A STUDY OF FACTORS RELATING TO SUCCESS OF SECOND YEAR ELEMENTARY TEACHER GRADUATES

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Graduate Council of the
North Texas State University in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

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August, 1976

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Babb, Joy E., A Study of Factors Relating to Success of Second Year Elementary Teacher Graduates, Doctor of Education (Elementary Education), August, 1976, 140 pp., 28 tables, bibliography, 91 titles.

This study reports on an investigation of the effects of school types, professional semester preparation programs, school organizational patterns, and teaching level assignments upon the adjustment and performance of second year elementary teachers.

The sixty subjects of this study were second year teachers assigned to inner-city or middle class schools in a large urban school district. Except for three Black females, one Mexican-American and seven Anglo males, all were Anglo females.

Four instruments yielding three types of personal-professional data were administered. Two instruments, the Bown Self-Report Inventory (SRI) and the Veldman Directed Imagination (DI) provided information about areas of the subjects' affective domain, while the Teaching Appraisal Instrument (TAI) generated information on the subjects' classroom effectiveness. The data supplied by the Principal's Ratings (PR) provided a view of the subjects' ability to perform within the overall school setting.

The data from the four instruments were analyzed by the one-way analysis of variance. Bartlett's Chi Square was used

to insure homogeneity of variance between groups with varying numbers of group members.

The data indicate several broad trends. Inner-city teachers achieved a higher level of personal-professional attitudes than did teachers of middle class schools. A study of the findings also suggests that a field-based professional semester program contributes toward a higher level of adjustment and performance than campus-based programs. Teaching assignments at the intermediate level result in second year teachers with generally higher personal-professional attitudes than primary teachers. Team teaching situations offer more support for the adjustment of second year teachers than do self-contained classroom settings. Findings on principal's ratings indicate that the performance of self-contained classroom teachers in the overall school setting is perceived by the principals to be more effective than that of teachers in teaming situations.

Based on the findings of this study the following conclusions were drawn.

1. Beginning teachers assigned to inner-city schools can be expected to sustain positive attitudes in respect to teaching throughout the initial teaching experience.

2. Beginning inner-city teachers can be expected to cope with the prevailing conditions in inner-city schools

in terms of performing at a level adjudged to be as effective as beginning teachers in middle class schools.

3. Teachers can benefit in performance dimensions from experience in a field-based preparation program offering clinical involvement in varied classrooms and communities for an entire semester.

4. It can be anticipated that beginning teachers assigned to intermediate grades will be as effective and as well adjusted as teachers in primary grades after two years.

5. Teachers assigned to teaching teams can be expected to be better adjusted than teachers assigned to self-contained classrooms subsequent to the initial teaching experience.

6. Teachers assigned to self-contained classrooms can be expected to perform more effectively than will team teachers as rated by their principals.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Since 1965 vast amounts of financial and human resources have been channeled into inner-city education with few successes. Although reasons for this lack of success seem rather unclear, at least part of the responsibility necessarily must be accepted by the teacher and, therefore, by the people and institutions that are charged with their preparation and adjustment to the classroom setting. The inadequacies in a teacher's preparation program that allow the teacher to be unaware of the situation he enters is the responsibility of the university, while the placement, and extent of assistance offered a new teacher is the responsibility of the public schools.

The lack of preparation and adjustment of inner-city teachers is manifested in several critical ways. One, inner-city schools continue to fail the student. In 1968, the National Commission on Civil Disorders reported that for many minorities the schools failed to provide appropriate educational experiences needed to overcome the effects of deprivation and discrimination (39). More recently, the President's Panel on Educational Research and Development

has estimated that inner-city students have a dropout rate of fifty per cent. It was also the consensus of that group that the inner-city schools are not preparing their students to lead satisfying lives or to participate successfully in the community (35, p. 93).

The second critical aspect of failure to prepare teachers appropriately for inner-city settings is the attrition rate of teachers in those schools. In testimony given to the Kerner Commission in 1968, Dodson, an urban sociologist, reported that between 1952-1962 almost half of the licensed teachers of New York City left the system. The attrition rate of young, quality inner-city teachers continues to be a serious problem in urban school districts. Some estimates suggest that one of two beginning teachers will leave the profession within a year and five out of six will drop out before they complete five years of teaching (39). Bush (6) estimates that half the teachers certified in any given year will not be teaching after two years, and Herriott (21, p. 206) found that 42 per cent of the teachers in inner-city wished to move.

When experienced teachers leave inner-city schools, many beginning teachers are assigned to occupy the vacant positions (38). Too often, they are not adequately prepared to cope with the differences they find in the inner-city schools (6). As a result, more than half of these teachers leave the profession before completing two years of teaching (6).

For those teachers who do not drop out physically, many experience a dramatic drop in self-concept during their initial teaching experience. Many teachers feel that they lose much of the empathy and understanding they experienced prior to employment (25). In addition, many teachers hold higher positive attitudes and feelings toward children and school prior to employment than they do after teaching one or two years (28).

While a number of studies have been concerned with individual factors affecting pre-service and in-service teachers, no studies were found that used a combination of factors to examine the relationship of personal-professional attitude development to teacher success beyond the initial year of teaching. The major focus of this study is the effect of selected assignment and preparation factors upon the performance and adjustment of second year teachers.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to determine the effects of school types, professional semester preparation programs, school organizational patterns, and teaching level assignments upon the adjustment and performance of second year elementary teachers.

Purposes of the Study

The purposes of the study were (1) to compare, using three types of measures, selected effects of school types

upon second year teachers, (2) to compare, using three types of measures, selected effects of professional semester pre-service programs upon second year teachers, (3) to compare selected effects of two school staffing patterns upon second year teachers, (4) to compare selected effects of teaching assignment level upon second year teachers, and (5) to evaluate the implications of these effects for teacher preparation programs and public school personnel officials.

Hypotheses

As a basis for implementing the purposes of this study the following hypotheses were tested:

1. Second year teachers teaching in schools in middle class areas will score significantly higher on the following measures of personal-professional attitude than will second year teachers in inner-city schools.

    a. self-perception

    b. attitude toward children

    c. optimism-hope

    d. attitude toward teaching

    e. general adjustment

2. Field-based trained second year teachers will score significantly higher on the following measures of personal-professional attitude than will campus-based trained second year teachers.

a. self-perception

b. attitude toward children

c. optimism-hope

d. attitude toward teaching

e. general adjustment

3. Second year teachers teaching in primary level assignments will score significantly higher on the following measures of personal-professional attitude than will second year teachers in intermediate level assignments.

a. self-perception

b. attitude toward children

c. optimism-hope

d. attitude toward teaching

e. general adjustment

4. Second year teachers teaching in teaming situations will score significantly higher on the following measures of personal-professional attitude than will second year teachers teaching in self-contained classrooms.

a. self-perception

b. attitude toward children

c. optimism-hope

d. attitude toward teaching

e. general adjustment

5. Second year teachers teaching in schools in middle class areas will score significantly higher on a composite measure of classroom performance than will second year teachers teaching in inner-city schools.

6. Second year teachers prepared in field-based professional semester pre-service programs will score significantly higher on a composite measure of classroom performance than will second year teachers who received pre-service training in a campus-based professional semester program.

7. Second year teachers teaching in a teaming situation will score significantly higher on a composite measure of classroom performance than will second year teachers in a self-contained classroom.

8. Second year teachers teaching at the primary level will score significantly higher on a composite measure of classroom performance than will second year teachers at the intermediate level.

9. Second year teachers teaching in inner-city schools will score significantly higher on a classroom performance measure based on the principal's ratings than will second year teachers teaching in schools in middle-class areas.

10. Field-based trained second year teachers will score significantly higher on a classroom performance measure based on the principal's ratings than will campus-base trained second year teachers.

11. Second year teachers teaching in teaming situations will score significantly higher on a classroom performance measure based on the principal's ratings than will second year teachers teaching in a non-teaming situation.

12. Second year teachers teaching at the primary level will score significantly higher on a classroom performance measure based on the principal's ratings than will second year teachers teaching at the intermediate level.

Background and Significance of the Study

During the past several years, serious doubts have been expressed concerning the effectiveness of teachers in inner-city schools. Controversy surrounds any discussion of the importance of the teacher in inner-city education. Coleman (8) suggests that variations in the background of children impact to a greater degree on school achievement than do school programs, staff, or facilities. Mitchell (26, p. 10), Taba, Katz and Clark (29) feel that the teacher is perhaps the most important determinant of the quality of education.

Larson and Olson (36, p. 6) believe that new teachers who begin teaching in inner-city schools are optimistic and creative at the outset. This idealistic optimism for the ill-prepared and ill-advised teachers gradually turns to a fight for survival. Very often this fight is lost and teachers leave at alarming rates.

This continuing high attrition rate is due to several factors. Some prospective teachers, in their drive for upward social mobility attend colleges and universities that very often perpetuate middle-class values (20). They are generally prepared to teach in schools in middle-class areas.

Morlan concludes that many teachers do not want to teach in inner-city schools and those who are assigned to teach there are often not prepared to do so. Often when middle-class teachers accept positions in inner-city schools, they are confronted with students whose value systems and cultures are different from their own (34). As a result, many difficulties in the classroom stem from the conflict between attitudes of teacher and pupil (34).

Perhaps the greatest source of teacher dissatisfaction emanates from the difficulty of the inner-city teaching assignment. Frequently, children whose cultural motivations are quite different from those of the teacher behave in ways unacceptable to the teacher (34). Inner-city students present different and more severe problems than do students in schools in middle-class areas. Dropkin and Taylor (12) found discernible differences between first year teachers in suburban and inner-city schools. Inner-city teachers had significantly greater difficulty in the areas of discipline, methods of teaching, and relations with parents. Groff found that a lack of understanding and acceptance of deprived students was the greatest contribution to teacher turnover as perceived by 294 teachers in ghetto schools (18, p. 71).

Studies (14, 24, 11) have shown a teacher's self-concept to be a determining factor on the specified classroom behavior exhibited by that teacher. The impact a teacher makes on a

group of children is not solely dependent on what he knows but is attributable to a large extent, on what he is (16). Combs believes that self-concept is the most important influence affecting an individual's behavior (9). Cuban (10), Garvey (15), Passmore (30) and Mitchell (26), among others, report research which supports the theory of a strong relationship between teacher self-concept and teacher behavior.

Furthermore, attitudes relating to teachers' feeling toward children; acceptance, warmth, expectancy, and optimism have been shown by various researchers including Berliner, Groff, Rubin and Ryan (2, 18, 32, 31) to relate to teaching behavior. Hamachek, in summarizing the available research noted that effective teachers can be distinguished from less than effective teachers in several areas: (1) personality, (2) instructional procedures, (3) perceptions of self, and (4) perception of others. He summarizes the research by stating:

> A good teacher is a good person. Simple and true. A good teacher rather likes life, is reasonably at peace with himself, has a sense of humor, and enjoys other people . . . among other things, a good teacher is good because he does not seem to be dominated by a narcisistic self which demands a spotlight, or a neurotic need for power, and authority, or a host of anxieties and tremblings which reduce him from the master of his class to its mechanic (19, p. 343).

Another frequent effect of "reality shock" upon a new teacher is a negative change in self-concept. Wright and

Tuska (25, p. 194) found that new teachers frequently experienced a dramatic drop in self-concept during their initial teaching experiences.

Bitner reports in a study of the influence of student teaching locale on beginning teachers that it can be anticipated that inner-city teachers will experience a negative change in optimism, attitudes toward teaching, general adjustment and mental health during their initial year of teaching (3).

Teacher attitudes are believed to be basic to the effective performance of the teacher in the classroom. There are, however, conflicting viewpoints regarding the relationship between a teacher's attitude and his behavior and effectiveness in the classroom. Wicker (37) concludes, after reviewing more than thirty selected studies, that there appears to be little or no relationship between behavior and attitudes. Investigations by Berg (1), Bray (5), and Seibel (33) all agree with Wicker and all have noted similar findings in their studies.

Conversely, studies by Groff (18), Berliner (2), Rubin (32) and Allen (26) have supported the notion that teacher attitudes toward the child constitutes the most significant variable in the teaching-learning process. Furthermore, the teacher's acceptance of the child is critical to the teacher-child relationship.

Ryans (31) found children to be more responsible and more participating in classes operated by teachers who were adaptable and original. Teacher warmth, according to the conclusions of Christenson (7) is positively correlated with pupil achievement.

A negative change in behavior and attitudes of beginning teachers was also found in a study conducted by the research staff of Washington State University (22). A follow-up study of 68 elementary education teachers by Oana (28) revealed that the subjects held significantly higher positive attitudes and feelings toward children and school prior to employment than they did after teaching one or two years.

While research indicates that teachers in general hold attitudes toward minority children and their values that tend to impede their classroom ability, grade level assignments tend to moderate or increase the degree of teacher's unfavorable attitudes. Whitt (40) measured the professional attitudes of third, fourth, fifth, and sixth grade teachers in inner-city schools. Scores suggested that the subjects were low in professional attitude, and that a negative correlation was found between the age of the student taught and the teacher's professional fulfillment.

Levine (23) compared the attitudes of primary and intermediate inner-city student teachers to determine if the grade level taught had any significant effect on the attitudes of

teachers toward inner-city schools. There were significant differences in the attitudes of the primary and intermediate student teachers. Levine suggests that student teaching in the primary grades is more likely to "create a favorable attitude toward teaching in inner-city schools" (23, p. 7) than does student teaching in intermediate grades. Specifically, Levine found that primary student teachers (1) perceived primary students as more responsive, (2) felt the inner-city school was a good place to work, (3) showed a sense of optimism, satisfaction, and hopefulness about teaching inner-city children, (4) thought inner-city parents to be cooperative and interested, and (5) seemed to have fewer problems with discipline than did those students who student taught in intermediate grades.

