# A study of the effects of instructional analysis and feedback on the classroom behavior and student achievement of university teaching assistants. 

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# A STUDY OF THE EFFECMS OF INSIRUCTIONAL ANALYSIS AND FEEUBACK ON THE CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR AND STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT <br> OF UNIVERSTTY TEACHING ASSISTANTS 

A Dissertation Presented
by
MICHAEL L. KOFFMAN

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

February, 1974

Major Subject: Education
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A STUDY OF THE EFFECTS OF INSTRUCTIONAL ANALYSIS AND FEEUBACK ON THE CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR AND STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT OF UNIVERSITY TEACHING ASSISTANTS

## A Dissertation

by

## MICHAEL L。KOFFMAN

Approved as to style and content by:

Dr. Robert Miltz, Chairman Dr. William Lauroesch, Member Dr. John Louis, Member

Dr. Patrick Sullivan, Member


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Dwight W. Allen

February, 1974

I would like to dedicate this completed work to my parents, Elizabeth and David Koffman, as a small measure of the love and esteem and gratitude that I hold for them.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This study owes a great deal to many persons. First, I would like to thank my advisor, Dr. R.J. Miltz, who introduced me to the field of teacher education, and who provided me with constant support and stimulation.

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Finally, I would like to thank the finest teacher I know, my wife Bobbie. Her wisdom, insight and good judgment have guided every aspect of my work.

A Study of the Effects of Instructional Analysis and Feedback on the Classroom Behavior and Student Achievement of University Teaching Assistants (1974)

Michael L. Koffman, B.A. University of Massachusetts Directed by: Dr. Robert Miltz

The purpose of this study was to evaluate an in-service teacher education model designed for higher education.

Basically, this model presumes that effective instruction is related to the level of performance by teachers of certain recurrent behaviors such as asking questions, pacing, elaborating, emphasizing, bringing closure, facilitating student participation, creating challenge, evaluating, etc. These behaviors are referred to as "technical skills of teaching."

They are incorporated into a questionnaire and are rated by the instructor, his students and an instructional specialist. Through analysis of these results as well as a videotape of the instructor's classroom teaching, certain skills are identified as "problematic" and in need of change. The desired changes are sought by various means including successive videotaping and analysis, successive student evaluations, micro-teaching, instructor discussions with students or other instructors, viewing instructional models, referring to specific readings, etc.

To test this model a group of 13 in-service graduate teaching assistants were divided into an experimental group, a quasi-experimental group and a control group. All subjects instructed their own section of a required freshman Rhetoric course designed to improve student writing and expression.

As a pretest the subjects completed self-evaluations, student evaluations, a 30-minute videotape of their classroom instruction and an essay-type student achievement test.

Members of the experimental and quasi-experimental groups individually reviewed their data with instructional specialists. The experimental group continued to meet with instructional specialists who provided additional experiences designed to facilitate changes in instruction.

After approximately eight weeks all subjects completed a posttest consisting of another 30 -minute videotape of their classroom instruction, student evaluations (using the same form) and student achievement tests (using a parallel form).

Changes in classroom instructional behavicr were analyzed by means of an adaptation of Flanders interaction analysis. The results showed observable change in all three groups. The experimental and quasi-experimental group instructors increased their "using student ideas," "focusing, summarizing, introducing or orienting statements" and "lecturing." The percentage of class time occupied by teacher talking increased and the per-
cent occupied by the students talking decreased. The control group instructors showed a marked increase in silence in their posttest lessons. Their "using student ideas" increased only slightly and their use of "focusing, summarizing, introducing or orienting statements" and "lecturing" decreased.

In the student evaluations, the experimental group showed positive patterns of change in the categories of "clarity," "evaluation and feedback" and "relating to student responses." The quasi-experimental group regressed in one category, "relating to student responses," and the control group improved in one category, "relating to student responses."

The achievement rating indicated that the mean score of the students in the experimental group improved by 3.33 points. The mean score of the quasi-experimental group remained unchanged, and the mean score of the control group students dropped 2 points.

The results tended to support the usefulness of this instructional improvement model. The classroom instructional behavior, student evaluations and student achievement of the instructors in the experimental group appeared to change in desirable ways. The classroom behavior of the instructors in the quasi-experimental and control groups changed less, and their student evaluations and student achievement for the most part did not change in desirable ways.

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Statement of the Problem and Hypotheses
The present study is a contribution to the field of inservice teacher education at the higher education level. The purpose of the study was to measure the effects of particular instructional analysis and feedback procedures on the classroom behavior, student evaluations and student achievement of university teaching assistants.

This purpose may be stated in terms of the following hypotheses:
(1) There will be significant differences between the pretest and posttest classroom behavior of instructors who have undergone the instructional analysis and feedback procedures when measured by changes in Flanders interaction analysis categories.
(2) Differences in instructional behavior for this group will be accompanied by corresponding positive changes in student evaluations of the instructors when measured on student evaluation questionnaires.
(3) Differences in instructional behavior for this group will be accompanied by positive charges in student achievement as measured on student achievement tests.

## In-Service Teacher Education

The field of in-service teacher education can be understood in terms of various components of instruction which in-service teacher educators attempt to affect as well as the various means by which they do so. These components would include the follow-
ing: instructional goals, teaching styles, specific methods, classroom instructional behavior, classroom environment, teacher personal characteristics. The "means" include group setting, data collection and analysis tools and teacher educator role. These components are represented in Figure 1 in greater detail.

This study dealt narrowly with the component of specific instructional behaviors, particularly in regard to their direct observation, analysis and evaluation. The setting was primarily an individual, one-to-one type, although group settings were explored. Data collection and analysis tools included student evaluations, direct classroom observation, videotape analysis, systematic behavior coding and instructor self-evaluation. The role of the teacher educator was that of analyst.

At the same time this study sought to contribute to the research on "teacher effectiveness," that is, to the body of literature which studies the specific characteristics of instructional situations as they relate to student outcomes. It would seem necessary in fact for the two fields of teaching research and in-service education to be closely connected if the in-service teacher educator is to serve in any way as a mediator tor between educational research and educational practice.

Such a role can be vitally important for a number of reasons. First, there is a growing body of knowledge on the relationship between various instructional components and student
IN-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION COMPONENTS
Instructional Components

Teaching
Styles
$\begin{array}{cc}\text { Teaching } & \text { Specific } \\ \text { Methods } & \text { Instructional }\end{array}$ Behaviors
School and
Classroom
Environment

| Setting |
| :---: |
| $\begin{array}{l}\text { Self-Programmed } \\ \text { Instruction }\end{array}$ |
| Data Collection Means |

Workshops
Task and
Instructional
Goals and Planning
Individual
indicating that in given situations, for specific instructonal goals, with certain populations of students, certain choices among the type and sequence of curriculum materials, methods, teaching approach and specific instructional behaviors will effect those objectives more completely than other choices. Secondly, there is evidence that instructors are capable of manipulating their teaching in terms of these components so as to "improve" their teaching effectiveness.

Thirdly, most classroom instructors, especially at the higher education level either are not aware of instructional alternatives or they do not have the support and encouragement to investigate these in their classrooms.

Finally, the role of the in-service teacher educator gains importance in reference to the fact that the majority of instructors who will be teaching at the higher education level in the next ten years are teaching in higher education institutions at the present time.

The first two of the above propositions are the subject of Chapter II, "Review of the Literature." The third proposition, concerning instructors' knowledge of teaching components and instructional alternatives is the subject of the present chapter. The last proposition, given the present structure of tenure laws and the trend toward stabilization and even decline in the growth rate of higher education institutions, is mathematically correct.

The Training of Higher Education Faculty in Instruction
In a Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education (1947) the following statement was made,

College teaching is the only major learned profession for which there does not exist a well-defined program of preparation directed toward developing the skills which it is essential for the practitioner to possess (p. 1).

After reviewing the graduate programs of fifty institutions of higher education, Heiss (1970) found that in $75 \%$ of the institutions the teaching assistantship was the primary means for preparing future college teachers and that "fewer than half of those who held such appointments were likely to receive adequate, systematic and continuous guidance from a senior member of the faculty (p. 39)." Few programs designed to prepare graduates for teaching were "interdisciplinary" and few graduate students took coursework in any aspect of teaching. Heiss concluded,

Most graduate faculties have operated on the assumption that the process of becoming a researcher requires rigorous exposure to theory and practice, but the art and skill of teaching comes naturally or develops gratuitously when one is educated for research. Thus the emphasis in most Ph. D. programs has been heavily weighted in favor of preparing students to discover knowledge and only incidentally, if at all, on how to impart to others the nature and value of that knowledge (p. 37).

Arrowsmith (1967), Chairman of the Department of Classics
at the University of Texas, makes the point in much stronger
terms,
I am suggesting what will doubtless seem paradox or treason: There is no necessary link between
scholarship and education, or between research and culture, and in actual practice scholarship is no longer a significant educational force. Scholars, to be sure, are unprecedentedly powerful, but their power is professional and technocratic; as educators they have been eagerly disqualifying themselves for more than a century, and their disqualification is now nearly total. The scholar has disowned the student -- that is, the student who is not a potential scholar -- and the student has reasonably retaliated by abandoning the scholar. This, I believe, is the only natural reading of what I take to be a momentous event: the secession of the student from the institutions of higher learning on the grounds that they no longer educate and are therefore, in his word, irrelevant ( p . 110).

Eble (1971) published the results of a two-year project (The Project to Improve College Teaching sponsored by the Association of American Colleges and the American Association of University Professors) which addressed the question of preparation for college teaching. His booklet was based largely on a career development questionnaire sent to faculty members of 142 different institutions.

To the first question, "My institution (does, does not) have an effective faculty development system," the response was overwhelmingly negative.

To question two, "Outside of the departmental program and budget, my institution provides specific support for (research, teaching, service)," about 60 percent of the respondents reported specific support for research, 10 percent reported support for teaching and even fewer for service. Eighteen respondents said their institutions offered no support outside of department bud-
gets for research, teaching or service.
Question three involved the most common form of institutional support for faculty development, sabbatical leave. Sixty percent of institutions in the survey conducted some form of sabbatical leave, but there was much discontent in terms of the nature of the leave and the selection procedures. Fewer than one-fourth of these schools awarded leaves for improving one's teaching, a research proposal, or a proposal for general professional development.

In two other questions concerning specific programs for the preparation of college teachers in graduate programs, over half of the respondents reported no specific preparation program aside from departmental course work, and none of institutions that provided some teacher preparation procedures had a comprehensive program (pp. 3-4).

Other Commission and private studies, particularly those conducted within the various disciplines (Miller and Wilson, 1963; Nowlis, Clark and Rock, 1968; Many, et a1., 1969; NCTE, 1970; Mackenzie, 1970; Dean, n.d.) support the conclusion indicated above that not only are college faculty members not formally trained in instruction, but future college faculty are not being trained.

This situation is exacerbated at the junior college level where the rolc of the instructor centers even more on classroom instruction. A report submitted to the President and

Congress by the National Advisory Council on Education Professions Development (1972) stated that instructors at the junior and community colleges "are inadequate" and "do not know how to teach" and that teacher education programs are doing little to help them. The Council recommended inservice education programs to bring the instruction into 1ine with the colleges' objectives.

Junior college administrators recently have called for teacher preparation programs that would aid new instructors in gaining a broader picture of curriculum and the needs of students than that usually afforded in a graduate school "subject-matter-centered" sequence (American Association of Junior Colleges, 1969). Others (Cohen, 1970) went so far as to request separate training institutions in which junior college instructors might be prepared outside the "contaminating influence" of the research-dominated universities.

Surveys of faculty members, graduate students and administrators also support the conclusion that college instructors are insufficiently trained in instruction.

A survey of 1700 University of Minnesota Ph. D.'s graduated in the periods 1935 to 1949 and 1954 to 1956 (Alciatore and Eckart, 1968) concerning the strengths and weaknesses of their career preparation are summarized in the following two tables.

## TABLE I

## RESEARCH ABILITIES JUDGED "ESSENTIAL" PRESENTLY <br> AND "ACQUIRED" IN GRADUATE SCHOOL

| Abilities Related to Research | Per Cent <br> Essential | Per Cent <br> Acquired |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1. Familiarity with research materials and <br> methods |  |  |
| 2. Skill and practice in doing research <br> 3. Ability to do rescarch, produce artis- <br> tic creations | 62.3 | 88.0 |
| 4. Ability to supervise research programs |  |  |
| 5. Ability to use a wide range of library |  |  |
| resources |  |  |

The discrepancy between training perceived as "essential" and training judged to have been "acquired" in the domain of teaching far outweigh that of the research domain in these results.

In the opinion of numerous college presidents, the knowledge of undergraduate education among students in their Ph. D. programs was much more problematic than the students' preoccupation with research or their specialization in a field (McGrath, 1961).

University teaching assistants in physics at the University of Maryland (Triezenberg, 1969) felt that learning to write course objectives, learning teaching techniques, lecturing to classes and being observed by a faculty member were most lacking in their present graduate program. The results of Triezenberg's survey are represented in Table III.

TABLE III
TEACHING ASSISTANT SURVEY - MARYLAND

| General Area of Concern | Was <br> Part of | Should be <br> Experience |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Pre-semester orientation covering: |  |  |
| Course objectives | 17 | 73 |
| Teaching techniques | 6 | 74 |
| Range of teaching experience including: |  |  |
| Discussion of course evaluation | 34 | 88 |
| Participation in exam design | 48 | 81 |
| Lecture to lab./rec. | 64 | 85 |
| Lecture to whole class | 16 | 55 |
| Supervision and evaluation by means of: |  |  |
| Regular meetings with faculty | 67 | 87 |
| Clearly specified responsibilities | 65 | 82 |
| Observation of T.A. by faculty | 12 | 77 |

TABLE III (continued)

## TEACHING ASSISTANT SURVEY - MARYLAND

| General Area of Concern | Was <br> Part of | Should be |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Formal course or seminar: |  |  |
| In physics department | 17 | 70 |
| In general education | 5 | 27 |

Organized Instructional Improvement Programs in Higher Education The response to these criticisms of college instructor preparation has been an increase in both pre-service and in-service training programs. A variety of such programs are now emerging. The results of Heiss's study for example were presented in a keynote address to a conference of the Commission of College Physics held at the University of Washington (West, et al., 1970), where the conference goal was the establishment of instructional training programs for future college physicists.

Fifty-three physicists from twenty-four institutions and a large number of graduate students in Physics agreed upon a model teacher preparation program including: "careful attention to selection, orientation, training, supervision and evaluation," "an apprenticeship program in which the variety and depth of the research apprenticeship is modeled for teaching and instruction," and "an internship progran where theory becomes practice in an atmosphere where feedback is quick and useful (p. ii)." The conference members also advocated a Seminar on College Physics Teaching and constructed a model outline for such a seminar.

The Danforth Foundation since 1964 has promoted efforts to train college instructors via systematic teaching assistantship programs (Danforth, 1970). One such model began in 1967 at the University of Michigan's College Teacher Training Program, coordinated through the Center for Research on Learning and Teaching at that University (Koen and Ericksen, 1967). This approach moves "teaching fellows" through three sequential stages: first the "apprenticeship" where they participate in workshops, discussion sessions and limited apprentice teaching with feedback; second, teaching "assistant" in their own course or section, still with guidance; third, "instructor" assigned to work with two to four of the stage one trainees.

The program co-ordinator concluded that the stage three instructors "can provide adequate supervision." Furthermore, because the Instructors were committed to teaching they were willing to devote special time and effort to helping the trainees; they also posed "less of a threat" to the trainees than would a faculty member (Koen and Ericksen, 1967).

Other institutions have altered the type of degree that graduate students oriented toward college teaching might receive. At Washington University in St. Louis, a parallel degree program has been established (Centra, 1972b). Over 100 graduate institutions have established some form of the Doctor of Arts in College Teaching degree. This usually involves a master's degree in a subject area, three or four education
courses, supervised practice teaching and a special educatonal project (National Faculty Association, 1968).

In terms of in-service teacher education a variety of approaches are also in use. Golden West College has instituted a kind of "contract" system where individual instructors specify their teaching goals and agree upon means of measuring these in conjunction with their department chairman, academic dean and perhaps an instructional specialist (Cohen and Brawer, 1969; Cohen and Shawl, 1970).

Some institutions have emphasized self-initiated faculty projects in teaching and teaching improvement by funding faculty proposals (Mathis, 1972). Programs, materials and procedures have been organized for faculty self-evaluation and self-improvement (Mescon, et al., 1969; Boulding, 1970).

Self-improvement programs are often bolstered by student evaluations of the faculty member, sometimes conducted by individual departments or university-wide agencies. One such program differentiates three levels of student evaluation questionnaires, each one more specific about the faculty member's instruction. This allows the faculty member to pinpoint the unsuccessful aspects of his instruction and to initiate the appropriate changes (Smock and Crooks, 1973).

Several programs depend upon inter-faculty conferencing, especially classroom visits between beginning and experienced faculty (Diekhoff, 1960; Gustad, 1963; Hadgkinson, 1972). At
least one program, the Environment for Teaching program at Stanford's Center for Research and Development in Teaching, is investigating the link between the "political decisionmaking" activities in institutions and teaching, that is, whether there is any connection between instructors' ability to participate in the school's overall policy-making, job satisfaction and teaching performance (Baldridge, 1970).

The most marked trend in in-service education, however, has been the development of resource and improvement centers established within and co-ordinated by universities. Typically these are staffed with experts on multiple aspects of instruction and the various means of effecting instructional change. Thus they can instruct faculty or departments in curriculum design, teaching methods, use of media, etc., as we11 as directly observe and critique classroom teaching. In short, they serve a combined role of resource agent, supervisor and researcher.

It must be concluded nevertheless that most of these programs are "shooting in the dark," because so little is actually known about the effectiveness of instruction. As indicated in Chapter II, numerous in-service education techniques exist which appear to alter the way in which faculty members perform, but the vast majority of these do not measure student outcomes as a criterion of instructional improvement. (Burkhart, 1969).

The Role of Teaching in the University
The increasing number of improvement centers and the apparent interest of faculty members, students and administrators in college and university instruction is probably a productive trend. Certain qualifications regarding this trend must be noted however.

One is that although many faculty have felt they were not trained sufficiently in instruction, they presently feel that they have gained adequate mastery of instructional technique through experience. Thus a survey of 1,085 faculty members at six institutions (Gaff and Wilson, 197l) revealed that ninety percent considered teaching to be a "major source of satisfaction in their lives" and all but a few said that their students viewed them as effective teachers.

Although studies where faculty estimates of their teaching ability are compared to student estimates show that most faculty overestimate their teaching (Centra, 1972a), the lack of sophistication, use and credibility of measures of teacher effectiveness have not made this apparent. It is safe to say that most university faculty members at present have a complacent attitude toward instructional improvement programs. This attitude is further supported by the traditional reward system at most institutions of higher education, where research productivity is promoted over teaching effectiveness. According to Eble (1971), "Within the profession at large,
the forces which work against undergraduate teaching are probably as great as those which work for it (p. 2)."

The nature of college and university education is also unique in this regard. The very structure of a residence, "campus" college with light class loads for faculty and myriad educational activities suggests that "a great deal, if not the greater part of the teaching-learning function is realized outside the classroom (Trent and Cohen, 1973, p. 1040)."

