow, Milton A., 2, Arizona State U., Tempe
Klein, Raymond, 2, U. of Arizona, Tucson
Lewis, Maurice S., 2, Arizona State U., Tempe
Magoun, Creighton F., 3, U. of Arizona, Tucson
Weiss, T. M., 3, Arizona State U., Tempe

*Comprehensive membership

Barton, Lillian, 3, Arkansas S. C., Jonesboro
Burgess, Elizabeth B., 2, Arkansas Polytechnic College, Russellville
Cross, Charles H., 3, U. of Arkansas, Fayetteville
Dawson, Edna J., 3, A. M. & N. College, Pine Bluff
Edmondson, Everett L., 3, Little Rock U., Little Rock
Former, Donald E., 3, U. of Arkansas, Fayetteville
Greene, Amy De, 2, Henderson State T. C., Arkadelphia
Guthrie, Ruth, 2, Henderson State T. C., Arkadelphia
Hopkins, Estel R., 2, Arkansas State T. C., Conway
Kelley, Glen E., 3, Ouachita Baptist U., Arkadelphia
Menzel, Robert W., 2, Hendrix C., Conway
Montgomery, Majde, 3, Harding C., Searcy
Moore, J. D., 3, Arkansas A. & M. College, College Heights
Patnick, Ernest W., 2, Henderson State T. C., Arkadelphia
Pierce, J. J., 2, A. M. & N. College, Pine Bluff
Red, Elsie, 2, Henderson State T. C., Arkadelphia
Rexinger, Lena, 2, Arkansas Polytechnic College, Russelville
Ross, Mrs. Leonard, 2, Henderson State T. C., Arkadelphia
Seidell, Edward C., 3, Harding College, Searcy
Stark, Jr., B. E., 2, Arkansas State T. C., Conway
Treadway, John F., 3, Henderson State T. C., Arkadelphia
Wellenberger, Margorie, 2, Arkansas A. & M. College, College Heights
Wetherington, A. B., 2, Ouachita Baptist U., Arkadelphia
Wilson, Murray, 4, Harding College, Searcy
ARKANSAS (continued)

Wood, Frances Sue, 4, Hendrick College, Conway
Young, Elise Rose, 1, Route 1, Box 154, Tiller
Young, Gladys Dodson, 2, A. M. & N. College, Pine Bluff

CALIFORNIA

*Acke, Anna E., 3, Grant Elementary, Los Angeles
Anderson, Helen N., 4, Grant Elementary, Los Angeles
Andrews, Esther, 1, Vine Street S., Hollywood
Apple, Joe A., 2, San Diego S. C., San Diego
*Arnold, Harley Dean, 1, Grant Elementary S., Los Angeles
Baker, May R., 1, LeMay Street S., Van Nuys
Bacon, Guinivere, 2, San Diego S. C., San Diego
Ballok, V. V., 2, Fresno S. C., Fresno
Barto, Edythe R., 2, College of the Holy Names, Oakland
*Barnes, Joyce, 1, Lassen Elementary S., Sepulveda
*Beery, Cleo C., 3, La Verne College, La Verne
*Banta, Edythe R., 2, College of the Holy Names, Los Angeles
*Bach, May M., 1, Le May Street S., Van Nuys
Beck, Zorka, 1, Mar Vista S., Whittier
*Beery, Cleo C., 3, La Verne College, La Verne
*Blackmore, Dorothy, 2, U. of California, Los Angeles
Barnes, Joyce, 1, Lassen Elementary S., Sepulveda
*Boles, Tommie Ray, 1, Henry Clay J. H., Los Angeles
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Wells, Mildred C., 4, Barry College, Miami
Wells, Mildred C., 4, Barry College, Miami
Wells, Mildred C., 4, Barry College, Miami
Wells, Mildred C., 4, Barry College, Miami
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>City</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alday, Patricio A.</td>
<td>2, Atlanta Bd. of Education</td>
<td>Atlanta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allman, H. B.</td>
<td>4, Berry C., Mount Berry</td>
<td>Macon</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1, L. H. Williams School,</td>
<td>Macon</td>
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<td>Becht, Alice</td>
<td>2, U. of Georgia, Athens</td>
<td>Athens</td>
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<td>Berryman, Charles</td>
<td>2, U. of Georgia, Athens</td>
<td>Athens</td>
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<tr>
<td>Best, Robert H.</td>
<td>1, H. V. Jenkins H. S., Savannah</td>
<td>Savannah</td>
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<td>Borden, D.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Borden, Mrs. Weland S.</td>
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<td>Watkinsville</td>
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<td>Bower, Marlon</td>
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<td>Dahlonega</td>
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<td>Bowen, H. A.</td>
<td>3, Area I., Atlanta Public School System, Atlanton</td>
<td>Atlanton</td>
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<td>Boyd, Janice P.</td>
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<td>Athens</td>
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<td>Braxton, Mattie Belle</td>
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<td>Augusta</td>
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<td>Brice, Carol N.</td>
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<td>Bynum, Lawrence M.</td>
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<td>Cain, Lee C.</td>
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<td>Statesboro</td>
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<td>Calhoun, Calley F.</td>
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<td>Athens</td>
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<td>Cochran, Ann</td>
<td>2, Morris Brown College, Atlanton</td>
<td>Atlanton</td>
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<td>Cochran, Mrs. W. A. Reid</td>
<td>1, Albany S. C., Albany</td>
<td>Albany</td>
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<tr>
<td>Comer, Josephine</td>
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<td>Milledgeville</td>
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<td>Hopeville</td>
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<td>Crawford, Gene</td>
<td>3, Saltie Zetterer Elementary School, Statesboro</td>
<td>Statesboro</td>
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<td>Cranmore, Sue W.</td>
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<td>Cross, Alice W.</td>
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<td>Cummings, Amanda</td>
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<td>Atlanta</td>
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<td>DeLozier, Paul F.</td>
<td>4, Bacon Primary School, Hinesville</td>
<td>Hinesville</td>
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<td>Doe, Beatrice W.</td>
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<td>Dooley, Ruby B.</td>
<td>2, Clark College, Atlanta</td>
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<td>Done, Pearlie C.</td>
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<td>Edmondson, Dolores</td>
<td>1, Albany S. C., Albany</td>
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<td>Edwards, Wayno B.</td>
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<td>English, J. R.</td>
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<td>2, The Woman's College of Georgia, Milledgeville</td>
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<td>Gott, Prentice L.</td>
<td>2, West Georgia C., Carrollton</td>
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<td>Graves, Linwood D.</td>
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<td>Hargis, Esther B.</td>
<td>4, Beach High, Savannah</td>
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<td>Hardin, Elizabeth H.</td>
<td>2, Georgia Southern C., Statesboro</td>
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<td>Hawk, Donald</td>
<td>3, Georgia Southern C., Statesboro</td>
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<td>1, Jenkins H. S., Savannah</td>
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<td>1, Gainesville H. S., Gainesville</td>
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<td>Hubbard, Naomi B.</td>
<td>1, Public School, Albany</td>
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<td>Hudson, Frances</td>
<td>3, Savannah H. S., Savannah</td>
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<td>Ingram, Lorene</td>
<td>4, Reynolds Elementary S., Reynolds</td>
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<td>Jenkins, Elizabeth K.</td>
<td>4, Tift College, Forsyth</td>
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<td>Jeter, Manelle A.</td>
<td>4, Valdosta S. C., Valdosta</td>
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*Jiles, Elmona Baker, 1, Isle of Hope S., Savannah*

*Jones, Neva, 4, The Woman's C. of Georgia, Milledgeville*

*Jordon, Martha Sue, 2, U. of Georgia, Athens*

*Kendrick, Ruby J., 4, Peter, G. Apling High, Macon*

*Kiah, Calvin L., 3, Savannah S. C., Savannah*

*Knight, Virginia S. 2, Valdosta S. C., Valdosta*

*Lee, Mary W., 2, The Woman's College of Georgia, Milledgeville*

*Lindsey, John, 2, Georgia Southern C., Statesboro*

*Lott, Jurelle, 2, U. of Georgia, Athens*

*Maguire, John, 2, Valdosta S. C., Valdosta*

*Mathers, Walter B., 3, Georgia Southern C., Statesboro*

*Mckinney, Lorena A., 4, Oglethorpe C., Atlanta*

*Mckinney, William A., 3, Georgia Southern C., Statesboro*

*McPherson, Edward H., 2, Fort Valley S. C., Fort Valley*

*Moseley, Howard F., 2, Georgia Southern C., Statesboro*

*Murphy, Allegro W., 1, R. L. Cousins S., Cavington*

*Narumol, Martha S., 1, Summer School, Nashville*

*Nuraminli, John R., 2, Georgia Southern C., Statesboro*

*Perkins, Mary Ellen, 3, State Dept. of Education, Atlanta*

*Perrin, Alex E., 3, U. of Georgia, Athens*

*Puckett, Grace B., 1, U. of Georgia, Athens*

*Purcell, Margaret L., 1, U. of Georgia, Athens*

*Sampson, Gladys C., 4, Fort Valley S. C., Fort Valley*

*Satterfield, Herman W., 4, Savannah S. C., Savannah*

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*Sheffler, Anne L., 3, Albany S. C., Albany*

*Smith, Inez R., 2, Mercer U., Macon*

*Smith, Theodore D., 4, Jeffersonville H. S., Jeffersonville*

*Sparkes, Edithgene, 2, Oglethorpe C., Atlanta*

*Strickland, Jessie, 3, U. of Georgia, Athens*

*Tate, H. E., 3, Georgia Teachers and Education Association, Atlanta*

*Thomas, Priscilla D., 4, Tampkins Elementary S., Savannah*

*Threatt, Robert, 4, Fort Valley S. C., Fort Valley*

*Tingle, Mary J., 2, U. of Georgia, Athens*

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*Washington, Justine W., 3, Peine C., Augusta*

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*Wilson, John L., 2, Savannah S. C., Savannah*

*Wynn, Virginia S., 4, Alfred E. Beach H. S., Savannah*

*Yearwood, Mrs. Hoyt, 1, Clarkeville Elementary S., Clarkeville*

*Comprehensive membership*

**HAWAII**

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<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>City</th>
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<tr>
<td>Asari, Millicent</td>
<td>1, Pearl Harbor, Honolulu</td>
<td>Honolulu</td>
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<td>Arakaki, Alfred</td>
<td>1, Church C. of Hawaii, Laie</td>
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<td>Bilgu, Carolyn B.</td>
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<td>Budin, Olga L.</td>
<td>1, Kailua H. S., Kailua</td>
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<td>Dung, Pearl J., 1, Ali Wai School, Honolulu</td>
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<td>Fox, William</td>
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<td>Fujita, Grace S.</td>
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*Allan, Ross R., 4, Church C. of Hawaii, Honolulu*

*Arakaki, Alice, 1, Kaneohe, Kaneohe*

*Asari, Millicent, 1, Pearl Harbor, Honolulu*

*Bilgu, Carolyn B., 2, U. of Hawaii, Honolulu*

*Budin, Olga L., 1, Kailua H. S., Kailua*

*Chung, Maybelle, 1, Kaneohe, Kaneohe*

*Dung, Pearl J., 1, Ali Wai School, Honolulu*

*Dyer, Doris, 2, U. of Hawaii, Honolulu*

*Fitzsimmons, Lorraine, 2, U. of Hawaii, Honolulu*

*Fox, William, 3, Pearl City Highlands, Aiea*

*Fujita, Jean S., 1, Lanakila S., Honolulu*

*Fujimoto, George Y., 1, Jefferson S., Honolulu*

*Fujita, Grace S., 2, U. of Hawaii, Honolulu*
HAWAI'I (continued)

*Comprehensive membership

** Combron, Bernice, 1, Northern Illinois U., DeKalb
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** Arntz, Elmer A., 2, Concordia C. T., River Forest
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** Azbell, Wayne E., 2, Western Illinois U., Macomb
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** Farmer, Louise, 1, Illinois State U., Normal
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*Farwell, Gaylord H., 2, Northern Illinois U., DeKalb
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*Floyd, Thoman W., 2, Illinois State U., Normal
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*Garner, Mildred, 1, Southern Illinois U., Carbondale
*Gee, Grace, 2, Northern Illinois U., DeKalb
*Gee, G. A., 2, Northern Illinois U., DeKalb
*George, Sister M., 2, DeLourdes College, Des Plaines
*Grier, Eugene Murphy, 4, Illinois State U., Normal
*Griffin, Florence, 3, Pestolozzi Forebel T. C., Chicago
*Groves, Vernon T., 3, Olivet Nazarene C., Kankakee
*Gurnett, Paul O., 1, Eastern Illinois U., Charleston
*Hablaugh, Fred, 1, Eastern Illinois U., Charleston
*Hall, Dorothy K., 1, Rock Island Sr. H. S., Rock Island
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*Hindman, Mildred, 1, Southern Illinois U., Carbondale
*Hoffman, A. J., 2, Eastern Illinois U., Charleston
*Hoffman, Berneice, 3, Lincolnwood School, Evanston
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*Hrudka, Qu., 1, Illinois State Normal U., Normal
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*LaBrosse, Antionette, 4, Cassilt School, LaGrange
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*Long, Father Jovian, 4, Quincy College Library, Quincy
*Laron, Richard C., 2, Western Illinois U., Macomb
*Louby, Cecilia J., 3, Illinois State U., Normal
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*Lionsberg, Warren W., 2, Illinois State U., Normal
*Madore, Normand W., 2, Illinois State U., Normal
*Maidment, Robert, 4, Northwestern U., Evanston
*Malinich, Joseph J., 4, U. of Illinois, Chicago
*Marie, Sister Charles, 3, College of St. Francis, Joliet
*Martin, Ralph, 3, Streator
*Martun, Athene, 1, Washington Elementary S., Evanston
*Marty, Ralph E., 3, McKenzie C., Leolomn
*Matsa, John A., 2, Illinois State U., Normal
*Mather, Mary E., 2, U. of Illinois, Urbana
*Maurer, Albert V., 2, Concordia T. C., River Forest
*Mayo, Marjorie, 2, Olivet Nazarene C., Kankakee
*McClure, Daniel G., 2, Eureka College, Eureka
*McGill, John E., 3, U. of Illinois, Urbana
*Meyer, Edna T., 1, Southern Illinois U., Carbondale
*Muller, Ethlyn R., 3, Northern Illinois U., DeKalb
*Muller, Kenneth, 3, Northwestern U., Normal
*Morgan, Vesta, 2, Southern Illinois U., Carbondale
*Neal, Charles D., 3, Southern Illinois U., Carbondale
*Newbauer, Woman O., Blackburn C., Carlinville
*Newcombe, P. Judson, 2, Northwestern U., Evanston
*Olson, Thomas A., 3, Illinois State U., Normal
*Onal, Frank E., 3, State Teacher Certification Bd., Springfield
*Pappadopoulos, Vasa K., 2, Chicago Teachers College, South, Chicago
*Poynter, Helen, 1, College Hill School, Evanston
*Petersen, Richard Stanley, 4, Northwestern U., Evanston
*Pettigrew, Jr., Charles E., 2, Eastern Illinois U., Charleston
*Pfleitl, Clifford N., 3, Illinois Wesleyan U., Bloomington
*Pierson, Gerald, 1, Eastern Illinois U., Charleston
*Porter, Lorena, 2, Northern Illinois U., DeKalb
*Prentice, Richard, 3, Western Illinois U., Pitsfield
*Proulx, Ernest L., 3, Loyola U., Chicago
*Queens, Roy H., 3, Lewis-Dist. 14, Lewiswood
*Radtke, Anola, 1, Eastern Illinois U., Charleston
*Rahn, Alta P., 2, Bradley U., Peoria
*Ram, Clifford, 2, Northern Illinois U., DeKalb
*Ranson, Sister Mary, 2, Rosary C., River Forest
*Rees, Janet C., 3, National C. of Education, Evanston
*Reid, Jerome R., 2, Illinois T. C., Chicago South
*Reichert, E. C., 2, Lake Forest College, Lake Forest
*Reno, Lucille S., 1, Benjamin Franklin S., Malone
*Replige, W. L., 3, Illinois State U., Normal
*Reusser, John L., 2, Illinois State Normal U., Normal
*Ricardi, Donna R., 1, Northern Illinois U., DeKalb
*Rich, Victor J., 2, Western Illinois U., Macomb

*Denotes comprehensive membership.
ILLINOIS (continued)

*Richardson, Robert C., 2, Southern Illinois U., Carbondale
*Razum, Mary A., 1, Illinois State U., Normal
*Sawers, Edna, 1, Oakton School, District 65, Evanston
*St. George, Sister Mary, 3, Mundelein C., Chicago
*Santos, Sister M., 1, H. S., Chicago
*Scudder, Martin, 3, Eastern Illinois U., Charleston
*Schmid, Evin H., 3, Elmhurst C., Elmhurst
*Schultz, Luella, 1, Illinois State U., Normal
*Seaburg, Howard, 4, National C. of Education, Evanston
*Seager, Sister Mary Joan, 2, Mundelein C., Chicago
*Seck, Robert G., 4, Eastern Illinois U., Charleston
*Shaffer, Alice, 3, Concordia T. C., River Forest
*Shadick, Walter, 2, Roosevelt C., Elmhurst
*Shadick, Alice, 1, Illinois State U., Normal
*Shawver, Benjamin T., 1, Bloom Twp. H. S., Charleston
*Shaw, Walter, 3, Eastern Illinois U., Charleston
*Sheehan, Sister M., 1, H. S., Chicago
*Sheehan, Sister M., 1, H. S., Chicago
*Shepherd, B. W., 2, Northern Illinois U., De Kalb
*Sheriff, Marion, 4, Northern Illinois U., De Kalb
*Sheriff, Marion, 4, Northern Illinois U., De Kalb
*Sheveland, Sister Mary, 1, H. S., Chicago
*Sherman, Bernard, 2, Roosevelt U., Chicago
*Shigemura, Yui, 2, Roosevelt U., Chicago
*Tajima, Yuri Ikeda, 2, Roosevelt U., Chicago
*Tate, Virginia, 1, Eastern Illinois U., Charleston
*Taylor, Mildred C., 2, National C. of Education, Evanston
*Thorne, Sister Mary Joan, 2, Mundelein C., Chicago
*Thurston, Mildred, 2, Roosevelt U., Chicago
*Thibodeau, Blanche, 2, National C. of Education, Evanston
*Tiller, Mary T., 3, Illinois T. C., Chicago South
*Tonn, Rosamond, 1, Roy School, Northlake
*Tomas, Joseph, 2, Illinois State U., Normal
*Trench, Madeline S., 2, Southern Illinois U., Carbondale
*Trepatola, Marlene N.ner, 2, National C. of Education, Evanston
*Udellon, Lillian T., 1, Lake View H. S., Skokie
*Vincent, Sister John, 3, Mundelein C., Chicago
*Vogel, Francis X., 2, Central S., Evanston
*Wassman, Lucille, 2, National C. of Education, Evanston
*Watson, Clyde K., 3, Maine Twp. H. S., South Park Ridge
*Weber, Faye, 1, Sherman Elementary S., Streator
*Wehling, Leslie J., 4, Southern Illinois U., Edwardsville
*Weller, Mary Alice, 1, Northern Illinois U., DeKalb
*Wernick, Walter, 2, Northern Illinois U., DeKalb
*Wheeler, Wallace J., 2, Northern Illinois U., DeKalb
*White, Denton, 3, Bushnell-Prairie City S., Bushnell

