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The influence of teacher assessment module tapes on student teachers' performance

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THE INFLUENCE OF TEACHER ASSESSMENT MODULE TAPES ON STUDENT TEACHERS' PERFORMANCE

Iowa State University   PH.D.   1985

The influence of teacher assessment module tapes

on student teachers´ performance

by

Nancy Johnston Ginapp

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CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION

A multitude of reports over the past two years has sparked a national

concern about the quality of schooling in America. The controversies and

discussions surrounding this issue have energized a national movement in

education on the part of government officials, state legislatures,

business leaders, parents, students, and the educational community itself.

Among the most notable of the reports are: The Paideia Proposal: An

Educational Manifesto (Mortimer Adler), A Nation at Risk: The Imperative

for Educational Reform (National Commission on Excellence in Education),

Action for Excellence (Education Commission of the States), High School:

A Report on Secondary Education in America (Ernest L. Boyer), A Place

Called School: Prospects for the Future (John Goodlad), and Horace's

Compromise: The Dilemma of the American High School (Theodore Sizer).[1]

Collectively, they advocate a number of directions for reform. First,

Americans must arrive at a greater consensus on the goals of schooling.

Second, there must be an emphasis on "the basics" in learning. Third, the

United States' economic position in the world necessitates higher levels

of education for all students. Fourth, standards of excellence must be

established. Fifth, we must do a better job of attracting and training

more capable people for the teaching profession.

Many states are addressing a number of the issues cited above. A

1984 report of the Education Commission of the States indicated that 46

states were working on comprehensive plans to improve education in public

elementary and secondary schools.[2] Many of their proposals include making

changes in the teaching profession itself.

The report cited several common goals stressed in all of the state reform efforts. These include:

1. Improvement of the teaching profession.

2. Integration of technology into instruction.

3. Upgrading of the curriculum.

4. Strengthening of graduation requirements.

5. Strengthening of teacher certification requirements.

6. Promotion of business involvement in education.

7. Finding effective ways to finance educational excellence.

It is assumed that these reform efforts would help attract and retain the most capable to the teaching ranks.

Purpose

While each of these issues merits further study, this dissertation focuses on the issue of the quality of student teachers. The dissertation approaches the topic by first looking at past trends in the evaluation of student teachers. Second, examples of key selected competencies developed and observed during student teaching will be discussed. Third, observation techniques used to evaluate the effectiveness of student teachers will be explored.

Assumptions and Hypothesis

The dissertation assumes that teaching performance is enhanced when student teachers know what is expected of them and how they will be assessed. Also, students who have identified particular competencies that appear to be positively related to effective teaching will perform better

in their student teaching terms than those who have not. The dissertation
will test the hypothesis that students who view and analyze Teacher
Assessment Modules (TAMs) during their student teaching term will receive
higher ratings on an observation instrument from their cooperating and
supervising teachers than students who do not view the tapes.

Outline

Chapter I sets the stage for examination of student teacher quality
by discussing teacher effectiveness concerns in education today. Chapter
II then reviews research trends and methods used to determine
effectiveness of teachers and student teachers. Chapter III explains the
purpose and design of the study, while Chapter IV discusses the findings
of the study. Finally, Chapter V summarizes the conclusions and makes
recommendations for further study.

Returning to Chapter I, a review of concerns expressed about teacher
quality opens discussion. Next, the chapter addresses the identification
of specific competencies which lead to effectiveness in the classroom and
how they enhance teacher quality. The chapter then describes how teacher
education programs have addressed the issue of teacher quality,
particularly in regard to student teaching, followed by a discussion of
observation techniques as a method of assessing student teacher
performance. The PRO*FILE process, which is now being field-tested at
Iowa State University, is then introduced as a method which incorporates a
variety of assessment techniques (including observation) and competencies
in a process "that has the potential to better evaluate the strengths and
needs of students throughout the teacher education program."[3] Finally,

the chapter concludes with the thesis for the present study, a problem

statement, and suggested implications of the study.

Concerns about Teacher Quality

Statements that describe the inadequacies of beginning teachers and

those already in the teaching profession have led to studies which examine

aspects of teacher competency. Among the findings regarding teaching, the

National Commission on Excellence in Education, noted in A Nation at Risk:

The Imperative for Educational Reform that:

> ...not enough of the academically able students are
> being attracted to teaching; that teacher
> preparation programs need substantial improvement;
> that the professional working life of teachers is on
> the whole unacceptable; and that a serious shortage
> of teachers exists in key fields....[4]

More scathing remarks concerning the competence of beginning teachers

can best be summed up by the remarks of Feistretzer, who stated that

> Never before in the nation's history has the caliber
> of those entering the teaching profession been as
> low as it is today.[5]

Boyer voiced concern about teacher quality in High School: A Report

on Secondary Education in America. He stated that "U.S. schools cannot

adequately prepare the coming generation if the least able students enter

the profession."[6] The Task Force on Education for Economic Growth

substantiated Boyer's claim by reporting that, as a whole, "SAT scores for

students preparing to teach were 80 points below the national average."[7]

While concern exists about the caliber of people entering the

teaching profession, other concerns center around the huge numbers of

competent teachers who leave the profession each year.

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Schlechty and Vance found that:

> ...after six years, only 37% of teachers in the top
> 10% of measured verbal ability remained in the
> teacher work force, while more than 60% of those in
> the lowest 10% were still teaching. In other words,
> those most likely to succeed in the classroom are
> also those most likely to leave it....[8]

Given those statistics, Shanker noted that "a revolution is needed to make teaching a profession."[9] Among the issues he felt that had to be addressed were teachers' salaries, class sizes, discipline, student/teacher matches, and professionalism.[10] Corrigan supported this viewpoint by adding that:

> If we prepare teachers with the latest knowledge and
> skill and then place them in work situations where
> they cannot use this knowledge and skill, we will
> merely produce more candidates for the teacher
> drop-out list. Unless we make the conditions for
> professional practice a reality in the public
> schools, teaching will not become a profession.[11]

The climate in our society today, however, still demands more accountability from its educational systems, particularly the competence of its teachers. Articles and reports since 1980 have called for the improved assessment of the competencies of education graduates.[12]

Defining Teaching and Identifying Teaching Competencies

Along with the above proposals for competency have come discussions about the identification of specific teacher competencies. There is little disagreement with the need for assessment; there are many debates about what constitutes the appropriate competencies.