Staff organization seems to moderate or increase the level of adjustment of new teachers. Earp and Tanner (13) in a follow-up study of elementary education graduates, suggest that self-contained classrooms in the inner-city offer a greater traumatic experience for the first year teacher to survive as compared to teaming situations which allow the first inner-city teacher to share personal concerns and responsibilities with other more experienced professionals. They conclude that team teaching classes are more supportive to maintaining personal-professional attitudes than other staff organizational patterns.

Large and medium size school district personnel officers suggest that factors affecting teacher attitude regarding placement include both staff organization and grade level assignment (17, 27). Many teachers give these as reasons for dissatisfaction with their teaching assignment. In addition, many teachers in the large school district indicated that they simply do not wish to remain in an inner-city setting (27).

Therefore, how one sees himself and others; his sense of buoyancy and hope; his feelings about the teaching role, and perhaps his general psychological adjustment is closely related to teaching performance is a theory which has some basis in research. The framework for defining measures in the present study is therefore found in phenomenological theory--measures of affective attributes are assumed to relate to teaching behavior.

While attitudes of student teachers have been studied and may be useful information, Bloom feels it would be even more revealing if follow-up data were collected after the student enters teaching. Bloom further suggests that more studies of a longitudinal nature are necessary for constructing an adequate base of knowledge about individual development and the effects of different environments (4). This present study seeks to respond to this challenge. Studies of this nature are not only a necessary prerequisite to the planning of effective teacher education programs but are important to public school personnel officials as well.

Definition of Terms

School Type refers to inner-city and middle class schools.

Inner-city schools are defined as Title I schools with high minority group enrollment.

Middle-class schools are defined as non Title I schools found in more affluent areas with low minority group enrollment.

Field-based preparation programs are those in which the entire professional semester is conducted on-site in a large urban school district. Resources of a teacher center, the school district, and community agencies are used extensively. Refers only to the professional semester program, not the entire professional sequence. (See description of subjects)

Campus-based preparation programs are those in which only student teaching is conducted off-campus. Refers only to the professional semester programs, not the entire professional sequence. (See description of subjects)

Primary level teaching assignment refers to grades K, 1, and 2.

Intermediate level teaching assignment refers to grades 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7.

School organizational pattern refers to teaming and non-teaming teaching situations.

Personal-professional attitudes refer to selected scores measured by the DI and SRI.

Composite measures of classroom performance refers to scores of six subscales of the TAI which are combined into a single score of teaching effectiveness.

Limitations

The population of this study was limited to elementary teacher education graduates of a single institution who were second year teachers in inner-city and middle-class schools in a large urban school district. These subjects were all those who agreed to participate and on whom appropriate data were available. All generalizations are limited to this population.

Basic Assumptions

1. It was assumed that the performance of the subjects during the observation period was consistent with their usual classroom performance.

2. It was assumed that the factors as measured by the SRI, and DI were relevant to personal-professional elements of teaching and performance in the classroom.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter studies are reviewed which indicate that many teacher education graduates are not adequately prepared to begin a career in teaching. Others suggest that many beginning teachers experience adjustment problems upon entering the teaching profession. Still other studies indicate

that self-concept and attitudes are believed basic to effective teacher adjustment and performance. The problem was to determine the effects of school types, professional semester preparation programs, school organizational patterns, and teaching level assignments upon the adjustment and performance of second year elementary teachers. Specific purposes, hypotheses, limitations, and assumptions of the study are also presented. In addition, the terms which are unique to the study are briefly defined.

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH

The focus of this study is upon the effects of school types, professional semester preparation programs, school organizational patterns, and teaching level assignments upon the adjustment and performance of second year elementary teachers. In this chapter relevant research studies and other pertinent literature are presented in order to provide a theoretical basis for the investigations in this study. Studies and statements describing the effects of culture shock on teachers are reviewed first. Following this are relevant findings from studies which suggest the relationship of teacher self-concept and attitude to teacher behavior. Also included are studies showing the interactive effects of teacher attitude and teacher perception of the student. Studies dealing with shared responsibility by both public schools and institutions of higher education for the existing problems of teacher adjustment and attrition as well as effects of teacher preparation programs are presented next. Finally, the significance of the present study concludes the chapter.

Effects of Culture Shock on Teachers

Few new teachers are adequately prepared for the trauma and culture shock that they enounter when assigned to teach

in inner-city schools. Up to 50 per cent of today's youth in inner-city schools leave before graduation. Teachers, too, can and do become dropouts from those same schools (53). The high attrition rate of teaching personnel in inner-city assignments is due in large measure to the particular combination of circumstances which confronts these professionals (53). Other contributing factors to the overall attrition rate are teacher mobility and the constant exodus of teachers from the profession generally.

The myriad of activities into which the beginning teacher enters is often confusing and can lead him to question what is the role of a teacher. In many instances the major objective to academically educate is overshadowed as the teacher attempts to meet and cope with all the diverse influences that are incumbent in the inner-city setting. The natural tendency of an individual in such circumstances is to flee at the earliest opportunity (53).

In a study by Haubrich (27) one third of the teachers appointed to inner-city positions do not accept their assignments. Many of those who do accept leave at the first opportunity. A study of teacher attitudes in 15 major American cities resulted in findings that indicated 17 per cent of the inner-city teachers had been in ghetto schools for no more than one year and 63 per cent for five years or less (48).

Teachers are negative toward teaching in neighborhoods where working conditions are considered to be unfavorable. 48 per cent of the teachers in a supplemental study to the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders were only somewhat satisfied with the community. The findings of that study indicate that the dissatisfaction of teachers in the inner-city stems from the community and the general conditions within the school itself (31).

Young and inexperienced teachers are often located in the inner-city schools. With the high rate of turnover among beginning teachers, it is not surprising that schools in the inner-city communities suffer a high rate of teacher attrition (36,55).

One reason teachers do not accept positions in disadvantaged areas, or hold them once assigned there, is the feeling that they are not sufficiently prepared to do the job. Teachers become dropouts for the same reason that students leave school: some teachers quit because they fail. Haubrich (27) notes that teachers in the ghetto either reject an assignment there or leave after a year or so because of the inability to comprehend, understand, and cope with: problems of language development; varying social norms; habits not acceptable to the teacher; behavior which is not success-oriented; lack of student cooperation; and achievement levels well below expectancies of teachers.

Smith (53) suggests that apparently there are several main deficiencies in the training of teachers who are reluctant to teach in the disadvantaged areas and who drop out. First, teachers know very little about the backgrounds of disadvantaged pupils and the communities where they live. Second, all but a few have had little or no experience with other than middle class life until they begin teaching in the inner-city schools. There, culture shock occurs and teachers become disoriented as a result of being uprooted from familiar surroundings. The neophyte teachers become frustrated and frightened when confronted by behavior which they have never witnessed and in the context of which they are responsible for conducting class.

Larson and Olson (54) believe that too many beginning teachers start teaching in inner-city schools with idealistic optimism but gradually see their efforts turn into a survival struggle. These experiences very often overwhelm the new teacher and tend to alter thinking and serve to reinforce suppressed prejudices. Clark (8) found that the majority of the inner-city teachers he studied were highly prejudiced toward the Black Culture.

Anthropologists Bock and Oberg describe the difficulties experienced by beginning teachers as "culture shock." Symptoms include disorientation, irritability, depression, and helplessness (33).

Kron (33) studied 28 white teachers who were transferred to inner-city schools to determine the amount of culture shock experienced by the subjects. Using a face-to-face interview, a questionnaire, and a culture shock instrument to secure data, he found that nineteen subjects experienced severe culture shock, seven subjects experienced moderate culture shock, and little culture shock was experienced by two subjects.

The adjustment problems experienced by white middle-class teachers in inner-city schools may be a reflection of their earlier experiences. Thomas and McIver (9) believe that a person's perception of reality is a product of his earlier experiences; and, furthermore, the way a person acts is controlled by his perceptions of the situation.

Anderson (1) concludes from a study of seventy-four teachers of disadvantaged students that teacher attitude regarding disadvantaged students originate in the type of professional education they receive. Smith (53, pp. 28-29) believes that there are major deficiencies in the preparation of many teachers that make them feel inadequate to teach in inner-city schools.

Inner-city students tend to present different and more severe problems than do suburban students. Studies by Wey (63), Piper (12), Broadbent (6), Cruickshank (12) and others (53, 58) have indicated that discipline and methodology are

problems deemed most serious by inner-city teachers. Good (24) found inner-city teachers to be more concerned with children's behavior problems than with their academic problems, and Hunt and Rasof (34) point out that discipline is a major problem in inner-city schools. They contend that parents of inner-city children are nonsupportive with respect to their child's actions in the classroom. They further indicate that new teachers get little help with discipline problems from the administrators and other teachers.

Cruickshank and Leonard (12) surveyed inner-city teachers from the seventeen largest cities in the United States concerning their perceived classroom problems. Returns were compiled and the significant problems were placed into the following categories.

1. Problems which seem to involve disruptive or disturbing student behavior.
2. Problems which seem to arise out of home conditions of the student.
3. Problems of parent-school relationships.
4. Problems of working with the exceptional child.
5. Problems of providing for individual differences.
6. Problems of pupil-to-pupil relationships.
7. Problems of building skills in independent work.
8. Problems of school conditions.
9. Problems of the child's self and self-concept (12, p. 3).

Deutsch (60) found, in a study of inner-city classroom procedures, that teachers spent as much as 75 per cent of their time attempting to maintain order. Turner (59) conducted a study in which beginning teachers were rated by principals and supervisors. He concluded that the subjects who experienced discipline problems were also characterized as disorganized, unbusinesslike, relatively routine in approach, and weak in dealing with skill areas.

Many new teachers are less than adequately prepared to teach in inner-city schools and leave at alarming rates. Among the reasons for leaving is the impact of culture shock. While not the basic problem, culture shock creates difficulties for both teachers and pupils.

Relationship of Teacher Self-Concept and Attitude to Behavior

According to Combs (10), teaching is a human relationship. To behave effectively, good teachers must possess accurate understandings about people and their behavior. Humans behave in terms of personal systems of beliefs and what a teacher believes, therefore, about the nature of his students will have a most important effect on how he behaves toward them. How a teacher behaves after he leaves college is largely determined by how he has learned to see himself and his relationships to his students, his subject matter, and to the profession of teaching itself.

When analyzing the results of their research, Combs and Snygg emphasize that the personal frame of reference is a better predictor of individual behavior than any other approach used in their studies. What a person thinks and how he behaves are largely determined by the concepts he holds about himself and his abilities (11). Cuban (13), Garvey (22), and Mitchell (38), report research which supports the theory of a strong relationship between teacher self-concept and teacher behavior.

Passmore (45) reports that in a study of the relationship of self-concept to success in student teaching that student teachers who were rated successful by their cooperating teachers and college supervisors viewed themselves positively. A teacher's perception of himself and his expected classroom behavior contributes as much to his classroom performance as do actual performance skills (38,65).

In studies by Gage (21), Dandes (14), and Passmore (45), the self-concept of the classroom teacher seems to be a determining factor in specific classroom behavior exhibited by the teacher. The degree of impact a teacher makes on students is attributable to a great extent on what he is, not merely what he knows (23).

Studies by Berliner (3), Groff (26), Rubin (49), and Ryans (50) show that attitudes relating to teacher's feelings toward children; acceptance, warmth, expectancy, and optimism

relate to teaching behavior. Anderson (1) found that teachers who displayed integrative behavior were likely to have more self-directed students, while students of dominative teachers were more conforming and dependent.

While the relationship between a positive self-concept and effective teaching appears to be axiomatic, a number of studies have suggested that student teaching tends to have a negative effect on the prospective teacher's self-concept (22). In a study conducted by the education staff at Louisiana State University (37) results indicated that changes in self-concept of 100 student teachers were generally in a positive direction for all student teachers except those who were assigned to inner-city schools.

The greater the psychological health of teachers the greater the possession of attitudes and values characteristic of effective teaching (14,p. 305). In findings reported by Garvey (22), success in student teaching is affected by a positive view of oneself, lack of confusion in self-perception and good adjustment. If positive attitudes about self, children, and teaching itself are important components of an effective teacher, more intensive follow-up studies of teacher preparation programs seem in order.

Studies by Warner, Davis, Havighurst, and Hollingshead (29) have supported their theory that the treatment a child receives at school is correlated with the socio-economic status

of the parents. In a study by Aron (2), manipulating the variables of children's ethnicity, sex, and ability to ascertain the nature of the interactive relationship between teacher expectancies and student performance, results suggest that low ability students are particularly victimized by the ratings of high prejudiced teachers.

While researchers (8,1,26,39) indicate that teachers in general hold attitudes toward minority children and their values that tend to impede their classroom ability, grade level and staff organization variables seem to increase or moderate the degree of teacher's negative attitudes and the level of new teacher adjustment.

Whitt (64) in a study measuring professional attitudes of third, fourth, fifth, and sixth grade teachers in inner-city schools found that the subjects were low in professional attitudes, and a negative correlation was found between the age of the student and the teacher's professional fulfillment.

Levine (36) compared the attitudes of primary and intermediate inner-city student teachers to determine if the grade level taught had any significant effect on the attitudes of teachers toward inner-city schools. He found significant differences in the attitudes of primary and intermediate student teachers. Student teaching in the primary grades is likely to create more favorable attitudes toward teaching in inner-city schools than student teaching in intermediate grades.