*Laughter—list of membership

Wiggs, Hallice, 2, Millikin U., Decatur
*Wilde, Oscar, 1, St. Paul Lutheran S., Brookfield
*Waller, N. Emerson, 2, Illinois Wesleyan U., Bloomington
*Wiseman, Margaret, 2, Eastern Illinois U., Charleston
*Wood, Dinmore, 3, Kewanee Community Unit S., Kewanee
*Woolslager, Ruth B., 2, Northern Illinois U., DeKalb
*Ziegler, Lorene E., 2, Eastern Illinois U., Charleston
*Zimmerman, M. Nadine, 4, Northern Illinois U., DeKalb
*Zumkeller, Rosella A., 1, Ills Elementary S., Springfield

INDIANA

Andrews, Jannie E., 2, Taylor U., Upland
Arnold, Eliza, 1, Grandview S., Indianapolis
Bain, Stella Mae, 2, Fort Wayne Community S., Fort Wayne
Baker, Donald A., 2, Butler U., Indianapolis
*Ballew, Donald L., 3, Saint Joseph's C., Rensselaer
*Barnett, Philip E., 2, Ball State U., Muncie
*Barth, James L., 2, Purdue U., West Lafayette
*Beasley, Wayne, 1, Indiana S. C., Terre Haute
*Book, Howard A., 3, Manchester C., North Manchester
*Brenner, Kenneth W., 4, Indiana U., Bloomington
*Brewer, Wrennath G., 2, Indiana State U., Terre Haute
*Brinegar, Horace, 3, Indiana U., Bloomington
*Brago, Heler, 1, Gary Public S., Gary
*Burchard, Catherine, 1, Park Side S., Hartford City
*Burns, Harold E., 3, St. Joseph's College, East Chicago
*Clarin, Edgar E., 2, Purdue U., West Lafayette
*Coleman, Paul R., 2, Butler U., Indianapolis
*Croswell, Charles, 2, Purdue U., West Lafayette
*Darrow, Harriet D., 2, Indiana S. C., Terre Haute
*Dean, Alma, 2, F. J. Reitz H. S., Evansville
*Denney, David A., 2, State U. College, Oneonta
*Dill, Louise H., 1, George Kury S., Gary
*Elmire, Robert T., 2, Ball State T. C., Muncie
*Enoch, June E., 2, Manchester C., North Manchester
*Erickson, Leland H., 3, Franklin C. Franklin
*Evans, Mildred W., 4, School City of Hammond—Porter, Hammond
*Eyster, Elwin S., 3, Indiana U., Bloomington
*Farrar, C. D., 1, Indiana State College, Terre Haute
*Fortenberry, La Velle, 2, Indiana U., Crown Point
*Fox, La Nola, 1, Partage Jr., H. S., Ft. Wayne
*Gardner, Paras, 2, Purdue U., West Lafayette
*Gibson, Mrs. Robert M., 4, Robert E. L., School, Muncie
*Gilles, Sister Mary, 2, Marian College, Indianapolis
*Gilotty, Lewis W., 3, Instruction Center, Indianapolis
*Gould, Nelson F., 2, Fort Wayne Bible College, Fort Wayne
*Guild, Elizabeth, 1, Indiana U., Bloomington
*Haines, George S., 2, Taylor U., Upland
*Halsey, J. Wilbur, 3, Ft. Wayne Community S., Ft. Wayne
*Hamer, C. W., 2, Taylor U., Upland
*Herron, Marvin A., 2, Indiana S. C., Terre Haute
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Shaffer, Wilma C., 3, Evansville C., Evansville
Shaffer, Nola M., 1, Central Avenue S., Anderson
Sharpe, Donald M., 2, Indiana State U., Terre Haute
Shipp, Otto J., 2, Indiana S. C., Terre Haute
Smith, Harvey A., 4, Indiana State U., Terre Haute
Smith, Olive, 3, Oakland City C., Oakland City
Snyder, Fred A., 4, Indiana State U., Terre Haute
Sorison, Helen H., 2, Ball State T. C., Muncie
Souders, Jolene, 4, Munster Public S., Munster
Stinson, Martha E., 1, Harwood School, Evansville
Stoner, Lee H., 2, Indiana U., Bloomington
Swafford, George E., 2, Ball State T. C., Muncie
Swihart, Wayne E., 3, Valparaiso U., Valparaiso
Szakaly, Elizabeth, 3, St. Joseph's C., East Chicago
Tanis, Edgar M., 3, Indiana State U., Terre Haute
Tayler, Earl M., 3, Evansville C., Evansville
Taylor, Stanley, 2, Bethel C., Nicholasville
Thomas, James D., 2, Butler U., Indianapolis
Todd, Kermit R., 2, Indiana Central C., Indianapolis
Tsimangakis, Thelma, 2, Franklin C., Franklin
Ward, Norman, 2, Butler U., Indianapolis
West, Mary Alice, 2, Garfield S., Muncie
Wohlmeyer, Donald J., 2, U. of Notre Dame, Notre Dame
Williams, Chester S., 2, Indiana S. C., Terre Haute

IOWA

Alexander, Sister Mary, 2, Clarke C., Dubuque
Anderson, Roger W., Luther C., Decorah
Aurand, Wayne O., 1, State C. of Iowa, Cedar Falls
Baker, Joanne T., 4, Upper Iowa U., Fayette
Bebb, Randall R., 1, State C. of Iowa, Cedar Falls
Blackman, Mildred R., 1, State C. of Iowa, Cedar Falls
Blumeyer, Russell, 4, Newton S., Newton
Bohman, Austin L., 4, Gracecrest C., Lamont
Booth, E. G., 3, Springfield C., Springfield
Brogg, Desmond, 3, Drake U., Des Moines
Chollett, Marjorie, 4, Washington-Thomas Jefferson S., Newton
Clare, Sister Mary Agnes, 2, Maremont C., Davenport
Clayton, Russ, 1, Berg Jr., H. Newton
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Ends, A. Wesley, 1, State C. of Iowa, Cedar City
Evans, Mary Beth, 2, Gracecrest C., Lamont
Fields, Kathleen, 4, Mount Mercy C., Cedar Rapids
Fostvedt, Donald, 2, Upper Iowa U., Fayette
Francis, Sister Mary Teresa, 2, Clarke C., Dubuque
Frommet, Leo A., 2, Briar Cliff C., Sioux City
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Gillisley, Laura K., 2, State C. of Iowa, Cedar Falls
Giltz, Glen L., 4, Berg Jr., H. Newton
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Hammer, Bert, 3, Drake U., Des Moines
Hansen, Robert A., 3, Iowa Braille & Sight Saving S., Vinton
Harding, Delma E., 2, Iowa State U., Ames
Harrson, Leta, 2, State C. of Iowa, Cedar Falls
Head, Phyllis, 1, Aurora Heights Elementary S., Newton
Hegel, Louis R., 4, Drake U., Des Moines
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<td>Iowa State U.</td>
<td>Ames</td>
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<td>Sioux Center</td>
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<td>Woodbury S., Marshalltown</td>
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<td>Administration Bldg., Newton</td>
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<td>Upper Iowa U.</td>
<td>Fayette</td>
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<td>Robbins, Douglas</td>
<td>Dorchester S.</td>
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<td>Rider, John A.</td>
<td>Northwestern C., Orange City</td>
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<td>Roberson, Dorothy B.</td>
<td>Elementary S., State Center</td>
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<td>Roberson, James B.</td>
<td>State C. of Iowa, Cedar Falls</td>
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<td>Rokkan, Robert N.</td>
<td>Luther C.</td>
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**KANSAS**

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<td>Rast, Nellie M.</td>
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*Comprehensive membership*
KANSAS (continued)

Rotthrock, Dayton, 2, McPherson C., McPherson
Schild, Alvin H., 2, U. of Kansas, Lawrence
Satterleng, Anlava, 4, Fabrique Elementary S.,
Wichita
Smith, Doris H., 4, Kansas State T. C., Emporia
*Stilworthy, Fred L., 2, Washburn U., Topeka
*Tustain, Ruth, 2, Kansas State Teachers Association,
Topeka
Street, R. D. 2, U. of Kansas, Lawrence
Stromquist, Marion, 4, Kansas S. C., Pittsburg
*Swisher, Ernest C., 3, Washburn U., Topeka
Taylor, Betty Kathryn, 3, Curtis Jr. H. S., Wichita
Taylor, R. C., 3, Administration Center, Lawrence
*Thomas, Sister M., 4, Sacred Heart C., Wichita
Trenthrop, Marion J., 2, Kansas State S., Manhattan
Viets, Lottie, 1, Kansas S. C., Pittsburgh
Vincent, Sister M., 4, St. Mary of the Plains,
Dodge City
*Williams, Velda M., 2, Kansas S. C., Pittsburg
*Wood, Darrell E., 2, Kansas State T. C., Emporia
*Young, Raymond E., 2, Ft. Hays Kansas S. C.,
Hays,
Zeman, Nellie E., 3, Washburn U., Topeka

KENTUCKY

Anderson, Mary T., 1, Morehead S. C., Morehead
Aspnes, Agnes M., 2, Berea C., Berea
Bock, Reudus, 3, Morehead S. C., Morehead
Bogan, Edward B., 1, U. of Louisville, Louisville
Bord, Laura E., 1, Brescia C., Owensboro
Bolte, Gertrude E., 2, Western Kentucky S. C.,
Bowling Green
*Barr, Dixon A., 3, Eastern Kentucky S. C., Richmond
Barrett, Olive, 1, U. of Kentucky, Lexington
*Beard, Charles Marshall, 2, Atherton H. S.,
Louisville
Bernier, Bernice, 1, Tates Creek Elementary S.,
Lexington
Black, Rosanne L., 1, University of Kentucky,
Frankfort
Blaulet, Marvin A., 2, Kentucky S. C., Frankfort
Bollor, Bernice B., 1, Eastern Kentucky S. C.,
Richmond
Brownstein, Janice, 1, University of Kentucky,
Bowling Green
*Breitenstein, Helen, 1, U. of Louisville, Louisville
Brockenbrough, Helen, 1, Administration Center,
Lawrenceburg
Brownstein, Josephine, 1, U. of Louisville, Louisville
Browne, William, 2, U. of Kentucky, Lexington
Carpenter, James A., 3, Western Kentucky S. C.,
Bowling Green
*Carlson, Barbara A., 1, U. of Kentucky, Lexington
*Clayton, Robert, 4, Eastern Kentucky S. C.,
Richmond
*Coates, J. Dorland, 2, Eastern Kentucky S. C.,
Richmond
Cole, Mary E., 2, Western Kentucky S. C., Bowling Green
*Combs, Gladys, 4, Owensboro Senior H. S.,
Owensboro
Daniel, Della Mae, 1, Western Kentucky S. C.,
Bowling Green
Davis, Ruth W., 1, Berea C., Berea
Dean, Daniel R., 4, Daniel R. Dean S.,
Richmond
Deane, Dick, 1, Eastern Kentucky S. C., Richmond
Dunham, Shirley R., 1, U. of Louisville, Louisville
East, Lucy, 1, Eastern Kentucky S. C., Richmond
Evans, Thelma, 2, Morehead S. C., Morehead
Fairless, Sue, 1, Murray S. C., Murray
Faulkner, Louisa, 1, Pleasant View Elementary S.,
Pleasant View
Foley, Malvina, 2, Berea C., Berea
Ford, Carl G., 2, Berea C., Berea
*Francis, Adrianna H., 1, Eastern Kentucky S. C.,
Richmond
Fuller, William Jack, 2, Western Kentucky S. C.,
Bowling Green
Garrett, Dorothy, 1, Western Kentucky S. C.,
Bowling Green
Garrett, E. C., 1, Western Kentucky S. C.,
Bowling Green
Gibson, Lucine, 2, Western Kentucky S. C.,
Bowling Green
Gibson, Vanda Jean, 1, Murray S. C., Murray
Gill, Neil, 2, Berea C., Berea
Godfrey, James H., 2, Western Kentucky S. C.,
Bowling Green
Gothaner, Hazel, 4, Juliet R. Ewan S., Lexington
Griesinger, Lawrence, 3, Morehead S. C.,
Morehead
Haggen, Pearl, 1, Rowan C., Morehead
Haines, Ruth S., 3, Pikeville City S., Pikeville
Hays, Glynni, 1, Eastern Kentucky S. C., Richmond
Hicks, Elizabeth Grimes, 1, S. Coleridge-Taylor S.,
Louisville
Hicks, Sister Mary Jane, 1, Brescia C., Owensboro
Highfield, Esther Lea, 4, U. of Louisville, Louisville
Hill, Inez Hall, 2, U. of Kentucky, Lexington
Hobson, Josephine, 1, Pikeville City S., Pikeville
Hollon, Fannie, 1, Western Kentucky S. C.,
Bowling Green
Holman, Bobby P., 4, Western Kentucky S. C.,
Bowling Green
Hooks, Janice, 1, Murray S. C., Murray
Hudson, George E., 2, Kansas State S. C., Pittsburg
Huslette, Lula Hooper, 4, U. of Kentucky, Lexington
Hunt, Erna D., 1, Potter Gray Elementary S.,
Louisville
Huss, Bill, 2, U. of Louisville, Louisville
*Hyrmo, Sister M., 3, Villa Madonna C., Covington
Jacobs, Mildred C., 1, Kentucky S. C., Frankfort
Jennings, Mabel W., 2, Eastern Kentucky S. C.,
Richmond
Jones, Albert, 1, Pleasant View Elementary S.,
Pleasant View
Jones, Edward C., 1, Bowling Green H. S.,
Bowling Green
*Jones, John E., 1, High Street Elementary S.,
Bowling Green
*Kocher, Charles M., 3, Nazareth C., Nazareth
Kent, Audrey Ballou, 1, Berea C., Berea
Kerley, Leota L., 1, Eastern Kentucky S. C., Richmond
*Kelly, Robert F., 1, Sandy Hook H. S., Sandy
Hook
Kelsay, Evangeline Smith, 2, U. of Kentucky, Lexington
Kerr, Robert P., 1, DuPont Manual H. S., Louisi-
ana
Lee, John D., 2, Western Kentucky S. C.,
Bowling Green
Leslie, Max E., 1, Pikeville College Training S.,
Pikeville
Logsdon, Cova, 4, Clarkson Grade & High School,
Clarkson
Love, Mrs. W. Norman, 1, Western Kentucky
S. C., Bowling Green
Lyons, Mrs. Dwight K., 4, Eastern Kentucky S. C.,
Richmond
*Lytle, Catherine, 2, U. of Kentucky, Lexington
*Marin, Sister Beatrice, 1, Saint Joseph S.,
Bardstown

*Comprehensive membership
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*Comprehensive membership.
LOUISIANA (continued)

Austin, James T., 1, McNeese S. C., Lake Charles
Baker, Blanche A., 1, U. of Southwestern Louisiana, Lafayette
Ball, Ruby, 2, Northeast Louisiana S. C., Monroe
Barrett, Dorothy, 1, Northwestern S. C., Natchitoches
Blackbourne, Tommie A., 4, Woodlawn H.
Barnet, Dorothy, 1, Northeast Louisiana S.
Bonin, Lillian
Beeson, 1, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Beard, Louise H., 2, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Beard, Don Ray, 1, Jefferson Terrace Elementary
Beard, Doris A., 1, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Bergeron, Earl
Beraud, 1, McNeese S. C., Lake Charles
Black, Dorothy C., 1, Northwestern S. C., Natchitoches
Berrowhill, Winnie T., 1, McNeese S. C., Lake Charles
Bradberry, Ronald
Bradley, Dorothy W., 1, U. of Southwestern Louisiana, Lafayette
Bradley, Earl R., 1, Francis T. Nicholls S. C., Thibodaux
Beard, Louise H., 2, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Bennett, Thelma G., 1, Alice Boucher S., Lafayette
Brownfield, Charles
Brown, Mrs. George Ann St. G., 1, Northwestern S.
Brownfield, Barbara, 1, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Brownfield, Lora W., 1, Northwestern Jr. H. S., Natchitoches
Brown, William J., 1, McNeese S. C., Lake Charles
Butler, Mary H., 1, Beauregard Jr. H. S., New Orleans
Butlum, Ethel B., 1, Magnolia Woods S., Baton Rouge
Bullock, William J.
Burr, Elyne, 1, Fortier Sr. High, New Orleans
Buchanan, Mary, 1, Northeast Louisiana S.
Buell, Mary, 1, McNeese S. C., Lake Charles
Bryant, Perry W., 1, Northern State Elementary
Butler, Laura W., 1, Northwestern Jr. H. S., Natchitoches
Byrn, Mary, 1, Loyola U. of the South, New Orleans
Campbell, Miss David J., 1, Loyola S., Baton Rouge
Campbell, Gene Virginia, 1, U. of Southwestern Louisiana, Lafayette
Campbell, John R., 1, Francis T. Nicholls S. C., Thibodaux
Campbell, Caroline M., 1, Nicholls S. C., Thibodaux
Campbell, Edmund Joseph, 1, Thibodaux H. S., Thibodaux
Cassidy, Ruby D., 4, 1066 Mayhaw Drive, Baton Rouge
Carpenter, Lucille, 1, Southeastern Louisiana C., Hammond
Casser, Pauline, 1, Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston
Cawthorn, John, 1, Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston
Chapman, Mary Lou, 4, Nicholls S. C., Thibodaux
Cheves, Clara O., 1, Francis T. Nicholls S. C., Thibodaux
Chizat, Jr., Camille J., 1, Thibodaux H. S., Thibodaux
Clarke, Amelia, 4, St. Mary's Dominican C., New Orleans
Closed, Mrs. Glenn P., 4, Tulane U., New Orleans
Clement, Earl P., 3, Francis T. Nicholls S. C., Thibodaux
Clement, Robert, 1, Francis T. Nicholls S. C., Hammond
Cline, Martha, 1, Ruston H. S., and Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston
Clinton, T. A., 4, Northwestern S. C., Natchitoches
Cook, Doris J., 1, Magnolia Woods S., Baton Rouge
Copy, Melva, B., 1, McNeese S. C., Lake Charles
Cote, Rose Mary, 1, Northwestern H. S., Lafayette
Collins, A. Loyd, 2, Loyola Louisiana, Pineville
Collinworth, E. T., 1, Louisiana Tech., Ruston
Colin, Mrs. Rue, 1, Cypress Springs S., Ruston
Colvin, Mrs. S. M., 1, Louisiana Tech., Ruston
Conrad, Sister Mary, 4, St. Mary's Dominican C., New Orleans
Cox, Bessie D., 1, Airline H. S., Bossier City
Craft, Z. T., 4, Sulphur H. S., Sulphur
Crawford, V. Joye, 1, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Crawford, Richard F., 1, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge

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Fowler, Mildred, 1, Northwestern S. C., Natchitoches
Fowler, L. F., 3, Northwestern S. C., Natchitoches
Fowler, France, Jr., Edwin J., 4, Southeastern High, Hammond
Fowler, George P., 3, Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston
Fowler, Mrs. Zulma H., 1, Magnolia Woods School, Baton Rouge
Fulton, Mrs. Dudley G., 1, George L. Parks Elementary School, Natchitoches
Gabel, Rilo, 1, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Galloway, Bernice O., 1, Samuel J. Montgomery Elementary S., Lafayette
Galloway, Lynn, 1, Northwestern S. C., Natchitoches
Gantt, Mr. Jack Hayes S., Monroe
Garbo, James J., 4, Pearl Watson Jr., H. S., Lake Charles
Garcia, Anica, 4, Orleans Parish School Board, New Orleans
Gardiner, Jeanette, 1, Southeastern Louisiana U., Lafayette
Gartman, Jack Warren, 1, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Gastman, Mrs. Priscilla C., 1, Crlesy S., West Monroe
Gauthier, Jo Ann, 1, Broadmoor Parish School Board, Baton Rouge
Gauthier, Louise E., 1, U. of Southeastern Louisiana, Lafayette
Gautreaux, J., 1, U. of Southeastern Louisiana, Lafayette
Gay, Emma Jean, 1, McNeese S. C., Lake Charles
Germany, Miss Louise, 1, F. M. Hamilton Lab. S., Natchitoches
Gibson, Delie, 4, 3845 Plum Broque Drive, Baton Rouge
Gibson, Lois L., 1, Southeastern Louisiana C., Hammond
Gill, Odile C., 3, Southeastern Louisiana C., Hammond
Gilmores, Elizabeth D., 4, Lakeside S. For Exceptional Children, Metairie
Gimbert, Ada A., 1, Northwestern S. C., Natchitoches
Glos, Lorraine H., 1, Park Elementary S., Natchitoches
Glen, Ethel E., 4, College Oaks S., Lake Charles
Glover, Mildred S., 1, Capitol Jr. H. S., Baton Rouge
Gold, Pearl B., 1, Hamilton Lab. S., U.S.L., Lafayette
Golenkom, Clarence E., 3, Southeastern Louisiana C., Hammond
Gonham, Mary Jane, 1, Pearl Watson Jr. H. S., Lake Charles
Graham, Helen, 1, Northwestern S. C., Natchitoches
Graham, H. L., 1, East Natchitoches Jr., High, Natchitoches
Green, Mrs. Jack J., 1, Ruston Elementary S., Ruston
Green, Leon L., 2, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Greenwood, Nancy B., 1, McNeese S. C., Lake Charles
Gregory, Herbert W., 3, Southeastern Louisiana U., Hammond
Gregory, Lois, 4, Sulphur H. S., Sulphur
*Gruwell, Melvin L., 2, Tulane U., New Orleans
Guilbeau, John D., 2, Lafayette Sr. High S., Lafayette
Gunn, Dorothy W., 1, Southeastern H. S., Hammond
Hain, Helen, 2, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Hammans, Donald W., 2, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Hanchey, Ethel, 1, McNeese S. C., Lake Charles

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Hankins, Ruth M., 1, George L. Parks Elementary, Natchitoches
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*Hardin, Genevieve, 1, East Natchitoches Elementary, Ruston
*Harris, Mary Bess, 1, Hallcrest Elementary, Ruston
*Harrison, Laura S., 1, Northwestern S. C., Natchitoches
*Harvey, Eva D., 2, Grambling C., Grambling
*Harvey, Patricia Anne, 1, Jefferson Terrace, Baton Rouge
*Hastings, Geraldine, 2, Grambling C., Grambling
*Hatch, Joyce T., 1, Lafayette High, Lafayette
*Hastings, Geraldine, 2, Grambling C., Grambling
*Harvey, Eva D., 2, Grambling C., Grambling
*Hanna, Margie O., 1, Lafayette H. S., Lafayette
*Hovish, James, 3, Tulane U., New Orleans
*Hoyd, Edna L., 1, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
*Higginbotham, Mrs. T. H., 1, St. Mary's Catholic C., Shreveport
*Hoffman, Helen, 1, Nicholls S. C., Thibodaux
*Hogan, Bobbie Sue, 1, Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston
*Hogg, Lurlene W., 2, La Polytechnic Institute, Ruston
*Holland, Floyd R., 3, McNeese S. C., Lake Charles
*Huntz, Glenn, 3, Tulane U., New Orleans
*Hood, Daris R., 1, Hammond High S., Hammond
*Howell, Joyce D., 1, East Natchitoches Jr. H. S., Natchitoches
*Huddleston, Jr., Mrs. G. H., 1, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
*Hughes, Henrietta, 1, Nicholls S. C., Thibodaux
*Hughes, Anne, 1, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
*Hunter, E. C., 3, Tulane U., New Orleans
*Kholshchuk, Myra T., 1, Hammond H. S., Hammond
*Hunter, Beverly, 1, Scott H. S., Lafayette
*Hyde, Regina T., 1, Southeastern Louisiana, Hammond
*James, Nana E., 1, Southeastern Louisiana, Hammond
*Jinks, Sharon Hall, 4, Summer Grove Elementary S., Shreveport
*Johnson, John E., 1, Lake Charles High S., Lake Charles
*Johnson, Lusette Smith, 1, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
*Johnson, Sister Mary Gregory, 4, Dominican C., New Orleans
*Jones, Annie Louise, 1, Brownfields S., Baton Rouge
*Jones, Gladys Longino, 1, St. Charles Parish S. B. Office, Luling

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Joseph, Doris G., 3, Nicholls S. C., Thibodaux
Kovarne, Enoch Erle, 2, Ruston H. S., Ruston
Kennedy, Eunice, 2, Airline H. S., Bossier City
Kerico, Myrtle Lue, 1, Francis T. Nichols S. C., Thibodaux
Klippe, Jr., Leonard L., 3, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
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Kran, Irma L., 3, New Orleans Public Schools, New Orleans
La Cour, Robert, 1, Northside H. S., Lafayette
Landers, Mary, 1, Nicholls S. C., Lake Charles
Landry, Carolyn, 1, Lafayette Elementary S., Thibodaux
Lanes, Robert Alex, 2, Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston
La Rose, James, 1, East Natchitoches Jr. H. S., Natchitoches
Larriviere, Margaret, 1, Montgomery S., Lafayette
Lasage, Russell E., 3, Thibodaux Upper Elementary S., Thibodaux
Lavigne, Patrocia U., 1, Nicholls S. C., Thibodaux
Lawrence, Betty P., 1, Broadmoor H. S., Baton Rouge
Lawrence, W. A., 3, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Lav, Mrs. O. M., 1, Northwestern S. C., Natchitoches
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LeBlanc, Elena R., 2, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
LeBlanc, Rayford, 2, Lafayette H. S., Lafayette
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Leurs, Charlotte, 1, Louisiana Tech., Ruston
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Lewis, Irma F., 1, Natchitoches H. S., Natchitoches
Lognoux, Shirley, 4, Hamilton Lab., Lafayette
Logan, Gerald D., 1, Francis T. Nichols S. C., Thibodaux
Long, J. Q., 2, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Langeandeck, Helen M., 1, U. of Southwestern Louisiana, Lafayette
Lovell, Jr., O. E., 3, Francis T. Nichols S. C., Thibodaux
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Lyons, Dan, 3, McNeese S. C., Lake Charles
Magee, Gretchen Kovac, 2, La Polytechnic Institute, Ruston
Maher, Patricia, 4, F. K. White H. S., Lake Charles
Marcel, Norman A., 3, Francis T. Nichols S. C., Thibodaux
Marcello, John J., 3, Francis T. Nichols S. C., Thibodaux
Marcotte, Lacy A., 2, Northwestern, Natchitoches
Marcus, Marie, 2, College of Education, LSU, New Orleans
Marks, Mrs. Robert J., 1, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Martin, C. A., 3, Parks Elementary S., Natchitoches

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Martin, Etta Mae, 1, Natchitoches H. S. Natchitoches
Martin, Inez, 1, Alice Boucher Elementary S., Lafayette
*Martin, John G., 3, Southeastern Louisiana C., Hammond
McDonal, G. E., 2, Loyola U., New Orleans
Meade, James V., 1, Crowley H. S., Crowley
Melton, Agnes L., 1, McNeese State College, Lake Charles
Mendes, Eva W., 1, Southwestern Louisiana, Lafayette
Merritt, Marjorie, 1, Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston
Miguel, John, 1, Southwestern Louisiana, Lafayette
Miller, Lois Ruth, 1, U. of Southern Louisiana, Lafayette
Mims, John J., 3, LaGrange Sr. H. S., Lake Charles
Mims, W. C., 1, Alice Boucher Elementary S., Lafayette
*Monia, Caroline B., 3, New Orleans S. C., New Orleans
Moore, Mrs. John C., 1, College Oaks Elementary S., Lake Charles
Moore, Mary Minnie, 1, McNeese S. C., Lake Charles
*Moran, Mrs. John G., 1, Brownfields S., Baton Rouge
*Moran, Katrina Bell, 1, Jefferson Terrace Elementary, Baton Rouge
*Moore, Mary, 1, McNeese S. C., Lake Charles
*Morris, Mary Ellen, 1, McNeese State College, Lake Charles
*Mourant, Mary, 1, McNeese S. C., Lake Charles
*Moulon, Marie Germaine, 1, Breaux Bridge
* Mullins, Virginia W., 1, Northeast Louisiana S. C., Monroe
*Munson, Lucile Beths, 1, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Murray, Cecile J., 1, Northwestern S. C., Natchitoches
Murphy, Isabel, 1, 5843 Fontainbleau Drive, New Orleans
Napper, James H., 1, Ruston H. S., Ruston
*Napier, James, 1, Ruston H. S., Ruston
Nelson, Izora, 1, Baton Rouge H. S., Baton Rouge
*Nelson, Mary E., 1, Northwestern S. S., Hammond
*Nelson, Miss, 1, McNeese S. C., Lake Charles
*Nelson, O. W., 3, Northwestern S. C., Natchitoches
*Nelson, Mrs. W. Taylor, 1, Southern Louisiana, Lafayette
*Nicholas, Edna W., 1, East Natchitoches Elementary S., Natchitoches
*Nicolet, John S., 1, Lake Charles H. S., Lake Charles
*Noble, Martha A., 2, Southern U., Baton Rouge
*Ochs, Martha G., 1, Southern U., Baton Rouge
*Oliver, Yvonne, 1, Cypress Springs S., Ruston
*O'Neal, Bernice, 1, Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston
*Orr, Aitha, 1, Southeastern Louisiana C., Hammond
*Osburn, Curtis R., 4, Northwestern State C., Natchitoches
Otwell, Mrs. E. W., 1, Northwestern S. C., Natchitoches
*Owens, Mrs. A. G. J., 1, Cypress Springs Elementary, Ruston
Owen, Jason H., 3, Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston
*Parks, Martha P., 1, East Natchitoches Elementary S., Natchitoches
*Patrick, T. L., 3, Tulane U., New Orleans
*Patton, Catherine, 3, 8917 Thelma Street, Baton Rouge
*Peake, Roland E., 2, U. of Southern Louisiana, Lafayette
Pendall, D. T., 3, McNeese S. C., Lake Charles
Perron, Jr., Frank, 2, McNeese State College, Lake Charles
*Philips, John, 2, 2803 Fontainbleau Drive, New Orleans
*Phillips, Mrs. J., 1, McNeese S. C., Lake Charles
*Pipes, Margaret, 1, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
*Pittman, Kathleen, 2, McNeese S. C., Lake Charles
Pittman, R. H., 3, McNeese S. C., Lake Charles
Poe, Virginia L., 4, Hamilton Laboratory, Lafayette
*Posey, Mary Lee, 1, Northwestern Elementary S., Natchitoches
Preggen, John Allen, 2, Carencro H. S., Carencro
*Pyburn, Mrs. LaVerne E., 1, Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston
*Pyburn, Mrs. LaVerne E., 1, Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston
Raulin, Edith Cavell, 1, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Rayburn, Mrs. Lyle E., 1, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Reese, Martha M., 1, 4 Orleans Parish School Board, New Orleans
Reuter, Christel, 1, Louisiana State U., New Orleans
Richard, Emily R., 1, Alice Forster Senior High S., New Orleans
*Richardson, Helen L., 2, Grambling College, Grambling
*Richardson, Maxine S., 1, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Richardson, Ruth, 1, McNeese State College, Natchitoches
Richardson, Ruth, 2, Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston
Riggen, W. M., 1, Louisiana State University, New Orleans
*Rives, Mrs. Roy Cole, 1, Northeast Louisiana C., Monroe
*Rizer, Elizabeth, 1, Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston
*Roberts, E. W., 1, McNeese State College, Lake Charles
Robinson, Gladys H., 2, U. of Southern Louisiana, Lafayette
*Robinson, Walter R., 2, U. of Southern Louisiana, Lafayette
*Robinson, Elzabeth D., 3, Grambling College, Grambling
*Roundtree, Mary Gayle, 1, Thibodaux Lower Elementary S., Thibodaux
Roussel, Virginia M., 1, Lafayette H. S., Lafayette
Roy, Margaret, 1, Scott H. S., Scott
*Sauls, Charles, 1, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge

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Schmidt, Mary, 2, Southern New Louisiana C., Hammond
Schneider, Barbara A., 1, Orleans Parish Public
Schumacher, E. D., Sulphur H. S., Sulphur
Schulte, Kathryn C., 1, Louisiana State U., New
Scott, Mrs. Leola R., 4, McKinley Jr. H. S., Baton Rouge
Sellers, Mrs. Frank H., 2, Loyola U., New
Sellers, Paul E., 1, F. M. Hamilton Lab., Lafayette
Shamba, Sylvia C., 1, Orleans Parish School Board, New Orleans
Shaw, Dorothy A., 1, Southern New Louisiana C., Metairie
Shaw, Mrs. Luther B., 2, Maudeville H. S., Madisonville
Shelby, Leo H., 2, L. S. U. Laboratory S., Baton Rouge
Shelton, Alice, 1, Southern New Louisiana C., Hammond
Shirey, Mary, 1, McNeese S. C., Lake Charles
Simmons, L. R., 1, Northwestern Louisiana C., Shreveport
Simms, A. F., 2, Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston
Simons, Gladys M., 2, McDonough Jr. H. S., New Orleans
Smiley, Merle C., 1, Broadmoor Sr. H. S., Baton Rouge
Smith, Mrs. George, 1, J. C. Ellis Elementary S., Metairie
Smith, Alice Brown, 2, Grambling C., Grambling
Smith, Arthur D., 2, Grambling C., Grambling
Smith, Cornelia P., 1, Lexington S., Monroe
Smith, Eula P., 4, 25th Street—7th Avenue, Baton Rouge
Smith, Harriet W., 4, Carencro H. S., Carencro
Smith, Hilda C., 2, Loyola U., New Orleans
Smith, Irene, 1, Northeast Louisiana C., Monroe
Smith, Violet, 1, F. X. White S., Lake Charles
Smith, William M., 2, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Smythe, Sara, 1, Southern New Louisiana C., Hammond
Smythe, Maude L., 1, Southern New Louisiana C., Hammond
Starr, Clarice, 1, LSU, 2400 Missouri Avenue, Metairie
Stauss, Norman J., 1, Thibodaux H. S., Thibodaux
Stewart, Leila F., 1, University Terrace, Baton Rouge
Stoll, Norma, 4, St. Mary's Parochial C., New Orleans
Sturmer, Barbara M., 2, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Sturmer, Jean B., 2, F. M. Hamilton Lab., Lafayette
Stratton, Jean B., 1, Southeastern Louisiana C., Hammond
Sykes, Robert J., 1, Thibodaux H. S., Thibodaux
Taylor, Mildred H., 2, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Taylor, Mrs. Raymond A., 1, Magnolia Woods S., Baton Rouge
Tedder, Jr., T. H., 2, Southeastern Louisiana C., Hammond
Thompson, Mrs. Bennie M., 1, Hillcrest Elementary S., Ruston
Thomson, Kathleen F., 1, Watson Jr. H. S., Lake Charles
Tinsley, Mrs. Gaynell, 2, Baton Rouge H. S., Baton Rouge
Tate, Mrs. A. M., 1, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Tomek, Mary Alma, 1, Northeast Louisiana C., Monroe
Toups, Emma, 1, LaFargue Elementary S., Thibodaux
Toups, Herbert, 2, F. T. Nicholls S. C., Thibodaux
Travis, Mina Carruth, 2, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Triller, George W., 1, Northwestern Jr. H. S., Natchitoches
Turner, Howard, 3, U. of Southwestern Louisiana, Lafayette
Valentine, Melba, 2, Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston
Veatch, Alice Anne, 1, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Wacey, Lucille G., 1, U. of Southwestern Louisiana, Lafayette
Vick, Mrs. Marine M., 1, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Walker, B. S., 4, Sulphur H. S., Sulphur
Wallace, Una Lee, 1, Quashita Jr. H. S., Monroe
Walley, Bertha, 2, McNeese State College, Lake Charles
Walters, Rita S., 4, F. K. White Jr. H. S., Lake Charles
Waguespack, Annie, 1, F. T. N. State College, Thibodaux
Waguespack, Marion, 1, Francis T. Nicholls S. C., Thibodaux
Ward, Mrs. Ralph O., 2, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Ward, Mrs. Sammie B., 1, Watson Jr. H. S., Lake Charles
Watkins, Ethel W., 1, McNeese S. C., Lake Charles
Watkins, Sabra, 1, U. of Southwestern Louisiana, Lafayette
Weaver, M. R., 1, East Natchitoches Elementary S., Natchitoches
Weber, Gladys, 1, Nicholls S. C., Thibodaux
Weimer, Charles E., 2, F. T. Nicholls S. C., Thibodaux
Weller, Mary F., 1, Northwestern Louisiana C., Natchitoches
Wells, Carl, 1, Southeastern Louisiana C., Hammond
White, Dorothy Claire, 2, Opelousas H. S., Opelousas
White, Marce, 4, Opelousas H. S., Opelousas
Whitten, Ebbie, 1, McNeese S. C., Lake Charles
Wilcox, Thomas J., 4, Southern Jr. H., Baton Rouge
Willerson, Dorothy D., 2, East Natchitoches Elementary S., Natchitoches
Williams, A. L., 4, Northwestern Louisiana C., Natchitoches
Williams, Frank, 4, Southern U., Baton Rouge
Wilson, Vane T., 1, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Wise, Henri Alice, 2, Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston
Wood, Mrs. Edna Earl, 1, Winbourne Elementary S., Baton Rouge
Woodward, M. T., 1, Northwestern Louisiana C., Natchitoches
Wood, Phyllis, 1, Louisiana State U., Baton Rouge
Warrell, Ann B., 1, Nicholls S. C., Lake Charles
Wortman, Ruby W., 1, Lafayette H., Lafayette