Teaching has been described in a variety of ways. Smith offered one description as "the application of treatments, consisting mainly of

teacher performances, verbal and nonverbal."[13] He broke teaching down

into three components:

> First, teacher performances that are common to
> instruction in all disciplines form the generic
> component. Second, performances unique to
> particular subjects of instruction form the
> content-specific component. Third, concepts by
> which to sort and explain teacher performances and
> the processes of learning and development form the
> theoretical component.[14]

Smith stated that "a significant breakthrough in the study of teaching was

the identification of generic performances that could be tested for

effectiveness in classroom teaching."[15]

Gideonse presented another description of teaching. He stated that

"teaching is an intellectual activity with intellectual ends, but is also

a profoundly moral activity."[16] Given that description, Gideonse saw the

teacher's role to "model intellectual attainment every day in hundreds of

ways and to be competent in understanding the complexity of the teaching

task."[17] Given the above descriptions of competent teaching, competency

in the profession has identified the following three components:

"...mastery over subject matter content; a broad background in the

behavioral and social sciences and humanities; and mastery of the large

and growing body of professional knowledge...."[18]

The identification and testing of performances or components found

related to effective teaching have been the subject of many research

projects. The terms seem to be used interchangeably when discussing these

items. Examples of these are: skills, goals, components, competencies,

and performance elements, to name a few.[19]

Denemark provided a summary of generic teaching domains identified in
research studies over the past 20 years in a paper titled "Emerging
Patterns of Initial Preparation for Teachers: Generic Teaching
Domains."[20] He concluded that:

> The sampling of generic domains gives some idea of
> the variety in styles, formats, emphases, and
> perspectives that exists in the area. Certain
> elements run through most of the lists—teacher
> personality variables and teacher-pupil
> interactions, for example; others reflect emerging
> issues that have become permanent components in
> many, perhaps most generic listings --
> competency-based teacher training, PL 94-142, and
> multicultural emphases spring to mind at once.[21]

Denemark proposed that this examination of varying generic
combinations and formats that "some of the combinations and variations
might form an appropriate context for a planned program of teacher
preparation."[22]

Denemark, Brophy, and others have stressed caution in "equating
effective teaching with the mastery and use of a few general
approaches."[23] In addition, Houston, editor of Competency Assessment,
Research and Education, stated that there is no firm evidence that one set
of competencies is more productive of learning in the classroom than
another set. However, other researchers took the position that the
identification of teaching competencies created a heightened awareness of
the skills that make up good teaching.[24]

Although Moore and Markham expressed the opinion that "it cannot be
stated in unequivocal, mechanical terms which precise teaching
competencies will result in student learning and that no one list serves
the purposes of all institutions investigating them,"[25] research continues

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into the use of competencies in building frameworks for teacher education programs.

Teacher Education Program Reforms and Proposals

Corrigan made the statement that "changing teacher education programs would not solve the problems."[26] But teacher education institutions and educational organizations have begun to respond to the calls for excellence in education by proposing changes in their existing programs or by participating in self-study to find methods of dealing with the problems at hand. The incorporation of competency assessment is just one of the many ideas for change in teacher education.

Several organizations have presented plans for change. Among these are the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching task force, called the Task Force on Teaching as a Profession, the Holmes Group Consortium, and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE).

A policy statement by NCATE called for "colleges of education to adopt strict admissions and exit standards for prospective teachers."[27] In addition to the admission standards, NCATE's new policy will:

> ...require accredited teacher-training programs to
> ensure the competence of prospective teachers prior
> to graduation by using various methods of
> evaluation; to follow their students through at
> least one year of post-graduate teaching; and to
> provide quantitative indicators of the quality of
> the instruction students receive....[28]

The Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession includes, among its 14 members, Mary Hatwood Futrell, president of the National Education Association; Albert Shanker, president of the American Federation of

Teachers; and Lewis M. Branscomb, vice-president of the International

Business Machines Corporation. Although the task force's initial set of

major proposals are not due out till the spring of 1986, several proposals

for reform will be discussed. Among these are "the development of a

nationally recognized licensing examination for new teachers, and whether

to change the content and duration of teacher preparation in colleges and

universities."[29]

The Holmes Group Consortium, a group of 23 prominent education deans,

identified "two major factors contributing to the low quality of

teacher-training programs--the weak accreditation policies and practices

in teacher education and an apparent disinterest in teacher education on

the part of the leading research universities in the United States."[30]

The group's plan would:

> ...rule out undergraduate majors in education at the
> participating universities and create, instead, an
> elite corps of highly trained career and
> professional career teachers. Their credentials
> would include an undergraduate major in a standard
> academic subject, a master's degree in teaching or
> education, a substantial period of internship,
> and--at the most advanced level--a second
> postgraduate degree in a specialized area of
> professional education....[31]

The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) is

"expected to adopt a new set of stronger standards and evaluation

procedures later in June. These proposals include the development of a

comprehensive national certification program."[32] The AACTE also stated

that "the responsibility for ensuring that beginning teachers are

competent to teach in the nation's classrooms should be that of teacher

education institutions."[33] Another AACTE publication, "Profile of a

Beginning Teacher," offered the belief that "improving school personnel quality is the most effective way to improve our schools and outlines the knowledge and skills that should be guaranteed by graduation from a teacher education program."[34]

The following competencies were outlined as necessary for all beginning teachers:

> Care about children and are committed to their education.
>
> Broadly educated in the liberal arts and capable of engaging the young in the liberal arts and intellectual processes fundamental to a common general education.
>
> Knowledgeable about the subjects that they teach.
>
> A thorough grasp of the knowledge base undergirding teaching practice, a repertoire of instructional strategies, and the skills to apply these to the education of individual students.
>
> Able to understand and use new technologies.
>
> Able to transcend their own personal experiences in the classroom as a student, and subsequently as a teacher, in order to make instructional decisions based on professional knowledge.
>
> Able to communicate effectively with children, parents, policy- and decision-makers, and other persons.
>
> Able to understand and use methods of inquiry and research findings in making professional decisions.
>
> Honor the dignity and rights of every individual learner consonant with the values of our democratic and pluralistic society.
>
> Are prepared to implement the concept that schools should provide open and equal educational opportunity for all.

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Collectively represent the cultural differences
associated with the society at large.[35]

Given the need for reform and the public's demand for teachers who

exhibit the competencies called for, leaders in teacher education

institutions are offering innovative solutions in regard to their programs

in order to improve the quality of their teaching graduates. The National

Center for Educational Statistics issued a statement in October, 1983,

that "almost all (94 percent) of the Nation's schools, colleges, or

departments of education have implemented one or more measures to improve

the quality of teacher candidates during the past five years."[36]

The two measures that received the largest support by teacher

education institutions were the possibilities of making the curriculum

more rigorous and the raising of entrance and graduation requirements in

education programs.[37] These suggestions, while ensuring that the most

academically able enter and remain in programs, also have drawbacks.