Earp and Tanner (17) studying elementary education graduates after one year of teaching conclude that team teaching situations are more supportive to the maintenance of personal-professional attitudes than other staffing patterns. Specifically, they found that when compared to teaming situations, self-contained classrooms in inner-city schools offer a greater traumatic experience for first year teachers.

Personnel officers in both medium and large size school districts contend that grade level assignment and staff organizational patterns are contributing factors to the attrition of teachers. They cite these as reasons frequently given by teachers when terminating employment or seeking transfers to other schools (25,41).

Effects of Teacher Attitudes and Perception of Students

Teacher attitudes are believed to be basic to the effective performance of the teacher in the classroom. Teachers, however, find discrepancies between their idealistic beliefs and attitudes toward schools, and how school is when the realities of the classroom are encountered (35).

A study conducted at the University of California at Los Angeles (42, pp. 6,7), compared student teachers in affluent versus poverty schools and concluded that student teachers in inner-city schools held more negative attitudes toward children than did those in more affluent areas. However, the study indicated that students, regardless of their student teaching

assignment, tended to develop more negative attitudes toward children during their field experiences. There was no significant difference measured in the amount of stress felt by the inner-city and suburban student teachers.

According to Berlin (35), many beginning teachers enter teaching with fictitious pre-conceived attitudes and beliefs about the people and communities with which they are to work. These attitudes can have a tremendous intervening influence upon the success or failure of a teacher.

Strom suggests that

> Whether they will experience instructional success and personal gratification with their job depends mainly upon the aspirations and attitudes they bring to the classroom (55, p. 22).

Relationship of Teacher Expectancy and Student Performance

Children spend six or more hours each day at school and during this time, teachers are affecting the behavior of the pupils. Teacher perception of his students bears heavily on the quality of the learning environment. Foley (20) suggests that often, teachers new to inner-city schools, initially expect that the pupils will behave according to the teacher's perception of how students should behave. Many expectations of the teacher are not appropriate for inner-city settings, and gaps occur between teacher expectation and student performance. Subsequently, the teacher tends to lower his expectations and a self-fulfilling prophesy is established.

Motivation for the teacher is either decreased or eliminated, and the teacher waits until he can secure a transfer.

Morlan contends that often teachers begin teaching in inner-city schools with negative attitudes toward the children and these attitudes are heightened by unfamiliar student behavior. Inner-city students, too often, find school less than stimulating, lose interest and subsequently become discipline problems. Teachers may respond to the situation with punitive measures further frustrating both the student and teacher. The quality of the teaching and learning environment diminishes (39).

Keshock (32) suggests that teacher attitudes are especially crucial in working with disadvantaged pupils. Davidson and Land (15) found that student self-perceptions and achievement ratings correlated highly with the students' perceptions of how the teacher felt toward them. Clark and Deutsch (43) believe that one contributing factor to low performance levels of Black students is their belief that they will fail.

Teacher perception of a student's ability and subsequently the teacher's expectation of that child are formed to a great extent during initial encounters and interactions between the teacher and student. These perceptions of pupils are not easily changed regardless of what student gains might occur (30).

Conflicting theories do exist regarding the relationship of teacher expectancy and student achievement. Rosenthal and

Jacobson (47) concluded that student performance tends to parallel teacher expectations. They found that students performed above the expected capabilities when teachers believed them to be high-ability students.

In a critical evaluation of the Rosenthal and Jacobson findings, Elashoff and Snow (18) suggest that misrepresentative statements were made in presenting the data. After re-examination of the data, they found no treatment effects as a result of increased teacher expectancy existing in the scores of third through sixth grades and non-significant effects in the lower grades.

Entwhistle and Murray (19) found that when the teacher and child were of similar race, teacher expectations of the child increased. When the races were mixed, contradictory results were found in the two studies conducted. One found significant increases in the expectations Anglo teachers held for Black children, while the second study found significant decreases in expectations.

Responsibility for Existing Problems

Both public schools and teacher education institutions must share the responsibility for the number of problems of teacher attrition existing in inner-city schools. Few teacher preparation programs are being adjusted to adequately prepare teachers for these schools. Egerton (12) found that of 281

colleges and universities studied, one in six had significantly adjusted their curriculum in that direction.

Klopf and Bowman (9) surveyed 1,050 college members of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education in order to determine their policy toward training teachers for inner-city schools. A majority of those replying indicated that their inner-city preparation programs offered minimum opportunities for the prospective teacher to become involved with the inner-city environment.

Cruickshank (12) points out that the lack of adequate preparation offered by college programs is partially due to a deficient number of studies on which to base the programs for inner-city teachers.

Lack of In-Service Assistance for New Teachers

Inadequate public school policies and procedures also create problems for the beginning teacher. The beginning teacher sometimes works in a professional vacuum without any reference standard against which to judge his performance. A teacher experiencing difficulties relating to his pupils and handling the materials of instruction needs the support and advice of established teachers. The school system often makes no provision for such assistance (53).

Conant issues one of the more adamant statements regarding the deficiencies in the public schools:

> ... No kind of pre-service program can prepare first year teachers to operate effectively in the "sink or swim" situation in which they too often find themselves. Many local school boards have been scandalously remiss in failing to give adequate assistance to new teachers (44, p. 3).

Brochard and Hull (7) questioned beginning teachers in the inner-city concerning their perceived teaching problems during orientation into public school assignments. Teachers report the lack of assistance from school personnel as being a major reason for the difficulty experienced. While it was generally agreed that their preparation programs were irrelevant, they were in favor of any course that would contribute to teaching effectiveness.

Hull, when summarizing the analyses of interviews describing in-service problems and practices, reports that beginning teachers censured both the universities and the public schools. Specifically, the findings were as follows: The subjects experienced many problems during their first year of teaching, but the problems were successfully solved by most teachers; and a significant number of the teachers felt they received little help from either colleagues or administration relating to their induction and they were not properly prepared by the universities for the situations found in the schools (56).

Effects of Pre-Service Programs

Preparation for inner-city teachers is incomplete unless attention is given to the culture of the inner-city. The

teacher's lack of understanding of that culture has a negative effect on the education of the inner-city child according to Smith. He further suggests that cultural differences do exist and prospective teachers must creatively solve the problems arising from those differences if they expect to function effectively in a different culture (53, p. 6).

Gould (63) fosters the notion that appropriate pre-service experiences can often negate the debilitating effects of cultural shock. These activities include (1) on-site pre-service teaching experiences in the inner-city schools, and (2) non-school experiences with inner-city children in their environment. Urdang (63) supports this view when he suggests that the single most significant cause of failure among inner-city teachers has been their lack of culture shock at the pre-service level. Cuban believes that "an urban teacher education model .... must be firmly rooted in day to day human experiences in inner-city schools and communities...." (13, p. 258).

A study by Mortenson (40) examined whether or not prospective elementary school teachers can become more positively oriented toward culturally different children after taking teacher education courses that focus on teaching these children. Two groups were taught two courses dealing with disadvantaged youngsters. One group took the course during the summer and

did not have interaction with such children. The other group took courses during two consecutive fall and winter terms and worked with culturally different children. Pre and post questionnaires that dealt with their feelings about minority people were administered. Mortenson concluded that students taught courses about minorities without having real-life experience with them became more prejudiced. Students who worked with minority people became less prejudiced in general. Results suggest that practicum experiences should include interaction with children not of the dominant culture if the teachers are to avoid looking down on them or expecting them to fail. Mortenson views this as important because children tend to live up to or down to expectations of their teachers.

When on-site experiences have been impossible or impractical, some educators have sought alternative means to expose the prospective teacher to inner-city culture. In a study by Washington (63) prospective Anglo teachers with negative attitudes toward inner-city schools were studied to determine if the subjects' attitudes toward inner-city schools could be changed in a positive direction. A program consisting of lectures, micro-labs, and small group instruction was used to educate the subjects to realities of inner-city schools and life. Post tests revealed that positive attitudinal changes had been achieved. Although results were at

a non-significant level, there was a substantial numerical increase in positive attitudes toward inner-city schools.

A number of educators share the opinion that exposure of pre-service teachers to inner-city schools is insufficient preparation. Cruickshank (12) maintains that the high attrition rate, especially in large cities, is sufficient evidence to support his notion that exposing student teachers to inner-city schools is not enough to foster positive attitudes toward the inner-city child.

Bragle (62) suggests that the key to teacher adjustment to culture shock is to prepare creative teachers with positve self-concepts who are capable of changing and adjusting to meet a variety of situations. Spending time in an inner-city school is not a necessary pre-requisite to the development of such teachers. Internal change is more important because, without it, no amount of on-site exposure will be effective.

Schunak (52) studied inner-city student teachers and found that attitudinal change toward inner-city schools was precipitated by experience in those schools, but not always in a positive direction. In a study by Warner (61) teachers whose senior student teaching was conducted in inner-city schools maintained a more positive attitude toward inner-city teaching than did those teachers who did not experience inner-city exposure during their pre-service preparation program.

Drake and Thompson (16) studied student teachers in three types of pre-service programs: traditional suburban, traditional inner-city, and an experimental program designed to further understanding of the poverty child's culture and environment. Findings revealed that the student teachers in the experimental program achieved more positive changes than did those in the other two groups. The inner-city student teachers not involved in the experimental program sustained the least positive change.

A study involving cultural understanding at the in-service level was conducted by Boyce (5), who studied two groups of ten teachers, to determine if different methods of exposure to inner-city life would alter their attitudes toward race differences. One group spent five days in a classroom setting exposed to group dynamics and classroom methods while the second group lived five days in the ghetto. Boyce found that neither group realized a significant change in attitudes toward the poverty culture, and the only change of interest was an improvement of content and curriculum by the classroom subjects.

In a similar study by Strom (55), twenty-one teachers newly appointed to inner-city teaching positions participated in a workshop prior to beginning teaching. The sessions lasted six weeks and were designed to orient the teachers to the inner-city culture and environment. The teachers were supported during their first year of teaching by the

resource teachers, building principals, and project director. Nineteen were rated average or better at the end of the year, and twenty elected to continue teaching in an inner-city school.

Bitner (4), in a study of the influence of student teaching locale on beginning teachers, found no significant differences between the adjustment and effectiveness of first year teachers who student-taught in inner-city and those who student-taught in suburban schools. While suburban teachers did not differ appreciably from inner-city teachers in self-perception, empathy, view of children, confidence in classroom discipline, and teaching effectiveness, they were found to be more optimistic, held more positive attitudes toward teaching, and showed better general adjustment and mental health than did inner-city teachers.

A number of writers believe that teachers of poverty children need a substantial background in teaching skills and methodology. Tobin studied the university and public school programs designed to prepare teachers for inner-city schools. He offered the following comment:

> ...Pre-service and in-service training programs for teachers in inner-city schools should place an emphasis on the skills, tecnhiques, and methods that are most successful in teaching inner-city youngsters, rather than placing additional emphasis on the development of attitudes and interpersonal relationship (57, p. 1673A).

According to Schmidt and others (51,10,13), one of the most important assets to a teacher in the inner-city is effectiveness in interpersonal skills. Schmidt writes,

> Proper education of the teacher will lead him to examine his own human prejudices generally and, specifically, his racial prejudices, and it will discipline him in the techniques of handling problems of interpersonal relations that arise from racial prejudices in his students and their parents (51, p. 20).

Several writers support the notion that eclectic programs are the most successful in preparing adequate teachers for inner-city schools. Hennessey (28), in studying pre-service programs, concluded that pre-service teachers should be exposed early in the preparation program to inner-city culture; should be taught specifically how to modify the curriculum to meet the needs of the inner-city child; and should be offered course work emphasizing child psychology, culture understanding, and self understanding.

Similarly, Reddick (46) conducted a study that involved 19 student volunteers. The training of the subjects consisted of courses and institutes that emphasized the qualities of the poverty culture, remediation techniques, and methods of working with problems found in the inner-city and directed student teaching in inner-city schools. Follow-up observations were made, and conferences with the subjects' principal or supervisor were held. The conclusions drawn were that the subjects were functioning at an extremely high level in all respects.

In this study the attitudes of teachers in middle-class and inner-city settings were compared. A further purpose of the study was served by the comparison of field-based and campus-based programs. This component represents the pre-service level of teacher preparation. The subjects prepared in the field-based program were involved in the most concentrated effort to prepare for inner-city teaching, participating in activities specifically designed to facilitate their entry into inner-city assignments. The activities used for this purpose were similar to those adjudged appropriate and noted earlier.

Significance of Present Study

The focus of this study was to examine the effects of selected assignment and preparation factors upon the performance and adjustment of second year teachers.

Many teachers encounter difficulties when assigned to teach in inner-city schools (7, 51). Too often the new teacher is either not prepared to teach in inner-city assignments or wishes not to teach there (48, 27, 53). Very often the teacher is confronted with students whose value systems and cultures are different from his own (39, 27). As a result, difficulties between teachers and student stem from the conflict between attitudes of teacher and pupil. Inner-city students present different and more severe problems than do

students in schools in middle-class areas (63, 6, 12, 34). Teachers continue to leave at alarming rates (53, 36, 55).

Those teachers who choose to accept assignments in inner-city schools are often beset with a myriad of problems. Teachers in inner-city schools often become more oriented toward discipline (24, 34, 12) and perceive children as unable to learn (20, 30, 21). Some teachers in inner-city schools experience a drop in self-concept and in attitudes toward minority groups, which are important factors in the quality of education provided by that teacher (13, 21, 14).