In fact, the real impact of unjuersity instructors may be related to such "incidental" or "hidden" factors as their personalities, life-styles and intellectual habits which students "model." Real learning at college may also be due to the open, "rich," supportive environment which is usually generated at the college level by faculty individual contact with students and the non-monitoring of student activities. Authors from Dewey (1939) to Rogers (1969) have advocated such an environment for fostering such positive outcomes as student independence, self-initiation and creativity. Only recently have researchers inquired into this overall environmental impact (Trent, 1970).

The question of instructional improvement for university faculty also involves certain philosophical issues. It is probably true that the United States has undergone a change in values during the last two decades. The question of whether the university should adapt itself to this change or attempt
to temper the change with traditional academic values is an important one. Nuthall and Snook (1973) make a strong argument for retention of traditional academic disciplines because they teach a unique way of thinking and knowing. The scholar-teacher role which is largely based on information transferral is certainly valid if transmitting new knowledge to students is an important activity. The rigor of both the academic disciplines and the knowledge generator role can be undermined by hasty adoption of such concepts as "student-centeredness," "relevance," "teaching-counseling," or "individualization."

The real facts are that little is known about the value of traditional instructional techniques or recently-developed instructional techniques. Sanford's observation in 1962 was reasserted a decade later by the authors of the most recent review of the literature on research in higher education (Trent and Cohen, 1973),

The colleges will change arly when more knowledge of what they do and of what they might do has been produced and made availabie to educators. The need for theory is apparent but what is more striking is the paucity of empirical studies (p. IOl2).

## REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

## Teacher Effectiveness Research

The field of research in education which might be described as "teacher effectiveness" research generally follows a paradigm expressed in the following question: "What specific characteristics of instruction result in what learning outcomes for what kinds of students in what kinds of educational contexts (Gage, 1963; Biddle, 1964; Meux, 1967; Centra, 1972)?" As an hypothesis this question becomes: "The quality of learning which transpires in a given instructional situation is a function of particular instructional procedures employed by a particular instructor for particular students with particular goals in mind (Popham, 1967, p. 2)." Biddle (1964) represented the teacher effectiveness question in a seven-variable model depicted in Figure 2. The import of Biddle's model is that many variables operate in a given teaching/learning situation, and that reliable statements of teacher effectiveness (statements of cause-and-effect relationships between teaching factors and learning factors) must control for these variables.

Certain instructors are effective in certain situations more than in others. To use Biddle's example, "Some teachers may be inspirational leaders, others warm counselors, and sti11
BIDDLE'S SEVEN-VARIABLE-CLASS MODEL FOR TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS

Figure 2. Biddle's Seven-Variable-Class Model for Teacher Effectiveness
others walking encyclopedias. In certain contexts, each of these competencies may be highly effective; in others each might have little or negative effect (p. 19)."

The failure of researchers to grasp the complexity of teaching/learning situations is largely at the root of reams of contradictory research findings. A good example is research in the effectiveness of various curriculum systems as cited by Rosenshine (1970):

> The lack of information on classroom interaction hinders evaluation of a single curriculum or different curricula because without this information one tends to assume that all classrooms using the same curriculum materials constitute a homogeneous 'treatment variable.' Such an assumption is questionable because teachers may vary widely in what activities they select and how they implement them. In studies where teacher behavior in special curricula was compared with the behavior of teachers in 'traditional instruction...there was often significant variation in the behavior of teachers within each group. Although the number of classrooms observed in these studies is small, the results are consistent enough to cause serious doubts about whether all classrooms using the same curriculum constitute a single treatment variable (p. 280 ).

Other studies that have suffered from a too simplified view of instruction were those seeking the universal qualities of "good teachers." For the most part these studies were concerned with the personal and social characteristics of teachers rather than their patterns of behavior in the classroom. The results of these investigations were negligible (Biddle, 1964). In other words, no personal characteristics of teachers
or general abilities were identified which could predict successful learning outcomes. Around 1960, according to Biddle, many educational researchers abandoned the field of competence research as "a simple-minded approach to a vastly more complex topic: the study of classroom interaction (p. vi)."

Ryans' study (1960) was probably a major influence on the directions that teacher effectiveness research has taken. Ryans focused on "teacher characteristics" meaning both "teacher properties" and "teacher behavior." His sample included approximately 6000 teachers in 1700 schools across 450 school systems, and his data was collected over a period of ten years (1950 1960).

Ryans rated three dimensions of teacher behavior via direct observation: "warm, understanding, friendly versus aloof, egocentric, restricted," "responsible, businesslike, systematic versus evading, unplanned, slipshod," and "stimulating, imaginative versus dull, routine (Ryans, 1964, p. 76)."

Seven teacher properties were considered: "favorable versus unfavorable opinions of pupils," "favorable versus unfavorable opinions of democratic classroom procedures," "favorable versus unfavorable opinions of administrative and other school personnel," "learning-centered" versus "child-centered" educational viewpoints, "verbal understanding," "emotional stability" and "validity of response."

Four student dimensions were also rated: "apatheticalert," "obstructive-responsible," "uncertain-confident" and
"dependent-initiating." The seven teacher properties were measured by a self-report inventory consisting of $300 \mathrm{multi-}$ ple-choice and check-1ist items relating to personal preferences, self-judgments, activities frequently engaged in, biographical data, etc.

The study moreover did not preconceive the teacher behaviors which were rated, rather a year and a half was spent directly observing classrooms, taking down observational data and organizing these into rater dimensions. The result was a document entitled the Classroom Observation Record.

Finally, great care was given to the training of the raters, including retraining at various intervals to insure consistency. Raters were advised to focus their attention sharply "on the specified behaviors or characteristics to be assessed (Ryans, 1964, p. 13)."

Ryans results were definitely not clear-cut and in some instances could be considered disappointing. For example, in the elementary school pupil behavior showed a positive correlation with such teacher behaviors and characteristics as "friendly," "systematic-businesslike," "favorable attitude toward pupils," "favorable attitude toward democratic classroom procedures." Student behavior appeared to be unrelated to teacher characteristics in secondary school.

The findings that participation in schoollike activities during childhood and adolescence were significantly re-
lated to positive scores on a majority of the ten teacher rating scales or that teachers in large schools scored higher than teachers from small schools or that teachers 55 years and above scored less well than younger instructors on all dimensions except "systematic and businesslike classroom behavior" and "learn-ing-centered viewpoint" may be considered somewhat trivial. The results did not have much application to actual educational problems and their solutions.

Ryans study however pointed in many directions. He did employ direct classroom observation. He arrived at his observational categories inductively. He included a large number of variables with careful methodology; and he did produce certain correlations. He concluded,

We are beginning to pull together factual information about teacher behavior that permits, for the first time, useful descriptions of the dimensions of teacher behavior and their interrelationships and interactions. This should be of significant usefulness to teacher education and to supervision in the schools--a taxonomy and analysis that make accurate description possible and that should lead to more definitive and operational methods for 'acquiring teacher behavior' both in the teacher education program and on-the-job supervision (Ryans, 1964, p. 96).

Programs and research in instructional improvement at the present time may be classified to some extent in two categories: (1) those who define, refine and apply a list of teacher competencies more or less generalizeable across different classroom contexts--a deductive approach, and (2) those who
attempt to gather factual information about teacher behavior and educational process in classrooms in a very descriptive-analytical manner--an inductive approach. Teacher educators who proceed deductively with a list of teacher competencies perhaps have more practical mobility. Those who proceed inductively are perhaps more likely to identify critical instructional variables. The two approaches nevertheless are symbiotic, as Biddle points out:

> The researcher ignores the practical problems of competence creation and evaluation at his peril. It is unlikely, however, that significant advances will be made in understanding teacher competence without a clearer picture of teacher behavior and its effects (p. 20).

The Technical Skills of Teaching
The "technical skills" approach may be considered a compromise between high inference "traits-rating" approaches and low inference "behaviors-effects" approaches. The difference is that in the case of technical skills, instead of a trait such as "warmth," there is a behavior such as "introduces a new idea." These behaviors are rated however in terms of an ideal model of their performance. The discrepancy between the instructor's actual performance of given behaviors and the ideal performance creates the basis for instructional change.
According to Gage (1967) technical skills are "specific
instructional techniques and procedures that a teacher may use in the classroom (p. 607)." The choice of a particular set of technical skills to rate is somewhat arbitrary. What is im-
portant according to Gage is "the attempt to analyze teaching into limited, well-defined components that can be taught, practiced, evaluated, predicted, controlled and understood in a way that has proven to be altogether impossible for teaching viewed in the larger chunks that occur over a period of an hour, a day, a week or a year (p. 602).

A typical list of technical skills includes the following: "set induction," "probing questioning," "higher order questioning," "divergent questioning," "reinforcement," "stimulus variation," "use of examples," "planned repetition," "nonverbal cues," "completeness of communication" and "lecturing (Mil.tz, 1973)."
Micro-Teaching

The technical skills approach was particularly appropriate to laboratory settings and pre-service teacher training in that trainees could concentrate on mastering each skill separately, could view videotapes of teaching models, practice the skill before a small group of students and compare their performance (also videotaped) to that of the model (Allen and Fortune, 1967). This format was also extremely useful for research as Gage explains:

Rather than seek criteria for the overall effectiveness of teachers in the many, varied facets of their roles, we may have better success with criteria of effectiveness in small., specifically defined aspects of the teacher's role. A sufficient number of laws applying to relatively pure aspects of the role, if such laws could be developed, might eventually be combined...to account for the actual behavior and
effectiveness of teachers with pupils under gen-
uine classroom conditions ( $p .95$ ).
Most of the subsequent studies using the technical. skills and laboratory approach took place at Stanford University under the direction of N. L. Gage, Dwight Allen, Robert Bush and Frederick McDonald.

According to McDonald (1973) the first experiment using micro-teaching was performed by Aubertine (1964) on the subject of "set induction." Since that time several studies have been reported: "instructional set" and "cognitive closure" (Fortune, 1965), "cuing" (Unruh, 1967), "reinforcement" (McDonald and Allen, 1967), "explaining skills" (Rosenshine 1968, Miltz 1971), "verbal behavior" (Davis and Smoot, 1969), "modeling" (Orme, 1966; Berliner, 1967; Koran, 1970), "vocabulary, movement in the classroom, inclusion of content, use of questions, degree of control and encouragement of student participation"(Beard, 1969), "listening" and "response" (McKnight, 1970), "attending behavior" (Salzburg, et al., 1971; Ramp, et al., 1971), "planning" (Waimon, Bell and Ramseyer, 1971), "variability in explanatory mode" (Knight, 1971), "evaluating skills" (Legge and Asper, 1972).

Although many of these studies attempt to corroborate hypotheses about the relationship of these skills to teacher effectiveness (Allen and Fortune, 1967), the vast majority do not use student gains as the effectiveness criterion (Rosen-
shine, 1973). Furthermore, most of these studies occur singly rather than in the systematic research designs envisioned by Gage. Thus, although the general effects of a skill may be reported with significant results, the experimental manipulation of various sub-aspects of the skill or other situation variables in general has not taken place. It must be concluded in such a case that a true cause-effect relationship between the teaching skill and student learning was not determined.

Two instances of such systematic research have occurred. The first attempted to determine correlations between dimensions of "explaining skills" and student comprehension (Belgard, Rosenshine and Gage, 1971; Unruh, 1971; Rosenshine, 1971; Dell and Hiller, 1971). Although correlations were found, the need for numerous other studies manipulating the variables in systematic ways became apparent:

The conclusions based on correlational evidence... are interesting to examine. Student ratings of dimensions of the teacher's performance correlated with how much the students learned; in addition, students' self-reported attention to the lesson also correlated with what they learned. What immediately comes to mind as a result of these data is the possibility of artifactual or superstitious behavior on the part of the student. What may be happening is that the student observes certain activities in the teacher that alert the student to paying careful attention to what is being said. It may be that such alerting or attention-producing stimuli are significant variables in causing the student to learn--perhaps even more significant than the form and content factors of the presentation
which are supposedly related to good explanatory
exposition (Glaser, 1971, p. 22l).
Rosenshine (1973) noted that a second series conducted at Canterbury University, New Zealand (Wright and Nuthall, 1970; Highes, 1971; and Church, 1971) although not conclusive have at least achieved a promising research methodology:

In each study the experimenters taught almost identical lessons to existing classes, modifying the lessons only to introduce the experimental variations, and monitoring the tape recording of the lessons to insure high implementation of the treatment and fidelity to the content (p. 124).

Often "technical skills" and micro-teaching studies investigate the laboratory as a teacher training medium, as opposed to researching the effects of particular skills. The results of such studies are that in general teachers trained in the laboratory have exhibited "significant gains" in teaching skills acquisition during successive teaching sessions. Moreover they have retained these behaviors in their regular classroom teaching or internship (Allen and Fortune, 1967; Fortune, Cooper and Allen, 1967; Davis and Smoot, 1969; Limbucher, 1969; Borg, Kelley, Langer and Gall, 1970).

One researcher feels that much of what has been written about micro-teaching is misleading and that "claims for its effectiveness have very little substance in fact (McDonald, 1973)." McDonald's point is that although such issues as the length of the micro-teaching session, the effects of practice and the transfer of training to subsequent performance are
important, the most important research should concern the application of behavior modification principles to shaping student learning: "At the present time only a relatively small number of student behaviors can be brought under behavioral control by applying these principles (p. 2)." "Behavior modification systems have not been developed for teaching complex behaviors such as problem solving (p. 3)."

At least two exploratory studies have been reported where "technical skills" and "microteaching" were used effectively with higher education faculty and graduate teaching assistants in an in-service education program. In the department of General Engineering at the University of Illinois (Perlberg and O'Bryant, 1970) twelve faculty members were videotaped in their classrooms and discussed their instruction with an instructional specialist. At the same time four graduate teaching assistants participated as a group in a micro-teaching laboratory. According to the authors, "Live observation in the classroom and discussion between researcher and students showed a visible change in style of teaching (p. 741)."

Sixteen facul.ty members in the Dental Division at Tel Aviv University (Perlberg, et al., 1972) participated in a series of microteaching sessions with the result that several participants volunteered to continue the videotaping and instructional analysis process in their regular classrooms.

## Learning Principles

Lawrence Alexander and Robert Davis have investigated an in-service education approach at the higher education level which is similar to the technical skills approach but which has its roots in educational psychology and systems design.

One of their initial studies (Alexander and Davis, 1970) involved a ten-week in-service education project with thirty graduate teaching assistants. The instructional concepts and skills forming the core of the program fell into five categories: organizing subject matter, classroom management, establishing a facilitative class atmosphere, evaluating student learning or one's own instruction, and providing a model of professional behavior. Specific behaviors within these categories included writing and sequencing learning objectives, presenting advanced organizers in class, assessing student entry skills, asking questions, avoiding threatening practices, reinforcing participative behavior, giving recognition to original and thoughtful contributions and using personal illustrations of problem solving.

The teaching assistants were given a list of these behaviors and asked to check those which they thought might be problematic in their classes. They then videotaped a class and selected short segments of the tape which were illustrative of these problems. These were shown to their fellow teaching assistants. The subsequent discussion and problem-
solving session was controlled and moderated by the person whose tape was being shown. During the next week the teaching assistants would attempt to modify their classroom behavior according to the recommendations that had been made. These were videotaped and the process repeated itself. Student evaluations and student debriefing about the class were also used as data collection devices in this model.

A questionnaire asking the participants to evaluate the various aspects of the program is replicated in Table IV.

TABLE IV
GRADUATE TEACHING ASSISTAN'IS RATING OF TRAINING PROGRAM

|  | Percent Responding |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | SA \& A | N | D \& SD |
| 1. I learned some new teaching skills. | 94 | 6 | 0 |
| 2. I am more favorably disposed to teaching as a result of the program. | 71 | 18 | 11 |
| 3. I could have put the same amount of time to better use in preparing for my profession. | 18 | 6 | 76 |
| 4. Debriefings with peers should be eliminated. | 0 | 0 | 100 |
| 5. Videotape is a valuable and useful feature. | 100 | 0 | 0 |

According to the authors,
When they entered the program, most GTA's were deficient in three general areas related to teaching competence: command of the subject matter, knowledge of psychological principles and instructional technology, and inter-personal sensitivity and communication skills.

As they began to acquire background concepts and principles...their confidence increased and they were willing to experiment further ( p .25 ).

## Student Evaluations

Student evaluations of instructors are commonplace. After much research, the general indication is that such evaluations do rate instructors accurately on dimensions important to student learning (Costin and Greenough, 1971; Frey, 1973).

Systematic use of student questionnaires to improve instruction in the manner described by Smock and Crooks (1973) in Chapter I is rare. Centra (1972b) has demonstrated the value of such an approach in a two-semester study at five different types of colleges. In his study a detailed questionnaire containing items that had been ascertained to contain information which faculty members desired about their classes, was administered to three groups. The first group administered the questionnaire and received the results at mid-semester. The second group administered the questionnaire at mid-semester but did not receive the results until the end of the semester. A third group as well as the first two groups administered the questionnaire at the end of the semester. Findings were that no differences occurred between the "experimental" and "control" groups. Across both groups however teachers who rated themselves more favorably than their students showed the greatest change. This process repeated during the second semester resulted in the feedback group scoring better than a second control group of teachers on several items.

The author concluded, "Given enough time...student ratings did result in some modest instructional changes for a wide range of teachers (p. 22)."

The results of student evaluations of teacher effectiveness however are very similar to the "general abilities" and "personal qualities" paradigm of early teacher effectiveness research. A review of this literature (Centra 1972a) indicates that students learn more from instructors who, according to the students, "are organized in their lessons, give clear explanations, stimulate their intellectual curiosity, give interesting presentations of course material, are attentive to students' reactions, are friendly and are flexible (p. 22)." It is doubtful how much real value this information has for teacher improvement.

It is conceivable that extensive use of student questonnaires in the same instructional situation over a period of time will identify critical and useful characteristics of effective teaching in that situation. In a study by Frey (1973) using a sample of eight instructors of Introductory Calculus and five instructors of Multidimensional Calculus at the university level, the profile of the most effective instructor (validated by student achievement criteria) was the one who (a) made the students "work hard" and "spend a lot of time" in the course, (b) presented the material well in terms of communicating ideas in an "unarrbiguous manner," using examples and illustrations, and
(c) was seen as slightly "inaccessible" or impersonal (businesslike) by students. Instructors who in the judgment of students made them feel they were learning a great deal, who organized the course in a very logical and orderly way, or who graded in a fair and accurate manner were not as effective.

It is questionable in another situation for example a humanities course with ten students, that the above profile would predict effectiveness. Gump's research in the effects of classroom environments and "role expectations" supports this conclusion. The population of students in calculus might expect mathematics courses to entail hard work, presentational mode and businesslike manner, without which factors an instructor's credibility might be damaged, student attention lag and learning diminish.

If principles of effective teaching which can be used as a guideline by instructors are to be generated through student evaluations, then it would appear that this must also be done in specifically defined educational contexts.

> The Inductive-Analytical Approach

The inductive approach to the analysis of instruction also has a broad literature. Rosenshine's (1973) review of direct observational instruments estimates the number of systems to be in excess of 120 .

The inductive approach assumes that the correlates of teacher effectiveness are not known . The role of the inservice teacher educator or researcher then is to gather as much information (data) as possible on what is actually occurring in an instructional situation. Only after careful description does analysis of the data take place, and any judgment of the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of behavior patterns are made in reference to the specific context, especially to the instructors goals (Cogan, 1973). The approach is very similar to field observation and recording in anthropology.