Weaver cites the following problems to enhancing standards: "political

and economic effects due to teacher shortages, rising salaries,

competitive wage bidding among districts, and rising school taxes."[38]

Also, differences in philosophies have created problems in defining

appropriate curriculum. Clabaugh and others stated that "teacher training

programs place too much emphasis on the methodology of teaching and

neglect the adequate teaching of development and learning theories."[39]
Gage expressed the viewpoint that "teaching, which has a scientific basis,

is the central process of education, and needs to be taught."[40]

Another proposal involves extending the current four-year program to

five years.[41] There are many proponents of this solution. Surprisingly,

the National Commission of Excellence in Education did not recommend this alternative in their 1985 report on teacher education, although they noted that their proposals "will demand longer programs than most colleges and universities now require."[42]

The Commission's report, A Call for Change in Teacher Education, stated that "criticisms of the quality of teacher education programs are valid and the current reforms are only a beginning."[43] Some of their recommendations include an extensive liberal arts background, high standards, rigorous curriculum, and a strong background in professional education.[44]

While institutions themselves have recommended changes in their programs, other suggestions for teacher education have come from other agencies. Examples include "the legislature, the governor's office, the executive-branch agencies for K-12 and higher education, state boards of education and special commissions."[45]

Gideonse provided a summary of the range of initiatives for teacher education reform. Briefly, some of these include "testing of candidates either to the program or upon graduation, specifying grade point averages for admission, providing alternate routes to teacher certification, requiring faculty members to have hands-on experience in the public schools, revising certification standards, and defining institutional standards."[46]

Suggestions for improving the curriculum have been cited previously. Other proposals stressed are the need for early and frequent field experiences, increased time in student teaching, and the careful

monitoring of students throughout the entire program.[47] The rationale

here is that students would be introduced to the realities of teaching

early on in their careers and with careful monitoring, could progress

through programs having the opportunity to learn and refine their skills.

The combination of teaching competency expectations with the monitoring of

progress serves as a basis for the improvement and eventual success of the

student teaching experience.

The opportunity to examine and evaluate specific skills in student

teaching will lead to increased self-examination of those skills by future

teachers and serve as a useful tool for evaluation by the education

institution itself. A useful method to assess how effectively those

skills are carried over to the student teaching term is through the use of

direct observation.

Observation as a Method of Assessing Performance

Griffin stated that a large part of the teacher effectiveness

research of the past 15 years describes what is actually going on in

classrooms. The results of these classroom observations focus on teacher

behaviors and techniques, which when recorded and measured, can be related

to pupil achievement. He said that the knowledge of these specific

teaching skills that have been demonstrated and observed could result in a

generation of better informed teachers, teachers who are sensitive to the

technical aspects that make up good teaching.[48]

There have been many methods used in the supervision of student

teachers. One of these, the actual observation of teaching, is now being

given more attention. Evertson and Holley stated that "classroom

observation gives us a view of the climate, rapport, interaction, and functioning of the classroom available from no other source."[49]

The careful choice of an observation instrument to meet the desired needs of the situation is the first step in the effective use of observation, says one source.[50] It is the opinion of others that the performance or competencies to be evaluated must be agreed upon first; then an instrument can be developed to measure these competencies in the classroom setting.[51]

It is important to remember that actual classroom observation is only one source of relevant information to use in student teacher evaluation. Also, as with all evaluation methods, observation has limitations.

In order to get an accurate picture of what is actually happening in the classroom, it must be stressed that observation not be the sole source of evaluation. This will not complete the total picture in a fair assessment of the teacher's performance. Many times, observations are done with little regard to the "consistency with which different observers record the same event."[52]

Also, it is important that observations be done in a systematic manner over a period of time with regard to observer bias to gain an accurate description of teaching behavior. The picture gained cannot be valid if observations are done haphazardly.

Of course there will be problems, as in other aspects of research, but the benefits outweigh the negatives by allowing for actual feedback from the classroom.

Davis stated that "teacher growth is an on-going, developmental
process that begins early in the teacher training program and continues
throughout a teacher's career."[53] An effective program will provide for
continued self-assessment and frequent opportunities to practice and
refine skills. The knowledge and study of particular competencies along
with information from observational data will provide each teacher with a
solid base in which to evaluate the student teaching experience. The use
of systematic observation will provide both the supervising teacher and
the individual with crucial information necessary to evaluate
performance.[54]

Introduction of Project PRO*FILE

An educational program that appears to address a number of the issues
and proposals presented in this study is Project PRO*FILE at Iowa State
University, described in 1982 as "a proposed process for improving student
assessment in teacher education."[55] The co-chairs of the Task Force on
Professional Profile Analysis (Charles Kniker and Joan Breiter) saw this
process as an "attempt to coordinate more closely admission standards and
records, course goals, field-based experiences, and student
self-perceptions so that future teachers could begin an analysis procedure
which continued throughout their careers."[56]

Since that time, the project has expanded from a proposal to an
actual field test of three elements which involved five faculty members
and nearly 50 students in September of 1984.[57] In addition, a spring
field test was completed with an expansion of the Teacher Assessment

Module bank of videotapes, disks, and more performance element modules
(PEMs).

PRO*FILE is defined as an 11-step process designed to "help the
future teacher gain significant knowledge, skills, and professional
attributes in seven areas: educational issues and trends, general
teaching skills, self-concept and decision-making, instruction planning,
classroom strategies implementation, evaluation and diagnosis, and
classroom management."[58]

A flow chart of the 11 steps in the PRO*FILE process can be found in
Appendix A.

The concentration of this study centers on Step 8 in the PRO*FILE
process, which is the assessment of the student teaching experience.
During this period of time, the student is called upon to demonstrate
his/her competencies in specific skills: knowledge of content area,
teaching behaviors, management, and instructional planning, to name a few.

Thesis and Rationale of the Present Study

The thesis of this study is that student teachers who view and
analyze Teacher Assessment Modules (TAMs) during their student teaching
terms will receive higher ratings on an observation instrument than
students who do not view the tapes.

Rationale for study of research questions

Based upon previous studies and current developments in teacher
education programs around the country, these following rationales are
offered for study of specific research questions.

Griffin stated that knowledge of specific teaching competencies observed in the classroom could result in more effective teachers.[59] The actual observation of these prescribed competencies is now being given more attention. The states of Florida and Georgia have developed tapes which they believe can be used to help future educators demonstrate mastery of competencies that have been identified as important to more effective teaching.[60] Therefore, research into the effects of the Teacher Assessment Modules (TAMs) on student teacher performance ratings is necessary to help evaluate their usefulness.