Changes in behavior and attitudes of beginning teachers and student teachers (42, 22, 37) tend to be negative. These negative changes in attitude and self-concept of both pre- and in-service teachers assume added significance when considering the relationship between those affective characteristics of a teacher and teacher performance (3, 26, 49, 50).

While there are divergent opinions regarding the appropriate preparation programs for teachers in inner-city schools, a somewhat general consensus favors some degree of pre-teaching experience in the inner-city setting (13, 28, 40, 53, 63). Additionally, grade level assignments and staff organization tend to moderate or increase the degree of teachers' unfavorable attitude (64, 36, 17, 25, 41).

While a review of the literature indicates studies concerned with individual factors affecting pre- and in-service teachers, none were found that used a combination of factors to examine effects of personal-professional attitudes on teacher performance and attitudinal development beyond the initial year of teaching. This present study was designed to respond to that lack of information concerning adequate knowledge about attitudinal development and the effects of selected teaching environments over a two year initial teaching experience. Studies of this nature are not only a necessary prerequisite to the planning of effective teacher education programs but are important to public school officials who are charged with teacher assignment, retention, and teacher in-service development.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, studies are reviewed which indicate that too few new teachers are adequately prepared to begin teaching in inner-city schools. Others suggest that the continuing high attrition rate of teaching personnel in inner-city schools is due in large measure to a combination of circumstances which confront these professionals. Still other studies support the notion that self-concept and attitudes are basic to effective teacher adjustment and performance, while others indicate that teacher perception of students bears heavily on the quality of the learning environment.

Both public schools and teacher education institutions must share the responsibility of existing teacher attrition problems, according to further studies reviewed. Too few teacher preparation institutions are adjusting programs to adequately prepare teachers for inner-city schools and too often inadequate assistance is offered the beginning teacher as he attempts to cope with the myriad of problems he encounters.

Additional studies tend to confirm the notion that divergent views of appropriate preparation programs for inner-city teachers exist, but a general consensus favors some pre-teaching experiences in inner-city settings.

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CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES OF THE STUDY

This study focused on the effects of school types, professional semester preparation programs, school organizational patterns, and teaching level assignments on the adjustment and performance of second year elementary teachers. Information regarding the methods and procedures of the investigation is subdivided into the following topics: description of the subjects, description of the instruments, collection of the data, and analysis of the data. A brief summary completes the chapter.

The major function of this study was to collect and analyze follow-up data on all elementary teacher education graduates from a single teacher education institution who had been teaching approximately two years in a large urban school district. Personal-professional data including self-perception, attitude toward children and teaching, optimism and hope, as well as general psychological adjustment were used to compare selected effects of school types, professional semester preparation programs, school organizational patterns, and teaching level assignments upon the adjustment and performance of second year teachers.

The two year teaching period was selected because few follow-up studies of this type have gone beyond the first year of teaching and this time frame represents the optimal length of time an adequate population could feasibly be maintained for the purposes of this study. The large urban school district was selected because (1) it provided adequate and available machinery for locating an identifiable and sizeable group of subjects; and (2) its size and diversity was such that the variables used in the study could be studied.

Description of the Subjects

Sixty subjects participated in this study. They were all the elementary teacher graduates from a large teacher education institution who had completed two years of teaching in the large urban school district. All the subjects were successful in student teaching; all were recommended for a teaching position; and all had successfully completed requirements for certification in elementary education. It was further apparent that all were effective enough in their first year of teaching to have contracts renewed. Pre-test data which were available on fifty of the subjects indicated little difference among them on factors measured by The Bown Self-Report Inventory (SRI) and The Veldman Directed Imagination (DI) when they completed student teaching. This

analysis incorporated the significant variables of this study. Therefore, the assumption was made that the population was approximately the same in personal-professional attitudinal development when they entered teaching.

The majority of the subjects were Anglo and female. The deviations from that majority include one Mexican-American and seven Anglo males and three Black females. It was assumed that these participants had a negligible contaminating influence upon this study.

Each subject had graduated or completed certification requirements at the large teacher education institution in 1973-74 and had been enrolled in either the campus-or-field-based teacher education block program. The professional semester block is that portion of the professional sequence which is devoted to student teaching and experience related specifically to learning how to teach in the elementary classroom. Methodology courses in this block include reading, language arts and social studies. In addition, general seminar sessions, for which course credit is given are held frequently and regularly. These sessions deal with realistic situations likely to be experienced or encountered in public school teaching.

Campus-based programs were those professional semester blocks which were conducted on campus with only the student teaching experience occurring off campus. The off-campus

experience was limited to eight weeks and consisted only of student teaching in an elementary classroom. The methods courses and seminar sessions were scheduled on campus as regular classes. Major resources available for these courses were those characteristic of other courses taught in the university setting. Children were not utilized for demonstration and micro-teaching activities. The interaction with public school personnel exposure to public school programs, and involvement in school and community activities were minimal.

A major characteristic of the field-based program was that the entire professional semester was conducted on-site in a large urban school district. This program was designed so that the students spent a school semester in the public school setting as a member of a school faculty. Students were offered the opportunity to become integrally involved in the community and community services as well as the schools and resources of the school district. In addition to observing and practicing methods in the classroom for a full semester, specific activities were designed to develop a more realistic understanding of the teacher's role in an urban setting generally and in inner-city schools specifically. In addition to day-to-day experiences in multicultural school settings, activities included spending time with school social workers in the field, touring and surveying

residential areas, community centers and businesses in culturally different communities, visiting with police and juvenile officers assigned to the inner-city, and interacting with selected individuals from the various minority communities.

Thirty-nine subjects participated in the field-based professional semester programs as undergraduate elementary education graduates. Twenty-one subjects completed the campus-based programs as part of their undergraduate preparation. Of the sixty subjects, forty were assigned to inner-city schools and twenty in schools in middle-class areas. Forty-two primary teachers and eighteen intermediate teachers were involved in the study. Seventeen of the subjects were assigned to teaming situations while forty-three were teaching in non-teaming classrooms. Teaming situations refer to those in which two or more teachers are responsible for cooperatively planning and implementing appropriate learning activities for a group of students.

Description of the Instruments

Four instruments yielding three types of personal-professional data were used as criterion measures in this study. Two instruments chosen to measure the subjects in the affective areas were included in a battery designed at the University of Texas Research and Development Center for

Teacher Education, the Bown Self-Report Inventory (SRI), and the Veldman Directed Imagination Test (DI), yield information regarding the subject's affective domain. The Teaching Appraisal Instrument (TAI) generates information regarding the effectiveness of the subjects in classroom settings while the data supplied by the principal's ratings (PR) provides a view of the subjects' ability to function within the overall school setting. Instruments were selected because they appear to be specifically related to the teaching role. The use of the TAI was recommended for research purposes by the research component of education at U.C.L.A. It provides some evidence of cognitive factors of student achievement and teacher action in addition to affective components. The principal's ratings provide another view of performance. It represents the reality of evaluation which new teachers, regardless of assignment, face in the large urban school district.

A more comprehensive description of the instruments follows in this order: SRI, DI, TAI, and PR.

The Bown Self-Report Inventory (SRI)

The SRI was designed in 1958 and has since that time undergone extensive revision. It is designed as a straightforward self-assessment instrument which measures subjects' perceptions and feelings toward themselves and significant

areas of their phenomenological world. The form used in this study has forty-eight items (see Appendix A) and provided data on eight factorially distinct areas of the phenomenological world. Only five of the eight areas were used as they are more related to the specific purposes of the study.

The five areas together with Alpha reliability coefficients are:

1. Self. Items express acceptance, liking, or valuing of oneself- or the opposite (.78).

2. Others. Items express acceptance, liking, or valuing of peers or the importance of satisfactory relationships with peers to one's own sense of well-being- or the opposite (.63).

3. Children. Items express acceptance, liking, or valuing of children- or the opposite (.85).

4. Hope. Items express an optimistic anticipation of the future or a sense of confidence that one will play a significant and satisfying role in future relationships and undertakings - or the opposite (.64).

5. Total. General mental adjustment; the sum of all eight subscores (.89) (1, p. 48).

The above reliability coefficients are based on data obtained from a group of 244 female students at the College of Education, The University of Texas at Austin. Normative data are also available for males. The coefficients are presented as evidence that the SRI reliably measures the factors selected.

Although a number of significant associations between the SRI and other personality measures have emerged, Bown and Richek (1) believe that the strongest evidence for validity

of the instrument is its concurrent validity. Studies using the SRI found it capable of differentiating between teachers rated as high effective and low effective; between prospective elementary and secondary teachers where differing personality traits are desirable; and between student teachers who are perceived positively and those who are perceived negatively by their pupils. It is therefore assumed that the validity and reliability of the SRI were adequate for the purposes of this study.

The Veldman Directed Imagination Test (DI)

The DI is a projective personality assessment technique. Each respondent was given the instrument which contains space for four fictional stories. He was instructed to write about teachers and their experiences. The subject was timed by a proctor and was given four minutes to complete each story (see Appendix B). The stories were individually rated along a seven-point continuum in each of fifteen scales as described in detail in the manual for scoring the test (9).

Only four of the fifteen subscales on the DI were deemed applicable to this study. A list of the subscales applicable to this study follow with the intraclass correlations between two raters based on a sample of 250 protocols (9, p. 182).

1. Optimism .72
2. Teaching Role .76
3. Self-Ability .67
4. General Adjustment .70

The DI appears to have sufficient validity for the purpose of the present study. The scale was able to differentiate between elementary and secondary education majors, between undergraduate education majors who received experimental and control treatments in a study of the effects of mental health feedback, between those highly committed to the teaching profession and those not highly committed, and between education majors who were required to attend counseling interviews with professional counselors and those who voluntarily chose additional counseling (9).

Training procedures for the rater who read and scored the DI included studying the DI scoring manual (10) as well as studying the scoring of several DI instruments prior to rating the stories in this study. Previous experience of the rater for the DI included the rating of approximately 400 cases in earlier studies. The qualifications of the rater, a retired female teacher, appeared to be more than adequate for the purposes of this study.

The SRI and DI were developed as parts of a battery of tests to measure various personality dimensions. The two instruments were devised to measure the same psychological constructs differing mainly in format chosen to elicit the subjects' responses.

Teaching Appraisal Instrument

The TAI is an observational instrument designed to gain information about the quality of a teacher's classroom behavior. It is comprised of five analytical scales that are based on learning environment and one scale depicting the judge's overall impression of the teacher's effectiveness (see Appendix C).

Ratings were obtained during an observation of a teaching episode. Observations were limited to times when actual class or group lessons were being performed. Observation time varied to insure that all segments of each teaching episode were viewed. Observations were made on two different occasions by one observer and were scheduled at least two weeks apart. The TAI scores analyzed for purposes of this study were composites of the two observations.

Ratings of a teaching episode are made on a scale of 0 (poor) to 9 (exemplary) for each of the six dimensions with descriptors listed below:

1. Teaching to an objective--the extent to which a teacher consistently follows a well defined objective.
2. Appropriateness--the degree of match between the objectives and learner's abilities.

3. Achievement - the extent to which there is evidence of a degree of learning for each student.
4. Facilitating Use of Principles of Learning - the extent to which the teacher facilitates learning through the use of appropriate psychological principles of learning.
5. Interfering Abuse of Principles of Learning- the extent to which the teacher has interfered with the learning process through the use of inappropriate principles of learning.
6. General Impression - the degree to which the teacher's overall performance was enhancing to a good learning atmosphere.

Interrater reliability of the six teacher-performance dimensions was obtained between the observer for this study and another trained observer in approximately 20 observations. The reliability coefficient obtained was .83.

Training of the observer for this study consisted of studying modules and films specifically related to each topic prepared by Hunter (3, 4, 5, 6, and 7). In addition, viewing video-tapes and films and discussing observations with another trained rater were included in the training session. This training occurred prior to obtaining the interrater reliability. The observer is a retired public school teacher and was the only observer used in the study. She had previous experience

using the instrument. Prior to the present study, the observer has reported on some 120 observations for earlier research.

Principal's Rating

The teacher evaluation instrument is the standard form used in the large urban school district in which the subjects teach. The instrument is composed of eleven items, including descriptors, that are generally considered to be essential characteristics of a good teacher. Ratings of teacher characteristics are made on a scale of 1 (unacceptable) to 4 (excellent). Listed below are characteristics included in the instrument:

1. Classroom management
2. Pupil-teacher relationships
3. Professional attitude and conduct
4. Preparation and planning
5. Knowledge of subject matter
6. Public realtions
7. Techniques of instruction
8. Pupil adjustment
9. Pupil evaluation
10. Health and appearance
11. Teacher's overall rating

While no information is available on the reliability or validity of the teacher evaluation instrument, each principal in the forty-nine schools where the subjects were employed, had been oriented to the use of the form. In addition, the principals had been involved in sessions dealing with informal day-to-day evaluation as well as the more formal year-end summative procedure. This instrument was used to make personnel decisions including issuance of contracts and placement. It represented the reality factor of teacher performance evaluation by the principal. Since some basis was sought for using the principal's evaluation, subjects were asked if their classrooms were visited by the building administrator. Of the 60 subjects, 46 noted regular principal classroom visitation while 14 reported little or no observation.

Collection of the Data

Names of potential subjects were secured from a computer printout showing certification levels of new teachers and the names of the institution granting their degrees. Teaching locations of the subjects were obtained from school district records. Contact was made by mail with each potential subject. A description of the study and participant involvement was outlined. Consent to collect the necessary data was obtained through research agreements with each subject. These agreements insured strictest confidentiality and noted that

collected data would be dealt with in terms of group analysis rather than specifying individuals.