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LOUISIANA (continued)

*Watson, Thelma M., 3, Husson C., Bangor
*Reed, Clayton
*Billingham, William E., 4, Gorham S. C., Gorham
*Yancy, Mrs. Clyde, 1, Southern U., Baton Rouge

MAINE
*Billingham, William E., 4, Gorham S. C., Gorham
Low, Arlene F., 2, Farmington S. C., Farmington
*Reed, Clayton
*Billingham, William E., 4, Gorham S. C., Gorham
*Yancy, Mrs. Clyde, 1, Southern U., Baton Rouge

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*Barnes, Roland E., 4, Montgomery C., Public S., Rockville
Becker, Hilda P., 4, Essex Elementary S., Salte
Benziesky, Max, 4, Towson Town Jr. H. S., Towson
*Bowling, Martha E., 4, 6101 Teemle Street, Bethesda
*Bramblett, Ella, 2, Towson S. C., Baltimore
*Bryant, Faye, 2, Towson S. C., Towson
Burrier, Grayson S., 2, Towson S. C., Towson
Carter, Edith L., 1, Adelphi Elementary S., Adelphi
Chilcote, Barbara, 4, Hanlon Elementary S., Catonsville
Clement, Carolyn, 2, Salisbury S. C., Salisbury
Cohn, Elizabeth, 2, Towson S. C., Towson
*Coller, Richard E., 3, Montgomery C., Public S., Rockville
*Collins, James F., 3, U. of Maryland, College Park
*Cronin, Berenice, 1, Public S. #219 Yorkwood Road, Baltimore
*DeBruin, Rev. Edward, 3, Salvationary Educational Association, Lanham
*Dost, M. Katherine, 3, Board of Education, Baltimore County, Towson
*Farstein, Marvin, 3, Marigand S. C., Baltimore
*Fitzgerald, Regina L., 4, Towson S. C., Baltimore
*Fitch, James L., 1, Salisbury S. C., Salisbury
*Funkhouser, Beverly R., 3, U. of Maryland, College Park
Goldstein, Elizabeth B., 2, 304 Belton Road, Silver Spring
*Hampton, Margaret R., 3, Frostburg S. C., Frostburg
*Hagney, Genevieve, 3, Towson S. C., Towson
*Molen, Alice A., 2, Towson S. C., Towson
*Kier, Dell C., 2, Towson S. C., Baltimore
*Lochstamphor, Sarita, 2, Columbia Union C., Takoma Park
McCaulay, Virginia C., 2, 8700 Lowell Street, Bethesda
McNamara, Sister Justa, 2, St. Joseph C., Emmitsburg
Migliorini, Rose S., 4, Essex Elementary S., Essex
*Moore, Norman J., 3, Board of Education, Cecil County, Elkton
*Marrell, Jane L., 2, Gaucher C., Towson
*Naumann, Margaret P., 1, School #235, Baltimore
*Pickett, Mildred D., 2, U. of Maryland, College Park
Reese, M., 3, Maryland State Dept. of Education, Baltimore
Stevens, Leila, 4, Salisbury S. C., Salisbury

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*Reed, Clayton
*Billingham, William E., 4, Gorham S. C., Gorham
Low, Arlene F., 2, Farmington S. C., Farmington
*Reed, Clayton
*Billingham, William E., 4, Gorham S. C., Gorham
*Yancy, Mrs. Clyde, 1, Southern U., Baton Rouge

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Arez, Nancy L., 3, Morgan S. C., Baltimore
*Barnes, Roland E., 4, Montgomery C., Public S., Rockville
Becker, Hilda P., 4, Essex Elementary S., Salte
Benziesky, Max, 4, Towson Town Jr. H. S., Towson
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*Bramblett, Ella, 2, Towson S. C., Baltimore
*Bryant, Faye, 2, Towson S. C., Towson
Burrier, Grayson S., 2, Towson S. C., Towson
Carter, Edith L., 1, Adelphi Elementary S., Adelphi
Chilcote, Barbara, 4, Hanlon Elementary S., Catonsville
Clement, Carolyn, 2, Salisbury S. C., Salisbury
Cohn, Elizabeth, 2, Towson S. C., Towson
*Coller, Richard E., 3, Montgomery C., Public S., Rockville
*Collins, James F., 3, U. of Maryland, College Park
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*Dost, M. Katherine, 3, Board of Education, Baltimore County, Towson
*Farstein, Marvin, 3, Marigand S. C., Baltimore
*Fitzgerald, Regina L., 4, Towson S. C., Baltimore
*Fitch, James L., 1, Salisbury S. C., Salisbury
*Funkhouser, Beverly R., 3, U. of Maryland, College Park
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*Hampton, Margaret R., 3, Frostburg S. C., Frostburg
*Hagney, Genevieve, 3, Towson S. C., Towson
*Molen, Alice A., 2, Towson S. C., Towson
*Kier, Dell C., 2, Towson S. C., Baltimore
*Lochstamphor, Sarita, 2, Columbia Union C., Takoma Park
McCaulay, Virginia C., 2, 8700 Lowell Street, Bethesda
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Migliorini, Rose S., 4, Essex Elementary S., Essex
*Moore, Norman J., 3, Board of Education, Cecil County, Elkton
*Marrell, Jane L., 2, Gaucher C., Towson
*Naumann, Margaret P., 1, School #235, Baltimore
*Pickett, Mildred D., 2, U. of Maryland, College Park
Reese, M., 3, Maryland State Dept. of Education, Baltimore
Stevens, Leila, 4, Salisbury S. C., Salisbury

MASSACHUSETTS
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*Anderson, Harry V., 3, Boston U., Boston
*Barnes, Roland E., 4, Montgomery C., Public S., Rockville
*Becker, Hilda P., 4, Essex Elementary S., Salte
*Benzie, Max, 4, Towson Town Jr. H. S., Towson
*Bowling, Martha E., 4, 6101 Teemle Street, Bethesda
*Bramblett, Ella, 2, Towson S. C., Baltimore
*Bryant, Faye, 2, Towson S. C., Towson
*Burrier, Grayson S., 2, Towson S. C., Towson
*Carter, Edith L., 1, Adelphi Elementary S., Adelphi
*Chilcote, Barbara, 4, Hanlon Elementary S., Catonsville
*Clement, Carolyn, 2, Salisbury S. C., Salisbury
*Cohn, Elizabeth, 2, Towson S. C., Towson
*Coller, Richard E., 3, Montgomery C., Public S., Rockville
*Collins, James F., 3, U. of Maryland, College Park
*Cronin, Berenice, 1, Public S. #219 Yorkwood Road, Baltimore
*DeBruin, Rev. Edward, 3, Salvationary Educational Association, Lanham
*Dost, M. Katherine, 3, Board of Education, Baltimore County, Towson
*Farstein, Marvin, 3, Marigand S. C., Baltimore
*Fitzgerald, Regina L., 4, Towson S. C., Baltimore
*Fitch, James L., 1, Salisbury S. C., Salisbury
*Funkhouser, Beverly R., 3, U. of Maryland, College Park
*Goldstein, Elizabeth B., 2, 304 Belton Road, Silver Spring
*Hampton, Margaret R., 3, Frostburg S. C., Frostburg
*Hagney, Genevieve, 3, Towson S. C., Towson
*Molen, Alice A., 2, Towson S. C., Towson
*Kier, Dell C., 2, Towson S. C., Baltimore
*Lochstamphor, Sarita, 2, Columbia Union C., Takoma Park
McCaulay, Virginia C., 2, 8700 Lowell Street, Bethesda
McNamara, Sister Justa, 2, St. Joseph C., Emmitsburg
*Migliorini, Rose S., 4, Essex Elementary S., Essex
*Moore, Norman J., 3, Board of Education, Cecil County, Elkton
*Marrell, Jane L., 2, Gaucher C., Towson
*Naumann, Margaret P., 1, School #235, Baltimore
*Pickett, Mildred D., 2, U. of Maryland, College Park
Reese, M., 3, Maryland State Dept. of Education, Baltimore
Stevens, Leila, 4, Salisbury S. C., Salisbury

*Comprehensive membership
Cooper, Virginia A., 4, Eastern Michigan U., Ypsilanti
*Coûtler, Robert W., 3, Port Huron Area S. Dist., Port Huron
*Coûtler, Virginia 4, Flint Public S., Flint
*Crane, Robert, 3, Lincoln Consolidated S., Ypsilanti
*Cunningham, Lawrence, 4, Martin S., Flint
*Curtis, William J., 4, Wayne State L., Detroit
*Czuchna, Carl G., 3, Kalamazoo Public S., Kalamazoo
*Dahlem, Margaret, 2, Michigan State U., Jackson
*Davenport, William R., 3, U. of Michigan, Flint
*David, Hugo J., 2, Michigan State U., Benton Harbor
*Davis, Dawn Y., 1, Michigan State, Pontiac
*Davis, Ronald J., 1, Junior H. S., Mt. Pleasant
*Davis, Larry G., 3, Rudyard Twp. School District #1, Rudyard
*Dawson, Luther, 4, Lincoln S., Flint
*Dehneke, Ronald E., 2, Wayne State U., Detroit
*Denslow, Donna E., 2, Central Michigan U., Mt. Pleasant
*Dick, Sarah, 1, Franklin H. S., Livonia
*DiGiovanni, Dominie, 4, John F. Kennedy Center, Kalamazoo
*Dirkse, Lamont, 2, Hope College, Holland
*Dickow, Francis, 3, Ishpeming H. S., Ishpeming
*Dirks, Richard, 4, Carpenter Road S., Flint
*Doehring, Mrs. Harry W., 1, Saginaw Twp. Community S., Saginaw
*Dow, Clyde W., 2, Michigan State U., East Lansing
*Dow, Ruby P., 1, Cedar Lake Road Elem., S. 1, Oscoda
*Elder, Gladys, 4, Pioneer S., Flint
*Elbrick, Richard, 4, Dort S., Flint
*Eibler, Herbert John, 2, U. of Michigan, Ann Arbor
*Elliot, Jane Griffith, 4, Michigan State U., East Lansing
*Ellsworth, Ruth E., 2, Wayne State U., Detroit
*Engelhardt, Evelyn G., 1, Burns S., Ann Arbor
*Enich, Mildred, 4, Soult. Marie H. S., South Ste. Marie
*Esplin, Julia H., 3, U. of Detroit, Detroit
*South, Gloria 4, Flint Community S., Flint
*Feeney, Adele, 3, New Berry Elementary S., Detroit
*Fench, Arlene, 1, Bruce S., Southfield
*Feldt, Mrs. Charles A., 4, Jefferson Intermediate S., Milford
*Fraser, David W., 2, Western Michigan U., Kalamazoo
*French, Sophie L., 2, Eastern Michigan U., Ypsilanti
*Gabler, June, 2, Oakland U., Rochester
*Gabrielle, Sister M., 2, Marygrove C., Detroit
*Gabrielle, Sister M., 3, Nazareth C., Nazareth
*Gallagher, Ann L., 2, Central Michigan U., Mt. Pleasant
*Garber, John, 4, Northern H. S., Flint
*Gates, Mary Frances, 2, Eastern Michigan U., Ypsilanti
*Gelbert, Gene A., 4, Alpena Public S., Alpena
*Giguere, Betty, 2, Wayne State U., Detroit
*Gilbert, Marion L., 2, Central Michigan U., Mt. Pleasant
*Giger, Paul, 4, Parkland S., Flint
*Goddard, David T., 2, Central Michigan U., Mt. Pleasant
*Goodman, Yetta M., 4, Wayne State U., Detroit
*Gorr, Mary, 4, Cummings S., Flint
*Gott, Margaret, 2, Central Michigan U., Mt. Pleasant
*Green, Kenneth, 4, Flint Community S., Flint
**Michigan (continued)**

*Hokalo, W. Albert, 2, Central Michigan U., Mt. Pleasant
Hollis, W. Leona, 2, Michigan State U., East Lansing
Hollis, Sedley D., 3, Alma C., Alma
Hamilton, Jean F., 2, Wayne State U., Detroit
Hanes, Ray C., 2, Central Michigan U., Mt. Pleasant
Hartley, Elizabeth, 3, Alma C., Alma
Heller, Irene K., 2, U. of Michigan, Ann Arbor
Hendricks, William, 2, Calvin C., Grand Rapids
Henkel, John L., 3, Eastern Michigan U., Ypsilanti
Herring, Thomas, 4, Southwestern H. S., Flint
Hicks, W. Vernon, 3, Michigan State U., East Lansing
Higginbotham, Janet, 4, Mackin Road S., Flint
Hines, Donald A., 4, Calvin Jr. High & Elementary S., Flint
Hitch, Robert L., 4, Ferris S. C., Big Rapids
Hoenig, Dennis, 2, Calvin C., Grand Rapids
Hoehn, Robert, 2, Eastern Michigan U., Ypsilanti
Hood, Margarette V., 2, U. of Michigan, Ann Arbor
Hoke, Mildred, 3, Kalamazoo Public S., Kalamazoo
Hosie, Lois, 4, Pierson S., Flint
Hungerman, Ann D., 2, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor
Hyry, Helen M., 2, Eastern Michigan U., Ypsilanti
Ingersoll, Phyllis, 1, St. Louis Public S., St. Louis
Inman, Gerald D., 2, Springfield Public S.—Michigan State U., Battle Creek
Jacobson, Carl V., 2, Spring Arbor C., Spring Arbor
Jappin, Fred, 3, Administration Offices, Haslett
Jennings, Helen, 2, Western Michigan U., Kalamazoo
Johnson, Elaine M., 1, Iron Mountain Public S., Iron Mountain
Johnson, Nellie 1, Northern Michigan U., Marquette
Johnson, Patrick J., 2, Wayne State U., Detroit
Johnston, Paul, 4, 13125 Farmington Road, Livonia
Jostan, Alice L., 4, Public S., Midland
Jostan, R. Edward, 2, Traverse City Public S., Traverse City
Jones, Donald B., 4, Dewey S., Flint
Jung, Charlotte W., 2, Wayne State U., Detroit
Kain, Norcie, 4, Emerson Jr., H. S., Flint
Kaye, Clement L., 4, Wayne State U., Detroit
Kellogg, Erna Belle, 3, Michigan State U., Lansing
Kennedy, W. Henry, 2, Michigan State U., East Lansing
Kerber, James E., 2, Wayne State U., Detroit
Kidd, Irving W., 1, Mt. Pleasant H. S., Mt. Pleasant
King, Barbara S., 2, Central Michigan U., Mt. Pleasant
King, Dorothy J., 4, Thumbville S., Jackson
King, Helen M., 4, Wayne State U., Detroit
Kirkwood, Gertrude S., 3, Detroit Public S., Detroit
Koplin, Eldon A., 3, Northern Michigan U., Marquette
Kovach, Edna, 2, U. of Michigan, Ann Arbor
Kunkel, Donald, 2, Michigan State U., East Lansing

*Comprehensive membership*
MICHIGAN (continued)

Mullally, Monica Mae, 3, Wayne State U., Detroit
*Murphy, Harriet, 1, Board of Education Administra tion Office, Saginaw
*Murphy, Helen, 4, Merrill S., Flint
*Murphy, George R., 2, Michigan State U., East Lansing
Myer, M. Everett, 2, Western Michigan U., Kalamazoo
Myhrum, Walton B., 2, Alma C., Alma
*Noah, Elton, John V., 2, U. of Detroit, Detroit
*Nash, Curtis E., 3, Central Michigan U., Mt. Pleasant
*Nelson, Genevo, 1, U. of Michigan, Ann Arbor
*Nelson, Sharlene, 1, Andrews U., Berrien Springs
*Newman, Elizabeth, 4, Walker S., Flint
*Nikula, Eugene M., 3, St. Louis Public S., St. Louis
*Noch, George D., 1, High School, Mt. Pleasant
*Noren, Sister Mary, 1, Immaculate Heart of Mary S., Detroit
North, Vera D., 1, Eastern Michigan U., Ypsilanti
Northway, Thomas W., 1, Mt. Pleasant H. S., Mt. Pleasant
Nowak, Arlene T., 2, U. of Detroit, Detroit
*Oana, Robert G., 4, Mary St. S., Flint
*Olszewski, Vincent, 4, Holmes Jr. H. S., Grand Rapids
*Olsen, Hans C., 2, Wayne State U., Detroit
*Olsen, Roy, 4, Hazelton S., Flint
*Olszewski, Vincent, 4, Holmes Jr. H. S., Flint
*Oppewal, Donald, 3, Calvin C., Grand Rapids
*Orrick, Dorothy, 3, Ann Arbor Public S., Ann Arbor
*Owen, George H., 3, Detroit Public S., Detroit
*Patri, Virginia C., 2, Northern Michigan U., Marquette
*Patterson, Findlay C., 3, U. of Michigan, Ann Arbor
*Patel, Maxine H., 2, U. of Michigan Flint C., Flint
*Peters, Douglas, 3, Kalamazoo C., Kalamazoo
*Petersen, Robert J., 4, Cedar Crest S., Greeneville
*Peterson, Vincent J., 4, Mercy C. of Detroit, Detroit
*Phillips John M., 2, Michigan State U., East Lansing
*Phillips, Winifred, 1, Harrison Elementary S., Harrison
*Pinel, Mabel D., 4, Central H. S., Flint
*Piotrowski, Catherine, 4, Michigan State U., Bay City
*Pomfret, Cyril, 4, Parksfield H. S., Jackson
*Porretti, Louis F., 3, Eastern Michigan U., Ypsilanti
*Porter, Jean T., 2, Olivet C., Olivet
*Pratley, Robert Bruce, 1, Public S. of Jackson, Jackson
*Protheroe, Donald W., 2, Wayne State U., Detroit
*Pugh, Albert, 2, Central Michigan U., Mt. Pleasant
*Purifoy, Jr., Cecil E., 4, Michigan State U., East Lansing
*Quick, Alan F., 2, Central Michigan U., Mt. Pleasant
*Ray, William J., 2, Wayne State U., Detroit
*Reed, Catherine R., 2, Michigan State U., Ypsilanti
*Relly, Howard E., 3, Wayne State U., Detroit
*Reist, Mabel, 1, Emerson S., Saginaw