Past reports lament the failure of the American high school to provide adequate educational opportunities for its students. Berman stated that criticisms included curriculum flaws, too many additional responsibilities, and a failure to prepare students for the types of skills they needed in the competitive job force.[61] A lack of discipline and students who are not challenged typify descriptions of high schools today. Ryans found that secondary teachers were more subject-matter oriented and had less regard for student individual differences.[62] These statements indicate the need to further investigate whether differences exist between secondary and elementary teachers' performance.

Although few differences exist between men and women teachers, more pronounced differences occurred in secondary schools. Women scored higher in several areas which included verbal ability, systematic and orderly behavior in the classroom, responsiveness to students, and more democratic classroom policies. Many sources have dealt with the sterotyped roles of women in education and how students are affected. Based on these

findings, the concerns of sexism in the classroom, and personal interest, further investigation into male and female performance ratings is suggested.[63]

Ratings of student teachers by cooperating teachers, supervising teachers, and self-rating is not new. In fact, these methods have been encouraged to help improve teaching ability.[64] However, criticisms over the years have indicated several problem areas. Subjective methods of evaluation, lack of purpose, unspecified criteria for evaluation, and a lack of immediate feedback are just a few. The use of observation is crucial in providing feedback to aid the student in improving performance. Therefore, it is important to investigate any differences in ratings that might exist among the three groups of raters in this study.

Researchers have to be concerned with whether or not improvement found in studies is caused by the treatment utilized in the study or by chance alone. This is an important aspect in the student teaching assessment process. This process is more effective when it is a continuous endeavor rather than being fragmented or sporadic. Measurement of growth during the student teaching term helps one to analyze teaching strengths and needs in the development of maximum professional competencies. Appraisal of student teaching performance through evaluation of specified competencies and goal-setting behaviors is seen by Schofer as an important predictor of "occupational success."[65] Investigation of improvement over the student teaching term is seen as an important method of evaluation.

Denemark and Nelli stated that focusing on generic teaching domains had the potential for "increasing the effectiveness of preparation programs by facilitating a reinforcement of important educational concepts through the use of specific examples to illustrate a common concern."[66] Their review of research supports the view that there is a common base of knowledge and skills important to all teachers.[67] Based upon viewpoints such as these, it is important to test for any differences among the competencies cited in this particular research study.

Just as it is important to research any differences among competencies, it is just as vital to look for correlations in competency areas over time. The presence of particular competencies has been shown to affect the outcome of other combinations of competency areas. The preceding paragraphs established a rationale for research into this area of study.

Finally, Houston, Blackington, and Southworth described the worth of any instrument as "the extent to which a particular instrument yields similar results each time it is administered."[68] The trend towards the use of more objective means of evaluation indicates the importance of establishing the reliability of an instrument to be consistent over time. Therefore, reliability measures must be investigated in this particular study.

The following research questions will be tested:

1. Ratings of student teachers who view the tapes will be higher than those who do not view them.

2. Ratings of secondary student teachers will not differ significantly from elementary student teachers.

3. Ratings of female student teachers will not differ significantly from male student teachers.

4. Ratings of 12 competencies will not differ significantly among the three raters--supervising teacher, cooperating teacher, and self (the student participant).

5. Ratings between Time 1 and Time 2 (first observation at beginning of term and second observation at end of term) will not differ for all three raters.

6. Students' ratings in the 12 competencies will not vary significantly from one area to another.

7. Significant correlations among all 12 competencies will be found between the first and second observations.

In addition, reliability measures provided by the Pearson product moment correlations will be tested to look for significant relationships among all the variables identified in this particular observation instrument.

Definition of Terms

For the purposes of this study, the following terms are defined:

<u>Student teaching</u>: The term in which the student teacher has the opportunity to develop and practice teaching competencies in the actual classroom setting. This involves the supervision of a university supervisor and an elementary/secondary school cooperating teacher.

Direct observation: A process in which the observer actually looks at the processes of classroom interaction.

Rating scale: A system which asks the observer to rate, usually at the end of an observational period, the degree to which a certain variable is present.[1]

Reliability: The extent to which an instrument measures consistent results.

Raters: Three separate groups participating in the research study (cooperating teachers, university supervising teachers, and student teachers' self-rating).

Time 1: First observation period in the first three weeks of the student teaching term.

Time 2: Second observation period in the last three weeks of the student teaching term.

Competencies: The identified skills and techniques thought to be necessary for successful student teaching, which includes the 12 areas that are identified by the study in the observations of the three rating groups (classroom control, knowledge, involvement, explanations, efficiency, verbal and non-verbal communication, organizations, resources, poise, motivation, and evaluation).

Statement of Problem

This study will investigate the ability of an observation instrument to detect variances in performance ratings of student teachers utilizing the technique of direct observation in evaluation. The viewing of Teacher Assessment Modules (TAMs) by the experimental group will serve as a tool

to determine if higher performance ratings can be shown in the identified competencies during student teaching.

Additionally, one can assess the compatibility of the observation instrument with the performance elements of Project PRO*FILE and determine what revisions need to be made to the instrument.

Implications of the Study

Knowledge gained from the current studies into teacher competencies and changes in teacher education programs will prove useful in the continued research on student teaching assessment.

This study is useful because it provides an increased awareness of the importance of specific teaching competencies to those students participating during their student teaching terms.

The analysis of the 12 competencies could be useful in evaluating the effectiveness of certain parts of the PRO*FILE project. Curriculum modifications in the total program could result.

Finally, the combination of teaching competency expectations with the observation of those competencies during the student teaching term could lead to more effective teachers at the completion of their education programs.

Notes

[1]Mortimer Adler, The Paideia Proposal: An Educational Manifesto (New York, New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, 1982); National Commission on Excellence in Education, A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1983); Task Force on Education for Economic Growth, Action for Excellence: A Comprehensive Plan to Improve Our Nation's Schools (Denver, Colorado: Education Committee of the States, 1983); Ernest L. Boyer, High School: A Report on Secondary Education in America (New York, New York: Harper & Row, 1983); John Goodlad, A Place Called School: Prospects for the Future (New York, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1984); Theodore Sizer, Horace's Compromise: The Dilemma of the American High School (Boston, Massachusetts: Houghton-Mifflin, 1984).

[2]Chris Pipho, "The Momentum of Educational Reform: States on the Move," Phi Delta Kappan 66, 2(October 1984): 85.

[3]Dr. Charles Kniker and Dr. Joan Breiter, "Letter to Nancy Ginapp," 13 October 1982, Task Force on Professional Profile Analysis, Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa.

[4]National Commission on Excellence in Education, pp. 1-2.

[5]C. Emily Feistretzer, The Condition of Teaching/A State by State Analysis (Princeton, New Jersey: The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1983), p. 112.