A proposal to conduct the study was written and submitted to the appropriate central administration officials of the school district. The proposal fully explained and described the study including the hypotheses to be tested, the population and the data to be collected, a description of instruments to be used and the procedures for collecting and analyzing the data. The proposal was reviewed and approved by a central screening council composed of top level district administrators. Principals were notified of the approval and were asked to cooperate.

Data on the SRI and DI were gathered in two steps: (1) Fourteen teachers who secured teaching positions at mid-term of the 1973-74 school year and therefore completed two years of teaching at mid-term 1975-76, met in mid-February and the SRI and DI were administered at that time; (2) Forty-six teachers who obtained teaching assignments in August 1974, and who completed two years of teaching in May 1976, met in May and the SRI and DI were administered. The data collecting sessions were scheduled after school hours at locations central to a group of subjects. To facilitate utilization of all subjects, several sessions were necessary.

The observational data from the TAI was collected in two stages. Each subject who began teaching in January 1974 was observed and rated in his classroom by the same trained

observer on two occasions. These observations were conducted in January and February 1976 and a time lapse of two weeks was observed between the first and second sessions. Each subject who was hired in August 1974 was observed and rated by the same observer in April and May 1976. Again the observation periods were scheduled approximately two weeks apart. The observations of approximately thirty minutes each were used to evaluate the subjects on the basis of the six variables of the TAI. The difference in test administration times was to insure that approximately two years of teaching time had elapsed prior to testing.

The ratings from principals were collected during the time each principal did his teacher evaluation in April and May. The rating forms were mailed to the principals of the schools where the subjects were teaching. Enclosed with the form was a letter, approved by the central administration, authorizing the principals to supply the needed information. In addition, statements insuring anonymity and confidentiality were included in the letter, along with a brief description of the study. Self-addressed envelopes were provided. Follow-up telephone calls were made to those principals failing to respond until 100 per cent response was obtained.

Analysis of the Data

The research was of Quasi-Experimental post-test only design. No external experimental variables were imposed.

However, the variables in the study were treated statistically as experimental and control variables which constitute independent samples.

The raw data generated by each instrument were transposed into a form compatible with computer analysis. The decision as to the level of significance below which an hypothesis would be accepted or rejected was arbitrarily designated at the .05 level.

The analyses of data was done by calculating the mean scores of the five SRI subscales and the four DI subscales pertinent to the variables used to test the first four hypotheses as recorded in Chapter I. Mean scores of the TAI and the PR were computed and used to test the last eight hypotheses. The one way analysis of variance was applied to analyze the scores derived from each variable. Bartlett's Chi Square was used to establish homogeneity of variance in groups that varied in terms of numbers.

Chapter Summary

The purpose of Chapter III was to outline and clarify the methods and procedures used to conduct the investigations of this study. In this chapter, a description of the subjects and instruments used to collect and analyze the data was included.

The sixty subjects of this study were second year teachers assigned to inner-city or middle-class schools in

a large, urban school district. Except for three Black females, one Mexican-American and seven Anglo males, all were Anglo females.

Four instruments yielding three types of personal-professional data were administered. Two instruments--the SRI and DI provided information about areas of the subjects' affective domain, while the TAI generated information on the subjects' classroom effectiveness. The data gained from the principal's ratings provided a view of the subjects' ability to perform within the overall school setting. Analysis of variance was selected to analyze the data collected.

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CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

The major function of this study was to investigate the effects of school types, professional semester preparation programs, school organizational patterns, and teaching level assignments upon the adjustment and performance of sixty elementary education graduates completing two years of teaching in a large urban school district.

This chapter includes the presentation and interpretation of the analyzed data collected for the purpose of this study. The analysis of data, as described in Chapter Three, was done by calculating the mean scores of the Self-Report Inventory (SRI) and the Directed Imagination (DI) subscales pertinent to the variables that were used to test the first four hypotheses in this study. The mean scores of the Teaching Appraisal Instrument (TAI) and the Principals' Rating (PR) were used to test the last eight hypotheses.

The one-way analysis of variance was used to analyze the scores derived from each variable. Bartlett's Chi Square was used to establish homogeneity of variance in groups that varied in terms of numbers. The Chi Square probability levels were found to be insignificant, indicating

no significant variance within score-distributions for the groups compared.

The chapter format for presenting and analyzing the data follows: The initial presentation includes the analysis of variance results for the five variables used to test the first four hypotheses. The 5 variables are: (1) self-perception, (2) attitude toward children, (3) optimism and hope, (4) attitude toward teaching, and (5) general adjustment. Second, analysis of mean scores from the TAI are presented. The third presentation includes the analysis of the mean scores from the PR. Non-hypothesized data and a brief discussion of the findings conclude the chapter.

Presentation and Analysis of Data

To facilitate treatment of the hypotheses under study, the research hypotheses stated in Chapter One were changed to the null hypotheses form. Null hypotheses I-A through V-D relate to the treatment of the 5 variables measured by the SRI and the DI instruments, while presentation of the data collected by the TAI and the PR are reflected in null hypotheses VI through XIII.

The decision was made not to combine the factor scores of the SRI and the DI into a single standard score of related factors because the correlation between the two instruments did not prove to be significantly positive. This is believed

to be because of the nature of the instruments. The SRI is a straight-forward self-assessment instrument. The subject could anticipate the expected response and supply it. The DI is a projective technique in which an outside rater reads stories about classroom situations written by the subjects. The scores on factors are given on the basis of protocols provided in the test manual. The subjects have no way of anticipating the expected response.

Instances in which the two instrument scores contradict are regarded as inconclusive and rejected. When the two instruments gave data with the same directionality which produced significance, it was regarded as strongly indicative that the observed difference was real.

Null Hypotheses Applicable to the Variable Self-Perception

Null hypothesis I-A.--No significant difference will be found between the self-perception scores of second year teachers teaching in middle class schools and second year teachers teaching in inner-city schools.

The mean scores of "self-perception," which are shown in Table I, show the inner-city teachers' score of 26.85 on the "self" subscale of the SRI to be numerically greater than the middle-class teachers' score of 26.30. In addition, the inner-city teachers' score of 4.72 on the "self ability" subscale of the DI was slightly greater than the 4.34 score

of middle-class teachers. Since the difference between the means on both subscales are not significant, the null hypotheses I-A is retained.

TABLE I

SELF-PERCEPTION MEAN SCORES OF SECOND YEAR TEACHERS IN INNER-CITY SCHOOLS AND MIDDLE-CLASS SCHOOLS

	Teachers in Inner-City Schools N = 40		Teachers in Middle Class Schools N = 40			
Factors/Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
Self (SRI)	26.85	3.62	26.30	3.95	.29	.59
Self Ability (DI)	4.72	.97	4.34	.58	2.75	.11

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null Hypothesis I-B--No significant difference will be found between the self-perception scores of Field-based trained teachers and Campus-based trained teachers.

The .47 and .19 probability levels obtained on the "self" and "self ability" subscales of the SRI and the DI respectively by using the analysis of variance, as shown in Table II, indicate no significant difference existed between field-based trained teachers and campus-based trained teachers. On the "self" component of the SRI (self-rating measure), the campus-based trained teachers' score of 27.14 was numerically greater

than the inner-city teachers' score of 26.41. On the "self ability" component of the DI (projective measure), the field-based trained teachers' score of 4.70 was slightly greater than the 4.38 score of the campus-based teachers. The null hypothesis I-B is retained on the basis of the insignificant differences between the two groups.

TABLE II

SELF-PERCEPTION MEAN SCORES OF SECOND YEAR FIELD-BASED TRAINED TEACHERS AND CAMPUS-BASED TRAINED TEACHERS

	Field-Based Trained Teachers N = 39		Campus-Based Trained Teachers N = 21			
Factor/Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
Self (SRI)	26.41	4.03	27.14	3.04	.53	.47
Self Ability (DI)	4.70	.83	4.38	.92	1.77	.19

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null Hypothesis I-C--No significant difference will be found between the self-perception scores of primary level second year teachers and intermediate level second year teachers.

As shown in Table III, negligible differences existed between the mean scores of primary and intermediate teachers on both subscales, with the primary teachers' "self" score of

26.91 being numerically greater than the 26.11 score of the intermediate teachers. Conversely, the intermediate teachers' score on the "self ability" subscale was 4.67 and numerically greater than the 4.55 score of primary teachers. The .45 and .63 probability values are not significant, thus the null hypothesis I-C is retained.

TABLE III

SELF-PERCEPTION MEAN SCORES OF SECOND YEAR PRIMARY AND INTERMEDIATE TEACHERS

	Primary Teachers N = 42		Intermediate Teachers N = 18			
Factor/Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
Self (SRI)	26.91	3.64	26.11	3.89	.57	.45
Self Ability (DI)	4.55	.77	4.67	1.08	.23	.63

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null hypothesis I-D.--No significant difference will be found between the self-perception scores of second year teachers in teaming situations and second year teachers in self-contained classrooms.

Although not significant, the probability level of .06, shown in Table IV, approaches the .05 level necessary for significance. This difference is found between the team teachers and the self-contained teachers on the "self" sub-scale

of the SRI with the team teachers' mean score of 28.06 being numerically greater than the self-contained teachers' mean score of 26.12. The probability values of .06 and .32 were insignificant. Therefore, the null hypothesis is retained on the basis of lack of significant difference.

TABLE IV

SELF-PERCEPTION MEAN SCORES OF SECOND YEAR TEACHERS IN TEAM TEACHING CLASSROOMS AND SELF-CONTAINED CLASSROOMS

	Teachers in Team Teaching Classrooms N = 17		Teachers in Self-Contained Classrooms N = 43			
Factor/Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
Self (SRI)	28.06	1.82	26.12	4.12	3.49	.06
Self Ability (DI)	4.76	1.15	4.51	.74	1.04	.32

*P values of less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null Hypotheses Applicable to the Variable Attitude Toward Children

Null hypothesis II-A.--No significant difference will be found between the attitude toward children scores of second year teachers teaching in middle class areas and second year teachers teaching in inner-city schools.

The mean scores of "attitude toward children," which are shown in Table V, show the inner-city teachers' score of 27.17

to be slightly greater numerically than the 26.65 score of middle-class teachers on the SRI which is the only instrument used to measure this variable. Since the probability value of .55 is greater than the required .05 level of significance, the null hypothesis II-A is retained.

TABLE V

ATTITUDE TOWARD CHILDREN MEAN SCORES OF SECOND YEAR TEACHERS IN INNER-CITY AND MIDDLE CLASS SCHOOLS

	Teachers in Inner-City Schools N = 40		Teachers in Middle-Class Schools N = 20			
Factor/Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
Attitude Toward Children (SRI)	27.17	3.18	26.65	3.26	.36	.55

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null hypothesis II-B.--No significant difference will be found between the attitude toward children scores of field-based trained second year teachers and campus-based trained second year teachers.

Minimum differences on the SRI, the only instrument used to test this variable, are found between the "attitude toward children" mean scores of field-based and campus-based trained teachers. The 27.18 score of field-based trained teachers was

only slightly higher numerically than the 26.66 mean score of the campus-based trained teachers. Because of the insignificant results, null hypothesis II-B is retained.

TABLE VI

ATTITUDE TOWARD CHILDREN MEAN SCORES OF SECOND YEAR FIELD-BASED AND CAMPUS-BASED TRAINED TEACHERS

	Field-Based Trained Teachers N = 39		Campus-Based Trained Teachers N - 21			
Factor/Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
Attitude Toward Children (SRI	27.18	2.99	26.66	3.58	.35	.56

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null hypothesis II-C.--No significant difference will be found between the attitude toward children scores of primary level second year teachers and intermediate level second year teachers.

Minimal differences are found between the "attitude toward children" subscale of the SRI mean scores of the primary and intermediate teachers. The SRI comparisons of the primary teachers' and intermediate teachers' scores, shown in Table VII, of 27.09 and 26.77 respectively, produced insignificant results, and thus the null hypothesis II-C is retained.

TABLE VII

ATTITUDE TOWARD CHILDREN MEAN SCORES OF SECOND YEAR PRIMARY AND INTERMEDIATE TEACHERS

	Primary Teachers N = 42		Intermediate Teachers N = 18			
Factor/Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
Attitude Toward Children (SRI)	27.09	3.01	26.77	3.67	.12	.73

*P values of less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null hypothesis II-D.--No significant difference will be found between the attitude toward children scores of second year teachers in teaming situations and second year teachers in self-contained classrooms.

A statistically significant difference at the .03 probability level resulted from the analysis of the "attitude toward children" scores of team teachers and self-contained teachers. This data, shown in Table VIII, resulted from the greater numerical mean score of 28.41 of team teachers as compared to the 26.44 score of self-contained teachers. Inasmuch as the probability level is less than the .05 level required for significance, the null hypothesis II-D is rejected.

TABLE VIII

ATTITUDE TOWARD CHILDREN MEAN SCORES OF SECOND YEAR TEACHERS IN TEAM TEACHING CLASSROOMS AND SELF-CONTAINED CLASSROOMS

	Teachers in Team Teaching Classrooms N = 17		Teachers in Self-Contained Classrooms N - 43			
Factor/Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
Attitude Toward Children (SRI)	28.41	2.32	26.44	3.34	4.94	.03

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null Hypotheses Applicable to the Variable Optimism-Hope

Null hypothesis III-A.--No significant difference will be found between the optimism-hope scores of second year teachers teaching in middle-class areas and second year teachers teaching in inner-city schools.