*Rhodes, Paul F., 1, Central Jr. H. S., Saginaw
*Rich, Dorothy, 4, Jackson H. S., Jackson
*Richards, George H., 3, Okemos Public S., Okemos
*Richards, Robert K., 3, Negaunee H. S., Negaunee
*Richter, Jo A., 1, Eastern Elementary S., Traverse City
*Richter, Roderic E., 2, Oakland U., Rochester
*Risk, Beverly, 2, Eastern Michigan U., Ypsilanti
*Robichaud, Hamilton J., 3, U. of Detroit, Detroit
*Robinson, Bernice, 4, Coolidge S., Flint
*Robinson, Lois, 2, Western Michigan U., Kalamazoo
*Robinson, Doris M., 1, Central Michigan U., Mt. Pleasant
*Rockefeller, Martha L., 1, Dearborn Public S., Dearborn
*Rodda, Robert, 4, Bryant Jr. H. S., Flint
*Rogers, Agnes L., 2, Eastern Michigan U., Ypsilanti
*Roett, Gayle, 4, Potter S., Flint
*Rudd, Melford, 4, Zimmerman Jr. H. S. & Elementary, Flint
*Ruman, Edward L., 3, Northern Michigan U., Marquette
*Russell, Freeman, 4, Portage Public S., Portage
*Russell, Vera Jean, 1, Western Michigan U., Kalamazoo
*Saur, Ruth E., 1, Marshall Elementary S., Detroit
*Schacht, Elmer J., 2, Wayne State U., Detroit
*Schliff, Charles E., 1, Dearborn Public S., Dearborn
*Schneidt, Robert H., 2, Michigan State U., Battle Creek
*Schroeder, Esther D., 2, Western Michigan U., Kalamazoo
*Schroeder, William H., 1, Central Jr. H. S., Saginaw
*Scheiter, Clara M., 1, Michigan State U., East Lansing
*Schwartz, Louis J., 4, Freeman S., Flint
*Seabury, A. L., 3, Western Michigan U., Kalamazoo
*Seabury, Marcia V., 1, Portage S., Kalamazoo
*Sebaly, A. L., 3, Western Michigan U., Kalamazoo
*Sebaly, Marcia V.
*Sebaly, A. L., 3, Western Michigan U., Kalamazoo
*Sebaly, A. L., 3, Western Michigan U., Kalamazoo
*Sebaly, Marcia V.
*Sebaly, A. L., 3, Western Michigan U., Kalamazoo
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*Sebaly, Marcia V.
*Sebaly, A. L., 3, Western Michigan U., Kalamazoo
*Sebaly, Marcia V.
*Sebaly, A. L., 3, Western Michigan U., Kalamazoo
*Sebaly, Marcia V.
MICHIGAN (continued)

Shapiro, Kenneth W., 2, Eastern Michigan U., Ypsilanti
Steg, Helen B., 3, Mt. Pleasant Public S., Mt. Pleasant
*Steller, Carl, 4, Selby S., Flint
Stephens, Helen, 1, Central Michigan U., Mt. Pleasant
Steele, Marie E., 1, Dearborn Bd. of Education, Dearborn
*Stone, Alton R., 4, Holt Public S., Holt
*Stroyn, H. R., 3, Central Michigan U., Mt. Pleasant
*Suzor, Helen T., 3, Wayne State U., Detroit
Sutton, Edwin, 1, Iven C. Kincheloe Elementary S., Caseville
Sweet, Mrs. Elmine, 1, Mt. Pleasant H. S., Mt. Pleasant
*Sweet, Phyllis, 4, Sharp Park S., Jackson
Taylor, Dorothy, 2, Wayne State U., Detroit
*Taylor, Wayne, 2, Michigan State U., East Lansing
Telfer, Harold E., 2, Central Michigan U., Mt. Pleasant
Teller, Nancy N., 3, Mt. Pleasant H. S., Mt. Pleasant
*Thomas, Beverly, 4, Jefferson C., Detroit
Thomas, Sister Mary, 2, Mercy C., Detroit
Tropea, Lola Ferrara, 1, McKinley Elementary S., Gary
*Tulloch, Merle L., 2, U. of Michigan, Ann Arbor
*Van Burggen, John A., 2, Calvin C., Grand Rapids
*Vander Ark, Gertrude, 2, Calvin C., Grand Rapids
*Vander Linde, Louis, 2, Wayne State U., Detroit
*Vieau, Laura, 4, Flint Community S., Flint
Von Cranach, K., 4, Community S., Chicago
*Vredenburgh, Joseph, 4, U. of Michigan, Ann Arbor
*Walsh, William J., 2, Michigan State U., East Lansing
*Warren, E. Louise, 2, U. of Minnesota, Morris
*Ward, Ted, 3, Michigan State U., East Lansing
Welch, Ann Louise, 1, Central Michigan C., Mt. Pleasant
*Whitman, John, 4, Holt Public S., Holt
*Wells, Phillip G., 2, Eastern Michigan U., Ypsilanti
*Werbach, Madeline R., 4, Roosevelt S., Detroit
*Wernetta, Nola, 3, Ann Arbor Trail Elementary S., Detroit
*West, Carol, 4, Flint Community S., Flint
*Westfalk, Roberta, 2, Western Michigan U., Kalamazoo
*Wetmore, Shirley E., 1, Snow S., Dearborn
*Whelan, Joanne, 2, Michigan State U., Battle Creek
*Wheelhouse, Helen, 4, Flint Public S., Flint
*Williams, Joanne A., 1, Wayne State U., Detroit
*Williams, Forrest, 2, Central Michigan U., Mt. Pleasant
*Williams, Laura E., 2, U. of Michigan, Ann Arbor
*Wilson, Roland, 2, Marygrove C., Monroe
*Winters, Harold, 4, East Jr. H. S., Jackson
*Wisniewski, M. G., 2, Wayne State U., Detroit
Wolfanski, Alice, 1, Wayne State U., Detroit
*Wotring, C. Jarvis, 2, Central Michigan U., Mt. Pleasant

**Membership List — 1965-1966**

MINNESOTA

*Alford, Brother L., 4, St. Mary's C., Winona
*Almon, Mrs. Kerman, 4, Route 2, Near Moorhead
*Anderson, Beverly O., 1, Concordia C., Moorhead
*Andurs, James, 4, Hamline Jr. H. S., Minneapolis
*Bartz, Albert, 4, 1118 South River Drive, Moorhead
*Bath, Marshall G., 3, College of St. Thomas, St. Paul
*Benjamin, Roland, 4, New Hope Elementary S., Minneapolis
*Bergstrom, Mrs. Harold, 4, 1312—6th Avenue S., Moorhead
*Bjork, Pearl C., 3, Concordia C., Moorhead
*Bohr, Robert L., 1, U. of Minnesota, Minneapolis
*Brekke, Gerald N., 2, Gustavus Adolphus C., St. Peter
*Brown, Arlo, 2, Moorhead S. C., Moorhead
*Bruning, Charles R., 4, U. of Minnesota, Morris
*Bryant, Merle L., 2, U. of Minnesota, Duluth
*Butts, Justin, 4, Excelsior Elementary S., Excelsior
*Butter, Clifford P., 1, Valleyview Elementary S., Minneapolis
*Campbell, Evelyn L., 4, St. Cloud S. C., St. Cloud
*Carlson, Vincent, 4, Crystal Heights S., Minneapolis
*Carpeniento, Alice, 4, 1910—6th Street South, Moorhead
*Christianson, Bertha, 1, Bemidji S. C., Bemidji
*Churchill, Donald W., 3, Bemidji S. C., Bemidji
*Ciecrtherowski, Theresa, 1, Silver Lake Elementary S., Columbia Heights
*Cole, Thomas M., 2, College of St. Benedict, St. Joseph
*Courtice, Elmer N., 2, St. Cloud S. C., St. Cloud
*Cummer, Charles, 4, North Jr. H. S., Moorhead
*Curta, E. Louise, 2, U. of Minnesota, Morris
*Dawe, William H., 3, Moorhead S. C., Moorhead
*Dado, Harold, 3, Concordia C., Moorhead
*DuCharme, Marcy, 1, Moorhead S. C., Moorhead
*Ellingson, Donald, 1, Moorhead S. C., Moorhead
*Ellis, Thomas, 4, Sandburg Jr. H. S., Minneapolis
*Emmings, Carol, 4, Garden City Elementary S., Minneapolis
*English, Alice M., 2, State College, St. Cloud
*Erlandson, Roger L., 2, U. of Minnesota, Duluth
*Fair, Jeanette, 4, Adair, Minneapolis
*Finchbloom, M. F., 2, St. Cloud S. C., St. Cloud
*Folke, Norm, 4, Sabih Elementary S., Sabin
*Furholt, Marvin, 2, Shadow Hill S., Minneapolis
*Furshman, William, 4, Sunny Hollow S., Minneapolis
*Gemeinhart, William C., 4, Winona S. C., Winona
*Gitzen, Carolyn J., 2, U. of Minnesota, Minneapolis
*Greene, Mildred, 4, Bemidji S. C., Bemidji
*Gringsen, Agnes, 1, Jefferson S., Rochester
*Gregerson, Gracie, 4, Moorhead S. C., Moorhead
*Gravel, Donald G., 4, St. Cloud S. C., St. Cloud
*Gravine, Daniel, 4, 1307—13th Avenue South, Moorhead
*Gustafson, Leslie J., 3, St. Olaf C., Northfield
*Hansen, Stewart, 3, St. John's U., Collegeville
*Hanson, Ruth A., 1, Moorhead S. C., Moorhead
*Hanlon, Wilva W., 1, Moorhead S. C., Moorhead
*Hansen, Arnold, 3, U. of Minnesota, Minneapolis
*Hanmin, Dean E., 3, U. of Minnesota, Minneapolis
*Hanson, Boyd, 2, Princeton Elementary S., Princeton
*Horne, Robert M., 2, St. Cloud S. C., St. Cloud
*Irvis, Keith, 4, Lee S., Minneapolis
*Johnson, Nora C., 4, Jr. H. S. Elk River
*Johnson, David C., 4, U. of Minnesota, Minneapolis
*Johnson, Jay, 1, Sharp S., Moorhead

*Comprehensive membership.
**MINNESOTA (continued)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Organization</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stienstra, Cliff</td>
<td>Moorhead</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sederburg, M. E.</td>
<td>U. of Minnesota, Duluth</td>
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<td>Schaub, Myrtle G.</td>
<td>U. of Minnesota, Duluth</td>
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<td>Schauland, Melba D.</td>
<td>U. of Minnesota, Duluth</td>
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<td>Russell, Mary</td>
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<td>Reeder,</td>
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<tr>
<td>Perry, Floyd</td>
<td>St. Cloud Lake Public S., Minneapolis</td>
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<tr>
<td>Olson, Robert</td>
<td>4, 7-8th Avenue South, Moorhead</td>
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<tr>
<td>Olson, Kenneth</td>
<td>1, Orchard School System, Moorhead</td>
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<td>Mattson, Kenneth</td>
<td>Mankato</td>
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<td>McCormack, Dorothy</td>
<td>Palmer Lake Elementary S., Minneapolis</td>
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<td>Melby, Harald</td>
<td>Groveland Elementary S., Minneapolis</td>
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<td>Meyers, Gerhardt</td>
<td>Concordia C., St. Paul</td>
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<td>Midthun, Elaine</td>
<td>2, Clear Springs Elementary S., Minneapolis</td>
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<td>Meikes, Milo</td>
<td>1, Robbinsdale Elementary S., Minneapolis</td>
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<td>Morgan, Gerald</td>
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<td>Mark, Gordon M. A.</td>
<td>U. of Minnesota, Minneapolis</td>
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<td>Mueller, Luther</td>
<td>Concordia C., St. Paul</td>
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<td>Nelson, Mrs. Nafath</td>
<td>Mankato</td>
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<td>Nesvold, Alice</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nesvold, Bettsi T.</td>
<td>Mankato</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**MISSOURI**

- Bender, Kenneth R., 4, U. of Missouri, University
- Buck, J. R., 3, Missouri Valley S. C., Clinton
- Campbell, C. L., 3, U. of Southern Missouri, State College
- Clark, Ann W., 2, William Carey C., Hattiesburg
- Farr, Eugene L., 4, Southern Miss. Coll., Vicksburg
- Higgins, Mayme P., 2, Jackson C., Jackson
- Jacob, H. J., 3, Delta S. C., Cleveland
- Martin, Eunice B., 2, Alcorn A. & M. Coll., Lorman
- McRae, Betty, 2, Jackson C., Jackson
- Pence, Margaret L., 3, Mississippi State U., State College
- Perry, Lenore, 4, Mississippi Valley S. C. for Women
- prott, Robert L., 3, Alcorn A. & M. Coll., Lorman
- Thompson, James R., 3, Mississippi State U., State College
- Trice, J. Y., 3, East H. S., Fulton
- White, Ralph L., 2, Mississippi Southern C., Hattiesburg
- Witty, Elaine, 3, Jackson S. C., Jackson

**MISSOURI**

- Adams, Georgia B., 2, Southeast Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
- Allen, Doyle, 4, Southwestern Missouri S. C., Springfield
- Armbruster, Virginia, 4, Central Institute for the Deaf, St. Louis
- Banks, Marjorie Ann, 2, Lindenwood C., St. Charles
- Bannor, Caralyn, 2, Lincoln U., Jefferson City
- Bartoletti, Sister Anna, 4, Webster Groves
- Behrens, John A., 2, Southeast Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
- Bell, Mildred F., 4, Central Missouri State U., State College
- Bradley, Theodora, 2, Central Missouri S. C., Warrensburg
- Bronner, Elder L., 2, Central Missouri S. C., Warrensburg
- Brock, Raymond R., 2, Missouri Valley C., Marshall

*Apprenticeship membership*
MISSOURI (continued)

Brooks, Edith H., 1, Central Missouri S. C., Warrensburg
Bush, William Jack, 2, Southwest Missouri S. C., Springfield
*Calton, Georgia, 4, Springfield Public S., Springfield
Campbell, Celeste P., 2, William Woods C., Fulton
*Casey, Martha S., 1, Harris T. C., St. Louis
*Cooksey, Sheila Rae, 2, Southeast Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
Chiles, Lutie, 2, William Jewell C., Liberty
Clark, Bonnie B., 1, North Rock Creek S., Kansas City
*Closter, Grant, 3, Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory, Kansas City
*Connor, William H., 3, Washington U., St. Louis
*Conway, William H., 3, Washington U., St. Louis
*Copley, Patrick J., 3, U. of Missouri, St. Louis
*Cooksey, Ronald R., 2, U. of Missouri, Kansas City
*Davison, Ella, 2, William Jewell C., Liberty
*DeWulf, Bernard G., 4, Lindenwood C., St. Charles
*Duff, Emmett E., 1, Southeast Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
Duguay, A. G., 1, Scott City Public S., Scott City
*Ehrlich, D., 1, Cape Girardeau
*Ford, L. E., 2, William Woods C., Fulton
*Fouad, Mrs. Wayne, 1, Southeast Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
*Ferguson, D. A., 3, Tarkio Public S., Tarkio
*Fields, Gene E., 2, Central Missouri S. C., Warrensburg
Finch, Mary Ellen, 4, Washington U. of St. Louis
Findley, Carrie H., 1, Southeast Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
*Furay, Carol, 4, Fontbonne C., St. Louis
*Garett, Pauline O., 2, U. of Missouri, Columbia
*Ghan, Lawrence J., 1, Stafford School District 276, Stafford
*Gilbert, Charles, 1, Central Missouri S. C., Warrensburg
*Gilbert, Edward J., 3, Southeast Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
*Glass, Fred W., 3, Southeast Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
*Gloriet, Lyle D., 2, Southern Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
*Grisbrough, Paul A., 3, Central Methodist C., Springfield
*Hale, Charles W., 3, Southeast Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
*Hansel, H. L., 3, Southeast Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
*Harrell, Helen B., 2, Southwest Baptist C., Bolivar
*Harwell, John Earl, 3, Southwest Baptist C., Bolivar
*Hartley, Mrs. John Earl, 4, Southwest Baptist C., Bolivar
*Hepfer, Frank, 3, U. of Missouri, Columbia
*Hedges, Mary Helen, 2, Fontbonne C., St. Louis
*Helin, Pauline, 1, Mark Twain Public S., Brantwood
Heinlein, Mildred, 4, Springfield Public S., Springfield
Henderson, Jesse G., 2, Southeast Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
Henderson, Perry B., 4, U. of Missouri, St. Louis
Heyman, John J., 2, Central Missouri S. C., Warrensburg
*Hill, Eugene, 2, Central Missouri S. C., Warrensburg
Hopkins, Bertha A., 1, Central Missouri S. C., Warrensburg
Huff, Blanche, 2, Southeast Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
Hull, Louise, 4, N. Kickapoo S., Springfield
Hunt, Donald L., 1, S. E. Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
*Hutches, C. L., 3, S. Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
*Huley, Phineas, 3, William Jewell C., Liberty
*Johnson, Paul R., 3, Lebanon Public S., Lebanon
*Kaufman, Roberta M., 4, R-7 Lee's Summit S., Lee's Summit
*Kelling, Rosina M., 2, S. E. Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
*McAfee, Cleo Wilson, 3, S. E. Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
Mallory, Ferrell, T., Buffalo S., Buffalo
Marshall, Robert, 2, Central Missouri S. C., Warrensburg
*Mason, Barbara K., 4, Woodlawn S., Kansas City
*Mats, Todd, 4, Ozark M. S., Ozark
*Mawhinney, Paul E., 3, Southeast Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
*McReynolds, Grace M., 2, N. E. Missouri S. T. C., Kirkville
*Miller, Frank L., 3, N. W. Missouri S. C., Maryville
*Mitchell, Edna M., 2, William Jewell C., Liberty
Morgan, William J., 2, S. E. Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
Mosby, Fern, 4, Bowerman S., Springfield
*Mussey, Mildred L., 2, S. E. Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
*Nahretoe, Gary, 2, U.M.K.C., Kansas City
*Nicholas, Ivan C., 3, School Dist. of the City of Lodao, St. Louis
*Preuss, Anne, 1, Central Missouri S. C., Warrensburg
*Rogersdale, Mistie J., 1, S. E. Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
*Rieckbrock, Fred A., 2, Central Missouri S. C., Warrensburg
Roberson, Nora, 4, South East Public S., Warrensburg
Robinson, Hansel M., 4, S. E. Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
Robinson, Russell V., 2, S. W. Missouri S. C., Springfield
*Rutherford, William L., 3, Tarkio C., Tarkio
Schneider, Phyllis, 4, Glendale H. S., Springfield
*Schoott, Marion S., 3, Central Missouri S. C., Warrensburg
*Seener, James H., 3, Lincoln U., Jefferson City
Sheets, Helen Kasten, 1, S. E. Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
*Shirley, Todd W., 2, Central Missouri S. C., Warrensburg
*Sidell, Harry J., 3, S. W. Missouri S. C., Springfield
*Simmons, Audrey Ann, 4, Central Institute for the Deaf, St. Louis
Sim, Evelyn Louise, 4, Central Missouri S. C., Warrensburg
*Smith, Veda L., 1, S. E. Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
*Southall, Carey T., 3, U. of Missouri, Columbia
*Stanton, Jon Tom, 3, Mountain Grove District R-3, Mountain Grove
*Strobel, Gertrude E., 4, Cape Girardeau
*Stuart, Alvin J., 4, Culver-Stockton C., Canton
*Teachout, Dale, 1, Dexter H. S., Dexter
*Thomas, Glen A., 1, S. W. Missouri S. C., Springfield
*Twynman, J., 3, Southeast Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
*Vitaleto, J. O., 2, Central Missouri S. C., Warrensburg
Walther, Grace L., 3, Evangel C., Springfield
Wind, Imogene M., 2, S. E. Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
*Wiles, Vernon V., 2, Central Missouri S. C., Warrensburg
*Wills, John E., 2, Central Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau

*Comprehensive membership

Horton, Mrs. John Earl, 4, Southwest Baptist C., Bolivar
*Muir, Martha, 2, Missouri State University, Springfield
*Muir, Margaret, 1, Central Missouri S. C., Warrensburg
*Muir, William, 1, Central Missouri S. C., Warrensburg
*Muir, Mrs. John Earl, 4, Southwest Baptist C., Bolivar
*Muir, Mrs. John Earl, 4, Southwest Baptist C., Bolivar
*Moore, Margaret, 2, William Jewell C., Liberty
*Moore, Mary, 2, William Jewell C., Liberty
*Moore, George, 2, William Jewell C., Liberty
*Moore, Robert, 2, William Jewell C., Liberty
*Moore, Paul, 2, William Jewell C., Liberty
*Moore, Mary, 2, William Jewell C., Liberty
*Moore, Mrs. John Earl, 4, Southwest Baptist C., Bolivar
*Moore, Mrs. John Earl, 4, Southwest Baptist C., Bolivar
MISSOURI (continued)
*Cimbere, Dorothy K., 2, 2823 Berry Lane, Kansas City
Wood, Wayne, 4, S. E. Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
Wright, Floyd K., 2, S. E. Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
Wright, Janie, 1, S. E. Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
Wyatt, Wendell, 1, S. E. Missouri S. C., Cape Girardeau
Zeno, Sister Mary, 3, Notre Dame C., St. Louis

MONTANA
*Carleton, Linus J., 3, U. of Montana, Missoula
Cumming, J. R., 2, Western Montana C., Dillon
Erickson, G. V., 3, Montana State College, Bozeman
*Eickman, Ruth I., 3, Lincoln Public S., Lincoln
Melton, Emma L., 2, Eastern Montana C., Billings
Oberto, Angelina, 2, Montana S. C., Bozeman

NEBRASKA
Anderson, Morris L., 2, Wayne S. C., Wayne
Armstrong, Charles L., 1, U. of Nebraska, Lincoln
Davis, Harold B., 2, Kearney S. C., Kearney
Duckson, Elenor F., 2, Concordia T. C., Seward
Eickman, Ruth I., 2, Lincoln Public S., Lincoln
Einspahr, Glenn C., 3, Concordia T. C., Seward
Ellis, Sister Mary, 1, C. of St. Mary, Omaha
Elliott, Mary Ella, 3, Chadron S. C., Chadron
Enkelman, Amanda C., 2, Concordia T. C., Seward
Gehring, Russell D., 3, U. of Omaha, Omaha
Grubb, M. John, 4, Lincoln Public S., Lincoln
Harron, Russell W., 3, Loup City Public S., Loup City
Harris, Judith R., 3, Hastings C., Hastings
Hindekirch, William F., 2, Concordia T. C., Seward
Helgeson, Erich E., 2, Concordia T. C., Seward
Horning, Leora N., 2, U. of Nebraska, Lincoln
Johnson, Josephine, 1, West Ward Elementary, Chadron
Kerry, Paul C., 3, U. of Omaha, Omaha
Koch, Harold H., 3, Chadron S. C., Chadron
Kohler, Vernon, 2, Concordia T. C., Seward
Kreutz, Shirley M., 2, U. of Nebraska, Lincoln
Lamoreux, Arville, 2, Wayne S. C., Wayne
McCormack, Anne L., 1, Chadron Public S., Chadron
McCreight, Russell W., 2, U. of Nebraska, Lincoln
McClean, Howard W., 2, Wayne State C., Wayne
Miller, Elmer E., 1, Chadron Public S., Chadron
Jones, Kenneth L., 4, Kearney S. C., Kearney
O'Connor, Edward B., 3, Creighton U., Omaha
Pease, Lillian, 1, Meadow Lane S., Lincoln
Press, William J., 3, Concordia T. C., Seward
Ross, B. E., 3, Wayne S. C., Wayne
Rutledge, James A., 2, U. of Nebraska, Lincoln
Schmidt, Veining E., 2, Concordia T. C., Seward
Seeger, Alan T., 4, U. of Nebraska, Lincoln
Seward, Robert P., 4, Hastings C., Hastings
Silver, F. M., 2, Kearney S. C., Kearney
Simonton, Geraldine, 1, Chadron Public S., Chadron
Skow, Lyle L., 2, Wayne S. C., Wayne
Skok, Louise, 1, Headway C., Lincoln
Sower, Robert L., 3, Concordia T. C., Seward

*Comprehensive membership

STOUTEMYER, Mamie, Kearney
STUTTERT, Wilma 2, Kearney S. C., Kearney
Vothauer, Royce H., 2, Chadron S. C., Chadron
Walker, Cecil E., 3, Midland C., Fremont
Walter, Louise, 2, Hastings C., Hastings
Waterman, Floyd T., 2, U. of Omaha, Omaha
Webb, Arleta W., 2, Kearney Public S., Kearney
Wilke, Irene M., 2, Chadron Public S., Chadron
Wilms, Paul D., 2, Kearney S. C., Kearney
Wilson, nostril J., 2, Nebraska Wesleyan U., Lincoln

NEVADA
*Call, E. J., 3, U. of Nevada, Reno
*Hingik, Halbert H., 3, Nevada Southern U., Las Vegas
*McNamar, Grace D., 1, Vegas Verdes S., Las Vegas
*Phelps, Arthur T., 3, U. of Nevada, Reno
*Pickel, Patricia A., 2, U. of Nevada, Reno

NEW HAMPSHIRE
*Heise, Shirley C., 4, Keene T. C., Keene
*Kingbury, Dorothy F., 2, Keene S. C., Keene
*Knightly, Albert P., 3, Keene T. C., Keene
*Rosset, Louis L., 4, Keene S. C., Keene
*Schwendon, Madeline T., 2, New England C., Hanover
*Shankman, Florence V., 2, Keene S. C., Keene
*Tuppy, Philip C., 3, Plymouth S. C., Plymouth

NEW JERSEY
*Adams, Mary Lou, 1, Union Avenue S., Margate
*Adrian, Sister Mary, 3, Georgian Court C., Lakewood
*Alvino, Frances C., 1, Flemington Raritan Elementary S., Flemington
*Amen, Sister Mary, 2, Caldwell College for Women, Caldwell
*Anthony, Sister Mary, 3, Caldwell C., Caldwell
*Archibald John L., 1, Somerville S., Ridgewood
*Barrett, Patrackel L., 1, Middletown Twp. Public S., East Orange
*Baxter, Lindy C., 1, New York U., New Paltz
*Beech, Ruth, 4, Montclair S. C., Upper Montclair
*Beumann, Annie, 2, Mannum C., New Jersey
*Becker, Mary C., 3, Newark S. C., Union
*Binkowski, William J., 3, 7, Edward Place, West Trenton
*Blind, Alfred W., 2, Franklin Twp., Franklinville
*Brice, edward, 2, Glassboro S. C., Glassboro
*Browall, L. Ward, 2, Glassboro S. C., Glassboro
*Brower, Clk Jan, 3, Trenton S. C., Trenton
*Buatsch, Gabriel A., 1, Glassboro S. C., Glassboro
*Cardina, Philip J., 4, Mannum C., Long Branch
*Carro, Alden J., 2, Bloomfield C., Bloomfield
*Cassidy, Vivian, 3, Newark S. C., Newark
*Clark, Leon H., 2, Jersey City S. C., Jersey City
*Cleveland, Ray W., 7, Jersey City S. C., Jersey City
*Cogan, Victor, 3, Glassboro S. C., Glassboro
*Gould, Stanley B., 1, Freehold Reg. H., S., Freehold
*Gobbi, Daniel J., 3, Willard S., Ridgewood
*Greene, Katheryn, 2, Mannum C., West Long Branch
*Dittmore, Jr., Paul, 3, School 29, Clifton
*Epple, Kathleen M., 3, Newark S. C., Keyport
*Eichner, Edward, 4, Westminter Chair C., Princeton
*Fly, Laurence E., 2, Trenton S. C., Trenton
*Fern, Ruth E., 2, Paterson S. C., Wayne
*Fossey, Harry W., 2, Newark S. C., Union
*Franz, Evelyn B., 2, Newark S. C., Union
*Frazier, Doris F., 1, Glassboro S. C., Glassboro
*Garb, Regina H., 2, Newark S. C., Union
NEW JERSEY (continued)
*Gatheny, Norman A., 3, Bridgewater-Raritan School Dis., Raritan
*Giescke, Mildred L., 2, Board of Education, Ridgewood
*Gibert, John Henry, 3, Monmouth Coll., W. Long Branch
Gleason, Wallace F., 3, Plainfield H. S., Plainfield
*Goble, S. E., 3, Maplewood School, South Orange
*Gotwald, Nancy A., 4, Upsala C., East Orange
*Graham, Little B., 2, New York U., New York
*Grippaldi, Charles J., 3, Ocean Twp. School, Ogdensburg
Hohn, Frederick E., 2, Upsala C., East Orange
*Hayward, W. George, 3, 21 W. 22nd St., New York
*Henderson, Peter L., 3, Paterson H. S., Wayne
*Howe, James B., 4, Newark State Coll., Union
*Jeffries, Derwin J., 2, Trenton S. C., Trenton
*Jeffries, Derwin J., 2, Trenton State Coll., Trenton
*Jels, E. Donald, 3, Bergenfield Public S., Bergenfield
*Kathleen, Sister Mary, 3, Caldwell C. for Women, Caldwell
*Kline, Michael S., 3, Trenton S. C., Trenton
*Koch, Mary Evans, 3, Union Street S., Ridgewood
*Kreps, Martin H., 3, East Windsor High School Dist., Hightstown
*Lair, Christine D., 1, Trenton S. C., Trenton
*Lauden, Arthur V., 3, Glen S., Ridgewood
*Leibig, Jacques H., 3, Newark S. C., Union
*Love, Frederick Perry, 1, Glassboro S. C., Glassboro
*Luccarelli, Ann, 1, Sycamore Drive S., Hazlet
*Maggio, Samuel, 3, W. W. Travels S., Ridgewood
*Mancuso, Leonard L., 2, Glassboro S. C., Glassboro
*Marchese, Roger, 2, Edward H. Bryan S., Cresskill
*Martino, Sister Francis, 2, C. of St. Elizabeth, Convent Station
*Martin, Sara W., 1, Mt. St. Mary's C., Upper Montclair
*McKinley, Joseph A., 4, Bd. of Education, Williamstown
*McKinnon, Ethel, 3,Dist. of East Windsor, Hightstown
*Mclaughlin, Elsie S., 1, Franklin S., Bergenfield
*Mcllhaney, Lenore W., 2, Trenton S. C., Trenton
*McKee, Agnes M., 2, Upsala C., Ridgewood
*Meda, Mrs. Anna M., 2, Sycamore Drive S., Hazlet
*Melia, Sister Mary, 4, C. of St. Rose, Albany
*Menage, Jean D., 2, Upsala C., East Orange
*Miller, Harry, 3, Nut Swamps S., Red Bank
*Mills, John P., 3, Newark S. C., Union
*Morgan, Abraham, 2, Jersey City S. C., Jersey City
*Nurnberg, Beverly A., 2, Glassboro S. C., Glassboro
*Ostry, Joseph S., 2, Monmouth Coll., W. Long Branch
*Rudolph, Evelyn, 4, Middletown Twp. Public S., Middletown
*Rystrom, J. Kenneth, 3, Upsala C., East Orange
*Rystrom, Laura, 2, Newark S. C., Union
*Sala, Arthur E., 4, Monmouth Coll., West Long Branch
*Sauersbrunn, Helen M., 2, Howell Twp. Schools, Howell
*Sawbridge, Beverly M., 2, Douglass C., New Brunswick
*Schatzman, Aaron H., 2, Monmouth Coll., West Long Branch

NEW MEXICO
*Gregory, John V., 2, Eastern New Mexico U., Portales
*Hendrix, Berenice, 2, New Mexico State U., University Park
*Johnston, Donald P., 4, U. of New Mexico, Albuquerque
*McDonald, John, 2, New Mexico State U., University Park
*Ringe, W. B., 3, U. of New Mexico, Albuquerque
*Suarez, Jack, 3, New Mexico State U., University Park
*Seecher, Hazel, 2, Western New Mexico U., Silver City

NEW YORK
*Alldrich, Thea, 1, New York U., Fredonia
*Althouse, Leo J., 2, S. U. C., Fredonia
*Allen, Arthur E., 4, Brooklyn C. of City U., Brooklyn
*Alverson, Philip L., 2, S. U. of New York, Buffalo
*Amster, Kathleen, 2, S. U. C., Buffalo
*Amstutz, Mary P., 1, Bugbee & Olgren
*Anderson, Susan M., 2, S. U. of St. Rose, Albany
*Anderson, Robert N., 3, S. U. C., Albany
*Anderson, Mary Alice, 2, S. U. C., Oneonta
*Anderson, William A., 4, Maine-Endwell Central S. Dist., Endwell
*Andrews, Wendell B., 4, City S. Dist., Schenectady
*Angelillo, David, 3, St. Catherine Infant Home, Albany
*Armstrong, Vincent C., 2, S. U. C., Buffalo
*Arnold, Dorothy, 2, S. U. C., Cortland
*Arthur, Sister Mary, 3, Mercy C., Dobbs Ferry
*Augustine, Sister Rose, 2, Brentwood C., Brentwood
*Avery, Donna Jean, 1, S. U. C., Plattsburgh
*Baukamp, Freda M., 2, S. U. C., Albany
*Baulch, Miriam, 2, S. U. of Buffalo
*Bailey, Mrs. B. H., 4, Hunter C., New York
*Bailey, Kathryn E., 1, Maryvale Jr. H. S., Lackawanna
*Bechert, Katherine B., 2, S. U. T. C., New Paltz
*Berne, Donald J., 4, Chemung Valley Central S., Binghamton
*Bennett, Normand R., 4, Columbia U., T. C., New York
*Block, Esther A., 4, S. U. C., Brockport

*Consortium members
Boquist, Robert D., 2, S. U. C., New Peitz
Bleecher, Harvey, 2, S. U. C., Plattsburgh
Black, John H., NEW YORK (continued)

Coolidge, Frank line
Clicquennoi, Kenneth, 3, Alfred-Almond Central
Christians. Donald, 2, S. U. C., Brockport
Charles, Sister Mary, 2, Mount Saint Mary C.,
Cavoures, Dorothy, 2, Hunter C., New York
Caramia, John A., 2, S. U. C., Plattsburgh

Burke, Edward A., I, Hobart
Bubb, Roy Lewis,
Browne, Marguerite H., 2, S. U. C., Brockport
Brooks, Bernice D., 2, Queens C., Flushing
Broadbent, Frank W., 2, U. of Rochester, Rochester
Brooks, Bernice D., 2, Queens C., Flushing
Brown, Thomas J., 2, Hofstra C., Hemstead, Long Island

Browne, Margaret H., 2, S. U. C., Brockport
Bubb, Roy Lewis, 1, S. U. C., Brockport
Burke, Edward A., 1, Hobart
Butler, H. Virginia, 2, S. U. C., Buffalo
Connolly, Michael, 2, S. U. C., Plattsburgh
Caramia, John A., 2, S. U. C., Plattsburgh
Cavoures, Dorothy, 2, Hunter C., New York
Charles, Sister Mary, 2, Mount Saint Mary C., Buffalo

Christians, Donald, 2, S. U. C., Brockport
Clarke, F. June, 2, S. U. C., Buffalo
Clausen, Robert, 2, New York U., New York
Clawson, Harry L., 2, State U. of New York, Albany
Clemens, Clare, 3, Bank Street C. of Education Library, New York
Clemons, Kenneth, 3, Alfred-Almond Central S., Almond
Cohan, Sali, 4, T. C., Columba U., New York
Coaldge, Frankline E., 2, S. U. of New York, Cortland
Corrigan, Dean, 3, U. of Rochester, Rochester
Cortright, Ruth E., 2, S. U. C., Cortland
Cotton, William, 3, S. U. C., Geneseo
Cranford, Mary Francis, 4, Chenango Forks Central S., Chenango Forks
Craze, Eileen M., 4, Mahawk Central S., Mohawk
Crews, Katherine, 2, Eastman S. of Music, Rochester
Curtis, Mary Joy, 2, Syracuse U., Syracuse
D'Agostino, Jeanette C., 2, S. U. C., Brockport
Domaschke, Margaret G., 2, S. U. C., Skaneateles
Davis, Hazel Grubis, 2, Queens C., Flushing
Dellal iso, Maude E., 1, Draper S., Schenectady
DeGelise, R. R., 3, Delaware Academy & Central S., Delhi
Depue, Paul J., 2, S. U. C., Cortland
Dever, Gertrude K., 2, Hunter C., New York
Dodge, Mildred, 2, S. U. C., Oneonta
Eaton, Inez D., 1, Cooperstown Central S., Cooperstown
Eichman, William D., 4, Honeoye Falls Central S., Honeoye Falls
Endsley, Laura J., 3, Rosendale S., Schenectady
Engelhardt, Sister M. Verance, 3, Maria Regina C., Syracuse
Erlanda, Iolita, 2, S. U. C., Oneonta
Erie, Joseph, 2, S. U. C., New York
Farley, Barbara J., 2, S. U. C., Geneseo
Farrell, Margaret, 2, State U. of New York, Albany
Faul, Naomi H., 2, Queens C., Flushing
Fenley, Jr., George A., 2, S. U. C., New York
Ferrari, Mary Ann, 2, S. U. of New York, Albany
Fischie, Mildred J., 4, S. U. C., Buffalo
Fitch, Richard C., 2, S. U. C., Brockport
Fleck, Henrietta, 3, New York U., New York

Foster, Dorothy E., 2, Brockport S. T. C., Brockport
Fraser, Dorothy M., 2, Hunter C. of C. U. N. Y., New York
Francie, Mrs. G. R., 2, Glovesville S., Glovesville
Ulmer, Doris, 2, Hofstra U., Hempstead