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CHAPTER II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

For the most part, teaching in the United States has been approached as an intuitive art.[1] As society demanded more accountability from its teachers, efforts were made to research what constituted effective teaching behaviors and practices. There has been great difficulty in analyzing the results of research. In fact, it has been difficult to state precisely why some teachers are effective in the classroom and others are not.[2] This inability to identify effective teaching behavior has resulted in a great deal of wasted effort and expense in teacher training and often has allowed inadequately or poorly trained personnel to function as teachers.

Smith made the statement that:

> ...the quality of service rendered by any profession
> is directly proportional to the extent of its
> knowledge base and that this knowledge base depends
> on the robustness of the profession's research
> efforts.[3]

In studying pedagogical research efforts over the years, Smith found that studies have centered around the following areas:

1. Instruction in school subjects.

2. General elements of teaching, such as organization and conduct of lessons, prevention and control of misconduct, interpretation of test results, and the diagnosis of learning difficulties.

3. Conditions and procedures of learning and development.

4. Teaching of particular subjects themselves.

5. Learning environment.

6. Student achievement.

7. Effective teaching qualities or competencies.[4]

Although examination of all of these research topics would create a more comprehensive look at the efforts into improvement of teacher effectiveness, this chapter will limit itself to research into effective teaching qualities and behaviors.

Koehler noted that "a review of teaching research typically begins with a lament concerning the lack and/or poor quality of studies in research on student teaching. The vast majority of research in the past few years has only been of a broad, general nature."[5] Many of the articles on educational research written in the last few years have paired information found during student teaching with information on teachers already out in the field.[6] Therefore, many of the studies presented here will focus on both student teachers and inservice for practicing teachers out in the field.

Chapter II is divided into two sections, one dealing with research on teaching evaluation and the other dealing with research on student teaching evaluation. Both sections open with a review of trends in teaching effectiveness research. Next, they examine supervision methods which have been shown to influence evaluation of effective teaching methods. Finally, the growing support for more objective evaluation methods will be stressed, citing specific studies utilizing observation as a more effective method of evaluating what is actually going on in the classroom.

Teaching Effectiveness Research

Medley stated:

> There are two important ways to improve the
> effectiveness of teachers. One is by improving the
> ways teachers are evaluated and the other is by
> changing the way teachers are educated. Either type
> of change can result in improvement only if it is
> based on accurate information about differences in
> the behavior patterns of more effective and less
> effective teachers, and the only reliable source of
> such information is sound research.[7]

In the past, impact of research in teacher effectiveness has been slight.

Medley identified five stages of teaching effectiveness research.[8] The

first research studies focused on the personality traits or

characteristics of teachers. Evidence of these particular traits was used

to determine teacher effectiveness. The Commonwealth Teacher-Training

Study done in the 1920s is a good example of this type of research. "Good

judgment, self-control, considerateness, enthusiasm, and adaptibility were

listed as the top five characteristics associated with effective

teaching."[9]

Despite the widespread use of these lists, Medley stated that "in no

instance was any evidence adduced to show that teachers possessing these

characteristics were actually more effective in helping pupils achieve any

of the goals of education than teachers who lacked them."[10]

A massive research study titled Characteristics of Teachers: Their

Description, Comparison, and Appraisal, published in 1960, involved 6,000

teachers in 1,700 schools and approximately 450 school systems. As Ryans

explained, "The complete report of the study dealt with relationships

between estimates of teacher-behavior patterns observed in the classroom,

inventory of estimated teacher characteristics, background and environmental variables, and observed pupil behaviors. The primary concern of the teacher characteristics study was the personal and social behaviors of teachers as those behaviors related to classroom situations."[11]

In order to determine a set of primary teacher characteristics, this study used three approaches:

1. A series of exploratory, open-ended classroom observations.

2. Lists assembled from previous investigations.

3. A critical-incidents procedure.

    A. The designation of teachers who are, in the opinion of individuals presumed to be in position to make a judgment, "outstandingly superior" and/or "outstandingly poor."

    B. The documentation of such judgments with descriptions of actual observed behaviors believed to have contributed to the judgment of superiority or inferiority of the designated teachers.[12]

The development of the direct observation assessment instrument, called the classroom observation record, utilized 18 dimensions of teacher behavior on a 7-point scale. This scale and the many other self-report inventories in the study found that the following factors must be identified when considering teacher characteristics:

1. Certain characteristics of teachers may be traceable to behavior patterns that were expressed in related, but different, channels long before the individual entered teaching as a profession.

2. There are important differences between teachers in varying age groups with respect to a number of characteristics.

3. Differences between the sexes were found to be insignificant in the elementary school, but were fairly general and pronounced among secondary school teachers.

4. Differences existed between teachers from large and small schools, with teachers from large schools receiving higher ratings on 9 character dimensions.

5. Good mental health or emotional maturity, generally, was correlated with satisfactory teaching performance.

6. Although judgments about characteristics of good and poor teachers need to be kept within the context of behavioral objectives of the teaching, the characteristics of pupils, and the value system of the judge, the study found that "good" teachers were ones who ranked very high with respect to such observable classroom behaviors as warmth and kindliness, systematic and businesslike manner, and stimulating and original teacher behavior.[13]

Although studies of teacher characteristics are still accumulating, studies on effective teaching shifted from the identification of personality characteristics to the identification of specific teaching methods used in classrooms. In a study of teaching methods over a period of 90 years from 1890-1980, Cuban found what he called a "seemingly stubborn continuity in the character of instruction, the persistence of teacher-centered classroom teaching."[14]

In the late 1950s, Anderson summarized results of research reviewing two basic teaching styles. He stated that:

> Of thirty-two studies reviewed, eleven indicated
> greater learning when learner-centered methods were
> used, eight indicated greater learning when
> teacher-methods were used, and thirteen indicated
> that learning was the same regardless of the method
> used. We are not fortunate enough to find one
> method that is consistently better than or even
> consistently different from the other; thus, we are
> now forced to explore new avenues."[15]

In general, the studies dealing with teaching methods compared levels of student achievement by using different methods of instruction. There seems to be one major flaw in all of these studies. Medley summarized

that "no valid generalizations could be made to teacher effectiveness

other than those who actually took part in the experiments. In order to

make generalizations possible, many teachers would have to teach by each

method for consistency and this has rarely been done."[16]

A method of research called "process-product research" ushered in the

next phase of teacher effectiveness research. Medley stated that:

> As it became apparent that sound research in teacher
> effectiveness must focus both on teacher behavior
> (what the teacher does) and on pupil learning
> (teacher effectiveness), process-product research
> became more widespread.[17]

This method of research focused on stable behavior patterns that were

consistent across observations. Although Stevens in 1912 and Barr in 1930

studied effective teaching utilizing systematic observation and measured

pupil achievement, the use of this method was uncommon before 1960.[18]

The introduction of Interaction Analysis by Flanders led to the

proliferation of process-product studies. Flanders identified two major

theoretical models used in understanding interaction analysis data in the

classroom. The first "used inductive and deductive reasoning, scientific

method, level of abstraction, and principles from the field of semantics."