A statistical significance at the .01 probability level resulted from the analysis of the SRI "hope" scores of inner-city and middle-class teachers. This data, shown in Table IX, resulted from the greater inner-city teachers' mean score of 26.17 as compared with the middle-class teachers' mean score of 23.85. There was no significant difference between the inner-city and middle-class teachers on the "optimism" sub-scale of the DI. In the light of the two sets of scores that

resulted in contradictory data, the null hypothesis III-A is retained.

TABLE IX

OPTIMISM-HOPE MEAN SCORES OF SECOND YEAR TEACHERS IN INNER-CITY SCHOOLS AND MIDDLE CLASS SCHOOLS

	Teachers in Inner-City Schools N = 40		Teachers in Middle-Class Schools N = 20			
Factor/Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
Hope (SRI)	26.17	2.91	23.85	3.29	9.03	.01
Optimism (DI)	4.44	1.32	4.47	.87	.02	.90

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null hypothesis III-B--No significant difference will be found between the optimism-hope scores of field-based trained teachers and campus-based trained teachers.

Although not significant, the probability value of .08 on the DI subscale, as shown in Table X, approaches the .05 level necessary for significance. This difference is found between the field-based trained teachers and the campus-based trained teachers, with the field-based trained teachers' mean score of 4.64 being slightly greater than the 4.09 campus-based trained teachers. The field-based trained teachers' mean score of 25.85 on the SRI subscale was numerically greater than the

24.91 campus-based trained teachers' score. However, the probability level of .28 indicates no significant difference. The null hypothesis III-B is retained.

TABLE X

OPTIMISM-HOPE MEAN SCORES OF SECOND YEAR FIELD-BASED TRAINED TEACHERS AND CAMPUS-BASED TRAINED TEACHERS

	Field-Based Trained Teachers N = 39		Campus-Based Trained Teachers N = 21			
Factor/Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
Hope (SRI)	25.85	3.17	24.91	3.35	1.16	.28
Optimism (DI)	4.64	1.16	4.09	1.14	3.07	.08

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null hypothesis III-C.--No significant difference will be found between the optimism-hope scores of primary level second year teachers and intermediate level second year teachers.

Minimal numerical differences are found between the "optimism and hope" mean scores of the primary and intermediate teachers. The intermediate teachers' scores of 26.05 and 4.55 on the SRI and DI subscales respectively, were slightly higher than the 25.28 and 4.41 scores of primary teachers. The null hypothesis III-C is retained in that the probability values are greater than the necessary .05 or less to be significant.

TABLE XI

OPTIMISM-HOPE MEAN SCORES OF SECOND YEAR PRIMARY AND INTERMEDIATE TEACHERS

Factor/Instrument	Primary Teachers N = 42		Intermediate Teachers N = 18		F	P*
	Means	SD	Means	SD		
Hope (SRI)	25.28	3.39	26.05	2.86	.71	.41
Optimism (DI)	4.41	1.15	4.55	1.25	.21	.65

*P values of less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null hypothesis III-D.--No significant difference will be found between the optimism-hope scores of second year teachers in teaming situations and second year teachers in self-contained classrooms.

As shown in Table XII, substantial numerical differences existed between the mean scores of team teachers and self-contained teachers on both the SRI and DI subscales. The team teachers had a mean score of 27.06 on the "hope" subscale while the self-contained teachers' mean score was 24.91. The 5.00 score of the team teachers on the DI was greater than the 4.23 score of the self-contained teachers. The probability values of .02 was less than the required .05 level of significance. Thus, the null hypothesis III-D was rejected.

TABLE XII

OPTIMISM-HOPE MEAN SCORES OF SECOND YEAR TEACHERS IN TEAM TEACHING CLASSROOMS AND SELF-CONTAINED CLASSROOMS

	Teachers in Team Teaching Classrooms N = 17		Teachers in Self-Contained Classrooms N = 43			
Factor/Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
Hope (SRI)	27.06	2.22	24.91	3.39	5.82	.02
Optimism (DI)	5.00	1.06	4.23	1.15	5.65	.02

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null Hypotheses Applicable to the Variable Attitude Toward Teaching

Null hypothesis IV-A.--No significant difference will be found between the attitude toward teaching scores of second year teachers teaching in middle-class areas and second year teachers teaching in inner-city schools.

A probability level of .21 indicates that no significant differences exist between the inner-city and middle-class teachers on the "attitude toward teaching" subscale of the DI. This variable was measured only by the DI. The inner-city teachers' mean score of 4.26 was numerically higher than the 3.91 score of middle-class teachers. Since the differences

between the two groups fail to achieve significance, the null hypothesis IV-A is retained.

TABLE XIII

ATTITUDE TOWARD TEACHING MEAN SCORES OF SECOND YEAR TEACHERS IN INNER-CITY SCHOOLS AND MIDDLE CLASS SCHOOLS

	Teachers in Inner-City Schools N = 40		Teachers in Middle-Class Schools N = 20			
Factor/Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
Attitude Toward Teaching (DI)	4.26	.99	3.91	1.04	1.65	.21

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be signigicant.

Null hypothesis IV-B.--No significant difference will be found between the attitude toward teaching scores of field-based trained second year teachers and campus-based trained second year teachers.

Minimal numerical differences are found between the "attitude toward teaching" subscale of the DI mean scores of field-based and campus-based trained teachers. The 4.18 score of field-based trained teachers was only slightly higher numerically than the campus-based trained teachers' score of 4.05. Because of the insignificant results, null hypothesis IV-B is retained.

TABLE XIV

ATTITUDE TOWARD TEACHING MEAN SCORES OF SECOND YEAR FIELD-BASED TRAINED TEACHERS AND CAMPUS-BASED TRAINED TEACHERS

	Field-Based Trained Teachers N = 39		Campus-Based Trained Teachers N = 21			
Factor/Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
Attitude Toward Teaching (DI)	4.18	1.02	4.05	1.03	.23	.64

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null hypothesis IV-C--No significant difference will be found between the attitude toward teaching scores of primary level second year teachers and intermediate level second year teachers.

As shown in Table XV, negligible numerical differences existed between the mean scores of primary and intermediate teachers "attitude toward teaching" subscale of the DI which was the only instrument used to test this variable. The intermediate teachers' score of 4.27 is slightly greater than the primary teachers' score of 4.07. The .47 probability value is not significant, thus the null hypothesis IV-C is retained.

TABLE XV

ATTITUDE TOWARD TEACHING MEAN SCORES OF SECOND YEAR PRIMARY AND INTERMEDIATE TEACHERS

	Primary Teachers N = 42		Intermediate Teachers N = 18			
Factor/Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
Attitude Toward Teaching (DI)	4.07	1.05	4.27	.96	.52	.47

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null hypothesis IV-D.--No significant difference will be found between the attitude toward teaching scores of second year teachers in teaming situations and second year teachers in self-contained classrooms.

The mean scores of "attitude toward teaching" variable, which are shown in Table XVI, show the team teachers' score of 4.29 to be numerically greater than the 4.07 score of self-contained teachers. Since the difference between the means are not significant, the null hypothesis IV-D is retained.

Null Hypotheses Applicable to the Variable General Adjustment

Null hypothesis V-A.--No significant difference will be found between the general adjustment scores of second year

TABLE XVI

ATTITUDE TOWARD TEACHING MEAN SCORES OF SECOND YEAR TEACHERS IN TEAM TEACHING CLASSROOMS AND SELF-CONTAINED CLASSROOMS

	Teachers in Team Teaching Classrooms N = 17		Teachers in Self-Contained Classrooms N = 43			
Factor/Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
Attitude Toward Teaching (DI)	4.29	.85	4.07	1.07	.59	.45

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

teachers teaching in middle-class areas and second year teachers teaching in inner-city schools.

The probability levels of .22 on the SRI and .68 on the DI indicate no significant difference between inner-city and middle-class teachers in general adjustment. The inner-city teachers' score of 202.35 on the SRI subscale was numerically greater than the middle-class teachers' score of 196.10. Conversely, the middle-class teachers' mean score of 4.14 on the DI was slightly higher than the 4.03 mean score of the inner-city teachers. Because of lack of significant difference between the mean scores, the null hypothesis V-A was retained.

TABLE XVII

GENERAL ADJUSTMENT MEAN SCORES OF SECOND YEAR TEACHERS IN INNER-CITY SCHOOLS AND MIDDLE CLASS SCHOOLS

	Teachers in Inner-City Schools N = 40		Teachers in Middle-Class Schools N = 20			
Factor/Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
Total Self Adjustment (SRI)	202.35	18.74	196.10	17.11	1.57	.22
General Adjustment (DI)	4.03	1.18	4.14	.73	.17	.68

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null hypothesis V-B.--No significant difference will be found between the general adjustment scores of field-based trained second year teachers and campus-based trained second year teachers.

Minimal numerical differences are found between the SRI and DI subscales of the general adjustment mean scores of field-based trained and campus-based trained teachers. The 200.95 mean score of campus-based trained teachers on the SRI is greater numerically than the 199.89 mean score of the field-based trained teachers. Conversely, the field-based trained teachers' mean score of 4.21 on the DI was numerically greater than the 3.81 scored by the campus-based trained teachers.

The probability values of .83 and .16 indicate no significant difference between the mean scores, thus the null hypothesis V-A is retained.

TABLE XVIII

GENERAL ADJUSTMENT MEAN SCORES OF SECOND YEAR FIELD-BASED TRAINED TEACHER CAMPUS-BASED TRAINED TEACHERS

	Field-Based Trained Teachers N = 39		Campus-Based Trained Teachers N = 21			
Factor/Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
Total Self Adjustment (SRI)	199.89	19.16	200.95	17.03	.04	.83
General Adjustment (DI)	4.21	1.05	3.81	0.98	2.01	.16

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null hypothesis V-C.--No significant differences will be found between the general adjustment scores of primary level second year teachers and intermediate level second year teachers.

The relative equality that existed between the general adjustment scores of the primary and intermediate teachers is shown in Table XIX. The intermediate teachers obtained the greater mean score of 201.72 on the SRI subscale, while the primary teachers secured a 199.64 mean score. On the DI

subscale, the intermediate mean score was 4.16, slightly higher than the 4.03 mean score of the primary teachers. Since the difference between the means is not significant, the null hypothesis V-C is retained.

TABLE XIX

GENERAL ADJUSTMENT MEAN SCORES OF SECOND YEAR PRIMARY AND INTERMEDIATE TEACHERS

	Primary Teachers N = 42		Intermediate Teachers N = 18			
Factor/Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
Total Self Adjustment (SRI)	199.64	17.71	201.72	20.09	.16	.69
General Adjustment (DI)	4.03	.93	4.16	1.29	.24	.63

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null hypothesis V-D.--No significant difference will be found between the general adjustment scores of second year teachers in teaming situations and second year teachers in self-contained classrooms.

Table XX presents the group means, F-ratios, and probability levels which result from the measures relating to general adjustment. The one-way analysis of variance resulted in a finding of significant difference between team teachers and self-contained teachers on the SRI subscale. The team

teachers' mean score of 209.65 was substantially greater numerically than the 195.56 mean score of the self-contained teachers. While no significant difference was found between the mean scores on the DI subscale, the 4.17 score of team teachers was slightly higher than the 4.03 score of self-contained teachers. Based on the probability value of .01 on the SRI component of the general adjustment variable and the same directionality on the DI, the null hypothesis V-D is rejected.

TABLE XX

GENERAL ADJUSTMENT MEAN SCORES OF SECOND YEAR TEACHERS IN TEAM TEACHING CLASSROOMS AND SELF-CONTAINED CLASSROOMS

	Teachers in Team Teaching Classrooms N = 17		Teachers in Self-Contained Classrooms N = 43			
Factor/Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
Total Self-Adjustment (SRI)	209.65	13.85	196.56	18.66	6.84	.01
General Adjustment (DI)	4.17	.95	4.03	1.08	.26	.61

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null Hypotheses Applicable to the Teaching Appraisal Instrument

Null hypothesis VI.--No significant difference will be found in the TAI ratings of second year middle-class teachers and second year inner-city teachers.

The middle-class teachers' mean score of 88.60 was higher numerically than the 84.17 score of inner-city teachers indicating that the middle-class teachers tended to be rated higher than the inner-city teachers. However, since the difference is not statistically significant, the null hypothesis is retained.

TABLE XXI

MEAN SCORES OF TEACHING APPRAISAL INSTRUMENT RATINGS OF SECOND YEAR TEACHERS IN INNER-CITY SCHOOLS AND MIDDLE CLASS SCHOOLS

	Teachers in Inner-City Schools N = 40		Teachers in Middle-Class Schools N = 20			
Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
TAI	84.17	10.20	88.60	11.76	2.26	.14

*P Values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null hypothesis VII.--No significant difference will be found in the TAI ratings of field-based trained second year teachers and campus-based trained second year teachers.

Field-based trained teachers were rated higher numerically than campus-based trained teachers, as shown in Table XXII. The field-based trained teachers' mean score was 87.64 while

the campus-based trained teachers' score was 81.95. Since the difference is significant, as indicated by the required .05 probability level, the null hypothesis VII is rejected.

TABLE XXII

MEAN SCORES OF TEACHING APPRAISAL INSTRUMENT RATINGS OF SECOND YEAR FIELD-BASED TRAINED TEACHERS AND CAMPUS-BASED TRAINED TEACHERS

	Field-Based Trained Teachers N = 39		Campus-Based Trained Teachers N = 21			
Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
TAI	87.64	11.76	81.95	7.89	3.94	.05

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null hypothesis VIII.--No significant difference will be found in the TAI ratings of primary level second year teachers and intermediate level second year teachers.