The observational instruments or category systems mentioned above are used as checklists both to facilitate recording and to aid the observor in focusing on specific aspects of the teaching/learning situation. Many early researchers (Anderson 1939; Lewin, et al., 1939; Withall, 1949) were interested in the social-emotional climate in the classroom. Bales and Strodtbeck (1951) studied "phases in group problem-solving." Meux and Smith (1964) focused on the logic of teacher-student and student-student interchanges. Systems have been developed to record and analyze data on such subjects as group size, speaker and location of speaker in the room; cognitive and/or affective levels of instruction; teacher and student "roles"; content topics and sub-topics; content or process orientation; nonverbal. behavior (Rosenshine 1973).

Such coding of classroom phenomena may take place in the form of absolute counts of instructional behaviors, sequencies of behavior or sequences noted in regular time intervals. The advantage of the last process is that it provides the researcher and the teacher with a fairly accurate estimate of the amount of class time occupied by various activities.

The use of the inductive approach in terms of coding systems has had promising results. Eighteen studies reported by Flanders (1971) indicated that in all cases attention to their teaching behavior using category systems as well as practice and feedback allowed teachers to incorporate desired behaviors into their instruction.

Eleven of the studies supported the proposition that by learning how to code instruction by means of interaction analysis categories and by interpreting their own teaching as well as the teaching of another person, instructors tend to become more "responsive" to student ideas. Although the results were less clear, there was a concomitant tendency for teachers to become more "flexible," that is, to consciously alter their teaching mode from "direct" to "indirect" depending on the context. Three of the studies wherein the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory was administered, indicated that the attitudes of college students toward teaching and programs for the preparation of teachers became more positive among those who studied interaction analysis.

In six other studies conducted by Flanders, all with prehigh school populations, it was apparent that more studentcentered modes ("when students have opportunities to express their ideas, and when these ideas are incorporated into the learning activities") predicted increased student learning and more positive student attitudes toward the teacher and the learning activities (Flanders, 1970, p. 401).

The importance of "flexibility" is indicated by Soar (1968) who studied 54 elementary classrooms in an effort to identify the optimum relationships between pupil initiation and teacher initiation with regard to various cognitive tasks. The results of Soar's study for tasks requiring creative thinking (Curve A), very little abstract reasoning (Curve B) and pronounced abstract reasoning (Curve C) are depicted in Figure 3.

These data indicate that the optimum point of indirectness for the creative task was not even reached in these classrooms, and that it was reached sooner for the less abstract task than for the more abstract task. In other words the data suggest that instructional tasks of a lower cognitive order are optimally taught in an instructional mode characterized by more direct teacher behaviors and initiation, and that instructonal tasks of a "higher" cognitive order are best taught via less teacher initiation and more teacher indirect behaviors.

Figure 4 represents these results in relationship to "teacher criticism." Here the indication is that direct teacher

RELATIONSHIP OF TEACHER INDIRECTNESS TO PUPIL GROWTH


Figure 3. Relationship of Teacher Indirectness to Pupil Growth

RELATIONSHIP OF TEACHER CRITICISM TO PUPIL GROWTH


Figure 4. Relationship of Teacher Criticism to Pupil Growth
behavior in terms of teacher criticism contributes to pupil growth in both the creative and less abstract tasks--not however to the more abstract tasks. In regard to the former, continued critical teacher behavior tends to be productive for the less abstract tasks past the point where such behavior ceased being productive for the creative tasks. The teacher who does not adjust the extent of his criticizing to the particular task at hand reduces his effectiveness.

The present study incorporates the methodology of many of the studies mentioned above, specifically the "technical skills" approach, videotape feedback, instructional specialists and student evaluations. These were incorporated into an inservice teacher education model at the higher education level by Allen and Melnick (1972). This study is the third in a potential series of studies testing the effectiveness of that model.

Melnick (1972) completed the pilot study for the model at the University of Massachusetts with a sample of seven faculty members from the department of Computer Science. His complete model involved eight sequential steps. First was an initial interview to bring out the faculty member's needs and expectations in reference to instructional improvement. Second was a video recording of thirty minutes of the faculty member's classroom teaching. Thhird was a fifty-four item student evaluation based on a list of twenty-four technical skills of teaching.

The faculty member also rated himself on each item in the evaluation and predicted for each item what he believed the student response would be. The faculty member and students also indicated what they believed were the instructor's five strongest and five weakest skills, and the three skills that he should most improve on. The fourth step was the computer processing of this data. Next was the identification of a teaching problem determined by the faculty member and an instructional specialist using all the data collected. This involved (step five) a preliminary review of the data by instructional specialist and faculty member together, a more intense review of the data by each one separately (step six), and a final session isolating a particular teaching skill which was judged most crucial for improvement (step seven). The last stage of the model was the faculty member's participation is certain "treatment and training" activities relating to this skill. These might include micro-teaching, further videotapes of the classroom, viewing films of model instructors, reviewing certain literature, and/ or continued consultation with the instructional specialist (Melnick, p. 32).

Fcr the most part Melnick's study was devoted to the identification of teaching problems and not the systematic eliminating of these problems. Wuch time was spent in the development of instrumentation. No formal evaluation of the teacher improvement was made. There was interest on the part of these faculty
to continue in this improvement process at a future time.
A second study (Noam, 1973) following this eight-step model was conducted at the University of Massachusetts with thirteen faculty members from the Chemistry Department.

In this study greater emphasis was placed on having faculty members show change in the teaching skills which were identified as problematic. The procedures followed for enacting this change were for the most part those sketched by Melnick. In addition, Noam taught a demonstration lesson in one of the Chemistry classes, conducted data review sessions with faculty and students together, and convened two meetings of the faculty members to discuss chemistry instruction in general. Toward the end of the semester a final videotape was taken and analyzed together with the initial videotape of these faculty. A questionnaire was also distributed which asked the instructors to evaluate this improvement process.

An interaction analysis of the pairs of videotapes revealed that the faculty members had in fact changed in the desired manner. In general the percentage of instructor question-asking, student responding and teacher clarifying or expanding on student ideas (all goals of this group) increased significantly.

However, since there was no control group in this study, it is not possible to know if the changes which took place were due to the treatment. A second administration of the fiftyfour item questionnaire was not made, so that changes in the
students' evaluations of the instructors' teaching skills could be observed. No achievement data was collected.

The faculty response to the improvement process was positive. Seventy-six percent of the participants indicated they would have liked to continue improvement procedures. An equal percentage believed they had gained new insights. All stated that they had become aware of teaching problems. Only thirtynine percent felt that the process had given them an opportunity to practice new skills (Noam, p. 63).

C $\quad \mathrm{H}$ A $\quad \mathrm{P} \quad$ T $\quad \mathrm{E} \quad \mathrm{R}$ I I I
PROCEDURES

A slightly altered version of the Allen and Melnick model (1972) discussed in Chapter II was investigated in this study.

A group of graduate teaching assistants were divided into two experimental groups and a control group. All subjects completed a pretest which consisted of a half-hour videotape of their classroom instruction, student evaluations and a student achievement test.

Members of the two experimental groups individually reviewed their videotapes and student evaluations with the help of an instructional specialist. One experimental group continued to meet with instructional specialists who provided them with additional procedures for enacting changes in classroom instruction.

After approximately eight weeks all subjects completed a posttest consisting of the same components: a half-hour videotape, student evaluations and a student achievement test. All participants including the control group reviewed their student evaluations and videotapes at the conclusion of the study.

The pretest and posttest vidcotapes were analyzed along seventeen dimensions using an adaptation of Flanders Interaction Analysis (Amidon and Flanders, 1971). The student evaluations were reduced to numerical scores along thirty-one individual
items and ten factors. The student achievement data was rated by three subject matter specialists. These ratings and scores were used to test differences among the three groups. The remainder of this chapter describes procedures for (a) treatment, (b) additional data collection and (c) data analysis.

## Treatnient

Subjects. The subjects were thirteen graduate student teaching assistants (seven female and six male) who were teaching a required Freshman Rhetoric 100 course at the University of Massachusetts during the Winter-Spring semester of 1973. All of the subjects had taught the course the previous semester, and some had additional teaching experience at the university or secondary level. Nine were teaching one section of the course during that semester and four were teaching tro sections. The majority of the subjects were graduate students in the English department: tro were in the Linguistics department and one in the Botany and German departmenis.

The total group ras divided into an experimental group of five, a quasi-experimental group of four and a contrel greap of four by means of a table of random numbers. Three members from: the experimental and quasi-experimental group were then randonly assigned to each of three instructional specialists. Tro control group members were similarly assigned to each of tro additional instructional specialists.

Participation in this study was considered part of the
general staff development program for instructors of this course. This program was conducted by the Rhetoric 100 course director and consisted of several weekly staff meetings where the theoretical bases for such a course as well as certain recomended instructional methods were discussed. This staff development program was attended by all subjects and did not include in-class observation and instructional analysis by the course director.

Setting. Rhetoric 100 was basically a writing course with more emphasis on the students' ability to see life situations with increased awareness and to express their ideas with intellectual accuracy, than on traditional writing mechanics. This was considered a new and experimental orientation for this course at the University. Students customarily wrote one or more short papers a week and class activities most of ten revolved around the analysis, discussion and evaluation of these papers. Published literature as well as the more technical aspects of writing were discussed later in the semester.

Initial Interview. Each participant in the two experimental groups underwent an initial interview wherein the theozy, purposes and procedures of the treatment model were described. At the same time the instructional specialist filled out a course information form which included a statement by the teaching assiatant about his perceived instructional problems, if any. The instructional specialist also gave the teaching assistant two of the student evaiuation forms, one to be filled out as a self-
evaluation and the other as a prediction of the students' evaluation.

At the conclusion of the interview a class was chosen to be videotaped and a pre-videotaping form was given to the instructor. This solicited information on the objectives and procedures for that particular lesson. Both the self-evaluaton, prediction of student evaluation and pre-videotaping information were returned to the instructional specialist before the videotaping. The control group members underwent a much shorter interviewing process with the primary focus on establishing times for the videotaping and administration of student evaluations. No attempt was made to explain to the control group the theory and procedures of this improvement model nor were they informed of the specific treatment of the other participants. They were told that at the conclusion of the second series of data collection procedures their data would be reviewed with them by an instructional specialist if they so desired.

Observation. To familiarize themselves with the general setting of the class and the particular style of the teaching assistant, the instructional specialists observed at least one class meeting. At that time if not before, the students were informed of the teacher's participation in an instructional improvement program which included videotaping and student evaluations.

Videotape I. A thirty-minute videotape was taken in the
instructors' classrooms according to the following general for mat: the first fifteen minutes of class, the middle ten minutes, and the final ten minutes.

Student Evaluations. The students filled out a thirtyone item evaluation of the instructor at the end of the class that was videotaped (Figure 5). The evaluation was designed to elicit student ratings of the instructors' performance of twenty-one technical skills of teaching (Figure 6). (Appendix C contains descriptions of each of these skills.)

Interpretation and Feedback. The student evaluations were tabulated by computer and this data as well as the videotape were made available to the teachers in both experimental groups. (Appendix C contains a sample of the "Crosstabulations," "Best Skills" and "Weakest Skills" sections of the computer printout for student evaluations.) The instructors's selfevaluation, prediction of student evaluations and the actual mean scores of the student evaluations on each item were listed on a single three-cciumn page.

The instructors and instructional specialists then met for an interpretation conference. The focus of the conference was the identifying of teaching skills which were believed to be both important to the instructors' courses and "problematic." Extreme differences between the students' rating of particular skills and the instructors' ratings were one index of problem skills. Another was instances of skills that were rated well

## STUDENT-CENTERED ANALYSIS OF TEACHING (SCAT)

## DIRECTIONS:

We would like your opinion of your instructor's performance lf tuich of the following teaching behaviors or skilis. Piease read each ite:- curefuily and circle one of the responses as follows:

E excellent to ver: sood performance in this are:
$S$ satisfactory performance in this area
I I would like to see some imirovinent in this area
I! Istronsly recomenc innonvernnt in thils area
0 does not apply - (flease use sparingly)

1. When beginning a class, lesson, or new instructioual E S I Il o activity, the instructor uscally makes clear what he/she hopes to accomplish.
2. The instructor usually gets ce interested at the bezt:min: of each class sessior and learning the E S illo 0 ectivizy.
3. The instructor presents new ideas and iniormation at an appropriate pace, i.e. nelther too fast nor too slow.
4. The instructer arranges and prisents material in a clear, well-organized fashion.
5. In this instructor's class it is usually possible to know which points are cos: important, and to see the relationships betteen topics.
6. The in:tructue knows when to exizlorate on a topic and he/stie elaborates eifectively by using examples pointing out Etlatioriships, and/or ajving mare detailef explanations.
7. The instructur provides useful stismaries at appropriate times, (e.8. at ead of ciass session or end of unit.)
8. When the instructor leac.ies the end of any segucat E S I Il 0 of a presentazion, hershe effectively "wraps it up" by sumarlzing, chieckirg for cozrehension, relating the covered materisi to what is to come, and motirg whether or not the material till be taken up again.

Figure 5. Student Evaiuation Form of the Clinic to Improve University Teaching - Spring 1973

## STUDENT-CENTERED ANALYSIS OF TEACHING (SCAT)

Agaln, jour response choices are:
E. excellent to viry good periormance in this area
$S$ saticfactory performance in this area
1 I would like to see some fmprovement in this area
I! I sirongly recurmend improvement in this area
0 dees not ipply - (please use this sparingly)
9. The instructor has an effective presentation style $E \quad S \quad I \quad$ If 0
(e.g. volce quality, choice of words, body wovements, ttc.)
10. The instructor irseires excitenent and interest $\quad$ \& I! 0 in the subject miticr.
11. The fintructor is creative and imaginative in his/her e $S$ I! 0 teaching methods.
12. The instruitor makes students feelfree to disagree E S I I! 0 with him/her, with fellow students, or with the readtres.
13. The ifstructor eives oper-mindid presentitions, of a E S I I! 0 varicty of points of $v$ !ew.
14. The i!.structu: relates the topics to a wide range of $E \quad S$. If 0 fields, situations, applications, and iaterests.
15. The instructor enceurapns independent thought and, when necessary, belps :itujents ifind the necessary resources to pursue independent study.
16. The exieral design of this instructor's course (number a:d cholce of lectures, discussions, reading, pipers, examinutions) is appropitate.
17. The level of difficu:ty and the amunt of work in this $E \quad S \quad I \quad$ If 0 couzst are about ribht for me.
18. The instructur allow: students so work out alternative wa;s of aclifviliz course cojectives and helps students who want to do this.
19. The instructor is an effective discussion leader (entouraces contritutions, keeps l'e jiscussiors (ocusud, foesn't domitoitc, etc.)

Figure 5. Student Evaluation Form of the Clinic to Improve

$$
\text { University Teaching - Spring } 1973 \text { (continued) }
$$

## STUDENT-CENTERED ANALYSIS OF TEACHING (SCAT)

Remember, your response choices are:
E excellent to very good performance in this area
$S$ satisfactory performance in this area
I I would like to see some improvement in this area
If I strongly recommend improviment in this ares
0 does not apply- (please use this sparingly)
20. The instructor invites students to share their $\quad \mathrm{F} \quad \mathrm{S} \quad$ I! 0 knowledce, experiences, and opintons at appropriate times.
21. The instructor encourages students to 11 isten and to respond to each other.
22. The instructor uses questions effectively (e.g. to focus attention on important points, to check on student understanding, to get students to think, etc.).
23. The instructor restates sfuients' questions for clarification and answers them in a way that the whole class understands.
24. The instructor provides encouragement and opportunity for student questions, sugzestions, comments or criticisms regarding any aspect of this course.
25. The instruceor scemis to know when students are confused, bured or frustrated.
26. The instructor answers questions, or encourages and helps others to answer thetn, with understanding and clarity.
27. The instructor deronstrates his hher active interest in students as individuals by being easy to approach, patient, and willing to help.
28. The instructor makes clear :0 students what is expected of them and how their performances are to be evalluted.

Figure 5. Student Evaluation Form of the Clinic to Improve University Teaching - Spring 1973 (continued)

## STUDENT-CENTERED ANALYSIS OF TEACHING (SCAT)

Rewember, your respols. Mreders are:
E excellemt to viry gond performance in this area
S satlafuctury purtormance In this area
1 I would like to see sure tmproverult in this area

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 and -on-l:! !ont his.

3r. The irstanctor hiref the soldents justeri en their


 "rieytu and wrons" as tia"; relaje to hisfiner subject matter ( $0 . \%$. dues not avoid ciscussine controvershal $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { sisucis). }\end{array}\right.$

Figure 5. Student Evaluation Form of the Clinic to Improve University Teaching - Spring 1973 (continued)

```
AND PELATED STUDENT EVALUATION ITEMS
```

1. Set Induction (items 1 and 2)
2. Logical Organization (items 4 and 5)
3. Pacing (item 3)
4. Elaboration (item 6)
5. Closure (items 7 and 8)
6. Expression (item 9)
7. Inspiration/Charisma (item 10)
8. Level of Challenge (item 17)
9. Treatment of Divergent Views (items 12 and 13)
10. Defining and Expanding Relevance (item 14)
11. Facilitating Student Participation (items 19 and 20)
12. Facilitating Student-Student Interaction (item 21)
13. Asking Questions (item 22)
14. Answering Questions (items 23 and 26)
15. Choosing Appropriate Kodes and Katerials (items 11 and 15)
16. Instructional Flexibility and Individualization (items 18 and 27)
17. Facilitating Independent/Creative Inquiry (item 15)
18. Monitoring Student Response (items 24 and 25)
19. Making Expectations Clear (item 28)
20. Evaluation (items 29 and 30)
21. Defining and Expanding Ethical Contexts (item 3I)

Figure 6. Twenty-One Technical Skills of Teaching and Related Student Evaluation Items
below the overall rating. Where the skills that were rated low could be viewed in terms of a more general problem domain, such as "discussion leading" or "clarity," then a clearer vision of what behaviors might undergo productive change in the classroom was obtained.

During this conference, or a second follow-up conference, the instructional specialists attempted to clarify low skill ratings by pointing out specific classroom episodes with the use of the videotapes. On occasion the instructional specialists used interaction analyses for pointing out classrooz behavicr patterns that might aid the interpretation of the ratings and indicate productive change directions.

In the conference the videotape viewing process was focused by the instructional specialist. The tape would be stopped at varicus places where data appeared that might =elate to the student evaluations. Also, when the instructors had acknowledged the desire to alter their instruction in specific ways, the instructional specialists in reviewing the videotape often would stop the tape at points where the desired behavior changes might have been appropriate.

Follow-up. The experimental group also engaged in followup activities designed by the instructors and the instructional specialists. Such activities were specific to the particular change goals and included the following: successive videotaping and feedback sessions focusing on the appearance and reinforce-
ment of specific behaviors; micro-teaching with feedback from students as well as instructional specialists; videotape viewing and group discussion of instruction in the classroom; videotape viewing and group discussion among several of the instructors; administering and interpreting additional student evaluations; obtaining additional student feedback in the form of int-class audiotape recordings made be selected students; obtaining lesson specific achievement data; planning lessons; reading specific materials. Each member of the experimental group spent approximately ten additional hours in follow-up activities.

## Additional Data Collection

Videotape II, Student Evaluations. Approximately eight weeks after the inception of the treatment process a final thir-ty-minute videotape and set of student evaluations were completed for both experimental groups and the control group. The same student evaluation questionnaire was used for the posttest as was used in the pretest.