The second, Flanders explained, "is based less on the intellectual skills

and more on a set of social skills used by teachers to control and manage

class activities. The teacher is concerned with his own behavior and how

he can best use his authority to enhance student learning."[19]

Rosenshine's review of 50 studies referred to "teaching styles" and

"dimensions of classroom climate" which related to student learning.[20]

Present-day views concerning studies of teaching styles and student outcomes can be divided into two kinds--those "that deal with relatively intact patterns of teaching, or teaching styles, and those that deal with hosts of fairly discrete and relatively independent teaching practices."[21] Gage gave examples of intact patterns of teaching. These are open education, traditional classrooms, direct instruction, and Bloom's Mastery Approach. He concluded that:

> The point is that consistent and substantial differences in achievement and attitude have been found through research on teaching, differences that are a function of differences in intact patterns of teaching.[22]

The second group of studies of teaching focuses on discrete teaching practices which are typically observed with some kind of systematic observation schedule. As Gage stated:

> The observer determines the frequency with which the teacher does many kinds of things, including structuring lessons, soliciting or asking questions, reacting to students' responses, and organizing and managing the class. There is no assumption made whether a teacher is using any particular pattern of teaching.[23]

Thomas stated that a problem with this research method was that differences in teacher purpose were treated as errors in measurement, and research showed varying student achievement in different classroom climates depending on the purpose.[24]

In the past few years, the emergence of teacher competency issues has had important implications for research in teacher effectiveness. Medley stated that "what distinguishes competencies from the stylistic behavior patterns identified in process-product research is that a competency is

used only under certain circumstances. The research in teacher

competencies must take into account not only of how teachers behave, but

when and why they behave as they do."[25] Therefore, it seems that research

today involves three different components: measures of teacher

effectiveness based on pupil learning, measures of teacher behavior

derived from systematic observation of classroom interaction, and

information about the teacher's intention or purpose.[26]

Although Haigh and Ketterns stated that "at the present time,

research neither supports a comprehensive theory of teaching, nor does it

provide a set of generally accepted criteria for judging teaching

competence,"[27] efforts continue in the study of the impact of the

effective use of teaching competencies. These competencies are studied to

judge their effect on achievement, attitude, and behavior on the part of

students.

Gage identified common elements of recent teacher effectiveness

experiments:

1. The teaching practices being changed are derived from
   correlations between specific teaching practice and student
   achievement, not from theory or labs.

2. Teachers involved are volunteers assigned randomly to control or
   trained groups which enhanced validity.

3. Teachers are regular teachers involved for a whole semester or
   school year.

4. Experiments are accompanied by actual classroom observations to
   determine the degree that teachers practice the desired teaching
   behaviors.[28]

The improvement of teaching depends on continued research into effective teaching practices by direct observation of what is actually going on in the classroom. Gage stated that:

> We are beginning to have evidence that the correlations betoken causal relationships, so that changing teaching practices causes desirable changes in student achievement, attitude and conduct. Moreover, the changes are brought about by relatively straightforward attempts to educate more teachers to do what the more effective teachers have already been observed to be doing.[29]

In summary, these research studies emphasize the need for a research base in teacher education programs, the use of direct observation in assessment, measurement of pupil learning, and the continued study of teaching competencies.

Supervision of Teachers

The study of methods of research utilizing direct observation to determine effective teaching practices has serious implications for change in the ways that supervision and evaluation of teachers are conducted. Change that is reflected in teacher effectiveness research over the years is also reflected in the changing role and methods of teacher supervision and evaluation.

In order to understand the concept of supervision, it is important to obtain a working definition of the term. One of the first definitions of supervision came out of the nineteenth century and referred to the "responsibility for overseeing and improving the classroom work of

teachers and for organizing the materials for instruction."[30] Grimmett

offered the view stated by Mosher and Purpel that:

> A supervisor is a teacher of teachers, concerned
> with the content, method, and effects of classroom
> teaching. Supervisors who accept this view would
> find themselves concerned with integrating the
> substantive knowledge that recent research has
> generated about teaching with the particular needs
> and instructional styles of individual teachers.[31]

Karier offered yet another definition. He saw supervision as "the

direction and critical evaluation of instruction based on three factors,

the goal of education, the locus of educational authority, and the

socially acceptable means for implementing the educational goal."[32]

Finally, Johnston presented a definition that serves the purposes of this

study. Her definition stated that:

> Evaluation and supervision are interdependent means
> for improving a school's professional resources.
> Evaluation defines and identifies the strengths and
> limitations of individual classroom teachers.
> Supervision is designed to capitalize on strengths
> and correct weaknesses.[33]

As Karier stated earlier, supervision methods reflected the many

elements of our culture during different time periods, from the military

influence of various wars, the influence of political and social reforms,

the emerging control of business and professional leadership, the coming

of technological change, the influence of new sciences such as psychology

and sociology, to the research into teaching competencies of late.[34]

Four approaches to supervision have reflected these changes in our

society. The first, scientific supervision, began early in the century as

"an answer to the lack of clearly defined standards, a lack that made it

difficult to determine which methods were proving best and which teachers

were doing the best work. Basic to this early concept of scientific

supervision was the need for a research basis of teaching."[35] Supervisors

were to become familiar with the research and use this knowledge in the

appraisal, training, and improvement of teachers. Supervisors were later

encouraged to use data to sharpen observation skills and try out new

procedures. As McNeil noted:

> Scientific supervision took a new turn in the 1940s
> in response to political concerns and the climate of
> war. Although supervisors continued to study and
> relate generalizable findings that had implications
> for school practice, they tended to cite only those
> studies that were consistent with political ideology
> of the time.[36]

Scientific supervision was criticized in the 1960s for not having

determined teaching effectiveness nor the methods by which pupils learn

best. Knowledge was lacking in a multitude of areas. One major study

that used the scientific approach to objectifying teaching was Barr´s

"Wisconsin Studies of the Measurement and Prediction of Teacher

Effectiveness—A Summary of Investigations." One of the most important

conclusions of this investigation was "that the constituents of

effectiveness are not found in teacher, pupil, or in situation, but in the

relationships that exist among the three at any given time and place."[37]

Scientific supervision has been greatly affected by the proliferation

of process-product research. Emphasis is now placed on staff development

programs focusing on more time in direct instruction, action research,

interactions with students, and specific learner objectives, to name a

few.