Ful, Harold, 2, Queens C., Flushing
Gaffney, Robert, 2, S. U. C., Oneonta
Gallagher, Catherine M., 1, S. U. C., Oneonta
Gallo, Sue, Margaret L., S. U. of New York, Albany
Galloway, Henry, 3, Chenango Valley Central S., Binghamton
Garland, Calden B., 2, U. of Rochester, Rochester
Giles, Margaret H., 1, Holcomb Campus S., S. U. C., Geneseo
Granito, John A., 3, New York Education Dept., Albany
Gray, Dorothy, 2, Queens C., Flushing
Grayson, Jr., William H., 2, Brockport District, Brockport
Green, Alice B., 1, West Winfield Central, West Winfield
Green, Edward T., 3, Rondout Valley Central S., Accord
Griffith, Charles D., 3,Jefferson H. S., Rochester
Grob, Ralph N., 2, S. U. C., Plattsburgh
Haggie, Catherine M., 2, S. U. C., New Rochelle
Hackett, Paul F., 2, S. U. C., Plattsburgh
Hadden, Earl H., 3, Harts Hill Elementary S., Whitesboro
Haley, May, 4, Chenango Valley Central S., Binghamton
Hapoy, Kenneth F., 2, S. U. C., Plattsburgh
Haffen, Carvel S., 3, S. U. C., Buffalo
Heidebergh, Ruth Ann, 2, 400 West 119 Street, New York
Heming, Hilten P., 3, S. U. C., Plattsburgh
Hessler, Eleanor, 4, Fordham U., New York
Hill, Norman J., 2, S. U. C., Brockport
Hoecke, Shirley, 1, S. U. C., Potsdam
House, Anne, 1, Oneonta Consolidated S., Oneonta
Hubbard, Esther H., 1, U. S. C., Oneonta
Huffmire, John A., 1, Dodge Elementary S., East Amherst
Johnson, Bernice R., 4, Blandywine S., Schenectady
Johnson, Evelyn S., 1, Elementary S. Canadagua
Johnson, Helen, 2, S. U. C., Clinton Central S., Ham- burg
Johnson, Ruth B., 2, S. C. of St. Rose, Albany
Janes, Lloyd, 2, Hofstra C., Hempstead
Justian, Bernard F., 3, S. U. C., Oneonta
Kaplan, Leonard, 4, S. U. C., Buffalo
Keanen, Kathleen N., 4, S. U. C., Brockport
Kellerhause, Jr., Kenneth D., 1, S. U. C., Oneonta
Kemp, Lenore, 4, S. U. C., Buffalo
Kein, Barbara D., 3, Campus S., Brockport
Klepper, James J., 2, S. U. of New York, Albany
Klebaner, Ruth Perelman, 2, Brooklyn C., Brooklyn
Knapp, Dorothy, 4, Chenango Valley Central S., Binghamton
Knee, Sidney M., 2, S. U. C., New Paltz
Koschman, Philip, 3, S. U. of New York, Frodonia
Kuhmherger, Lisa, 2, Hunter C., New York
Lachance, Annette L., 1, S. U. C., Plattsburgh
Laggatt, Nichols P., 3, S. U. C., Geneseo
Lake, Doris S., 4, S. U. C., Oneonta
Lamb, Mildred L., 2, S. U. C., Potsdam
Lamb, Paul H., 2, S. U. C., Potsdam
Lee, Eleanor E., 2, U. of Rochester, Rochester
Lawson, Dorothy, 1, Valleyview Elementary S., Oneonta

*Comprehensive membership
NEW YORK (continued)

*Lindberg, Lucille, 2, Queens C., Flushing.
*Lindberg, Lucy L., 4, Elmont Road, Elmont.
*Lindley, Margaret, 2, T. C., Columbia U., New York.
*Littledfield, Mildred, 4, Chenango Valley Central S., Binghamton.
*Lobdell, Lawrence O., 3, Clear Stream Ave., S., Dellray Beach.
*Lakken, Anna Mae, 1, Great Neck South Jr. H. S., Great Neck.
*Ludes, Matthew J., 1, S. U. C., Syracuse.
*Mackey, Frank, 4, S. U. C., Buffalo.
*MacArthur, Mary, 2, S. U. C., Fredonia.
*Magnavita, Frances, 1, S. U. of New York, Fredonia.
*Martin, Betty B., 1, Margaretville Central S., Margaretville.
*Martin, Helen B., 1, West End-Ellers Elementary S., Rotterdam Junction.
*Mastrolia, Mary, 2, S. U. C., Brockport.
*Matoba, K., 3, Skidmore C., Saratoga Springs.
*McArdle, Margaret, 2, S. U. C., New Paltz.
*McAnuff, John J., 1, S. U. C., Great Neck.
*McBride, Mary E., 3, Skidmore C., Saratoga Springs.
*McCaffery, Barbara, 2, S. U. C., Geneseo.
*McCarthy, Keith S., 1, S. U. C., Oneonta.
*McGeach, Dorothy M., 3, T. C., Columbia U., New York.
*Mcke, Helen C., 1, S. U. of New York, Fredonia.
*Mckinley, Ruth I., 1, S. U. C., Oneonta.
*Mickle, Thomas, 3, Middle Island Central S., Middle Island.
*Mills, Mildred B., 1, S. U. C., Fredonia.
*Milner, Ernest J., 3, Syracuse U., Syracuse.
*Mink, H. N., 1, Cleveland Hill South Elementary S., Buffalo.
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*Morriss, Judith, 2, S. U. C., Cortland.
*Morganstern, Ann, 3, Hofstra U., Hempstead.
*Markel, Rose, 2, Brooklyn C., Brooklyn.
*Murphy, J. Brian, 2, S. U. C., Fredonia.
*Nardella, Anna, 1, Shaker Road Elementary S., Albany.
*Nettleton, Marion I., 3, State Education Dept., Rochester.
*Nestle, William B., 2, S. U. C., Brockport.
*Nocka, Sona, 4, S. U. C., Potsdam.
*Novelli, Donald M., 3, S. U. C., Brockport.
*Olmsted, Elizabeth P., 2, S. U. C., E., Geneseo.
*Oster, Ruth Ellen, 3, State Education Dept., Albany.
*Page, Raymond W., 4, S. U. C., Oneonta.
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*Paterson, Nancy, 4, Chenango Valley Central S., Binghamton.
*Pearce, Richard C., 2, S. U. C., Buffalo.
*Phillips, Anna, 2, Dominican C., Blauvelt.
*Plesek, Leonard J., 2, S. U. C., Buffalo.
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*Robinson, Lila C., 4, S. U. C., Brockport.
*Rose, Mrs. Charles G., 2, S. U. C., Oswego.
*Rosano, Sister Regina, 3, St. Thomas Aquinas C., Sparkill.
*Roseman, Ruth V., 2, City C., New York.
*Rosenblatt, Lester, 2, Queens C., Flushing.
*Bud, Olive C., 2, S. U. C., Oswego.
*Sarah, Marion H., 2, State U. T. C., Oneonta.
*Schwartz, Sheila, 1, S. U. C., New Paltz.
*Scanlan, Mary J., 2, Westfield Public S., Westfield.
*Selman, Eli, 4, S. U. of New York, Stony Brook.
*Seiersten, Marie E., 2, S. U. C., Oneonta.
*Shepard, J. P., 3, Skidmore C., Saratoga Springs.
*Sherman, Helen E., 2, Queens C., Flushing.
*Shratt, Dean E., 4, Susquehanna Valley S., Canfield.
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*Smith, Frances H., 2, Keuka C., Keuka Park.
*Smith, Helen T., 2, S. U. at Cortland, Cortland.
*Smith, Mrs. Reynolds W., 4, S. U. Oswego.
*Sore, Marion R., 2, State U. T. C., Oneonta.
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*Stanley, Beth B., 1, Primary S., Canandaigua.
*Stengel, Harvey, 2, S. U. C., Cortland.
*Stenzel, Elizabeth H., 4, Manhattanville C. of the Sacred Heart, Purchase.
*Stephenson, Lucy W., 2, Rosary Hill C., Buffalo.
*Stevens, Lilian L., 4, S. U. C., New Paltz.
*Stoklosa, Glenn B., 2, S. U. C., Oneonta.
*Stuart, Helen T., 3, Southampton C., Southampton.
*Summerville, Marjorie W., 2, Brooklyn C., Brooklyn.
*Sykaitis, Elizabeth M., Kuehne, 1, S. U. C., Brockport.
*Tarbell, Carolyn G., 2, Schenectady Public S., Schenectady.
*Tarbox, Florence H., 2, D’Youville C., Buffalo.
*Tarrent, Warren, 4, Administration Bldg., Schenectady.
*Therese, Sister Madeline, 4, Nazareth C., Rochester.
*Therese, Sister Michael, 1, Mt. St. Joseph T. C., Buffalo.
*Thibodeau, Armand E., 2, Queens C., Flushing.
*Timothy, Sister Mary, 3, Brentwood C., Brentwood.
*Ticknor, Stewart H. W., 2, T. C., Columbia U., New York.
*Travers, Mrs. J. M., 4, Gayhead Elementary S., Wauponsies Falls.
*Trail, Nicholas F., 3, S. U. C., Plattsburgh.
*Tuys, Frances S., 4, S. U. C., Buffalo.
*VanDelinder, Lucille M., 1, #33 S., Rochester.
*VanDelinder, Jr., Roy E., 1, Monroe H. S., Rochester.
NEW YORK (continued)
*Van Haer, Lloyd, 3, Bay Road Elementary S., Webster
*Voris, George A., 2, S. U. C., Oneonta
Wald, Raldo, 3, S. U. C., New Paltz, Buffalo
Walder, Calvin H., 2, The King's C., Briarcliff Manor
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*Werle, Henry D., 3, Hyde Park Central S., Hyde Park
*Weaver, William J., 2, S. U. C., Buffalo
*Ware, Inez, 2, S. U. C., Buffalo
*Wardeberg, Helen, 2, Cornell U., Ithaca

NORTH CAROLINA
*Bailey, Harold M., 3, Guilford C., Greensboro
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*Chappell, Annie J., 1, Wurl Coates S., Greenville
*Cooper, Jean D., 2, North Carolina C., Durham
*Davis, Lloyd H., 3, Johnson C. Smith U., Charlotte
*Feltin, Elizabeth B., 1, West Carolina C., Cullowhee
*Fenwall, Kara Lynn, 4, East Carolina C., Greenville
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*Foster, William, 3, Clara Barton Elementary S., Fargo
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NORTH DAKOTA (continued)

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*Dunn, Thelma, 2, Wittenberg U., Springfield
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*Sister Mary Rose, 2, Our Lady of Cincinnati

Adams, Floyd M., 4, Cleveland State U., Cleveland
Handy, Ronald W., 2, Ohio U., Athens
Graham, William D., 2, Ohio U., Athens
Bereit, Virginia F., 2, Baldwin-Wallace C., Berea
Hargrave, Ruth, 3, Central S. C., Wilberforce
Handy, Ronald W., 2, Ohio State U., Columbus
Haws, Robert W., 2, Ohio State U., Columbus
Hamilton, Herbert M., 2, Miami U., Oxford
Fehl, Mrs. Meeker, 1, Chillicothe Public School

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*Johnson, Monroe, 2, Ohio U., Athens
*Johnson, Hester Jane, 2, Kent State U., Kent
*Johnson, Lucy, 2, Kent State U., Kent
*Joanne, Sister M., 3, St. John C., Cleveland
*Kemp, L. P., 2, Malone C., Canton
*Kevin, Sister Mary, 2, Our Lady of Cincinnati C., Cincinnati

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Leary, Daniel L., 3, U of Dayton, Dayton
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Malitte, Carrie H., 3, Central State C., Wilberforce
Marsh, Jeanette, 2, Kent State U., Kent
McCormick, Cara Lee, 4, Kent State U., Kent

*Metzger, Jr., Mrs. Meeker, 1, Chillicothe Public School
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*Miller, W. W., 2, Bluffton C., Bluffton
*Montebello, Mary S., 4, Capital U., Columbus
*Moore, Rose W., 3, Heidelberg C., Tiffin
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*Donlon, James, 2, Ohio U., Athens
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*O'Neil, Sister Mary, 3, Notre Dame C., Cleveland
*O'Malley, Dorothy G., 2, U. of Toledo, Toledo
*Olszewski, Margaret E., 2, Kent State U., Kent
*Rodgers, James E., 2, Ohio U., Athens
*Rowan, Alice, 1, Ohio U., Athens
*Saxe, Richard W., 2, U. of Toledo, Toledo
*Schroeder, Suzanne E., 2, Ohio U., Columbus
*Selker, Beatriz, 2, Ohio U., Athens
*Sim, Bernice, 3, Central State C., Wilberforce
Simms, Naomi, 2, Kent State U., Kent
*Szymanski, John E., 3, Wittenberg U., Springfield
*Smith, Len K., 1, Ohio U., Athens
*Smith, Robert J., 2, Kent State U., Kent
*Smith, Van W., 2, The Defiance C., Defiance
*Starks, Esther B., 1, Ohio U., Athens
*Staufer, Mildred, 2, Otterbein C., Westerville
*Stein, Gertrude E., 1, Wittenberg C., Springfield
*Stevenson, John B., 2, Capital U., Columbus
*Stone, Curtis C., 2, Kent State U., Kent
*Swope, Donald B., 2, Baldwin Wallace C., Berea
*Stevenson, John B., 2, Capital U., Columbus
*Thompson, Albert, 2, Kent State U., Kent
*Thompson, Barbara, 2, Ohio U., Athens
*Thompson, James H., 4, Ohio U., Athens
*Thuma, Mary, 2, Ashland C., Ashland
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*Ullmann, Florence E., 2, Ohio U., Athens
*Verheuven, Mary, 2, Kent State U., Kent
*Weisenbach, Camilla, 1, Plains Elementary School, Athens
*Williams, Herman, 2, Heidelberg C., Tiffin
*Williams, Rosemary, 1, McKinley H. S., Canton
OHIO (continued)

*Lohmann, Della, *Oklahoma S. U., Stillwater
*Guess, George T., *Central S. C., Edmond
*Downing, Carl, *Cozine, June, *Oklahoma S. U., Stillwater
*Mullins, J. Dale, *Central S. C., Edmond
*Woo ley, W. T., *Baldwin-Wallace C., Berea
*Wilson, James C., 2, 1005 Gilchrist Street, Brilli-

OREGON

*Adams, James A., 3, Northeastern S. C., Toh-
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>City</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kohlhepp, May E.</td>
<td>Indiana S. C.</td>
<td>Indiana</td>
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<td>Kazimer, Rosemary C.</td>
<td>Marywood C., Scranton</td>
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<td>Johnson, Warren I.</td>
<td>Bloomsburg S. C., Bloomsburg</td>
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<td>Jack, Harold K.</td>
<td>Temple U., Philadelphia</td>
<td>Philadelphia</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kullkow, Joseph J.</td>
<td>California S. C., California</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lang, Patricia S.</td>
<td>445 Waupelini Drive, Apt. C-26,</td>
<td>State College</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lawn, John J.</td>
<td>St. Joseph’s C., Philadelphia</td>
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<td>Lennon, Lawrence J.</td>
<td>U. of Scranton, Scranton</td>
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<td>Leo, Sister Mary M.</td>
<td>Immaculata C., Immaculata</td>
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<td>Lensen, Reta</td>
<td>3, Seton Hill C., Greensburg</td>
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<td>Lingenfelter, Dorothy</td>
<td>1, Indiana S. C., Indiana</td>
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<td>Lingren, Vernon C.</td>
<td>U. of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh</td>
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<td>Lott, P. D.</td>
<td>3, State College, Pittsburh</td>
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<td>Lovette, Joanne P.</td>
<td>Indiana S. C., Indiana</td>
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<td>Luco, Richard H.</td>
<td>2, State College, East Stroud</td>
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<td>Luebke, Margaret</td>
<td>Pennsylvania S. U., University</td>
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<td>Manford, Floyd S.</td>
<td>Mansfield S. C., Mansfield</td>
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<td>Mangerum, Katherine A.</td>
<td>2, West Chester S. C., West Chester</td>
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<td>Manick, Dorothy</td>
<td>2, U. of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh</td>
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<td>Marsh, Ruth H.</td>
<td>Mansfield S. C., Mansfield</td>
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<td>Martin, Lillian G.</td>
<td>1, Indiana S. C., Indiana</td>
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<td>Marks, Bertha F.</td>
<td>2, Saltsburg Public S., Saltsburg</td>
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<td>Mary, Sister Margaret</td>
<td>4, Gwynedd-Mercy C., Gwynedd</td>
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<td>Mattis, Anthony J.</td>
<td>4, California S. C., California</td>
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<td>Mauer, Warren M.</td>
<td>3, Dickinson C., Dept. of Education, Carlisle</td>
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<td>Maurette, James E.</td>
<td>2, Saltsburg S.</td>
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<td>Maw, Ethel Wildy</td>
<td>Bryn Maw C., Bryn Maw</td>
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<td>McCormick, Margaret E.</td>
<td>2, Bloomburg S. C., Bloomburg</td>
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<td>McClure, Ethel Isabella</td>
<td>2, West Chester S. C., West Chester</td>
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<td>McCormick, A. C.</td>
<td>3, Thiel C., Greensville</td>
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<td>McCafferty, Margaret M.</td>
<td>2, Slippery Rock S. C., Slippery Rock</td>
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<td>McVitty, Claire C.</td>
<td>1, Benjamin Franklin Jt. S.,</td>
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<td>Nelson, Carol</td>
<td>2, Millersville S. C., Millersville</td>
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<td>Mengle, Mildred P.</td>
<td>Mansfield S. C., Mansfield</td>
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<td>Minto, Virginia,</td>
<td>1, California S. T. C., California</td>
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<td>Mowry, Margaret</td>
<td>Mary Louise, 1, Greater Greensburg S. C. S. S. M.</td>
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<td>Murphy, Elizabeth S.</td>
<td>Markwood C., Scratchon</td>
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<td>Narron, Dawn R.</td>
<td>2, Temple U., Philadelphia</td>
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<td>Neuhard, Robert</td>
<td>4, Pennsylvania S. U., University</td>
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<td>Neumann, Kathleen A.</td>
<td>2, Duquesne U., Pittsburh</td>
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<td>Oaks, Carl</td>
<td>2, Indiana S. C., Indiana</td>
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<td>Page, William J.</td>
<td>3, Muhlenberg S., Clarion</td>
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<tr>
<td>Patterson, Allen D.</td>
<td>4, 445 Waupelini Drive, Apt. C-26,</td>
<td>State College</td>
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<tr>
<td>Paul, Sister Mary M.</td>
<td>3, Mt. Marcy C., Pittsburgh</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pino, Bruno J.</td>
<td>1, Penn Mann Joint School District, Clymer</td>
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<td>Pittman, Shirley A.</td>
<td>1, Slippery Rock S. C., Slippery Rock</td>
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<td>Pollard, Luella</td>
<td>2, Grove City C., Grove City</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*Comprehensive membership.
MEMBERSHIP LIST — 1965-1966