Student Achievement Tests. During the second week and during the eighth week of the treatment process an essay-type exam was administered to the classes of all subjects. Two forms of this exam were constructed by the course director. Half of both experimental groups and the control group received one form of the exam as a pretest. This sequence was reversed for the posttest.

## Data Analysis

The sequence of data collection and treatment for this study is summarized in Figure 7.

Interaction Analysis. The first fifteen minutes of all pretest and posttest videotapes were selected for the analysis. This segment of each tape was the most standardized across all subjects--reflecting the first fifteen minutes of each class. Two of these segments were transferred to one thirty-minute tape and coded for rating.

Four raters were then trained in a seventeen-category system of interaction analysis (Figure 8) developed for this study by subscripting categories from Flanders' ten-category system (Figure 9) (Amidon and Flanders, 1971). This training consisted of approximately six hours of supervised practice in using this system to analyze videotapes. Three of the four raters had had several hours of previous experiences using interaction analysis systems. Raters did not know which tapes were pretest and which posttest. An audio-tape counting off threesecond intervals ivas played together with the videotape during the rating. One tape segment was rated by all four raters ard the inter-rater reliability computed according to the following Scott coefficient (Flanders, 1967, pp. 161-166):

$$
\text { coefficient "pi" }=\frac{P_{0}-P_{e}}{I-P_{e}}
$$

SEQUENCE OF DATA COLLECTION AND TREATMENT

| EXPERIMENTAL GROUP | QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL GROUP | CONTROL GROUP |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Initial Interview | Initial Interview | Initial Interview |
| Student Achievement Tests | Student Achievement Tests | Student Achievement Tests |
| Classroom Observation | Classroom Observation |  |
| Videotape I | Videotape I | Videotape I |
| Student Evaluations | Student Evaluations | Student Evaluations |
| Interpretation Conference(s) | Interpretation Conference (s) |  |
| Follow-up Procedures | Videotape II |  |
| Videotape II | Student Evaluations | Student Evaluations |
| Student Evaluations | Student Achievement Tests | Student Achievement Tests |

1. Instructor accepts or discusses student feelings
2. Instructor praises or compliments

3: Instructor relates to student responses
a. by simple acknowledgement or encouragement
b. by restating, clarifying, incorporating or expanding the response
c. by probing or encountering
d. by redirecting the response to other students
e. by correcting or disapproving
4. Question-asking
a. lower order recall or convergent questioning
b. higher order divergent or evaluative questioning
5. Lecturing
a. focusing, summarizing, introducing, orienting statements b. all other lecturing
6. Giving directions
7. Criticizing or justifying authority
8. Student tal.k - responding
9. Student talk - initiating
10. Silence or confusion
a. silence
b. confusion

Figure 8. Seventeen-Category Interaction Analysis System

1. Accepts Feeling: accepts and clarifies the feeling tone of the students in a nonthreatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative. Predicting or recalling feelings is included.
2. Praises or Encourages: praises or encourages student action or behavior. Jokes that release tension, but not at the expense of another individual; nodding head, or saying "um hm?" or "go on" are included.
3. Accepts or Uses Ideas of Students: clarifying, building, or developing ideas suggested by a student. As teacher brings more of his own ideas into play, shift to Category 5.
4. Asks Questions: asking a question about content or procedure with the intent that a student answer.
5. Lecturing: giving facts or opinions about content or procedures; expressing his own ideas, asking rhetorical questions.
6. Giving Directions: directions, commands, or orders with which a student is expected to comply.
7. Criticizing or Justifying Authority: statements intended to change student behavior from nonacceptable to accept.able pattern; bawling someone out; stating winy the teacher is doing what he is doing; extreme self-reference.
8. Student Talk - Response: talk by students in response to teacher. Teacher initiates the contact or solicits student statement.
9. Student Talk - Initiation: talk by students, which they initiate. If "calling on" student is only to indicate who may talk next, observer must decide whether student wanted to talk. If he did, use this category.
10. Silence or Confusion: pauses, short periods of silence, and periods of confusion in which communication cannot be understood by the observor.

Figure 9. Flanders Ten-Category Interaction Analysis System
where $P_{O}$ is the proportion of agreement, and $P_{e}$ is the proportion of agreement expected by chance which is found by squaring the proportion of tallies in each category and summing these over all categories. Scott's coefficient can be expressed in words as the amount that two observors exceeded chance agreement divided by the amount that perfect agreement exceeds chance.

A computer program was developed for this study (deFreisse, 1973) which converted the interaction analysis scores to a 17 x 17 matrix and (by collapsing the subscripted categories) also converted them to a Flanders 10 x 10 matrix. The program also produced the following special measures: Ratio of Indirect Teacher Behaviors to Direct Behaviors (I/D Ratio), a Revised I/D Ratio, Total Indirect Behaviors (Extended Indirect), Total Direct Behaviors (Extended Direct), Total Teacher Talk, Total Student Talk, and the Student/Teacher Talk Ratio (Amidon and Flanders, 1971). When the first and second videotape scores of each instructor were submitted, the program computed a Difference Matrix. This matrix for examining differences between the first and second videotaped instructional episodes was completed for all three groups in the study.

Because many of the categoriesin the 17-category system appeared not to have been sufficiently differentiated by the raters, the Flanders 10 -category system was used for most of the interaction analysis and interpretation. This was done in three ways: (1) through comparisons of the Difference Matrices,
(2) through comparisons of selected interaction analysis categories, and (3) through flow charts generated from each group matrix.

Student Evaluations. A numerical score was assigned to each of the values in the student evaluation instrument (E S I I! 0). The mean score for each item in the pretest and posttest evaluations of each group was computed and compared. Comparisons were also made by means of t-tests. This procedure was repeated for groups of items within ten factors derived by means of factor analysis (Figure 10). (The factor matrix is contained in Appendix C).

Student Achievement. Three raters were trained by the Rhetoric 100 course director to rate the student writing tests along three dimensions: (1) "literacy," indicating the technical correctness of the writing, (2) "focus," indicating the ability of the writers to organize their ideas around a central purpose, and (3) "felicity," indicating the awareness displayed by the writer of his reader as evidenced in the use of rhetorical devices.

Ten matched pairs of student papers from each subject's class were rated by all three raters on each dimension. In the case of subjects with two class sections, only the section that was videotaped was used in the achievement rating.

The scores on the three dimensions were summed for each student and a mean score determined for each subject's class.

## STUDENT EVALUATION FACIORS

FACTOR 1: All items
FACTOR 2: "Clarity and Presentation (items 1, 5, 6, 7, 8, 3, 4)"
FACTOR 3: "Interest (items 2, 10, 25, 9, 11)"
FACTOR 4: "Clarity (items $1,5,6,7,8$ )"
FACTOR 5: "Evaluation and Feedback (items 28, 29, 30)"
FACTOR 6: "Relating to Student Responses (items 23 and 26)"
FACTOR 7: "Relating to Student Needs (items 25 and 27)"
FACTOR 8: "Discussion Leading (items 19, 20, 21, 22)"
FACTOR 9: "Openness (items $11,12,13,14,15,18,24,27,31) "$
FACTOR 10: "Course Design (items 16 and 17)"

Figure 10. Student Evaluation Factors

A totai achievereat mean score for che five Clesses in the experimeital groug a-i tie ficu こlesses ia the guasi-experi-





$$
\begin{array}{cccccccc}
C & H & A & P & T & \text { E } & \text { R } & \text { I V } \\
& & \text { RESULTS }
\end{array}
$$

Changes In Instructional Behavior: Interaction Analyses
In order to represent the characteristic patterns of instructional behavior for the experimental, quasi-experimental and control groups, a seventeen-category system of classroom behavior coding was employed in analyzing both pretest and posttest videotapes. The scores derived from this system were later reduced to a ten-category system (Amidon and Flanders, 1971). The results of both coding systems were displayed on matrices for interpretation. (Matrices not directly discussed in sections of this chapter are included in Appendix B.)

Difference Matrices. In order to identify changes in instructional behavior within each group from pretest to posttest videotaping, three Difference Matrices were computed. As indicated by the 10 x 10 Difference Matrix for the experimental group (Table V), substantial changes appear to have occurred in at least five column totals (3, 4, 5, 8, 9) and three cells (3-3, 5-5 and 9-9). The amount of student talk in the classes of the experimental group decreased by $10.71 \%$, that is, $10.71 \%$ more of the first lesson was occupied by student talk than the second lesson (columns 8 and 9). The amount of lecturing increased by $12.21 \%$ (column 5). The time occupied by teacher questioning decreased by $4.90 \%$ (column 4). The amount of ac-

TABLE V

## EXPERIMENTAL GROUP DIFFERENCE MATRIX

## Categories


cepting and using student ideas (column 3) increased $4.10 \%$. Finally, though the percentage is small, the amount of teacher praise decreased $2.82 \%$ (column 2).

The remaining four columns changed insignificantly (columns $1,6,7$ and 10 ). The $3-3$ cell, indicating continuous using or expanding on student ideas increased by 4.26\%. Continuous lecturing (cell 5-5) decreased by $4.49 \%$. Reinforcement and praise (column 2) was particularly decreased following student talk (cells 8-2 and 9-2).

The Difference Matrix for the control group (Table VI) indicates notable changes in question-asking (column 4), lecturing (column 5), both student talk categories (columns 8 and 9) and silence (column 10). Columns $1,2,3,6$ and 7 did not change noticeably.

Question-asking by the instructors in the control group (column 4) became $5.17 \%$ less of the total lesson. Lecturing was $7.97 \%$ less. Teacher initiated student talk (student talk response, column 8) decreased by $6.31 \%$ while student initiated talk increased $10.57 \%$ and silence increased $5.96 \%$. Heavy change cells for the control group were cell 4-4 (continuous teacher question-asking, $-3.78 \%$ ); cell 5-5 (continuous lecturing, $-8.30 \%$ ) ; cell $8-8$ (continuous student responding, $-4.72 \%$ ); cel1 9-9 (continuous student initiated talk, $+7.46 \%$ ) and cell 10-10 (continuous silence, $+3.43 \%$ ).

The quasi-experimental group (Table VII) showed strong

## TABLE VI

## CONTROL GROUP DIFFERENCE MATRIX

## Categories

|  |
| :---: |
|  |
|  |
|  |
|  |
|  |
|  |
|  |
|  |
|  |

- $2 \begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllll}1 & 15 & 1 & 13 & 1 & -56 & 1 & -37 & 1 & 4 & 1 & 2 & 1 & -59 & 1 & 1 & 5 & 1 & 73 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & & 1 & & 1 & & 1 & & 1 & & 1 & & 1 & & 1\end{array}$

TATALS* $0.1711 .2311 .0115 .1717 .9710: 3410.1716 .31113 .5715 .961$
i/D RATílO ...-......- 0.017
REVISED 1/D マaTl) -- -0.035
EXTENDFD INDIRECT $-\mathrm{F} \quad 1.213$
EXTEVDED DIRミCT -..- 0.094
TEACHER TAL'K ........- 10.217
STUDENT TAL'K ........ 4.261
STU/TEAC TAL\& ZAT!O 0.157

TABLE VII

## QUASI-EXPERIMEITAL GROUP DIFFERENCE VATRIX

## Categories

11 ?
13
1.4

1516
$\begin{array}{cccccc}17 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 10 \\ 1 & 1 & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots\end{array}$


changes in accepting and using student ideas (column 3), in question-asking (column 4), in lecturing (column 5), in giving directions (column 6) and in both student response and student initiation (columns 8 and 9).

The amount of class time devoted to using student ideas in the quasi-experimental group (column 3) increased $3.49 \%$. Lecturing (column 5) increased by 8.58\%. Giving directions (column 6) decreased by $5.61 \%$. Student response (column 8) increased by $7.36 \%$, and student initiation (column 9) decreased by $10.59 \%$. In terms of notable cell changes, continuous use of student ideas (cell 3-3) increased by $2.49 \%$; continuous ques-tion-asking (cell 4-4) decreased by $2.95 \%$; continuous lecturing (cell 5-5) increased by $9.75 \%$; continuous direction-giving (cell $6-6$ ) decreased by $4.80 \%$; continuous student response (cell 8-8) increased by $7.40 \%$ and continuous student initiation (cell 9-9) decreased by $9.31 \%$.

Comparison of Difference Matrices along Selected Dimensions. The numerical scores (number of three-second tallies), the percentage of the total second videotape lesson that these represent, the change in the number of tallies and the change in the lesson percentage from the pretest videotape along a number of significant dimensions are listed in Table VIII for all three groups in the study.

From this table it is possible to see more clearly how each group changed from pretest to posttest lesson. Several important

## TABLE VIII

## COMPARISON OF INTERACTION ANALYSIS DIMENSIONS



## TABLE VIII

## COMPARISON OF INTERACTION ANAJYSIS DIMENSIONS (continued)

| EXPERIMENTAL | CONTROL | QUASI-EXP | MENTAL |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 7. | $\begin{array}{r} 2 \\ .17 \\ +2 \\ +.17 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 4 \\ .33 \\ -4 \\ -.32 \end{array}$ | Tallies for second lesson <br> Percent of second lesson 1st/2nd lessons difference (tallies 1st/2nd lessons difference (percent |  |
| $\begin{array}{lr}\text { 8. Student } & 208 \\ \begin{array}{l}\text { Talk- } \\ \text { Response }\end{array} & 13.96 \\ -84 \\ & -4.14\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 119 \\ 10.20 \\ -69 \\ -6.31 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 203 \\ 16.71 \\ +88 \\ +7.63 \end{array}$ |  |  |
| 9. $\begin{array}{rr}\frac{\text { Student }}{\text { Talk- }} & 206 \\$ Initiation  | -123 |  |  |  |
|  | -6.57\end{array} | $\begin{array}{r} 234 \\ 20.05 \\ 126 \\ 10.57 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 141 \\ 11.60 \\ -132 \\ -10.59 \end{array}$ |  |
| $\text { 10. } \begin{array}{lr} \text { Silence- } & 156 \\ \text { Confusion } & 10.47 \\ & -12 \\ & -.05 \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 215 \\ & 18.42 \\ & +73 \\ & +5.96 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 116 \\ 9.55 \\ -3 \\ -.13 \end{array}$ |  |  |
| $\begin{array}{lr} \text { Ce11 3-3 } & 142 \\ & 9.53 \\ & +57 \\ & +4.26 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 36 \\ 3.08 \\ +11 \\ +.89 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 46 \\ 3.79 \\ +30 \\ +2.49 \end{array}$ |  |  |
| Ce11 4-436 <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  <br> 2.32 | $\begin{array}{r} 43 \\ 3.68 \\ -42 \\ -3.78 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 60 \\ 4.94 \\ -37 \\ -2.95 \end{array}$ |  |  |

TABLE VIII
COMPARISON OF INTERACTION ANALYSIS DIMENSIONS (continued)

| EXPER IMENTAL |  | CONTROL | QUASI -EXPER | MENTAL |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Cell 5-5 |  | $\begin{array}{r} 313 \\ 26.82 \\ -87 \\ -8.30 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 483 \\ 39.75 \\ +114 \\ +9.75 \end{array}$ | Tallies for second lesson Percent of second lesson 1st/2nd 1essons difference (tall 1st/2nd lessons difference (perc |
| Cel1 8-8 | $\begin{array}{r} 139 \\ 9.33 \\ -40 \\ -1.77 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 74 \\ 6.34 \\ -52 \\ -4.72 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 166 \\ 13.66 \\ +89 \\ +7.40 \end{array}$ |  |
| Cell 9-9 | $\begin{array}{r} 122 \\ 10.20 \\ -85 \\ -4.49 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 169 \\ 14.48 \\ +89 \\ +7.46 \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 117 \\ & 9.63 \\ & -116 \\ & -9.31 \end{aligned}$ |  |
| Cell 10-10 | $\begin{array}{r} 77 \\ 5.17 \\ +14 \\ +1.26 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 121 \\ 10.37 \\ +42 \\ +3.43 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 48 \\ 3.95 \\ -4 \\ -.23 \end{array}$ |  |
| $\text { 3a. } \frac{\text { Acknow- }}{\frac{\text { ledge- }}{\text { ment }}}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 42 \\ 2.82 \\ -47 \\ -2.70 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 34 \\ 2.91 \\ +15 \\ +1.25 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 28 \\ 2.30 \\ +12 \\ +1.00 \end{array}$ |  |
| 3c. Probing | $\begin{gathered} 54 \\ 3.62 \\ -54 \\ -3.07 \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 42 \\ 3.60 \\ -23 \\ -2.11 \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 40 \\ 3.29 \\ +19 \\ +1.58 \end{array}$ |  |

## TABLE VIII

COMPARISON OF INTERACTION ANALYSIS DIMENSIONS (continued)

| EXPERIMENTAL | CONTROL | QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| 3d. Redi- | 9 | 8 | 2 | Tallies for <br> secting |
|  | -60 | .69 | .16 | Percent of lesson <br> second lesson |
|  | -11 | +6 | 0 | lst/2nd lessons <br> difference (tallies) <br> lst/2nd lessons <br> difference (percent) |


| 5A. Orient- | $\begin{array}{r} 89 \\ 5.97 \\ +19 \\ +1.63 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 10 \\ .86 \\ -12 \\ -1.07 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 65 \\ 5.35 \\ +15 \\ +1.28 \end{array}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| I/D Ratio | $\begin{array}{r} .426 \\ -.130 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} .372 \\ +.017 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} .291 \\ -.005 \end{array}$ | Second Lesson 1st/2nd 1essons difference |
| $\frac{\text { Revised I/D }}{\text { Ratio }}$ | $\begin{array}{r} .944 \\ -.023 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} .951 \\ -.035 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} .959 \\ +.444 \end{array}$ |  |
| $\frac{\text { Extended }}{\text { Indirect }}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 14.966 \\ +3.187 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 7.798 \\ +1.213 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 7.819 \\ +4.486 \end{array}$ |  |
| $\frac{\text { Extended }}{\text { Direct }}$ | $\begin{array}{r} .403 \\ +.155 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} .171 \\ +.084 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} .000 \\ -5.041 \end{array}$ |  |


patterns emerge.
First, there appears to be much more parity between the changes that took place in the experimental and quasi-experimental groups compared to the control group. For example, in column 3, using student ideas, the experimental and quasiexperimental groups gained $4.10 \%$ and $3.49 \%$ respectively, while the control group gained only $1.01 \%$.

In columin 5, lecturing, although the final percentages for all three groups on the posttest are similar (34.0c\%, $31.53 \%$ and $43.54 \%$ ) the tendency for both experimentai and quasi-experimental groups was to increase the amount of direct teacher influence, that is, to increase lecturing, while for the control group the tendency was to decrease direct influence. Since the absolute number of tallies is very high, these percentage differences indicate substantial change.

Remarkable here is the fact that as indicated in the above analysis, using student ideas (column 3) in the experimental and quasi-experimental groups also had a tendency to increase. In other words, both the experimental and quasiexperimental instructors tended to be both more "direct" and more "indirect" in their teaching as witnessed by the second videotape. This change pattern is described by Elanders (1970) as "flexible." The control group showed only a slight incease in "indirect" teaching and a decrease in "direct" teaching.