A moderate numerical difference as seen in the primary teachers' mean score of 85.24 and the 86.61 mean score of intermediate teachers indicates a higher rating for intermediate teachers. However, the .66 probability level indicates the difference between the two groups is insignificant. Thus, the null hypothesis IX is retained.

TABLE XXIII

MEAN SCORES OF TEACHING APPRAISAL INSTRUMENT RATINGS OF SECOND YEAR PRIMARY AND INTERMEDIATE TEACHERS

	Primary Teachers N = 42		Intermediate Teachers N = 18			
Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
TAI	85.24	10.97	86.61	10.88	.19	.66

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null hypothesis IX.--No significant difference will be found in the TAI ratings of second year teachers in teaming situations and second year teachers in self-contained classrooms.

The differences existing between the ratings of team teachers and self-contained teachers are not significant. The mean score of the self-contained teachers of 85.95 is numerically greater than that of the team teachers mean score of 84.88, as shown in Table XXIV. Since the mean differences are not large enough to be significant, the null hypothesis is retained.

TABLE XXIV

MEAN SCORES OF TEACHING APPRAISAL INSTRUMENT RATINGS OF SECOND YEAR TEACHERS IN TEAM TEACHING CLASSROOMS AND SELF-CONTAINED CLASSROOMS

	Teachers in Team Teaching Classrooms N = 17		Teachers in Self-Contained Classrooms N = 43			
Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
TAI	84.88	8.65	85.95	11.68	.12	.73

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null Hypotheses Applicable to the Principal's Rating

Null hypothesis X.--No significant difference will be found in the principal's rating of second year inner-city teachers and second year teachers in middle-class areas.

As seen in Table XXV, a close parallel exists between the group means of the inner-city teachers and the middle-class teachers. The 41.80 mean score of the middle-class teachers is slightly greater than the 41.05 of the inner-city teachers. The probability value of .44 is insignificant and supports retention of the null hypothesis.

TABLE XXV

MEAN SCORES OF PRINCIPALS' RATINGS OF SECOND YEAR TEACHERS IN INNER-CITY SCHOOLS AND MIDDLE CLASS SCHOOLS

	Teachers in Inner-City Schools N = 40		Teachers in Middle-Class Schools N = 20			
Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
PR	41.05	3.63	41.80	3.22	.61	.44

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null hypothesis XI.--No significant difference will be found in the principal's rating of field-based trained second year teachers and campus-based trained second year teachers.

A notable similarity exists between the principals' ratings of teachers who were trained in different preparation programs. The campus-based trained teachers obtained a mean score of 41.58 which is slightly higher numerically than the 41.18 score of the field-based trained teachers. The lack of statistical difference prompts the retention of the null hypothesis.

TABLE XXVI

MEAN SCORES OF PRINCIPALS' RATINGS OF SECOND YEAR FIELD-BASED TRAINED TEACHERS AND CAMPUS-BASED TRAINED TEACHERS

	Field-Based Trained Teachers N = 39		Campus-Based Trained Teachers N = 21			
Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
PR	41.18	3.84	41.53	2.78	.13	.72

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

Null hypothesis XII.--No significant difference will be found in the principal's rating of primary level second year teachers and intermediate level second year teachers.

In terms of mean differences, primary teachers were rated higher numerically than the intermediate teachers. Their means were 41.59 and 40.61 respectively and can be seen in Table XXVII. Since the differences are not significant, the null hypothesis is retained.

Null hypothesis XIII.--No significant differences will be found in principal's rating of second year teachers in teaming situations and second year teachers in self-contained classrooms.

TABLE XXVII

MEAN SCORES OF PRINCIPAL'S RATINGS OF SECOND YEAR PRIMARY AND INTERMEDIATE TEACHERS

	Primary Teachers N = 42		Intermediate Teachers N = 18			
Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
PR	41.59	3.18	40.61	4.13	1.00	.32

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

The significance probability level of .05, which is shown in Table XXVIII, resulted from the disparity between the mean scores of team teachers and self-contained teachers. The team

TABLE XXVIII

MEAN SCORES OF PRINCIPAL'S RATINGS OF SECOND YEAR TEACHERS IN TEAM TEACHING CLASSROOMS AND SELF-CONTAINED CLASSROOMS

	Teachers in Team Teaching Classrooms N = 17		Teachers in Self-Contained Classrooms N = 43			
Instrument	Means	SD	Means	SD	F	P*
PR	39.88	3.84	41.86	3.22	4.12	.05

*P values less than or equal to .05 are considered to be significant.

teachers had a 39.88 score, while the score of 41.80 obtained by the self-contained teachers was greater numerically. Since the probability level is exactly the same as the required significance level of .05, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Discussion of Findings

The data on effects of two school types on adjustment and performance of second year teachers are shown in Tables I, V, IX, XIII, XVIII, XXI, and XXV. When the measures for the group of teachers who taught in inner-city schools are compared with those of teachers who taught in middle-class schools, the differences are not extensive. The only significant difference was found on the "hope" subscale of the SRI and favors the inner-city teachers. The inner-city teachers scored consistently higher numerically on all the selected subscales measured by the SRI, and numerically higher on 2 of the 4 selected DI variables. The exceptions to the over-all trend are found in the "optimism" and "general adjustment" subscales of the DI. These trends are contradictory to the other data.

In this study the effects of teaching in the inner-city did not seem to result in lowered attitudes or performance of teachers. It may be inferred that contrary to earlier findings by Cuban (1), Gage (4), and Dandes (2), inner-city

teachers in this study did not suffer greater attitude deterioration than middle-class teachers after two years of teaching.

While the inner-city teachers scored consistently higher on attitudinal development, the middle-class teachers were rated numerically higher on both performance instruments. Because of the general conditions characteristic of inner-city schools, it is quite possible that an outside rater would tend to be influenced by those conditions and rate the teacher somewhat lower than those in middle-class settings.

The data pertinent to trends and differences between field-based and campus-based teacher graduates are presented in Tables II, VI, X, XIV, XVIII, XXII, and XXVI. Although statistically significant findings did not materialize between these two groups on attitudinal variables, findings on the TAI (performance data with an outside rater), indicated that field-based trained teachers received significantly higher ratings than campus-based trained teachers. The field-based teacher graduates scored higher numerically on all the personal-professional variables measured by the SRI and DI with the exceptions of the "self" and "total self-adjustment" scores on the SRI.

The findings on all the attitudinal and performance instruments, while not highly significant in support of

either program, except on the TAI, do indicate consistency in favor of the field-based group. It should be noted that the findings do not imply that campus-based graduates were not effective. The available data indicate that all subjects were successful teachers. These results generally support the findings of Hennessey (5), Gould (8), and Cuban (1) which suggest that some degree of pre-service experience should be provided in the inner-city setting. The findings tend to support those of Reddick (7) who notes that the training of teachers should include activities that emphasize the elements of poverty culture as well as problems found in urban schools.

Primary teachers scored lower than intermediate teachers on the attitudinal variables measured by the SRI and DI, as shown in Tables III, VII, XI, XV, and XIX. The primary teachers scored lower on the TAI (Table XXIII) than intermediate teachers. The exceptions to the overall trend are contradictory to the other data and to findings of Whitt (9) and Levine (6) who found that primary teachers generally had a more positive attitude toward students and showed more sense of optimism, satisfaction and hopefulness about teaching.

The greatest number of significant findings occurred on comparisons between the team teachers and self-contained teachers as shown in Tables IV, VIII, XII, XVI, XX, XXIII, and XXVII. Team teachers scored significantly higher on the

"attitude toward children," "hope," and "general self adjustment" subscales of the SRI and the "optimism" subscale of the DI. While not significantly higher, the team teachers scored numerically higher on all the remaining variables measured by the SRI and DI. Considering the findings, the type of staff organization did prove to be a factor in the attitudinal adjustment of teachers.

These findings support the findings of a study by Earp and Tanner (3), summarized in Chapter Two, which pointed out that team teaching situations are more supportive to the adjustment of new teachers than other staffing patterns.

School principals rated the performance of the self-contained teachers significantly higher than the team teachers. In addition, the self-contained teachers scored higher numerically on the TAI measure. Thus, there is some indication that the perceived effectiveness of the teacher is enhanced by a self-contained setting.

In an effort to explain the dichotomy between adjustment and performance of team teachers, the teaching setting itself may provide a reasonable explanation. The teaming setting involves two or more professionals and a large number of students. The teams are usually housed in the same general area and often in an open space situation. This setting allows the observer to see a variety of activities taking place at one time. In addition, the teachers tend to move

about as they work with groups of students and this makes it more difficult to evaluate one teacher's performance. Often the team is viewed as a whole unit, rather than as individuals. The teacher evaluator, whether principal or outside observer, could interpret these situations as confusing and noisy. Lower performance ratings could result. The self-contained classroom, free from many outside influences, provides the opportunity to focus specifically on one teacher's performance without other interference.

Non-hypothesized Findings and Observations

Based on personal observations in the conduct of this investigation and statistical information not reported, the following observations were made.

1. There were no overtones of defeat among the subjects in this study. The general implication is one of successfully coping with whatever teaching situation they are in.

2. Principals did visit and observe the teachers in the classroom prior to the formal evaluation.

3. Teacher attrition rate among the subjects in the study was minimal. The four Anglo female subjects who were not returning to their positions were interviewed. Reasons given for leaving were impending marriage for one subject, and three were moving as a result of their husbands being transferred. All were seeking teaching positions in their new locations.

Chapter Summary

In Chapter IV, the findings of this study are presented. The research hypotheses were restated in the null form and grouped according to the attitudinal and performance variables tested to facilitate statistical analysis. The one-way analysis of variance was used to analyze the data.

The data, while not highly significant as a whole, does indicate several broad trends. Inner-city teachers achieved a higher level of personal-professional attitudes than did middle-class teachers. Findings suggest that the field-based program would seem to contribute toward a higher level of adjustment and performance. Teaching assignments at the intermediate level result in second year teachers with generally higher personal-professional attitudes than primary teachers. Team teaching situations offer more support for the adjustment of second year teachers than do self-contained classroom settings. Teachers in self-contained classrooms perform at a more effective level than teachers in teaming situations when rated by the principal.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was undertaken to investigate the effects of selected school types, preparation programs, and staffing patterns upon the adjustment and performance of second year teachers in an urban school district.

This chapter presents a summary of the methods and procedures used to collect and analyze the data, the findings and conclusions derived from the study, and the implications and recommendations suggested by the results of this study.

Summary of Methods and Procedures Used to Collect and Analyze the Data

The sixty subjects of this study were all the elementary teacher graduates from a large teacher education institution who had completed two years of teaching in a large urban school district. They were assigned to schools which were classified as inner-city or middle-class on the basis of socio-economic and ethnic factors. Except for three Black females, one Mexican-American male and seven Anglo males, all were Anglo females.

Four instruments yielding three types of personal-professional measures were used to collect data for this study. Two instruments -- the Bown Self-Report Inventory (SRI), and the Veldman Directed Imagination (DI) provided information about areas of the subjects' affective domain. The Teaching Appraisal Instrument (TAI) was used by an outside observer to secure information regarding the classroom effectiveness of the teachers. The data gained from the Principal's Rating (PR) provided a view of the subjects' ability to perform within the overall school setting.

The data supplied by the SRI and DI were collected in after-school sessions at the conclusion of the two-year teaching period. The TAI ratings were obtained during observations of a teaching episode and were limited to times when actual class or group lessons were being performed. Observations of approximately thirty minutes were made on two different occasions by one observer and were scheduled at least two weeks apart. The ratings from principals were collected during the time each principal conducted regular teacher evaluations. The teacher rating instrument was the standard form used in the urban school district. The principal evaluations of teachers are filed as a matter of record and used to make personnel decisions.

The data collected from all the instruments were transposed into a form compatible with computer analysis. The one-way

analysis of variance was applied to analyze the mean scores derived from each variable. Results were used to reject or retain the null hypotheses formed as a basis for the statistical treatment of the research hypotheses of this study.

Findings

Statistical treatment of the data presented in Chapter IV comprised the basis for the rejection or retention of the null hypotheses. A null hypothesis was rejected when the probability level computed by the analysis of variance was equal to or less than .05. In contrast, probability levels greater than .05 were considered insignificant, thereby justifying the retention of the null hypotheses. The analysis and interpretation of the data resulted in the following findings.

1. Based on the selected factors measured, second year inner-city teachers are as well adjusted as middle-class teachers after two years of teaching.

2. The evidence relating to teaching effectiveness indicated that there is no significant difference between inner-city teachers and middle-class teachers.

3. Field-based trained teachers and campus-based trained teachers exhibited no significant differences in adjustment.

4. Second year teachers trained in field based programs perform at a more effective level, based on a significant difference at the .05 probability level, than campus-based teachers when rated by an outside observer.

5. No significant differences were found between the adjustment and performance of second year primary and intermediate teachers. The weight of evidence, however, suggests that intermediate teachers tend to be more optimistic, hold more positive feelings toward teaching, show greater adjustment, and teaching effectiveness than do primary teachers.

6. Team teaching organizational patterns offer a more supportive atmosphere for successful adjustment of new teachers than do self-contained classrooms.

7. Second year teachers teaching in self-contained classrooms perform at a more effective level, based on a significant difference at the .05 probability level, than teachers teaching in a team teaching classroom when rated by the principal.

Conclusions

Based on the findings of this study and subject to the limitations posed by the research sample the following conclusions are drawn.