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*Snover, Christine, 1, California S. C., California
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*Beck, Dorothy, 2, Black Hills S. C., Spearfish
*Carlson, Mrs. LaRoye C., 2, Black Hills S. C., Spearfish
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>State</th>
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<tr>
<td>Fields, Jack W.</td>
<td>East Tennessee S. U.</td>
<td>Tennessee</td>
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<td>Fincher, Kaul E.</td>
<td>Tennessee Technological U.</td>
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<td>Finchum, George A.</td>
<td>East Tennessee S. U.</td>
<td>Tennessee</td>
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<td>Forte, Mrs. Henry S.</td>
<td>5083 Lineview Drive</td>
<td>Nashville</td>
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<tr>
<td>Foster, Dometro</td>
<td>Richland Elementary S.</td>
<td>Memphis</td>
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<td>Gallaway, J. M.</td>
<td>Bristol Tennessee H. S.</td>
<td>Nashville</td>
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<td>Gillett, Betty</td>
<td>David Lipscomb C.</td>
<td>Nashville</td>
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<td>Cough, Mrs. Jesta Post</td>
<td>1516 Wood Nymph Tr.</td>
<td>Lookout Mountain</td>
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<td>Green, Howard W.</td>
<td>Tennessee A. &amp; I. S. U.</td>
<td>Nashville</td>
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<td>Greenwell, George A.</td>
<td>East Tennessee S. U.</td>
<td>Johnson City</td>
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<td>Greer, Mary H.</td>
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<td>Greer, Helen</td>
<td>Middle Tennessee S. U.</td>
<td>Murfreesboro</td>
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<td>Henderson, Mero T.</td>
<td>Knoxville City S.</td>
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<td>Jennings, Janet F.</td>
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<td>Jones, Lois Monahan</td>
<td>Peabody Demonstration S.</td>
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<td>Kendall, Mrs. Earline</td>
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<td>Kromer, Mrs. D. S.</td>
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<td>Lollar, Lottie H.</td>
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<td>Lowe, Alberta B.</td>
<td>U. of Tennessee</td>
<td>Knoxville</td>
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<td>Love, Cornelio</td>
<td>David Lipscomb C.</td>
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<td>McClaren, W. R.</td>
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<td>Moore, Agnes Ann</td>
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<td>Moore, Mrs. C. H.</td>
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<td>Moore, Nelle E.</td>
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<td>M. T. S. U.</td>
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<td>Moyer, Laymon D.</td>
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<td>Nowlin, Kitty</td>
<td>Memphis S. U.</td>
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<td>Ottinger, Zeldra</td>
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<td>Cookeville</td>
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<td>Prescot, Mrs. W. S.</td>
<td>Tennessee Technological Institute</td>
<td>Cookeville</td>
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<tr>
<td>Prescot, Mrs. W. S.</td>
<td>Tennessee Tech.</td>
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*Bozeman, Herman H., 3, Virginia S. C., Norfolk
Brown, Carrie R., Booker T. Washington Elementary S., Newport News
*Brown, Sarah T., 1, Douglass Fork Elementary S., Portsmouth
*Brubaker, J. Lester, 3, Eastern Mennonite C., Harrisonburg
*Cordwell, Irene, 3, Radford C., Radford
*Chisman, Gwendolyn U., 1, Union Elementary S., Hampton
*Colson, Corinne M., 3, Virginia S. C., Petersburg
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*Crawford, Myrtle B., 2, Virginia S. C., Norfolk
*Dawson, Martha E., 3, Hampton Institute, Hampton
*Duke, Florence B., 2, Virginia S. C., Petersburg
*Duke, Vivian M., 1, Crestwood H. S., Chesapeake
*Dukes, Ruth W., 1, D. G. Jacobs Jr. H. S., Norfolk
*Fauntleroy, Sr., H. R., 2, Virginia S. C., Petersburg
*Fink, T. Ross, 3, Old Dominion C., Norfolk
*Flippen, Sara, 3, 304 Beechdale Road, Portsmouth
*Gibson, Robert C., 3, Radford C., Radford
*Goldman, Esther, 2, Virginia S. C., Norfolk
*Green, Roosevelt, 3, Civilian Manor Elementary S., Portsmouth
*Halsey, Mary T., 3, State Department of Education, Richmond
*Hand, Sallie B., 1, Virginia S. C., Petersburg
*Hancock, Jewell H., 4, Hampton Institute, Hampton
*Haskins, Lucile S., 4, Virginia Randolph Elementary S., Glen Allen
*Hol taken, Teresa G., 2, Virginia S. C., Petersburg
*Holtkamp, Clora B., 1, Paradise Gardens Elementary S., Harrisonburg
*Jones, Eunice M., 4, 1026 Main Creek Road, Chesapeake
*Johnson, Margaret D., 2, Virginia S. C., Norfolk
*Jordon, Mildred G., 3, Virginia S. C., Petersburg
*King, Thomas C., 3, U. of Vermont, Burlington
*Knight, Minor P., 4, Virginia Union U., Richmond
*Law, Katherine T., 2, Hampton Institute, Hampton
*Lawrence, Phoebe J., 3, Douglass Park Elementary S., Portsmouth
*Lee, Joe C., 4, 1015 Colonial Road, Portsmouth
Lomas, Alvin C., 2, Virginia S. C., Norfolk
*Mason, Doris P., 2, Virginia S. C., Petersburg
*McDaniel, Norma F., 2, Virginia S. C., Petersburg
*McIntyre, Margaret, 2, 1618 Craig Lane, McLean
*McKinney, Ann Watts, 2, Virginia S. C., Norfolk
*Moore, Ola M., 4, 304 Beechdale Road, Portsmouth
*Morrison, Margaret, 1, Union Elementary S., Hampton

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**WASHINGTON**

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WEST VIRGINIA (continued)

Sheets, Linn, 3, Concord C., Athens
Smith, Carrie F., 1, Vinson H. S., Huntington
Smith, Dorothy M., 1, West Jr. H. S., Huntington
Smith, Hyman, 1, West Jr. H. S., Huntington
Sovine, Marjorie B., 1, Huntington H. S., Huntington

*Speck, William M., 2, Shepherd C., Shepherdstown
*Staley, Helen L., 1, West Virginia Wesleyan C., Buckhannon

Steate, Pauline F., 3, West Virginia U., Morgantown

Sullivan, Maxine B., 4, Huntington East H. S., Huntington

Taylor, Mildred Q., 1, Ona Jr. H. S., Ona
Theodore, Mary, 1, Huntington East H. S., Huntington

Wells, Nelson, 3, Glenville S. C., Glenville
Williams, Kay C., 4, Park Hills Elementary S., Huntington
Wilson, Rayma, 1, Huntington H. S., Huntington

*Wollin, R. F., 2, 668 Colonial Drive, Morgantown

Yeager, Helen A., 1, Huntington H. S., Huntington

WISCONSIN

Aletha, Sister M., 3, Alverno C., Milwaukee
Allar, Betty, 2, Barron Cy. T. C., Rice Lake

*Amunrud, Katherine, 1, Racine-Kenasho Cy
Teachers C., Union Grove

Andre, Sister, 2, Dominican C., Racine
Ashley, Susan, 4, 2359 N. Wahl Avenue, Milwaukee

*Assisi, Sister M. Francis, 3, Marian C., Fond du Lac

*Baer, Anna Louise M., 1, Racine-Kenasho C. T.
Union Grove

*Jaker, Ruth L., 2, Wisconsin S. U., Eau Claire

Ban, Joseph, 4, 3215-21 Street, Racine
Basil, Sister M., 2, Viterbo C., La Crosse
Bernardin, Sister M., 1, Alverno C., Milwaukee

Billings, Neal, 1, 2 of Wisconsin, Milwaukee
Blakely, Bernice, 1, 1 of Wisconsin, Milwaukee
Boatman, Marian, 2, Wisconsin S. U., Eau Claire

Bonaventure, Sister O. P., 2, Dominican C., Racine

Browman, David L., 3, Wisconsin S. U., Oak Park
Brother, Janet, 4, 826 Main Street, Apt. 301, Racine

Brown, Helen M., 1, Milwaukee Public S., Milwaukee
Brown, Lucille, 4, 501 South Street, Racine
Burton, Donald, 4, 1917 Mars Avenue, Racine
Carrithers, Laura M., 3, U. of Wisconsin, Milwaukee

Chamberlain, Dwight D., 2, The Stout S. C., Mequon
Christopher, Sister M., 2, Dominican C., Racine
Clathan, Raymond P., 2, 215 Racine C., West De Pere

Chung, Lili, 4, 3876 E. Layton Avenue, Cudahy
Cribb, John M., 4, 5212 36th Avenue, Kenosha

Consolato, Sister M., 4, 1209 Park Avenue, Racine

Dalrymple, Julie L., 3, U. of Wisconsin, Madison
Davies, Ethelte, 1, Wisconsin S. U., Platteville

Daugherty, Mary A., 2, Wisconsin S. U., River Falls

Davis, Donald E., 4, Wisconsin S. U., La Crosse

Denise, Sister M., 1, 3 of Wisconsin, Racine
Dickmann, Leonore, 2, U. of Wisconsin, Milwaukee

Dolores, Sister M., 2, Mount Mary C., Milwaukee
Dolores, Sister M., 3, Mt. Senedia C., Ladesmith

Drum, Mark J., 3, Green Lake Public S., Green Lake

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Dzara, Fred T., 2, Wisconsin S. U., Whitewater
Embroton, W. E., 3, Columbus
Ferguson, Jean, 2, Wisconsin S. C., Whitewater
Fisher, Elizabeth F., 2, Wisconsin S. C., Superior
Fisher, Mary U., 2, Wisconsin S. C., Platteville
Fuchs, John S., 3, Wis. of Education, Watertown
Forster, Carinne, 2, Wisconsin S. C., Whitewater
Frankebrand, Elizabeth M., 1, Wisconsin S. U., Oshkosh
Frei, Norman J., 1, Wisconsin S. C., Oshkosh
Frey, Gustav W., 1, Wisconsin S. U., Superior
Geech, Sister M., Wisconsin S. C., Stevens Point
Gardner, Delores, 4, Wisconsin S. U., Whitewater
Gearhart, Cecilia, 4, 5631 Parshing Blvd., Kenosha
Gerard, Sister Mary, 3, Denver C., Milwaukee
Gerl, Erko, 4, Marquette U., Milwaukee
Gracia, Sister M., 3, Rosary C., Madison
Grado, Sister M., 3, Edgewood C., Madison
Guilis, Samuel J., 3, Wisconsin S. U., Superior
Haberman, Martin, 3, U. of Wisconsin, Milwaukee
Harper, Margaret, 2, Stout S. C., Menomonee Falls, Joseph A., 4, 4910 W. Hunting Park Drive, Franklin
Herrmann, Sister M. Lucile, 3, Marian C., Fond du Lac
Hickner, Maryvale R., 2, Stout S. U., Menomonee Falls, Heather, 4, 3343 First Avenue, Racine
Houston, Heather O., 2, Marquette U., Milwaukee
Hunziker, Ermella, 2, Wisconsin S. U., Whitewater
Hussey, Mary K., 2, U. of Wisconsin, Milwaukee
Ingrelli, Anthony V., 2, U. of Wisconsin, Milwaukee
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Johnson, Helen K., 2, Barron Cy. T. C., Rice Lake
Josita, Sister M., 3, Holy Family C, Manitowoc
Kehl, Ed, 2, Wisconsin S. U., River Falls
Keer, Maryanne, 2, Milwaukee Public Staff, Milwaukee
Kem, George, 3, Wisconsin S. U., Eau Claire
Kleeman, Sister M. Mary Camille, 3, Cardinal Stritch C., Milwaukee
Klont, James, 3, Cass Street S., Milwaukee
Klink, Donald D., 3, Wisconsin S. C., River Falls
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Kronewitter, Gladys, 3, Milton C., Milton
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Lee, Betty, 4, 3343 First Avenue, Racine
Liebenberg, R. L., 3, Dept. of Public Instruction, Madison
Lubnow, Violette L., 2, Wisconsin S. U., Eau Claire
Lucianne, Sister M., 1, Mount Mary C., Milwaukee
Ludwig, Elizabeth A., 3, U. of Wisconsin, Milwaukee
Lund, Grace A., 2, U. of Wisconsin, Milwaukee
Lyons, John R., 3, Milwaukee Public S., Milwaukee
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Mannsmith, Mary Beth, 4, 6313—42 Avenue, Kenosha
Matson, Wesley J., 3, U. of Wisconsin, Milwaukee
McCarthy, Henry, 4, 1506 84th Street, Kenosha
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McDowall, Myra A., 1, Wisconsin S. C., Superior
McEsk, Charlotte, 4, Amity S., Waupun
McKay, Elaine, 4, 6037 47th Avenue, Kenosha
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Michel, Sister M., 3, Edgewood C., Madison
Miller, William A., 4, Wisconsin S. U., Whiteriver
Misfeldt, H. T., 3, Stout S. U., Menomonee Falls
Mondragon, Reinalda, 4, 2017 Oak Creek Avenue, Racine
Mulhern, John D., 3, Marquette U., Milwaukee
Murphy, James P., 2, U. of Wisconsin, Milwaukee
Nagel, Paul, 2, Wisconsin S. U., Eau Claire
Nasgowitz, Mildred, 1, Wisconsin S. C., Oshkosh
Nieslaph, Ralph L., 3, New Richmond Public S., New Richmond
Noelth, Joseph, 4, 4515 80th Street, Kenosha
O'Brien, Elaine, 1, Wisconsin S. U., Oshkosh
Oliver, Russell L., 2, Wisconsin S. U., Stevens Point
Orozco, David, 3, U. of Wisconsin, Milwaukee
Oskar, Dorothy, 2, St. Norbert C., West De Pere
Otting, Kenneth A., 2, Wisconsin S. U., Whitewater
Overman, Fred, 3, Dept. of Public Instruction, Madison
Overton, Elizabeth, 2, Wisconsin S. C., Racine
Pautz, Wilmer, 2, Wisconsin S. C., Oshkosh
Peterson, Axel P., 2, Wisconsin S. U., Racine
Peterson, Bernadine H., 2, U. of Wisconsin, Milwaukee
Peterson, Hardean, 3, State Dept. of Public Instruction, Madison
Pew, Florence E., 2, Wisconsin S. C., Oshkosh
Praus, Jeanette H., 1, Washington S., Janesville
Remel, Dorothy, 2, Wisconsin S. C., Whitewater
Richardson, N., 3, West De Pere H. S., West De Pere
Roberts, Elwyn D., 4, Ellsworth Community S., Ellsworth
Rowe, Phyllis C., 2, Wisconsin S. U., Oshkosh
Root, Grace M., 1, Clay Lambertson S., Berrien Springs, Sister Mary, 1, Edgewood C., Madison
Sager, Ken, 4, Lawrence U., Appleton
Salabut, Charles, 4, Wisconsin S. U., Platteville
Schlotterer, Olga E., 3, Milwaukee Public S., Milwaukee
Schmelling, Frances, 4, 1707 74th Street, Kenosha
Schmiedtclke, Joseph E., 2, Edgewood C. of Sacred Heart, Madison
Schnabel, Mary C., 1, 18th Street S., Milwaukee
Schultz, Mary E., 4, Brookfield East H. S., Brookfield
Schwartz, Helen, 4, 7460 South Clement Avenue, Oak Creek
Siebers, Allan A., 3, Wisconsin S. U., River Falls
Skeene, Claire, 4, 1618 60th Street, Kenosha
Spratt, Bessie W., 2, Stout S. U., Menomonee Falls
Stabbins, John, 4, 508 Blaine Avenue, Racine
Staatenberg, James C., 3, U. of Wisconsin, Madison
Staever, Marjorie, 4, 737 Ohio Street, Racine
Sullivan, Jarama, 4, 2731 Fleetwood Drive, Racine
Sward, Jane Marie, 2, 807 North 21st Street, Superior
Tartaglia, Donna, 4, 2831 Rosalind Avenue, Racine
Tennis, Lyle, 4, 1901 12th Street, Racine
Thedrin, Sister Mary, 3, Viterbo C., LaCrosse
Thomann, Dan F., 3, Risan C., Ripon

*Comprehensive membership
WISCONSIN (continued)

Thompson, Marvin, 2, Wisconsin S. U., River Falls
Thompson, Richard, 4, 2721 Lincoln Road, Kenosha
Thompson, Ruth L., 1, Wisconsin S. U., Eau Claire

*Throll, Esther, 2, 5 S. U., Oshkosh
Tietz, Naunda, 2, Wisconsin S. C., River Falls
Trachte, James, 3, De Pere H. S., De Pere
*Turner, Mildred I., 3, Stout S. U., Menomonie

*Underwood, Mary Hape, 2, Cardinal Stritch C., Milwaukee
Vander Bloeman, Laura, 4, Roosevelt S., Racine

*Vaughan, Ruth, 1, Wisconsin S. C., Superior

*Vaughan, Ruth, 1, Wisconsin S. C., Superior
*Walter, George B., 3, Lawrence U., Appleton

*Waterland, Jean, 4, U. of Wisconsin, Milwaukee
*Wehner, Freda, 2, Wisconsin S. U., Oshkosh

*Westlund, Hildur, 1, Wisconsin S. U., Superior

Wheeler, Elizabeth, 2, U. of Wisconsin, Milwaukee
Williams, William G., 2, Wisconsin S. U., River Falls

Wittwer, Mrs. Clarence, 4, 817 Hawthorne Avenue, South Milwaukee

*Wolfson, Bernice J., 2, U. of Wisconsin, Milwaukee

Worden, Wayne, 4, 628 Newman Road, Racine
Young, Bernard, 3, Wisconsin S. U., LaCrosse

WYOMING

Andrews, William, 2, U. of Wyoming, Laramie
*Ankeney, Margaret E., 2, U. of Wyoming, Laramie
Bayne, Mina, 4, U. of Wyoming, Laramie
*Benintendi, Wilma L., 1, Laramie Public S., Laramie

*Bowman, Alvin R., 3, U. of Wyoming, Laramie
*Cleworth, Marion B., 1, Moorcroft H. S., Moorcroft

Dutton, Shirley A., 2, U. of Wyoming, Laramie
Eicher, Robert C., 4, U. of Wyoming, Laramie

*Halsted, Jessie Mae, 1, U. of Wyoming, Laramie
Hull, Rollin L., 2, Sheridan C., Sheridan
Jackson, Sybil, 4, District No. 1, Newcastle

Nickell, Margie, 1, U. High School, Laramie
Norris, Francis L., 4, U. of Wyoming, Laramie

*Peters, Arlan, 2, U. of Wyoming, Laramie

*Peters, Arlan, 2, U. of Wyoming, Laramie

*Rezabek, Bernard V., 4, U. of Wyoming, Laramie
Roberts, Alfred Lester, 2, U. of Wyoming, Laramie

Ross, Gerald W., 4, U. of Wyoming, Laramie
Ruthemeyer, Robert, 2, U. of Wyoming, Laramie

*Schunk, Bernadene, 3, U. of Wyoming, Laramie

*Sutton, Maddie, 1, U. of Wyoming, Laramie

*Tracy, Alice, 4, Laramie Public S., Laramie

*Vestal, Harold H., 2, U. of Wyoming, Laramie
Walker, Laurence A., 1, U. of Wyoming, Laramie

*Watters, Edith W., 2, U. of Wyoming, Laramie

Verand, Catherine, 1, U. of Wyoming, Laramie

*Zanconello, James, 1, U. of Wyoming, Laramie

*Comprehensive membership.