Cells 3-3 and 5-5 reflect these similarities and differ-
ences. The 3-3 cell for the experimental and quasi-experimental groups increased $4.26 \%$ and $2.49 \%$ respectively, and . $89 \%$ for the control group. The percentages for the $5-5$ cell were $+11.86 \%$ and $+9.75 \%$ for the experimental and quasi-experimental groups, and $-8.30 \%$ for the control group.

The special measure of "extended indirect" from Table VIII (which totals the number of tallies and percents in the intersections of columns $1,2,3$ and rows $1,2,3$ of the matrix) and the "total teacher talk" measure further support the "flexible" pattern of the experimental and quasi-experimental groups. The total number of indirect behaviors increased $3.18 \%$ for the experimental group, $4.486 \%$ for the quasi-experimental, and $1.21 \%$ for the control.

In terms of total teacher talk, which totals columns 1 through 7 of the matrix, the experimental group showed an increase of $10.77 \%$ from $51.08 \%$ to $61.74 \%$. The control group decreased from $61.545 \%$ to $51.82 \%$. The quasi-experimental group reflected the experimental group with an increase of $3.35 \%$ from $58.78 \%$ to $62.14 \%$.

The total student talk (columns 8 and 9), ratio of student talk to teacher talk, and cells 8-8 and 9-9 also tended to differentiate between the experimental and quasi-experimental groups on the one hand and the control group on the other. Both the experimental and quasi-experimental groups showed decreases in the amount of time occupied by students in class
(the sum of columns 8 and 9). For the experimental and quasiexperimental groups the decrease was $10.71 \%$ and $3.23 \%$ respectively. For the control group there was an increase of $4.26 \%$. The resulting student/teacher talk ratio was -. 304 experimental, -.081 quasi-experimental and +.167 control. Cells 8-8 and 9-9 taken together indicate a total decrease for the experimental and quasi-experimental groups in continuous student talk ( $-6.26 \%$ and $-1.91 \%$ ). The control group increased $10.89 \%$ in these combined cells.

There is also an interesting difference among the groups in terms of "silence or confusion" (column 10). This is an important classification in that the amount of silence and the placement of silence indicates a great deal about the pace or rhythm of the instruction. The amount of silence for both experimental and quasi-experimental groups remained approximately the same for both lessons. Silence or confusion in the classes of the control group increased by $5.96 \%$.

For the most part this increased silence in the control group occurred in the $10-10$ cell. In this cell the total second observation number of tallies was 121 , an increase of 42 tallies and $3.43 \%$. In other words, there was a marked increase in extended (six seconds or more) silence in the control group. There was also an increase of 15 tallies in the control group's 9-10 cell indicating more silence after a student contribution or a change in student speakers.

The patterns for category 4, question-asking, were largely the same for all three groups. As indicated in Table VIII the total number of tallies during the second observation of the experimental, control and quasi-experimental groups was 120, 118 and 120. The number of tallies and percentage of instructor questioning decreased in all three cases: -89 tallies experimental, -56 tallies control, -33 tallies quasiexperimental.

Column 2, praise (indicating both extended general praise as well. as short encouragement and prompting) decreased in the experimental group by $2.82 \%$, remained approximately the same in the quasi-experimental group and increased by $1.23 \%$ in the control group.

Flanders' special I/D Ratio, the relationship of indirect teaching modes (columns $1-4$ ) to total teacher talk (columns 1-7) is intended to trace instructor tendencies toward greater or lesser "control" over the classroom. As described in the previous discussion the experimental and quasi-experimental goups tended to become both more indirect and more direct: the overall result was a decrease in their I/D Ratio (-. 130 experimental, -. 005 quasi-experimental). The I/D Ratio for the control group increased by . 017.

The remaining categories of Table VIII which have not been discussed (Column 1, Column 6, Column 7) and special measures (Revised I/D Ratio, Extended Direct) do not offer very much
information. Column 1 (accepts feeling) clearly showed differences among the groups $(+1.54 \%$ experimental, $+.7 \%$ control) but the number of tallies in this category was minimal, including none at all for the quasi-experimental group.

Columns 6 and 7 also accounted for a minor percent of the total behavior observed: 25 tallies or $.32 \%$ of the total 7,854 tallies of both observations for all groups fell into category 7. One hundred tallies or $1.23 \%$ fell into category 6 , which was also a special case because one continuous segment ( 59 tallies) of one lesson concerned giving directions.

Since the Revised I/D Ratio has only categories 6 and 7 as the denominator and since Extended Direct is the total of the $6-6,6-7,7-6$ and $7-7$ cells of the matrix, these measures yielded little useful information.

The $17 \times 17$ interaction analysis matrix was designed to identify teaching patterns in a classroom more specifically. This was accomplished by adding to the $10 \times 10$ matrix seven categories. However, category 4b (higher order questioning) was not discriminated well enough for raters during their training. Categories 3 e and 10 b contained almost no tallies. The remaining four categories are also listed in Table VIII.

Category 5a (focusing, summarizing, introducing, orienting) was differentiated from the general category of lecturing. According to the data, the experimental and quasi-experimental groups increased markedly in this category: 19 tallies
$1.63 \%$ for experimental, 15 tallies $1.28 \%$ for quasi-experimental. The control group decreased by 12 tallies $-1.07 \%$ in this category. It is also noteworthy that the vast majority of these orienting statements occurred in continuous sequence. Of: the 89 tallies in 5 a for the experimental group, 78 occurred in the $5 a-5 a$ continuous cell; for the quasi-experimental group, 50 of 65 tallies occurred in the $5 a-5 a$ cell. Only 4 of the control group's 10 tallies in 5 a occurred in the $5 a-5 a$ cell. Category 3 a , indicating the very brief almost perfunctory "yes," "very good," "right" kinds of teacher encouragement and prompting of student contributions was separated from category 2, praise. At the second videotape observation the experimental group exhibited much less of this kind of behavior ( -47 tallies, $-2.70 \%$ ). Both the control group and the quasi-experimental groups however increased these behaviors: +15 tallies $1.25 \%$ for control, +12 tallies $1.00 \%$ for quasi-experimental. In terms of category $3 c$, both the experimental and control groups decreased: -54 tallies $-3.07 \%$ experimental, -23 tallies $-2.11 \%$ control. The quasi-experimental group increased by 19 tallies $+1.58 \%$. In this data then there does not appear to be a strong relationship between student-centeredness in terms of using student ideas (category 3) where the experimental and quasi-experimental groups increased markedly and student-centeredness in terms of probing or encountering student ideas (category 3c), where only the quasi-experimental
group increased.
Category 3d, also separated from the general category of questioning, showed a definite decline in the experimental group ( -11 tallies, $-.64 \%$ ) and a definite increase in the control group ( +6 tallies, $+.51 \%$ ). The quasi-experimental group for the most part did not exhibit redirecting behaviors.

As illustrated in Table IX, of sixteen categories and special measures in the interaction analysis, half involved the experimental and quasi-experimental groups changing in one direction while the control group changed in the opposite direction. Two showed all three groups moving in the same direction but with the experimental and quasi-experimental groups moving much more decidediy in that direction. F'ive involved some other combination.

The eight measures wherein the experimental and quasiexperimental groups move in the same direction and the control group in the opposite direction are based on observational categories which account for $79.84 \%$ of the total classroom behavior in both pretest and posttest videotapes of the combined groups (columns 2, 5, 8, 9, 10). If the instance where both experimental and quasi-experimental groups increase decidedly more than the control group (column 3) is added, this figure rises to $86.91 \%$. In other words, if this $86.91 \%$ of the two videotaped classroom lessons of the Rhetoric sample were viewed through these particular interaction analysis categories, | Teacher Talk |
| :--- |
| Exper. |
| Quasi- |
| Q |
| Control |
| Col | acher Talk

Exper. +10.660
Quasi- +3.359
Control -10.217
Exper. $+4.10 \%$
Quasi- +3.49
Control +1.01

tended Indirect
Exper. +3.187
Quasi- +4.486
Control 1.213

10. Exper. $-.05 \%$
Quasi-
Control
+5.96
5a. Exper. $+1.63 \%$ 5a. $\begin{gathered}\text { Exper. }+1.63 \% \\ \text { Quasi- }+1.28 \\ \text { Control }-1.07\end{gathered}$ Control -1.07
I/D Exper. -. 130
Quasi- -. 005
Control +.017

$\frac{\text { Change }}{\text { Markedly }} \frac{\text { Similarly }}{\text { Than Control }} \frac{\text { More }}{\text { Gro }}$
Markedly Than Control Group
3.

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Dimensions } \\ & \text { Where Experimental } \\ & \text { Change Ouasi-Experimental } \\ & \text { Croupite Control } \end{aligned}$ | Dimensions Where Experimentaland Quasi-Experimental Groups <br> Change Similarly But More <br> Markedly Than Control Group Other |
| :---: | :---: |
| 2. Exper. $-2.82 \%$ Quasi- -. 21 Control +1.23 | 3. Exper. $+4.10 \%$ <br> Quasi- +3.49 <br> Control +1.01 <br> 1. Exper. $+1.54 \%$ <br> Quasi- . 00 <br> Control +. 17 |
| $\begin{array}{ll} \text { 5. } \text { Exper. } & +12.21 \% \\ \text { Quasi- } & +8.58 \\ \text { Control } & -7.97 \end{array}$ | Extended Indirect 4. Exper. $-4.90 \%$ <br> Exper. +3.187 Quasi- -2.56 <br> Quasi- +4.486 Control -5.17 <br> Control 1.213  |
| ```8. and 9. Exper. -10.71% Quasi- -3.23 Control +10.57``` | $\begin{gathered} \text { 3a. Exper. }-2.70 \% \\ \text { Quasi- }+1.00 \\ \text { Control }+1.25 \end{gathered}$ |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { 10. Exper. } \\ & \text { Quasi- } \\ & \text { Control } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}+.05 \%$ | 3c. Exper. - 3.07\% Quasi- +1.58 Control -2.11 |
| 5a. Exper. +1.63\% <br> Quasi- +1.28 <br> Control -1.07 | $\begin{array}{cc} \text { 3d. Exper. } & -.64 \% \\ \text { Quasi- } & .00 \\ \text { Control } & +.51 \end{array}$ |
| $\begin{array}{r} \text { I/D Exper. }-.130 \\ \text { Quasi- }-.005 \\ \text { Control }+.017 \end{array}$ |  |

DIRECTION OF CHANGE ON STUDENT EVALUATIONS FOR EACH SUB-GROUP
TABLE IX
DIRECTION OF CHANGE ON STUDENT EVALUATIONS FOR EACH SUB-GROUP (continued)
Stud./Teacher Talk Ratio Exper. -.304
Quasi- -.081 Control +. 167
in every category it would be observed that the experimental and quasi-experimental groups changed, changed in the same direction, and changed in contrast to the control group.

Flow Charts. A useful way of displaying interaction analysis data is through flow charts. These are constructed from interaction analysis matrices in the following way: (1) a certain minimum number of tallies in each cell to be represented on the flow chart is chosen, (2) all "steady state" cells (5-5, 4-4, 3-3, etc.) with this number of tallies or more are represented on a chart in proportionately sized boxes and all transition cells ( $4-8,5-4,3-4$, etc.) with this number of tallies or more are represented by connecting arrows, and (3) all other "steady state" or transition cells are added as necessary such that there is an arrow leading to and exiting from each box. (For purposes of interpretation certain transition cells or steady state cells are entered which have a total number of tallies below the established minimum number.)

The minimum number of tallies chosen for this interpretation was 20. The number of tallies in each flow chart entered through these procedures is approximately $80 \%$ of the total tallies recorded for the same lesson on the $10 \times 10$ matrix. Thus what these flow charts represent are the most typical patterns of instructional behavior that one would observe in these classrooms eighty percent of the time.

The pretest flow chart for the experimental group (Figure 11) depicts large amounts of lecturing (5-5), student initiated talk (9-9) and student responding (8-8). The amount of teacher question-asking ( $4-4$ ) and the amount of using student ideas (3-3) are approximately equal.

The general "flow" of the instruction is to and from the teacher's question-asking (4-4). Thus the transitions from lecturing to question-asking (5-4), silence to question-asking (10-4), student initiated talk to question-asking (9-4), student responding to question-asking (8-4) and teacher praise (2-2) to question-asking $(2-4)$ are all solid lines on the flow chart (twenty or more tallies). This indicates a more or less teacher-centered mode, perhaps recitational. There is also a strong student-centered tendency, as evidenced in the relatively large number of using student ideas (box 3-3).

The most typical instructional sequence is from questionasking to student responding to short praise to question-asking.

After treatment the experimental group (Figure 12) showed a tendency to become more teacher-centered and more studentcentered, a result which Flanders terms "flexibility" or the tendency of teachers to alternate their basic instructional modes in response to different instructional situations (Flanders, 1970).

Lecturing for the experimental group increased by 154 tallies or approximately $50 \%$. The use of student ideas increased

Figure 1l. Experimental Group Pretest Flow Chart

57 tallies or $70 \%$. Whereas the instructional patterns in the experimental group's pretest flowed toward teacher questionasking from five different directions, in the posttest this flow was from only two directions (lecturing to question-asking, and using student ideas to question-asking). The instructional patterns in the experimental group's posttest flowed mainly toward the 3-3 box, clarifying and using student ideas.

The most typical instructional sequence in the posttest was from question-asking (4-4) to silence (10-10) to student responding $(8-8)$ then equally to short praise $(2-2)$ and to using student ideas (3-3). The tallies in the 2-2 box moreover tended to flow to 3-3. Student talk decreased by approximately $30 \%$.

The quasi-experimental group's pretest flow chart (Figure 13) is characterized by large amounts of lecturing (5-5) and student initiated talk (9-9), very similar to the experimental group. The amount of student response in this group was much less than that of the experimental group ( 77 tallies) and the amount of continuous teacher question-asking (4-4) was slightly greater.

The student-centeredness (3-3) of the quasi-experimental pretest group was very little ( 16 tallies) compared to the pretest 85 tallies of the experimental group. The quasi-experimental group also contained a pretest lesson involving prolonged direction giving •


The primary flow of the quasi-experimental group's instruction in the pretest was in two directions: toward teacher lecturing ( 48 tallies from four directions) and toward silence (54 tallies from four directions). The most typical instructional sequence was from question-asking (4-4) to silence ( $10-10$ ) to lecturing $(5-5)$ to silence $(10-10)$ to ques-tion-asking (4-4).

In the quasi-experimental group's posttest (Figure 14) the primary instructional pattern was from question-asking to silence to lecturing to silence--almost exactly the same as in the pretest. The shift that occurred for the experimental group toward student-centeredness (3-3) as well as teacher-centeredness (5-5) was approximated but to a much lesser degree by the quasi-experimental group.

The control group pretest (Figure 15) was similar to the other two groups in that lecturing (5-5) and student responding (8-8) were relatively large categories. The control group however was characterized in the pretest by more lecturing (400 tallies) than the other two groups and a lesser amount of total student talk (206 tallies). There was more silence in the control group, roughly twice as much as the experimental group. The control group was also similar to the quasiexperimental group in terms of the small amount of using student ideas (3-3) displayed.
QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL GROUP POSTTEST FLOW CHART




The general flow of the instructional patterns in the control group's pretest videotape as in the experimental group's, was toward question-asking ( 76 tallies from four directions). There were two sequences that were dominant: question-asking to student response to question-asking and question-asking to silence to lecturing to question-asking.

The control group posttest showed a marked drop in question-asking, which was also true for the experimental and quasi-experimental groups. There was also a marked decrease in lecturing, which ran counter to these other two groups. Also in contrast was the control group's increase in total student talk and silence.

The dominant flow of the control group's posttest instruction was toward silence ( $10-10$ ), 69 tallies from four directions.

The most typical instructional sequence was from ques-tion-asking to silence to student initiation to silence-and then either back to question-asking or to lecturing. The instructional pattern shift then in the control group was toward the strengthening of the silence-student initiation, student initiation-silence sequences, with the intervals of student initiated talk and silence being much longer.

Significance of Changes. The use of statistics to estimate the significance of the changes in instructional behavior discussed above was judged to be inappropriate to


Figure 16. Control Group Posttest Flow Chart
the present study primarily because the sample size, thirteen, broken up into three groups was exceedingly small.

According to Flanders (1970), who has conducted studies of a similar nature with larger numbers of teachers, the increased or decreased behavior in any one category does not need to be large in order to be significant:

It is important to place these changes in teaching behavior into a reasonable perspective. The increased use of Category 3 , for example, is only a matter of 4 or 5 percent. A control group might average around 8 percent Category 3 , while those who study interaction analysis are more likely to average from 3 to 5 points higher (p. 358).

In which case several of the instructional behavior changes revealed in the present study might be considered significant changes, including for example Category 3 in the experimental and quasi-experimental groups.

Inter-Rater Reliability. Rating reliability among the four interaction analysis raters was estimated by the Scott coefficient reported by Flanders (1967). One fifteen minute videotaped teaching segment was scored by all raters and the scores compared.

The resulting reliability estimates were extremely varied, ranging from a low of .4657 (Rater 1 and Rater 4) to a high of . 7808 (Rater 2 and Rater 4). The test case reported by Flanders (1967, p. 163) indicated a reliability of . 8899.

Table $X$ represents the four raters' scores on the rater reliability tape in each of the categories of the 10 -category system. It is apparent from this table that the greatest part of the discrepancy among the raters occurred in differentiating "student talk - response" from "student talk - initiation."

The difference between a student "initiation" where the student's ideas, views or information go beyond what was requested by the instructor--and a student "response," can be a very difficult distinction to make on a videotape recording, especially where the microphone is not aimed at student speakers.

If categories 8 and 9 were considered as one category, the rater reliability would be much greater.

Student Evaluations
A thirty-one item questionnaire asking students to evaluate their instructors on a number of technical teaching skills was administered twice to all groups.

Pretest and posttest comparisons between items were aided by t-tests. Comparisons were also made between clusters of items suggested by factor analysis. (Detailed representation of this data appears in Appendix C).