The second approach to supervision is the Clinical Approach.

Proponents of this approach are Cogan and Goldhammer. Four concepts

describe and guide the events of clinical practice. These four are:

1. Colleagiality refers to the posture of the persons who become involved in supervision; that is, their state of being, their prevailing tendencies they bring with them as they work together.

2. Collaboration addresses the nature of the involvement of the persons during the supervisory alliance.

3. Skilled service suggests that the supervisor is able to offer competent accommodation and activities required by the supervisee as a result of prolonged and specialized intellectual training and practice.

4. Ethical conduct refers to constant discretion and judgment in one's actions through standards of behavior so that those involved can be confident that this professional attitude will provide trust and protection.[38]

A third approach, the artistic approach to supervision, defines

supervision as one that "relies on the sensitivity, perceptivity, and

knowledge of the supervisor as a way of appreciating the significant

subleties occurring in the classroom, and that exploits the expressive,

poetic, and often metaphorical potential of language to convey to teachers

or to others whose decisions affect what goes on in schools, what has been

observed.[39] The major aim is to improve the quality of educational life

in school.

The supervisor using an artistic approach would recognize that

teachers have different teaching styles and strengths. The goal is "to

recognize this style and try to help the teacher exploit it by

strengthening the positive directions already taken.[40]

Eisner described the eight most important features of artistic

supervision. They are:

1. Artistic approaches to supervision require attention to the muted or expressive character of events, not simply to their incidence or literal meaning.

2. Artistic approaches require high levels of educational connoisseurship, the ability to see what is significant yet subtle.

3. Artistic approaches appreciate the unique contributions of the teacher to the educational development of the young, as well as those contributions a teacher may have in common with others.

4. Artistic approaches demand that attention be paid to the process of classroom life and that this process be observed over extended periods of time so that the significance of events can be placed in a temporal context.

5. Artistic approaches require that rapport be established between supervisor and those supervised so that dialog and a sense of trust be developed between the two.

6. Artistic approaches require the ability to use language in a way that exploits its potential to make public the expressive character of what is seen.

7. Artistic approaches require the ability to interpret the meaning of the events occurring to those who experience them and to be able to appreciate their educational import.

8. Artistic approaches accept the fact that the individual supervisor with his or her strengths, sensitivities, and experience is the major "instrument" through which the educational situation is perceived and its meaning construed.[41]

The last approach to supervision, proposed by Sergiovanni, advocates integrating the three approaches described above into a "theory of supervisory practice."[42] Sergiovanni stated that it is necessary to find a resolution to the science-art debate in the teaching field. He stressed that:

> The case for integrating scientific and artistic approaches to supervision is built upon the belief that the perspectives of each contribute to a theory of supervisory practice that emphasizes interpretation and meaning.[43]

His theory of supervisory practice would include the following summary

statement:

> Given what is (descriptive science), what ought to
> be (normative science), and what events mean
> (interpretive science), what should supervisors and
> teachers "do" (practice)? Theories of practice are
> ultimately concerned with action taken to improve a
> present situation and the beneficiaries would be
> teachers and students.[44]

Anderson, in a call for reform in the field of supervision, said that

the future of supervision depends upon the following efforts:

> ...a new set of standards, emphasizing high level
> skills in observation, data collection and analysis,
> conferencing, planning, evaluation, successful
> leadership, skill in program planning and curriculum
> philosophy.[45]

Parallels can be seen between calls for change in teacher

effectiveness and the field of supervision. Both are stressing the need

for higher standards, a clearer approach in philosophy, and agreement

among the many research methods. Both have been influenced by the

political, economic, and social changes in society, and, as will be shown

in the next section, both have a very profound impact in the ways that

teachers have been and are being evaluated today.

Teacher Evaluation

Like the field of supervision, teacher evaluation has been

misunderstood and maligned through the years. While the field of

supervision is still looking for a respectable reputation and function,

the field of evaluation has become one to be feared, since many times, it

has come to be paired with retention of teachers. The differences between

theory and practice, the lack of structure and clear-cut objectives, the

subjective manner in which some evaluation has taken place, and the

sometimes untrained personnel who use evaluation procedures have all

contributed to this fear of evaluation.

Klein offered a summary statement about the problems in evaluation:

> The purpose of evaluation, many evaluators would
> say, is to improve teaching. But in most cases
> teachers are evaluated in much the same way that
> students are tested--results are used to assign
> grades, rather than to convey useful information
> about significant strengths and weaknesses in
> performance. Reports are dropped into a personnel
> file and only surface when it is time to make
> decisions about promotion, tenure, or reduction in
> force. Certainly it is desirable to make personnel
> decisions based on valid evaluation, but unless
> teachers are invited to share, and use the results
> of the evaluation, there is little opportunity for
> professional growth.[46]

While a definition of evaluation has been difficult, it has been

easier to accomplish than trying to define purposes and methods of

evaluation. Cronbach defined evaluation as "the collection and use of

information to make decisions about education."[47] Although the many

definitions vary, they all appear to share a common purpose--providing

information to the decision maker to assist him/her in making educational

decisions.

Millman stated that:

> Over a dozen reasonably distinct purposes for
> teacher evaluation have been suggested, such as
> improving teacher performance, aiding administrative
> decisions, guiding students in course selections,
> meeting state and institutional mandates, promoting
> research on teaching, and the like.[48]

In distinguishing the purposes of evaluation, two major roles have been

identified. The first, formative teacher evaluation "helps teachers

improve their performance by providing data, judgments, and suggestions that have implications for what to teach and how."[49] The second, summative teacher evaluation "serves administrative decision making with respect to hiring and firing, promotion and tenure, assignments, and salary."[50]

Soar, Medley, and Coker stated that "the methods of evaluating teachers that we have used in the past, and continue to use today, are inadequate."[51]

While much has been written about what we need to know in order to assess and evaluate teachers, much disagreement still exists regarding this issue. Ryans wrote that we need to:

1. Decide what characteristics of teachers are amenable or available to observation.

2. Decide upon a set of evaluative criteria—a set of values appropriate to the particular setting and often unique to the particular community or group.

3. Compare the relationships of observable teacher characteristics to the criteria represented in the agreed-upon value system.

4. Employ the most objective-reliable-available means of arriving at the assessments on which the evaluations will be based.

5. Employ advanced means of summarizing and synthesizing the assessments of teacher characteristics to generate over-all estimates that will be basic to the evaluation.[52]

Formal evaluation had come a long way indeed. As can be seen above, a combination of scientific and artistic supervision can be seen above, along with the focus upon evaluation of teacher characteristics. In the past, much cruder evaluation methods were employed, depending upon the societal emphasis of the era.