1. Beginning teachers assigned to inner-city schools can be expected to sustain positive attitudes in respect to teaching throughout the initial teaching experience.

2. Beginning inner-city teachers can be expected to cope with the prevailing conditions in inner-city schools in terms of performing at a level adjudged to be as effective as beginning teachers in middle-class schools.

3. Teachers can benefit in performance dimensions from experience in a field-based preparation program offering clinical involvement in varied classrooms and communities for an entire semester.

4. It can be anticipated that beginning teachers assigned to intermediate grades will be as effective and as well-adjusted as teachers in primary grades after two years.

5. Teachers assigned to teaching teams can be expected to be better adjusted than teachers assigned to self-contained classrooms subsequent to the initial teaching experience.

6. Teachers assigned to self-contained classrooms can be expected to perform more effectively in the view of their principals than do team teachers as rated by their principals.

Recommendations

On the basis of the findings, conclusions, and personal observations of this study, the following recommendations are made.

1. It is recommended that personnel officials consider assigning new teachers to selected teaming situations for initial teaching experiences.

2. It is recommended that teacher education institutions provide field-based programs, at least as an option, to prepare teachers for urban settings.

3. It is recommended that a study be conducted to investigate the effects of school types, staffing patterns, and grade level assignments on the personal-professional attitudes and teaching effectiveness of teachers who have taught more than two years. Based on findings of this study which were contradictory to previous studies, it is quite possible that the quality of adjustment and performance diminishes at some point beyond two years of teaching.

4. It is recommended that public school administrators provide support personnel and in-service activities to facilitate the adjustment of new teachers regardless of teaching assignment.

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APPENDIX A

THE BOWN SELF-REPORT INVENTORY

SELF-REPORT INVENTORY

Form R-3

OLIVER H. BOWN

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN

Name ..... Sex.....
(Print) Last First Middle

Course and Section ..... Date .....

After filling in the information requested above, please turn immediately to page 4 and read directions carefully.

This instrument was developed and refined under the auspices of the Mental Health in Teacher Education Demonstration-Research Project supported by the National Institute of Mental Health (Grant 2M-6635) and the University of Texas.

	Like me A	B	C	D	Unlike me E
1. The way I get along with my friends is extremely important to me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I resist getting down to work and often have to drive myself to get it done.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. In their relationship with me, my parents were always basically kind, considerate and understanding.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I really look forward to the time when I will be settled down to my life's work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. I have almost always resented people who were in a position to tell me what to do.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. I'm very comfortable and happy when I am with children.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. I don't seem to have very much basic respect for myself.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. I live in accordance with the idea that "It is better to have loved and lost than never to have loved at all."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. In the past, I have usually avoided working any harder than was necessary to get by.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. I look forward to living and working with other people as an important and influential part of their lives.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Very often I have envied other people who have had so much more fun with their parents than I.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. I feel confident that one day I'll be successfully engaged in what I'm really cut out to do.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. I feel uncomfortable and artificial in the presence of people who are a good deal older than I.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. It has always been easy for me to express affection toward young children.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. I feel sour and pessimistic about life in general.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. One thing I just can't stand is uncertainty.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. I used to wish very often that my parents and I could be much closer.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. I really dread the thought of finishing school and settling down to a lifetime of hard, steady work and increased responsibility for myself and others.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. I am able to relate to children quite easily, and this is very important to me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. Thinking back, in a good many ways I don't think I have liked myself very well.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. One of the most important things to me about any job I hold in the future is having a good relationship with my boss.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. The idea of death has always made me feel uneasy, helpless and a little futile.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. I like people very much.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. I have always maintained a good healthy balance between work and play.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

S	O	C	A	W	R	P	H	T
___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___

	Like me				Unlike me
	A	B	C	D	E
25. Looking ahead a few years, I don't think that I will be the kind of person who would get much personal satisfaction out of teaching children of elementary school age.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26. In almost every respect, I'm very glad to be the person I am.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27. My parents and I may get along all right on the surface, but down deep I wonder if we even know each other.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
28. While I can't prove it, I'm willing to bet that I'm going to become a more and more happy and significant person.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
29. I do my work just to get it over with rather than because I get real satisfaction from doing it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
30. I've always been fascinated with getting to know people whether they were good, bad, or indifferent.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
31. I have resented very much having to do things that were expected of me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
32. I feel that satisfaction and dissatisfaction, joy and suffering, life and death are all meaningful parts of a process which I may not fully understand but by which I am deeply moved.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
33. When I think about the kind of person that I have been in the past, it doesn't make me feel very happy or proud.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
34. I really enjoy getting to know people who are in positions of authority.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
35. I used to regard young children as a pain in the neck.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
36. I'm quite consistent in tackling the work I need to do rather than putting it off until the last minute.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
37. The fact that the people whom I love most will someday die will always seem to me to be cruel and unfair.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
38. People have not been as important to me as they are to most others in determining how satisfied and secure I have felt.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
39. I feel confident that in the really important ways, I will be a good parent.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
40. Doing a good job in anything that I undertake is very important to my sense of well-being.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
41. My parents and I have a great deal of mutual respect, faith, and confidence in one another.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
42. I'd give a good deal to be very different than I am.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
43. I think I will always have close, rich, full relationships with a good many people.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
44. I suppose there will always be someone to whom I will be responsible in one way or another, but I don't expect that I will ever like it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
45. I have always been very fond of younger children.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
46. I am very happy with my present relationship with my parents.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
47. I don't really expect that I will ever be close friends with many people my own age.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
48. The sheer joy of being alive has often been a compelling force in my life.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

DIRECTIONS

Please print your name and provide the other information requested on the cover of this booklet.

On pages 2 and 3, there are forty-eight statements which express various ideas, feelings, and reactions. You are asked to rate each statement in accordance with how well it expresses your own thoughts or feelings. There are no right or wrong answers. The usefulness of the instrument depends entirely on the extent to which you indicate *how you actually think or feel* rather than how you would *like* to feel or how you think you *should* feel. This inventory is being administered for research purposes, and your individual responses will be held in strict confidence.

Please record your rating of each item by placing an X in one of the boxes following each statement. There are five alternative responses indicating the extent to which the statement expresses what you actually think or feel:

The statement expresses:

A. Exactly what I think or feel *or* what I think or feel almost all the time.

B. Primarily what I think or feel *or* what I think or feel most of the time.

C. Something about which I do not particularly think or feel one way or the other *or* something I think or feel about half the time.

D. Something which is almost the opposite of what I think or feel *or* something which I think or feel very seldom.

E. Exactly what I *do not* think or feel *or* what I think or feel almost never.

Please work rapidly and use your first impression as a basis for your response. *Do not omit any item.*

APPENDIX B

THE VELDMAN DIRECTED IMAGINATION

CONFIDENTIAL

DIRECTED IMAGINATION

D. J. Veldman and S. L. Menaker

Name: Mr. / Mrs. / Miss ..... Sex: M F

Last First Middle (Maiden)

Soc. Sec. No.: | | | | - | | | - | | | | |

Date: .....

Write four *fictional* stories about teachers and their experiences.
You will be given four minutes for each story.

STORY ONE

DO NOT BEGIN STORY TWO UNTIL TOLD TO CONTINUE.

APPENDIX C

TEACHING APPRAISAL INSTRUMENT

APPENDIX C

TEACHING APPRAISAL INSTRUMENT

EVIDENCE:

1. TEACHING TO AN OBJECTIVE:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
egg on the wall		buck shot		meandering path		few detours		string of pearls

EVIDENCE:

2. CORRECT LEVEL OF DIFFICULTY:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
too easy/ hard for almost all		not right for majority		right for some, not for others		right for majority		just right for almost all

EVIDENCE:

3. MONITORING AND ADJUSTING:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
evidence of no achievement		little evidence of achievement		evidence of some achievement		evidence of achievement for most		much evidence of achievement by majority

EVIDENCE:

4. FACILITATING USE OF PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
almost no use of principles		little use		some use of principles		frequent use		constant use

EVIDENCE:

5. INTERFERING ABUSE OF PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
constant abuse		frequent abuse		some abuse		almost no abuse		no abuse

EVIDENCE:

6. GENERAL IMPRESSION:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
inadequate		below average		average		better than average		excellent

APPENDIX D

STANDARD TEACHER RATING FORM

APPENDIX D

STANDARD TEACHER RATING FORM

(to be kept strictly confidential)

Teacher's Name_____

Teacher's Overall Rating:

Excellent	Good	Conditional	Unacceptable
☐	☐	☐	☐

(base on composite of specific ratings below)

I. Classroom Management

Excellent	Good	Conditional	Unacceptable
☐	☐	☐	☐

A. The teacher creates a room atmosphere conducive to learning.
B. He administers classroom routines effectively.
C. He maintains good order without compulsion and makes few reprimands. The need for disciplinary action is infrequent. Pupils show respect for the teacher, his knowledge, and his methods, as evidenced by such reaction as courteous attention and requests for help.

D. He maintains control;handles his own routine discipline problems; is firm and consistent, but friendly; is slef-confident in management of pupils.

E. The classroom situation is orderly and businesslike and indicates planning and control.

II. Pupil-Teacher Relationships

Excellent	Good	Conditional	Unacceptable
☐	☐	☐	☐

A. The teacher is consistently fair and impartial; praise and criticism are based on fact; all criticism is constructive; individual pupils are not excessively criticized; the confidence of the children is maintained.
B. He sets an example of, and encourages, socially acceptable behavior (e.g., dress, correct usage of speech, and manner).
C. He maintains an atmosphere conducive to freedom of thought and creative expression, and shows respect for pupil opinions and suggestions.
D. He recognizes and fosters each pupil's worth and dignity.
E. He demonstrates and communicates a vital interest in and understanding of each pupil's social, emotional, physical and intellectual growth.
F. He handles behavior problems without emotional extremes.

III. Professional Attitude and Conduct

Excellent	Good	Conditional	Unacceptable
☐	☐	☐	☐

A. The teacher maintains a continuous effort to achieve professional development and attitudes and conduct.
B. He observes professional ethics; works and cooperates with the entire staff; seeks, shares, and respects ideas of others; refrains from revealing confidential information regarding pupils and their families. Conversations regarding patrons and staff are confined to an ethical level.
C. He supports established administrative policies and directives.
D. He performs all required school routines and responsibilities on time.
E. He exercises professional judgment in absences from work.

IV. Preparation and Planning

Excellent	Good	Conditional	Unacceptable
☐	☐	☐	☐

A. Prepares long-term plans for learning experiences from which daily plans developed.
B. He plans and makes necessary arrangements in advance for materials, equipment, and supplies to carry out the instructional program.
C. He makes current lesson plans for substitutes in such a manner as to insure the continuance of the regular instructional program.

D. He adapts plans to circumstances, uses contributions and suggestions of pupils; adapts methods and techniques to the need of individual pupils; develops new methods and materials to fit the changing curriculum.

V. Knowledge of Subject Matter

Excellent	Good	Conditional	Unacceptable
☐	☐	☐	☐

A. The teacher demonstrates a high degree of knowledge, understanding and skill with respect to the subject matter areas being taught.
B. He engages in professional study, such as college courses, etc.
C. He has an awareness of the problems of our changing society.

VI. Public Relations

Excellent	Good	Conditional	Unacceptable
☐	☐	☐	☐

A. The teacher aids in establishing and maintaining a good relationship between the school and the community.
B. He communicates with parents regarding group goals and accomplishments as well as individual problems and progress.

VII. Techniques of Instruction

Excellent	Good	Conditional	Unacceptable
☐	☐	☐	☐

A. The teacher provides for purposeful use of each pupil's time throughout the school day.
B. He guides the pupils into efficient study habits.
C. He provides ample opportunities for the expression of clear, accurate, complete, and pertinent ideas.
D. He adapts materials and methods to the interests, needs, and abilities of groups and individual pupils. Each pupil is challenged, yet experiences frequent successes.
E. He emphasizes a sequential development of fundamental skills and stresses competency in their use.

F. He encourages a high quality of performance consistent with the individual's ability.
G. He makes certain that assignments and directions are clearly understood, and allows ample time for completion of tasks.
H. He uses learning aids, such as audio-visual equipment and material, in an effective manner.
I. He uses methods and techniques which stimulate creative expression.
J. He provides opportunities in an out of class for the development of leadership and cooperation among pupils.

VIII. Pupil Adjustment

Excellent	Good	Conditional	Unacceptable
☐	☐	☐	☐

A. The teacher solicits assistance from all possible sources: principals, parents, nurse, consultants, which will aid adjustment.
B. He provides a basis for the development of responsibility.
C. He accepts and observes individual differences: mental, physical, social and emotional.
D. He provides an opportunity for both group and self-evaluation.
E. He plans and guides a tension-free classroom.

IX. Pupil Evaluation

Excellent	Good	Conditional	Unacceptable
☐	☐	☐	☐

A. The teacher objectively evaluates each pupil's academic and social progress.
B. He communicates frequently with parents regarding the pupil's progress and areas of difficulty.
C. He maintains records of pupil achievement to increase objectivity in grading.
D. He maintains and uses cumulative records in a professional manner.
E. He assists pupils in consistently appraising their own work.
F. He administers standardized tests in accordance with district policy.
G. He interprets and uses all test results in a professional manner and with concern for individual pupil dignity.
H. He prepares meaningful reports for administrators and other staff personnel as needed.

X. Health and Appearance

Excellent	Good	Conditional	Unacceptable
☐	☐	☐	☐

A. The teacher's dress and grooming are appropriate.
B. He maintains poise and stability.
C. He demonstrates vigor and vitality in the performance of duties.

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