Table XI contains a summary of these comparisons. As indicated, only a few of the thirty-one questionnaire items or ten special factors showed any real change. The disparity between the three groups in terms of the items that did appear

TABLE X
RATER SCORES FOR ONE FIFTEEN-MINUTE LESSON USING THE FLANDERS TEN-CATEGORY SYSTEM

| Category | Rater 1 | Rater 2 | Rater 3 | Rater 4 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. Accepts Feeling | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2. Praises or Encourages | 7 | 20 | 12 | 19 |
| 3. Uses Student Ideas | 20 | 18 | 15 | 15 |
| 4. Asks Questions | 37 | 28 | 32 | 35 |
| 5. Lecturing | 44 | 54 | 47 | 4.4 |
| 6. Giving Directions | 0 | 6 | 0 | 3 |
| 7. Criticizing | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 8. Student Ta1k-Response | 153 | 105 | 49 | 72 |
| 9. Student Talk-Initiatio | O 31 | 83 | 128 | 92 |
| 1.0. Silence or Confusion | 18 | 11 | 17 | 18 |
| TOTALS | 310 | 325 | 300 | 298 |

## TABLE XI

COMPARISON OF STUDENT EVALUATION PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCORES
FOR INDIVIDUAL ITEMS AND FACTORS

| Var. | EXPERIMENTAL |  | QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL |  | CONTROL |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\frac{\text { Diff. in }}{\underline{\text { Mean }}}$ | $\underline{\text { T-Value }}$ | $\frac{\text { Diff. in }}{\text { Mean }}$ | T-Value | $\frac{\text { Diff. in }}{\text { Mean }}$ | $\underline{\text { T-Value }}$ |
| 1. | +. 2076 | 1.32 | . 00 | . 00 | +. 1118 | . 80 |
| 2. | -. 0433 | -. 35 | -. 0945 | -. 69 | +. 1212 | . 80 |
| 3. | +. 1407 | 1.05 | +. 1258 | . 70 | -. 1852 | -1.19 |
| 4. | -. 0744 | -. 54 | +. 0322 | . 27 | +. 2058 | 1.29 |
| 5. | +. 2393 | 1.61 | +. 0570 | . 42 | -. 0564 | -. 36 |
| 6. | -. 0038 | -. 03 | -. 2778 | -1.77 | +. 1673 | 1.26 |
| 7. | +. 2771 | 1.61 | +. 0983 | . 54 | -. 0104 | -. 06 |
| 8. | +. 1516 | . 90 | -. 1293 | -. 70 | +. 0357 | . 19 |
| 9. | -. 1268 | -1.31 | -. 2916 | -1.97* | +. 1964 | 1.47 |
| 10. | +. 0388 | . 34 | -. 0763 | -. 47 | +. 0687 | . 60 |
| 11. | -. 1245 | -1.05 | -. 0782 | -. 53 | +. 0160 | . 10 |
| 12. | -. 1189 | -1.44 | -. 2684 | -2.11* | +. 0771 | . 68 |
| 13. | +. 1697 | 1.23 | -. 1242 | -. 71 | +. 0291 | . 22 |
| 14. | +. 3328 | 1.97\% | +. 0638 | . 28 | -. 0714 | -. 52 |
| 15. | +. 1542 | . 73 | -. 2703 | -1.10 | -. 0808 | -. 35 |
| 16. | +. 2607 | 1.87 | $+.0960$ | . 56 | -. 2707 | $-1.60$ |
| 17. | -. 0648 | -. 50 | -. 2128 | -1.27 | +. 1964 | 1.47 |
| 18. | +. 1021 | . 40 | -. 2231 | -. 93 | +. 2030 | . 88 |
| 19. | -. 0761 | -. 71 | +. 0539 | . 39 | +. 1429 | . 79 |

## TABLE XI (continued)

COMPARISON OF STUDENT EVALUATION PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCORES FOR INDIVIDUAL ITEMS AND FACTORS

EXPERIMENTAL

| Var. | Diff. in | T-Value |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Mean |  |
| 20. | +. 0040 | . 05 |
| 21. | -. 0011 | -. 01 |
| 22. | -. 0763 | -. 78 |
| 23. | +. 4083 | 2. $74 \%$ |
| 24. | +. 0180 | . 16 |
| 25. | +. 0561 | . 42 |
| 26. | -. 0522 | -. 52 |
| 27. | +. 0353 | . 34 |
| 28. | +. 4055 | 2. $70 \%$ |
| 29. | +. 2341 | 1.59 |
| 30. | +. 1830 | 1.06 |
| 31. | -. 0098 | -. 05 |
| F1 | +. 0860 | 1.53 |
| F2 | +. 1335 | 1.55 |
| F3 | -. 0399 | -. 51 |
| F4 | +. 1743 | 1.91 |
| F5 | +. 2744 | 2.38\% |
| F6 | +. 1780 | 1.82 |
| F7 | +. 0457 | . 50 |

QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL
$\frac{\text { Diff. in }}{\underline{\text { Mean }}} \quad \underline{T-V a l u e}$
$-.2785-2.51 \%$
$+.0598 \quad .43$
$-.0501 \quad-.42$
$-.3352 \quad-1.83$
$-.0336 \quad-.19$
$-.0952 \quad-.58$
$-.1389 \quad-.86$
$-.1326$
$-.0941 \quad-.54$
$+.1405 .96$
-.5084 -2.04*
$-.2396 \quad-1.25$
$-.1715 \quad-.75$
$-.1021$
$-.0137 \quad-.13$
+. 2265
1.16
+.0558 . 63
$+.0381 .37$
$-.1270 \quad-1.17$
$+.0547$
$+.0497 \quad .48 \quad-.0504 \quad-.45$
$. .1534-1.14$
$+.0571 \quad .41$
$-.2370 \quad-1.74$
$-.1139 \quad-.91$
$+.1918 \quad 1.53$
$-.0822 \quad-.64$

TABLE XI (continued)
COMPARISON OF STUDENT EVALUATION PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCORES
FOR INDIVIDUAL ITEMS AND FACTORS

| Var. | $\frac{\text { Diff. in }}{\text { Mcan }}$ | T-Value | $\frac{\text { Diff. in }}{\text { Mean }}$ | T-Value | $\frac{\text { Diff. in }}{\text { Mean }}$ | $\underline{\text { T-Value }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| F8 | -. 0373 | -. 55 | -. 0538 | -. 58 | +. 1100 | . 92 |
| F9 | +. 0999 | 1.28 | -. 1294 | -1.05 | +. 0401 | . 43 |
| F10 | +. 0980 | . 90 | -. 0584 | -. 41 | -. 0372 | -. 31 |

to change is difficult to interpret. $\Lambda 11$ of the notable differences that occurred for the quasi-experimental group were negative. No two of these negative items appear in any one factor however, so there is no evident "pattern" of change. Items 12 and 20 might be viewed in terms of the instructors' relating to students and their openness, keying from the words "feel free," "invites," and "share" (see Table XII, for a list of apparent change items in the quasi-experimental group). These data point perhaps to increased restrictiveness in this group's classrooms. Items 6 and 23 point to poor performance in terms of "clarity." Item 9 concerns presentation style and item seventeen refers to the curriculum design.

The remaining student evaluation items for this group show no change. Twenty-one of the thirty-one student evaluation items and all seven factors showed very slight decline: in the ratings.

## TABLE XII

QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL GROUP STUDENT EVALUATION ITEMS AND FACTORS
INDICATING CHANGE
6. "The instructor knows when to elaborate on a topic and he/she elaborates effectively by using examples, pointing out relationships, and/or giving more detailed explanations."
Mean: -.2778 T-Value: -1.77
9. "The instructor has an effective presentation style (e.g. voice quality, choice of words, body movements, etc.)."
Mean: -. 2916 T-Value: -1.97 *
12. "The instructor makes students feel free to disagree with him/her, with fellow students or with the readings." Mean: -. 2684 T-Value: -2.11\%
17. "The level of difficulty and the amount of work in this course are about right for me."
Mean: -. 2128 T-Value: -1.27
20. "The instructor invites students to share their knowledge, experiences, and opinjons at appropriate times."
Mean: -. 2785 T-Value: -2.51 *
23. 'The instructor restates students' questions for clarification and answers them in a way that the whole class understands." Mean: -. 3352 T-Value: -1.83
30. "The instructor keeps the students posted on their progress through questions in class, individual conferences, and appropriate quizzes and tests."
Mean: -. 5084 T-Value: -2.04 *
F6 "Relating to Student Responses (items 23 and 26)" Mean: -. 2370 T-Value: -1.74

The control group showed noticeable change in five items and one factor (Table XIII).

Patterns in this data however are also difficult to delineate. Item 4 might be interpreted with item 9 to suggest a general improvement in the instructors' classroom presentations. The positive direction of item 17 is offset by the negative direction of item 16 , both items referring to course design. Item 26 points to a more positive relating to student responses and item 28 suggests improved instructor procedures for evaluating students. None of these items form a clear trend with their related items as indicated by the low factor scores throughout the control group. To some extent Factor 6, "relating to student responses (items 23 and 26)" is an exception, but not a definitive one.

The experimental group showed marked change in ten individual items and three factors (Table XIV). Two of these items showed change in a negative direction (items 9 and 12).

The three factors ("evaluation and feedback," "clarity," and "relating to student responses") were especially positive, indicating that the experimental group instructors had improved in such specific ways as making expectations clear for the course and for individual lessons, evaluating ciearly and consistently, explaining and sumnarizing ideas, and restating,

## TABLE XIII

## CONTROL GROUP STUDENT EVALUATION ITEMS AND FACTORS

## INDICATING CHANGE

4. "The instructor arranges and presents material in a clear, well-organized fashion."
Mean: +. 2058 T-Value: 1.29
5. "The instructor has an effective presentation style (e.g. voice quality, choice of words, body movements, etc.)." Mean: +. 1964 T-Value: 1.47
6. "The general design of this instructor's course (number and choice of lectures, discussions, reading, papers, examinations) is appropriate."
Mean: -. 2707 T-Value: -1.60
7. "The level of difficulty and the amount of work in this course are about right for me."
Mean: +. 1964 T-Value: 1.51
8. "The instructor answers questions, or encourages and helps others to answer them, with understanding and clarity."
Mean: +. 2133 T-Value: 1.51
9. "The instructor makes clear to students what is expected of them and how their performances are to be evaluated."
Mean: +. 3891 T-Value: 2.19
F6 "Relating to Student Responses" (items 23 and 26) Mean: +. 1918 T-Value: 1.53

TABLE XIV

## EXPERIMENTAL GROUP STUDENT EVALUATION ITEMS AND FACTORS

## INDICATING CHANGE

1. "When beginning a class, lesson, or new instructional activity, the instructor usually makes clear what he/she hopes to accomplish."
Mean: +. 2076 T-Value: 1.32
2. "In this instructor's class it is usually possible to know which points are most important, and to see the relationships between topics."
Mean: +. 2393 T-Value: 1.61
3. "The instructor provides useful summaries at appropriate times, (e.g. at end of class session or end of unit). Mean: +. 2771 T-Value: 1.61
4. "The instructor has an effective presentation style (e.g. voice quality, choice of words, body movements, etc.)
Mean: -. 1268 T-Value: -1.31
5. "The instructor makes students feel free to disagree with him/her, with fellow students, or with the readings."
Mean: -. 1189 T-Value: -1.44
6. "The instructor relates the topics to a wide range of fields, situations, applications, and interests."
Mean: +.3328 T-Value: 1.97\%
7. "The general design of this instructor's course (number and choice of lectures, discussions, readings, papers, examinations) is appropriate."
Mean: +. 2607 T-Value: 1.87
8. "The instructor restates students' questions for clarification and answers them in a way that the whole class understands."
Mean: +.4083 T-Value: 2.74*
9. "The instructor makes clear to students what is expected of them and how their performances are to be evaluated." Mean: +. 4055 T-Value: 2.70

## TABJE XIV

## EXPERIMENTAL GROUP STUDENT EVALUATION ITEMS AND FACTORS INDICATING CHANGE (continued)

```
29. "The instructor evaluates student work in a clear and consistent way."
Mean: +. 2341 T-Value: 1.59
F4 "Clarity (items \(1,5,6,7,8\) )" Mean: +.1743 T-Value: 1.91
F5 "Evaluation and Feedback (items 28, 29,30)" Mean: +.2744 T-Value: 2.38*
F6 "Relating to Student Responses (items 23 and 26)" Mean: +. 1780 T-Value: 1.82
```

clarifying and answering student questions. The overall change factor for the experimental group (F1) was decidedly higher than that of the control group and quasi-experimental group. Student Achievement

All groups in the study completed student achievement tests. Two forms of the test were used, each one given to half the students as a pretest and reversed as a posttest. The intervening period between pretest and posttest was approximately eight weeks. The tests were rated by three subject matter specialists according to three dimensions: "literacy," "focus," and "rhetorical felicity."

The results of these ratings (Table XV) indicate that none of the groups underwent dramatic changes in achievement. It is notable however that the average student achievement scores of the experimental group gained 3.33 points. The scores for the quasi-experimental group remained roughly the same. The scores or the control group decreased by 2 points.

The achievement scores of three of the five classes in the experimental group advanced. Three of four classes in the quasi-experimental group advanced. Two of four classes in the control group advanced.

Six classes reccived test "x" first and seven received
test "o" first. Four of the six test x - test o sequence classes improved their achievement ratings by the second test. Four of the seven test o - test $x$ sequence group improved their achieve-

TABLE XV
STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT SCORES

| EXPERIMENTAL GROUP: <br> pretest: <br> posttest: | Mean | Standard Deviation | T-Value |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 79.933 | 10.363 | 1.34 |
|  | 83.266 | 5.861 |  |
| QUASI-EXPERTMENTAL GROUP |  |  |  |
|  | Mean | Standard Deviation | T-Value |
| pretest: | 73.750 | 9.725 | . 06 |
| posttest: | 73.583 | 14.061 |  |
| CONTROL GROUP | Mean | Standard Deviation | T-Value |
| pretest: | 82.417 | 7.948 | . 46 |
| posttest: | 80.417 | 15.442 |  |

ment ratings. The mean score for the two tests across the entire sample differed by 3 points.

Correspondance Among Measures
The instructional problems (defined in terms of technical teaching skills) identified by the experimental and quasiexperimental groups after the initial data analysis and feedback process centered on issues of "clarity," "student participation" and "evaluation/feedback." The specific goals of these instructors concerned improving questioning skills, eliminating vagueness, focusing, clarifying goals and standards, summarizing and reinforcing (Table XVI).

The factors from the student evaluations in which the experimental group showed marked improvement were "clarity," "relating to student responses" and "evaluation and feedback." These factors included specific questions concerning clarifying lesson objectives to students, organizing ideas, summarizing, restating and clarifying student questions, making expectations clear and evaluating student work.

The instructional behaviors which showed marked changes in the experimental group were an increase in lecturing, an increase in orienting statements and an increase in accepting and using student ideas.

There would appear to be a logical relationship between the improvement goals of the experimental group, the results of the student evaluations and the observed instructional be-
TABLE XVI

## INSTRUCTIONAL PROBLEMS AND IMPROVEMENT GOALS

OF EXPERIMENTAL AND QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

|  | Problems | Improvement Goals |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Lack of student participation | Reduce the amount of vagueness in questioning |  |

TABLE XVII
CORRESPONDANCE BETWEEN IMPROVEMENT GOALS, BEHAVIOR CHANGES, AND STUDENT EVALUATION SCORES (EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

| Improvement Goals | Behavior Changes | Student Evaluation Scores |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Increase instructor focusing and structuring | An increase in instructor lecturing (category 5) |  |
| Increase the number of summaries <br> Spend more time clarifying goals and objectives | An increase in orienting statements (category 5a) | Positive change in Factor 4 . "clarity (items 1, 5, 6, 7, 8)" |
| Reduce the amount of vagueness in questioning | Reduction in continuous question-asking (cell 4-4) |  |
| Spend more time clarifying course and lesson requirements and evaluation criteria | An increase in instructor lecturing (category 5) <br> An increase in orienting statements (category 5a) | Positive change in Factor 5, "evaluation and feedback (items 28, 29, 30" |
| Increase the occurrence of reinforcement, probing and redirecting | An increase in accepting and using student ideas (category 3) | Positive change in Factor 6, "Relating to Student Responses (items 23 and 26) |

havior changes of these instructors. This relationship is illustrated in Table XVII.

In other words, the instructors in the experimental group appeared to change the instructional behavior which they intended to change as judged by an analysis of pretest and posttest videotaped lessons, and these changes appear to have been recognized and reported by the students through the student evaluation items.

# C H A P T E R <br> DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS 

## Purpose and Procedures

The purpose of this study was to test a particular model for the improvement of instruction at the higher education level. This model was characterized both by its focus on evaluating and changing a discrete number of technical skills of teaching (ques-tion-asking, elaboration, pacing, etc.), and its data collection, analysis and treatment procedures. These included an initial interview with the instructor, classroom videotaping, student evaluations, an instructional specialist working individually with the instructor, and various follow-up procedures.

A group of thirteen graduate student teaching assistants, all of whom were teaching a required freshman Rhetoric course were randomly divided into three groups: experimental, quasiexperimental and control. The first group completed each phase of the instructional improvement model including follow-up procedures occupying approximately ten hours time. The second group completed only the first phase of this model, ending with the identification of teaching skills which could be improved. The third or "control" group completed only the data collection steps in the model.

All. thrce groups also administered a specially devised student achievement test to their students during the fourth week of
the semester, while the initial data collection was taking place. A final student achievement test, videotape and student evaluation were completed approximately eight weeks later, at the conclusion of the semester. The class size, course goals and student assignments were similar across all sections of the course. The pretest and posttest videotapes were analyzed and compared by independent raters through a seventeen-category interaction analysis instrument adapted from Flanders (1971). The achievement tests were analyzed and compared by three subject matter specialists using a rating system constructed by the course director. Student evaluations were computed in terms of frequency counts and mean scores for each item and for ten general factors. Changes in achievement test scores and student evaluation items and factors were computed statistically by means of t-tests. Changes in classroom instructional behavior as identified through interaction analysis were interpreted from the interaction analysis matrices and flow charts representing these matrices.

The major assumptions of the study were that the analysis of instruction by higher education instructors using the focus and procedures of this improvement model would result in: (1) the identification and alteration of "problematic" teaching skills, (2) positive change in related student evaluation scores and (3) greater achievement as measured on pre- and post- achievement

It was also assumed that instructors not exposed to the analysis and feedback aspects of this model would not manifest these results (or would not manifest them to the same extent). Finally, it was assumed that instructors who were exposed only to initial analysis and feedback without follow-up procedures either would not manifest these results or would manifest them to a lesser extent.

## Summary of Results

Change in Instructional Behavior. The results of analyzing the pretest and posttest videotapes of all three groups revealed that the experimental group's general instructional pattern changed from a heavy emphasis on instructor question-asking with extended student responding and initiating to one with a heavy emphasis on the instructor's expanding and clarifying student ideas with extended instructor lecturing. This might be described as an increase in "flexibility" (Flanders, 1970).

The control group's general instructional pattern shifted from a heavy emphasis on question-asking with extended instructor lecturing to heavy emphasis on silence with extended student talk evol.ving out of that silence. This might be described not as a trend toward student-centeredness on the part of these instructors but rather a general lessening of their overt involvement in the class.

The quasi-experimental group shifted slightly from a general pattern emphasizing lecturing and question-asking and si-
lence to one emphasizing lecturing, question-asking, student responding and silence.

Flow charts of the overall instructional patterns in the three groups illustrated that the quasi-experimental group shifted much less than either the control or experimental group, and that the control group appeared to shift less than the experimental group.

In general the two experimental groups changed in the same direction and changed in contrast to the control group. For example they did more clarifying and expanding of student ideas. They lectured more and made more "orienting statements." They also showed less silence in their classrooms, in which the ratio of student talk to teacher talk decreased.

The extended treatment group changed more than the limited treatment group in each of these change dimensions.

Changes in Student Evaluations. Of thirty-one items on the student evaluations, three showed positive significant change in the experimental group; three showed significant negative change in the quasi-experimental group and one showed significant positive change in the control group.

The experimental group improved in "defining and expanding relevance," in "relating to student ideas" and in "making expectations clear."

The quasi-experimental group regressed in "expression," "facilitating student participation" and in "evaluation."

The control group improved in "making expectations clear." Only one general factor for any of the groups changed significantly. This was the "evaluation and feedback" factor in the experimental group. Two other factors in that group ("clarity" and "relating to student responses") were very close to significant change.

Changes in Achicvement. Although none of the differences between pretest and posttest achievement scores were significant, it is noteworthy that the mean achievement score of the experimental group students gained 3.33 points while that of the quasi-experimental group students did not change and that of the control group students decreased by 2 points. The scores were a sum of three independent scores representing a rating of the mechanics of writing, clarity of purpose and rhetorical ability.

## Conclusions

Despite numerous methodological problems and limitations discussed below, it may be said that the results of this study tentatively support the assumptions. The classroom instructional behavior, student evaluations and student achievement of the instructors in the experimental group did appear to change in desirable ways, whereas the classroom behavior of the instructors in the quasi-experimental and control groups changed less, and their student evaluations and student achievement for the most part did not change in desirable ways.

The fact that the observed instructional behavior changes
and the student evaluation changes of the instructors in the experimental group tend to correspond with their stated problems and improvement goals suggests that the behavior changes in this group were intentional and were related to the treatment process.

The follow-up treatment moreover appears to have been important in that the quasi-experimental group altered its behavior in the same directions as the experimental group (having expressed similar change goals) but did not change to the same extent.

Finally, the achievement data tentatively support the conclusion that clarifying and expanding student ideas, making orienting statements and lecturing are critical variables in the instruction of this particular kind of course. Instructors who manifested more of these behaviors from their first to their second videotape tended to be rated higher by students and to generate higher student achievement.

One interpretation of the control group's videotape posttest results is that the instructors in the control group shifted their teaching style to one that relied much more on student initiation. Given the extremely long periods of silence that characterized these posttest videotapes however it seems probable that the students found this role difficult. A content analysis of these lessons might have indicated a lack of purposefulness and direction in the student talk.

The increased active participation of the instructors in the experimental group both through lecturing and through clarifying
and/or expanding on student contributions suggests that this group identified instructional goals and learned certain instructional behaviors through their involvement in the treatment process which related to improving their presentations and increasing their "student-centeredness." The sharper dichotomy between-teacher-centered and student-centered instructional modes for the experimental group indicates both greater perceptiveness and greater flexibility on the part of these instructors in choosing the appropriate instructional mode to fit different contexts.

## Limitations

Although the results suggest that this instructional improvement model is effective in promoting valuable instructional change, this conclusion must be qualified in numerous ways.

In the first place, since this mode of treatment was the only mode tested in this design, then it is possible to conclude that not this particular treatment but any systematic in-service educational treatment of higher education instructors will result in productive behavior change.

More specifically, Flanders (1970) and others (Amidon and Hough, 1967) have achieved similar results with primary through secondary school instructors without the use of videotape feedback and student evaluations. Their instructors, trained in interaction analysis, tended to become both more distinctly tea-cher-centered and student-centered ("flexible") in the classroom, and their students showed corresponding gains in achievement.

This suggests two hypotheses. First, since interaction analysis was used in this study as a feedback procedure by at least two of the three instructional specialists, then exposure to interaction analysis may have been the critical variable in the change process -- videotaping, student evaluations, etc., being superfluous. Second, since two different instructional analysis procedures tended to produce similar results, then the critical variable for change may lie in the very act of instructors observing, analyzing and attempting to improve their teaching -- a question of "mind set" -- and not in a particular improvement model.

Irl addition, because few situational variables were measured and the range of the measuring instruments was limited, it is not possible to know in this study whether other instructional variables (such as the instructor's overt level of enthusiasm or his bclief. in the value of the subject matter) or instructor personality variables or student personality variables or slight variations in curriculum or method were related to the results.

The use of random selection did not insure a normal distribution of such variables among the three groups. Thus it is obvious from the pretest flow charts of the groups that the experimental group is much more predisposed to student-centered instructional behaviors than the other two groups. One plausible conclusion of this study then is that the treatment will generate
"flexibility" in instructors whose initial instructional patterns are predisposed to "flexibility."

Other variables that were not measured in this study were the actual treatment of the instructors by the instructional specialists. In this study the instructional specialists worked with instructors from both the experimental and quasi-experimental groups. It is possible that the treatment given to the experimental group was qualitatively different rather than quantitatively different.

Furthermore, without having some measure of this treatment, it is impossible to know what role the instructional specialist plays in the overall model. All instructional specialists in this study might have been characterized by client-centeredness which fostered student-centered instructional change in the ex. perimental groups through modeling, not through the treatment procedures of the model.

Also, although the course goals and procedures were to a large extent standardized, there were numerous deviations among instructors. The writing sample and the achievement rating system were composed by the course director to fit an overall model; some instructors with different specific goals might have generated strong student gains in respects not measured on the achievement test.

Finally, the results of the data in the present study were not conclusive. With five instructors or less in each group it
was not possible to ascertain the level of significance for changes in classroom instructional behaviors as recorded in the interaction analysis categories. Furthermore, of thirty-one items and ten factors in the student evaluations of each group, only three items and one factor in the experimental group actually showed significant positive change (at the .05 level), while the only three items that showed significant change for the quasi-experimental group changed in a negative direction. Moreover one of the significant change items in the experimental group also changed significantly in the control group, indicating a variable operating in the experimental situation other than the treatment. Although trends existed for achievement gains by the experimental group and losses in the control group, much of the variance can be attributed to chance.

Implications for Future Research
Certainly replication of this study with a larger sample is highly recommended. It would also be important in future studies of this kind to measure more of the situational variables. This includes the use of additional instruments such as those measuring non-verbal behavior as well as expansion of the measuring instruments used in this study. The achievement testing particularly should attempt to measure outcomes that are ascertained as congruent with the specific goals of individual instructors.

Closely measuring a wide range of instructional variables
is especially necessary if the research on cause-effect relationships or "laws" in instruction is to be advanced. Such research depends on making correlations between specific instructional variables and specific learning outcomes across a number of well defined instructional contexts.

In order to generalize the present model, it would also be important to apply it in different instructional contexts. This includes different academic departments and student grade levels as well as different instructional styles. In terms of the latter, it might be recomended that videotaping and interaction analysis be used first to identify groups of instructors with distinctive styles. Members from each group could then be randomly assigned to treatment and non-treatment groups.

For the purpose of improving the treatment model itself, it would be necessary to (1) test it in similar conditions against other models, and (2) measure more closely each variable in the model and vary these under experimental conditions.

The apparent regression in the quasi-experimental group in this study in terms of student evaluations suggests another line of future inquiry: whether improvement programs such as the one presented here, when enacted on a short-term basis without follow-up, can actually do more harm than good.

Finally, it would scem important for future studies to address the question of the videotape medium itself in terms of its propensity to foster certain kinds of instructional change
vis-a-vis other data collection and feedback media. It is possible for example that instructors viewing themselves on videotape will be more inclined to alter their apparent relationship with students rather than relationships of a less overt and more intellectual nature. The latter might be better promoted through written transcripts of the classroom or even audiotape.

## Summary

Compared to many previous studies in the field of in-service teacher education, the present study was exemplary in its attempt to deal with the complexities of instructional situations. Both direct observational data and student evaluational data and achievement data were collected, analyzed and compared.

The results of these analyses and comparisons suggest numerous directions for valuable future research.

The apparent correspondance between the stated improvement goals of the instructors, the observed changes in instructional behavior and the changes in certain student evaluation categories among the experimental group instructors in this study tend to support the conclusion that instructors can decide to alter their instruction in productive ways and that students do detect and respond to such changes.

In light of the paucity of in-service teacher education programs and models at all levels of education--but especially at the higher education level, the results and implications of this study are important and deserve additional investigation.

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APPENDIX A

COURSE INFORMATION AND PRE-VIDEOTAPING INFORMATION FORMS

## Course Information Form

1. Department $\qquad$
2. Name of teacher $\qquad$
3. Course title $\qquad$
4. Catalogue description of course (type in from catalogue).
5. Prerequisites
6. Other courses in sequence $\qquad$
7. For which, if any, programs is this course a requirement?
8. How many students are enrolled? $\qquad$
9. How many of the enrolled students are:
a. Freshman? $\qquad$
c. Juniors? $\qquad$
b. Sophomores? $\qquad$ d. Seniors? $\qquad$
10. What is the structural format of the course (i.e., three lectures a week, one lecture group and two discussion groups, etc.)?
11. How are student grades determined? $\qquad$
12. Are grades (check appropriate responses): pass/fail? satisfactory/unsatisfactory? $\qquad$ A through $F$ $\qquad$
13. Try to get and attach: a. syllabus $c$. assignments b. reading list
d. examinations
14. Generally, what are the informational, skill, and affective course objectives? (Please list on back of this sheet.)
15. What is the presumed relationship between what happens in class and the work which students are asked to do outside class?

## Course Information Form (continued)

16. If this course is in any sense experimental (either in objectives or teaching patterns), describe. $\qquad$
17. Has the teacher had any particular highs or difficulties with this course? If so, describe. $\qquad$
18. If there are others now teaching this course, who and/or how many?

Name $\qquad$
Date of class $\qquad$

## Pre-videotaping Information

To enhance our understanding of the videotape of your class, would you please take a few moments to answer the questions which follow? Please note that neither specific behavioral objectives nor an elaborate lesson plan are being requested. The intention is merely to provide a frame of reference for the videotaped class.

Would you please complete this and give it to me before class?

1. Generally, what are your objectives for this class (i.e. to elaborate on specified concepts or processes, to introduce a new topic, to review previously considered material, to go over assigned readings, etc.)?
$\qquad$
2. How do you hope to accomplish those objectives (i.e. by lecturing, class discussion, asking questions, etc)? $\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
3. What do you expect students to have done to prepare for this class? $\qquad$
$\qquad$
4. What do you exp-ct students to do during class? $\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
5. If you think it would be useful, would you describe what was done in the immediately preceding class? $\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$

THANK YOU
APPENDIX B
INTERACTION ANALYSIS MATRICES
10 x 10 Pretest and Posttest Matrices for Each Sub-group
$17 \times 17$ Pretest and Posttest Matrices for Each Sub-group
17 x 17 Difference Matrices for Each Sub-group

## EXPERIMENTAL GROUP $10 \times 10$ PRETEST MATRIX

## Categories



## EXPERIMENTAL GROUP $10 \times 10$ POSTTEST MATRIX

## Categories



## QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL GROIJP $10 \times 10$ PRETEST MATRIX



## QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL GROUP $10 \times 10$ POSTTEST MATRIX

## Categories



## CONTROL GROUP $10 \times 10$ PRETEST MATRIX

## Categories



## CONTROL GROUP $10 \times 10$ POSTTEST MATRIX

## Categories


Categories
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP $17 \times 17$ PRETEST MATRIX
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP 17 x 17 PRETEST MATRIX (continued)

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP 17 x 17 POSTTEST MATRIX



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EXPERIMENTAL GROUP 17 x 17 POSTTEST MATRIX


## QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL GROUP 17 x 17 PRETEST MATRIX



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QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL 17 x 17 POSTTEST MATRIX (continued)

CONTROL GROUP $17 \times 17$ PRETEST MATRIX

CONTROL GROUP $17 \times 17$ POSTTEST MATRIX
$1.53$
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP $17 \times 17$ DIFFERENCE MATRIX
 $\begin{array}{ll}1 \cdot 0 & 1 \\ 1+4+4+4 \\ 1 & 1\end{array}$ - -$11-1$ I $1 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 0 \quad 1$ $1 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 1$ 01 $1!-12!-611-911001$ $1 \quad i \quad$ il $1 \quad 1 \quad 1$ 0 on 0.0710 .7310 .3210 .5310 .00 . $\begin{array}{ccc:c}11 & -4 & 4 & -2! \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & -3 \\ 1 & 1 & -7 & 5 \\ 1 & 0 & 1\end{array}$
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EXPERIMENTAL GROUP $17 \times 17$ DIFFERENCE MATRIX (continued)

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155
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QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL GROUP $17 \times 17$ DIFFERENCE MATRIX




#### Abstract

APPENDIX C STUDENT EVALUATIONS Technical Skills of Teaching Descriptions Sample Student Evaluation Computer Printout Factor Analysis Matrix of Student Evaluation Items Pretest and Posttest Comparisons of Student Evaluations for Each Sub-group


## SET INDUCIION

Set Induction 18 establishing in students an affective and cognitive predioposition to engage in a given instructional activity.

Set Induction requiras knowing when and how to exercise the skill. It is approprdately cxercised at the introduction of a course, class meeting, or new learning unit. Proper timing also demands an awareness of the need for reorientation because students seem to need their interest and molivation rekindled. Set Induction may be achleved by referring to previous activities to establish a useful frane of reference, by indicating the process to be used to obtain goals (discussion, lecturing, guided discovery, etc.), by relating the signtficance of particular goals to personal or course goale, by defining key terminology, by providing students with a course outline or syllabue, etc.

Set Induction is related to Making Expectations Clear in that the instructor's expectations for students' work, progress, standards and parificipation way be one function of Set Induction. However, Set Induction may also include teacher behaviors which arouse interest, motivate action, focus atcention, establish relationships, etc.

## LOGICAL ORGANIZATION

Logical Organization refers to the sequencing of material according to sone internal structure in the subject matter, the principles of effective learning, and student characteristics and needa.

Effective performance of this skill requires not only that the instructor be able to sequence material and activities effectively, but also that students understand the logic of the organization. In some cases, the organizing principle may be self-evident; in others, the instructor may need to make those principles explicit. In any case, Logical Organization should allow students to distinguish ¿igressions from main points, to take notes and make outlines with
relative ease, to see connections between tople 162 various times, and to recognize relationships between class content and course objectives.

Logical Crganization is distinguished from Set induction in that the latter establishes an initial frame of reference, while Logical Organization refers to the abilfty to maintain that frame of reference continuously.

## PACING

Pacing is the rate at which new ideas are presented and the amount of instructional time spent on each of these ideas.

Skillful pacing involves an appropriate matching of the difficulty and significance of the material to the amount of instructional time necessary to ensure student understanding and interest in that material. To accomplish this, an f.nstructor must be able to judge when adequate definitions, explanations, and applications are completed, to avoid spending more time on an idea than its significance and or difficulty warrant(s), and to modify his pace according to situational demands.

Pacing is related to Level of Challenge in that the difficulty of the matertal and student ability to deal with that material. will influence the rate at which new ideas are introduced and the time spent on those ideas.

## ELABORATION

Elaboration refers to the development and clarification of an idea, definition, or process.

Effective performance of this skill involves knowing when to elaborate, as well as choosing appropriate ways to elaborate. Elaboration may be necessary when an idea is especially significant, when the material is difficult, or when students are particularly interested in a topic. Common Elaboratian. techniques include the use of greater detadl, examples, and analogies, as well as rephrasing points, pointing out relationships, explaining relevance, illustrating applications, ete.

Related skills are Monitoring Student Response (to ascertain the necessity and effectivenees of Elaboration), Defining and Expanding Relevance (as a technique of Elaboration), Asking Questions (to check comprehension or to encourage
students to elaborate from their experience), and Arswering Questions (which may provide occasion for Elaboration).

## CLOSURE

Closure refers, to the instructor's ability to "wrap things up" at appropriate points in a discussion or instructional activity.

Effective Closure depends upon a good sense of timing and the ability to choose an appropriate technique. Comonly, this skill is cxercised at the end of an instructional activity, class, content unit, or course, but it is appropriate whenever there is a need to re-establish or maintain a sense of direction and purpose, or when clarification and review of preceding instructional activity seems necessary. Techniques of Closure include providing a sumary, asking students to summarize main points, checking for comprehension or consensus, noting whether or not the topic will be pursued later, etc.

Closure is complementary to Set Induction in that good Set Induction makes Closure easier, and good Closure makes the subsequent Set Incuction easier.

## EXPRESSION

Expression refers to the techniques of verbal and nonverbal communication.

Effective Expression not only allows an instructor to convey information and ideas clearly, but also to comunicace feelings and attitudes about the material. Characteristics of this skill include variations in body movement, facial gestures, and voice quality, use of silence and eye contact, selection of vocabulary appropriate to students' levels of sophistication, and other rhetorical skills.

Expression is related to several ther teaching skills and behaviors in that effective performance in this skill may help promote effective perfornance of the other skills (Set Induction, Pacing Elaboration, etc.). Expression may be an especially important factor in Inspiration, which refers to a more general stylistic characteristic.

## ITSSPIRATION AMD CHARISMA

Inspiration and Charisma refers to the instructor's abllity to bring excitement to his teaching and his subject metter, and to engage students' interest, trust and respect.

Inspiration and Charisma are most often characteristics of teachers who appear to enjoy teaching, who ere enthusiastic about their chosen subject matrer, who are concerned about what and how their students are learning, who dezonstrate an involvement in the issues of their discipline or their profession, who have at o:acc a comitment to the value of what they are doing and yet a reaciness to re-exanine that comitment, who have confidence in themselves and their students to engage successfully in a siven task and who can exhibit an appropriate sense of humor about thenselves, their students and the tasks at hand.

If an instructor is successful in inspiring students and commuicating charisma, he may need to rely less on a variety of other slills to motivate and engage students in the learning process.

## LEVEL OF CHALLENGE

Level of Challenge refers to the instructor's ability to select materials and design learning experiences which will challenge students' interests and abllitles without maling unrealistic demands upon their time, abilities, or chances for success.

To find the optimun level of challenge, an instructor must consider student characiteristics (their experiential and informational readiness, their apparent ability levei, their interest in the material or course, their time commitaents, etc.), as well as characteristics of the subject matter (conceptual difficulty, Lackground knowledge required, etc.). If level of Chalienge is set too high, students may feel frustration and a sense of failure; if Level of Challenge is set too low, students may become bored and disinterested.

Level of Challenge is related to Set Induction (as an occasion for establishing the initial Level of Challenge), Pacing, (Levci of Challenge will influence the rate at which new ideas are introduced and time spent on those ideas), Monitoring Student Response (as a way of checkirg whether the material is optimimally challenging), and Making Expectations

Clear (when an instructor may explicitly define 165 which he expects students to deal with the subject eatecer.).

## TREATES:IT OH DINERGENT UIELS

Treatwent of Divergent Vicus refers to the instructor's ability to set his naterial in an intellectual and attitudinal context which permits and fosters open and honest treatment of that watcrial by both teacher and students.

Teachirg behaviors which may prozote horest treatgent of divergent views are acknowledging the existence of a variety of points of view, presenting facts and ideas in a representative context of civergent opinions, distinguishing between fact and opinion and between raw data and interpretation, making one's own biases explicit, encouraging students to examine a variety of poirts of view before raking judgments or drawing conclusions, etc.

This teaching characteristic is related to Creative Inquiry in that Treatment of Divergent liews rasy provide students with the disposition and tools for incependent, critical innuiry. Morcover: Treatment of Divergent Views may provide a context or oecasion for Defining and Expandias Relevance, and the examination of divergent riews may promote StudentStudent and Teacher-Student Interaction.

## DEFINING AND EXPANDTHG RELEVANCE

Defining and Expanding Relevance refers to the instructor's ability to help clarify how a particular idea or topic fits into broader personal, social and intellectual contexts.

Effective performance of this sikill requires not only that an instructor be able to define and expand the relevance of a topic or idea, but aiso that he encourage students to engage in a constant sench for larger contexts of relevance. Some techniques for Deiining and Expanding Relevance are demonstrating the application of ar icea in a variety of situations, explaining relationships between a topic and other acadenic disciplines, exploring how a topic fits in with student interests and goals, suggesting implications for various social issues, etc.

This skill is distirguished from Elaboration in that the later involves filling an fanedate instructional need, while

Defining and Expanding Relevance refers to relationships which extend beyond the course and subject matter itself. It is also distinguished from Ethical Context Skills in that here we are stressing understanding and relating ldeas in various contexte without the particulir enphasis on consequences for and of one's personal values and behaviors.

## FACILITATING STUDENT PARTICIPATION

Facilitating Student Participation refers to the Instructor's skills in eliciting student participation in the learning process, sustainjng it at appropilate levels, and leading it in fruitful directions.

An instructor may wish students to participate in the learning process in varlous ways, ranging from asking and ancwering questions to sharing responsibility for class activitles or discussions. The instructor meeds to communicate when and how much student participation is appropriate, to encourage them to give such input, and to allow enough time for them to participate in the ways desired. Sustainlng student participation involves maintaining a non-threatening environment and responding to student contributions in a reinforcing manner. Effective direction of student parifipation requires that the instructor know when and how to fintervene productively (by asking questions, providing focus, tying student comments together, etc.).

Facilltating Student-Student Interaction is a related skili in that interaction among and between students is one, but not the only way, in which students may participate in the instructional process. Asking Questions is also a related skill when questions are used to invite student participation.

## FACILITATING STUDENT-STUDENT INTERACTION

Facilitating Student-Student Interaction refers to the instructor's ability to promote discussion among students in the class.

Effective performance of this skill requires that an instructor establish a physical and attitudinai climate in which students may interact with one another. This may require anything from dividing the class into small groups or arranging chairs in a circle to providjng a structure in which students are assigned specific discussion roles. To maintain student-
student interaction, an instructor may periodically have to remind students to listen to one another, prod then to examine and respond to one another's comments, throw teacher-directed questions/comments back to students, request sumary or consensus, etc.. In urder to help students become tore effective discussion participants, an instructor tany wish to make comments which focus on the discussion process itsclf (noting that someone's contributions were ignored, sharing his perceptions of group feeling, pointing out areas of confusion, requesting that other students sumarize the process to that point: etc.).

Facilitating Student-Student Interaction is one means of Facilitating Student Participation. However, here we are focusing on those teaching behaviors which encourage students to interact with one another and to work as a group.

## ASKING QUESTIONS

This skill refers to the instructor's abllity to use a range of questioning techniques for a variety of instructional purposes.

Effective performance of this skill requires that the instructor understand and be able to use several types of questions, ranging from simple questions requesting factual information to higher order questions calling for integration and application of ideas. An irstructor needs to know when to ask and how to construct questions to suit his purposes (to monitor student progress, to engace students in critical thought, to sustain student attention, etc.). Once he has formulated the question, he must be able to state it clearly and in a non-threatening manner and to direct it appropriately (to a whole class, or to an individual). An instructor may facilitate students' answering of questions by allowing enough time, by not interrupting, by rephrasing questions if necessary, by not being too insistent, etc.

Asking Questions focuses upon the specific techniques of effective questioning but is related to several other sikills (Closure, Creative Inquiry, Facilitating Student Participation, Monitoring Student Response, Evaluation) in that an instructor way use questions in his performance of those skills.

## ANSIWERING QUESTIONS

This skill refers to the instructor's ability to listen to
students' questions for a variety of cues and meanings, to judge when and how questions ehould be answered, and to construct effective answeri.

Students may ask questions because they are confused, curious, eager to contribute an idea indirectly, etc., and the instructor needs to be alert to the reasons behind their questions. He then needs to decide whether a question is best postponed, redirected to another student or to the inquiring student him:self, or answered by the instructor. If the instructor chooses to answer the question, he may help the entire class benefit by rephrasing or elaborating on the question and then phrasing his answer in clear, concise, and generally understanciable terms.

## CHOOSING APPROPRIATE MODES AND MATERIALS

This skill involves the instructor's ability to maximize learning by integrating his objectives and personal resources, student characteristics and goals, situational limitations, and the availability of instructional materials.

Effective selection of modes and materials requires that an instructor be clear about his om objectives (to give finformation, to encourage diecovery learning, to develop critical thinking skills, etc.) and select modes which will be most effective in reaching those objectives (discussion, lecture, reading, etc.). He needs to take into account student goals (do they want a quick introduction to the field or are they willing to encage in thorough exploration of it, etc.) and student characteristics (apparent ability, background knowledge, previous experiences, etc.). He must consider the situational limitations (class size, meeting time and place, etc.) and deal creatively with those limitations (break the class up into smaller groups, adjust meeting times or attendance rules, etc.). He must know his own strengths and weaknesses (good lecturer, but can't get discussions going; hates reading exams, but loves reading papers, etc.). And he must be aware of the avallability of materials and resources (rules for books on reserve, supply shortages in book store, etc.). Once the instructor is clear about all of these factors, he can better design the course mode; (lectured, discussions, panels, etc.) and select the course materials (reading lists, textbooks, paper assignments, etc.).

[^1]Instructional Flexibility and Individualization refers to the
instructor's ability to assess individual students ${ }^{169}$ charncteristics todesisn and, aciapt course objectives which are consiotent with students' personal objectives, and io provide alternative ways for studeats to achieve course and or personal objectives.

An instructor may becnee awaze of individual student talents, interests and needs in a varicty of ways-by devising questionaires to elicit such information, by inviting students to mect witi him individually, by providing time and commancating interest so that students feel free to approach him with their ideas and concerns, etc.. Gnce an instructor has such infommation, he may design course objectives which allow room for students to pursue their oin interests and develop their talents, but he may encounter situations in which his effectiveness will depend upon his willingness to change those objectives or to allow students to substitute their own obfectives. An instructor may provide alternative ways for students to meet objectives by sursesting several options, referring studento to other resources when his own are inadequate, asking students to devise their orm strategies, etc.. In seneral, effective performance of this skill requires an awareness of atudents as individuals, a willingness to be flexible in detennining objectives and methods, and creativity in providing alternative courses of action.

Flexibility and Individualization is related to most of the other teachirg skills in that effective performance of those skills often involves the behaviors and attitudes suggested here.

## FACILITATING INDEPENDENT/CREATIVE INOUIRY

Facilitating Independent/Creative Inquiry refers to the instructor's ability to demonstrate, encourage and guide independent, original, and creative inquiry.

Facilitating Independent/Creative Inquiry implies not only that the instructor demonstrate creative treataent of the naterial, but also that he encourage students to approach the subfect matter in imaginative and creative ways. An instructor might facilitate creative inquiry by suggesting and providing resolirces and materials for students to explore independently, by making explicit the processes he uses for consicicring ideas, designing strategies, and maling decisions, by helping students to develop and utilize the scholarly tonls and skills required for independent research, by making himself available for indivicual guidance and feedback sessions, etc..

Facilitating Independent/Creative Inquiry fs distingulshed from Insplation in that the latter deals primarlly with motivating students, while here we stress showing students how they, once they are motivated, may pursue individual, creatyve work.

## MONITORING, STUDENT RESPONSE

Monitoring Student Response refers to the instructor's skills in noticing nonverbal indicators of student response, in inviting and encouraging verbal feedback fron students on all aspects of instruction, and in responding to such feedback in constructive ways.

Monitoring Student Response may provide an instructor with useful information with which he may make judgments and decisions about student progress, his own performance, class activities and assignments, and course design, An instructor may monitor student response by being alert to nonverbal indications of confusion, curiosity, frustration, etc., during lectures, discussion or other class activities. He nay get more conplete information about student reactions by inviting and encouraging students to ask questions, express their concerns, make suggestions, etc., about specific instructional activities or about the course as a whole. In order to maintain such a system of student feedback, the instructor also needs to attend to the ways in which he responds to student questions and suggestions. If he reacts defensively or simply ignores their suggestions, students will stop giving them. However, if he responds in non-threatening ways and experiments with alternative methods and activities on the basis of their suggestlons, student feedback may provide continuous data for designing instructional activities to meet student needs.

This skill is important in the effective performance of most other skills because continuous awareness of student responses to teacher behaviors may inform an instructor when he makea decisions about how and when to exercise other skills.

## MAKING EXPECTATIONS CLEAR

This skill involves the effective and timely communication of what the instructor expects students to do, to learn, to know, and to contribute as members of his class. The skill also includes the instructor's comunication of his criteria for evaluating student performance.

Effective performance of this sikill alluws squdents to know what is expected from thom in terns of assignments and class participation. Students should know what their responsiuilitios are for readings, papers, etc.; their range of options in format, content, and treatment of assignilents; work deadilines; and, consequences for unsatiofactory or late work. They should also know when and how they will be expected to participate in class discussions, lectures, etc., and what preparation they need for effective participation. Firally, they should te aware of the instructor's methods of evaluation (quizzes, rests, papers, observation of class participation, ctc.), the nature of evaluatIon instruments (multiple choice quizzes, essay exams, etc.), and the criteria for evaluation (the skills, knowledge, conceptual sophistication they will be asked to deuonatrate).

This skill is complementary to Evaluation in that Making Expectations Clear refers to the communcation of what is expected from students, while Evaluation deals with the assessment of how well students have fulfilled those expectations. It is also related to Set Induction, which may be an appropriate time for an instructor to make his expectations clear.

## EVALUATION

This skill involves the instructor's ability to provide feedback to himself and to students about progress toward stated objectives.

Effective evaluation of student progress requires that an instructor inform students about evaluation procedures, that he select appropriate evaluation techniques, and that he keep students posted about their progress. Students should know when evaluation of their work may occur (surprise quiz anytime, mid-term exam, class observation anytime, etc.), what kinds of evaluation procedurcs may be used (multiple choice quiz, essay exams, oral questioning, self-evaluations, etc.), and what obiectives will be evaluated (knowledge of facts, performance of skills, application of principles, etc.).

Secondly, effective evaluation of student work involves the instructor's ability to select or construct evaluation procedures which are appropriate for assessing desired performance and which are consictent with stated objectives. Lastly, an instructor needs to know when and how to give useful feedback to students about their progress, so that they know where they stand, what areas they need to work on, and how they may go about improving.

Evaluation also refers to the instructor's 172 Ways of assessing his own perfors ability to provide of his course. He may eet such infor and the effectivences student achicvement, ascisiments by asking students for feedback on dasprments (appropiateness, interest level, clarity of directions, etc.), on specific class activjties (were they interesting, did students feel they learned anything, etc.), on teaching performance (does the instructor lecturi ton much, is he an effective leader in discussions, etc.).
Ideally, evaluation provictes useful information for the instructor and for students which makes further progress and growth possible.

This skill is complementary to making Expectations Clear (see discussion of Making Expectations Clear) and related to Nonitcring Student Response ( as a way of evaluating teaching performance and course effectiveness.).

## DEFINING AND EXPANDING ETHICAL CONTEXT

Defining and Expanding Ethical Context involves both an awareness of and explicit communication of the fact that the teaching and learning of a particular subject matter takes place in a particular social context.

The context in which a particular learning activity goes on (and of which it is a part) implies a host of values, problens obligations, challenges, etc., and the actions or non-actions of teachers and students have meanings and consequences within that context. An instructor who exercises this skill is aware of this fact, attempts to make students aware of it, and engages in an exploration of those meanings and consequences with students. The students themselves are, or course, a part of that social context and, therefore, the instructor's conduct of a course implies responsibility beyond the immediate course.

The instructor is the agent by which the value context of a given subject area is interpreted for the students. The students are conditioned by that interp:etation, and by their own perception of the course goals, to make fudgements concerning the relevance of the subject natter. Thus the relationship of the discipline to the instructor, and the instructor's interpretation of the course goals to the students, should be fully explored in the teaching process.
SAMPLE STUDENT EVALUATION COMPUTER PRINTOUT

SAMPLE STUDENT EVALUATLON COMPUTER PRINTOUT (conlimmed)

SAMPLE STUDENT EVALUATION COMPUTER PRINTOUT (continued)

SAMPLE STUDENT EVALUATION COMPUTER PRINTOUT (continued)

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64.99
57.74
57.74
42.86
35.72
21.25 of phesentation, ENT , ETC.
SAMPLE STUDENT EVALUATION COMPUTER PRINTOUT (continued)
THE INSTRUCTOA KEEPS THE STUDENTS POSTED OV THE:R PROGRESS TRRCUGH OLESTIENS
IN CLASS', INEIVIDULL CONFESENEES, AND APPROPRIATE OUIZZES ANL TESIS
THE INSTRUCTOR RELATFS TKE TOFICS TO A HIDE RANGE OF FIELDS', SITUATIONS',
APPLIEATIONS': AND INFEGESTE,
71.45
71.43
91.43
79.43
64.20
04. 9
64.j0
$\qquad$ SSSABY:

-

-     - 

8. 
9. 
10. 
11. 
12. 
13. 

SAMPIE STUDENT EVALUATION COMPUTER PRINTOUT (continued)

SAMPLE STUDENT EVALUATION COMPUTER PRINTOUT（continued）
the instructor evaluates student work in a clear and consistent hay．
14：50
4．29
 THF INSTRUCTOR USES RUESTIONS EFFECTIVELY CEGO，TO FOCUS ATPENTION AN 14．うの IHPORTANT POIMTS，TO CHECK ON STUDFNT UNDERSTANDING，ETC：）．


 APPLICATIONS：ANL INTERESTS，
thf instructon has an effective prasentation style ce，g，vetce ouality．， CHOlCE OF KOROS，BDDY MOVEMENTS，ETO．）．

THE INSTRUCTOR ARRANGES AND PRESENTS MATERIAL IN A CLEAR WELLLORGAN゙IZEA FASHION：

THE INSTRUCTOR MAKES CLEAR TO STUDENTS WHAT
HOW THEIR PERFORMANCFS ARF TO BE EVALUATED， THF LEUEL OF MIFFICUITY AND THE AMOUNT OF KORK IN THIS COURSE
ARF AROUT RIGUT FOR NE： ARF AROLIT RIGUT FOR NE： the INSTRUCTO～PRESFNTS AFH IDEAS AND ING PACE，LiE．NEIHEER TNO FAST NOH TOD SLON． The INSTRUCTOA maKES CLEAR TO STUDENTS WHAT IS EXPECTED GF TRËH AND 28. 17.
37.

OPINIONG AT ADPROPRIATE YIMES：
27.
20.
SAMPLE STUDENT EVALUATION COMPUTER PRINTOUT (continued)






 $|\quad| \quad|1| 1 \mid$









 or orxax

COMPARISONS OF STUDENT EVALUATIONS FOR EXPERIMENTAI

PRETEST/POSTTEST COMPARISONS OF STUDENT EVALUATIONS FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP (continued)

## $\begin{array}{ll}\text { GEOUP }: \text { FIRST } & 83 \text { CIASES } \\ \text { GOUUP } 2: \text { NEXT } & \text { on }^{9} \text { CASES }\end{array}$



$.1 .00 \quad 149.99 \quad 0.589$
-

YEGREES OF 2-TAIï
VALLE FREEDCM PROB,

93
0.734
$\begin{array}{lll}-1.05 \quad 150 & 0.297\end{array}$
$-1.44 \quad 150 \quad 0.151$



-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0.086 \\
& 0.079
\end{aligned}
$$

250.0
1.2710 .290
$*-0-0-0-0-0-0-0$
-


!
$\vdots$
$\vdots$
$\vdots$
$\vdots$
$\vdots$
10
$\vdots$
$\vdots$
$\vdots$
$\vdots$
$\vdots$
$*$
$\vdots$
$\vdots$
$\vdots$
$\vdots$
$1.89: 5 \overline{0} \quad 0.064$
PRETEST/BOSTHEST COMPARESONS OR STUDENT EVALUATTONS FOR EXPGRIMENHAL GROUP (conlinued)

PRETEST/POSTTEST COMPARISONS OF STUDENT EVALUATIONS FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP (continued)

PRETEST/POSTTEST COMPARISONS OF STUDENT EVALUATIONS FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP (continued)

PRETEST/POSTTEST COMPARISONS OF STUDENT EVALUATIONS FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP (continued)

$\begin{array}{ll}\text { GeOUP 1 - FIRS: } & \text { or CASES }^{8} \text { CEXT } \\ \text { GOJJP } 2=\text { CASES }\end{array}$

- pocled varianee estimate: separate variance estimite


-1.76 121.56 ง.ins:

$0.54 \quad 128.43 \quad 0.592$

 0
0
$\vdots$
$\vdots$
$\vdots$
0
0
0
0
0 * valle degrfes of preeiom oratí $0.00 \quad 129 \quad \therefore . \bar{c} \bar{o} \bar{c}$ $0.69 \quad 129 \quad 0.492$
 0.676


 $\begin{array}{lll}129 & 0.592\end{array}$ 0.496
GROUP

PRETEST/POSTTEST
 UFVIATION. ERROP
0.103 0.106
$060^{\circ} 0$
0.105
$2.0: 47 \quad 1.113 \quad 0.135$ 0.118 0
0
0
0
0
$\vdots$
$\vdots$
$\vdots$
$\vdots$
$\vdots$
$\vdots$
$\vdots$ $\angle \angle 0^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$ S54 O 6300

0.092 | $a$ |
| :---: |
| 0 |
| 0 |
| 0 |
| 0 |
| 0 |
| 0 |
| 0 |
| 0 |
| 0 |
| 0 |
| $\vdots$ | OOLO:2 0,846 0.842 0.738 0.831 -.......

$i$
$\vdots$
$\vdots$
PRETEST/POSTTEST COMPARISONS OF STUDENT EVAIUATIONS FOR QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL GROUP


pocled variance estimatfe separate variance estimate




25




$129 \quad 0.673$
$\qquad$
 $1.52 \quad 0.024$
:
$\begin{array}{cc}1.52 & 0.004 \\ : 1.06 & 0.805\end{array}$

$0.877 \quad 0.106$
$0.710 \quad 0$. cta
$-80^{\circ} 0$
$a$
$\vdots$
$\vdots$
$\vdots$
0 0.038
1.077 1.096 1.607
0.998



PRETEST/POSTTEST COMPARISONS OF STUDENT EVALUATIONS FOR QUASI-EXPERIMENTAI GROUP

-

$1=$
PRETEST/POSTTEST COMPARISONS OF STUDENT EVALUATIONS FOR CONTROL GROUP


PRETEST/POS'TTEST COMPARISONS OF STUDENT EVALUATIONS FOR CONTROL GROUP (continued)屋 (
> pocleg vartance estimatf separate vafiance estimäte





 $0.83 \quad 130 \quad 0.352$

--.-.........-.-..-.

8 : $\cdots \cdots \cdots \cdots$

PRETEST/POSTTEST COMPARISONS OF STUDENT EVALUATIONS FOR CONTROL GROUP (continued)
PRETEST/POSTTEST COMPARISONS OF STUDENT EVALUATIONS FOR CONTROL GROUP (continued)

- pocled variange eftimate y separate variance estimite

 0.508
0.233
0.2 .35
0.0 .0. $\begin{array}{lll}\vdots & 0.41 & 123.60\end{array}$
 1. $58129.94 \quad 0.794$



$\begin{array}{lll} & 0.95 & 128.65\end{array} 0.845$ 0.845
$0 .-.-5$ .-.-.



APPENDIX D
STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

SCORES OF THREE RATERS ON STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT TESTS FOR EACH SUB-GROUP


Quasi-

| Experimental | X | 72 | 84 | $86-242$ | 0 | 76 | 85 | 93 | -254 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 0 | 59 | 66 | $81-206$ | X | 49 | 56 | $64-169$ |  |
|  | 0 | 74 | 83 | $83-240$ | X | 78 | 88 | $91-257$ |  |
|  | 0 | 59 | 66 | $72-197$ | X | 64 | 69 | $70-203$ |  |


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[^1]:    INSTRUCTIONAL FLEXIBILITY AND INDIVIDUALIZATION