Davis, in a history of the evaluation movement, stated that "Formal evaluation of teaching, as practiced today, appears to have had its origin, in part, during the late nineteenth century school practice as well as in the efficiency movement of the early twentieth century."[53] Early in the century, the efficiency movement swept the country. Industry and government were surveying themselves to efficiency. With this influence and the rise in measurement, it is only natural that education would reflect these same opinions. The National Education Association was beginning to explore school efficiency by using several survey investigations. These school surveys "placed emphasis on testing the efficiency of teaching, utilizing newly developed standardized tests in school subjects."[54] The use of individual surveys for teacher evaluation seemed to be stimulated by this movement.

The first formal rating scales were constructed for people in business and identified several worker traits that were felt to be necessary to the job at hand. As in education today, the use of rating scales was disputed with questions raised concerning desirability, the reliability, and the validity of merit ratings.

When teacher rating scales began to appear, many of them used a grading system. Principals were accused of giving high marks to their teachers. One plan was copied widely. Elliot, professor at the University of Wisconsin, included seven headings—physical efficiency, moral-native efficiency, administrative efficiency, dynamic efficiency, projected efficiency, achieved efficiency, and social efficiency. The total points equaled 1,000.[55] Different types of rating devices developed

in the next 20 years. Examples of these are check scale, characterization report, guided-comment report, descriptive report, and ranking report. Investigators, trying to research the effectiveness of evaluation, found it practically impossible because the categories of the rating scales were so dissimilar that comparisons could not be made.

As Soar, Medley, and Coker noted:

> Until the 1950s, research on teaching focused on identifying those personal characteristics that seemed to distinguish effective from less effective teachers, not on identifying best practices. Current methods of teacher evaluation have most often used one or more of the following measures:
> 1. Tests to measure teacher characteristics.
> 2. Achievement test scores of students in the teachers' classroom.
> 3. Ratings of teacher performance in the classroom.[56]

They examined these three strategies and found that each one has flaws that question their validity. The characteristics of teachers' strategy do not reflect teachers' classroom performance. Students' achievement gains are not able to tell how competent a teacher is because there are other factors influencing achievement beyond the teacher's control. Ratings of teacher performance only show how favorably an evaluator rates a teacher.[57]

Clearly, fundamental questions need to be answered before teacher evaluation can be improved. Manatt attempted to provide some direction to this issue by asking questions regarding criteria, standards, measurement, and plans for improvement. He developed an evaluation system that contained five stages:

1. Needs Assessment – determining important areas of concern.

2. Program Planning - selecting program designed to meet the needs identified above.

3. Implementation Evaluation - does program function according to plan.

4. Progress Evaluation - check compatability with intended objectives.

5. Outcome Evaluation - final judgments regarding the general worth of the total program.[58]

Success in teacher evaluation also depends upon staff participation in defining objectives and in selecting or constructing evaluation instruments. "Ownership of the data has been shown to increase teacher performance."[59] A study of effective teacher evaluation practices undertaken by Wise, Darling-Hammond, and others, found that:

> Attention to four factors--organizational commitment, evaluator competence, teacher-administrator collaboration, and strategic compatability--has elevated in these districts from what is often a superficial exercise to a meaningful process that produces useful results.[60]

Teacher evaluation models followed along with the supervision models and research on teaching effectiveness of the time.

The first evaluation model, which is found in approximately 65 percent of the school districts in the United States, is called the "Common Law Model." It received its name because it has been in the systems so long that they finally formalized the procedure. Characteristics of this model include the following:

1. High supervisor-low teacher involvement

2. Evaluation synonymous with observation

3. Similar procedures for tenured and nontenured teachers

4. Major emphasis on summative evaluation

5. The existence of standardized criteria

6. Comparative judgments to made between and among people.

The second evaluation model, the "Goal-Setting Model," came about as a response to criticisms of the Common Law Model and the push for accountability. Characteristics and procedures for this model include:

1. Emphasis on an individualized approach to evaluation

2. Teacher self-evaluation and identification of areas for improvement

3. Teacher goal-setting contract

4. Teacher and evaluator conference to discuss the teacher self-evaluation, the contract, and the evaluator's perception of areas in which improvement is needed

5. Conference near end of evaluation cycle to discuss future directions and assess goal attainment.

The next model described, the "Product Model," caused quite a bit of controversy because it used student performance measures as a method for assessing teacher competence. Characteristics and methods for measurement include:

1. Changes in students' behavior, their growth in skills, their knowledge of subject matter, and their attitudes

2. Measurement reflected over a prespecified period of instruction

3. Instructional objectives, post-testing, and appraisal of student achievement

4. Model of measurement purported to be "objective" rather than "subjective."

The "Clinical Evaluation Model," the fourth evaluation model, has achieved a large amount of support because of its visibility and

experiential data for improving instructional practices. The five stages

in the sequence of clinical supervision include:

1. Pre-observation conference

2. Observation of teaching

3. Analysis and strategy

4. Post-observation conference

5. Post-conference analysis.

This model emphasizes the professionalism of teachers and strives to work

together in a partnership to modify existing patterns of teaching. It

recognizes teaching as a complex set of activities which requires careful

analysis and the use of systematic observation of teaching.

The last evaluation model reviewed here, the "Artistic or

Naturalistic Model," has been the most recently developed of all the

approaches mentioned here. This approach is not used in any school

districts, but merits attention because it views teacher evaluation from a

different set of assumptions. These assumptions are synonomous with

Eisner's supervision methods. As McGreal stated, "Artistic approaches to

evaluation attempt to focus on the subtleties of outcomes in classrooms

and to provide a process for describing these subleties."[61]

As noted earlier, research into teaching effectiveness, supervision,

and evaluation have all been shown to change depending upon the societal,

political, and economic climate of particular time periods. One can draw

some important assumptions from the discussions of the previous sections.

1. All three, teaching effectiveness, supervision, and evaluation,
   will continue undergoing changes that reflect demands from
   society.

2. It is crucial to coordinate evaluation methods with supervision methods.

3. More objective methods of evaluation in school districts will grow in popularity.

4. Observation as a method of evaluation will continue to be used more widely.

5. It can be assumed that supervision, research into teaching, and evaluation in student teaching will parallel those same methods in teaching.

Purposes and Trends of Student Teaching

Student teaching experience has always been considered to be an essential component of teacher education from the days of the early normal schools, but the nature of the experience has changed in several ways over the years. Changes in purpose, objectives, supervision, and evaluation methods have all led to a reexamination of roles in which each of these has played over the years.

Laboratory, clinical, and practicum experiences have been important parts of education curriculum since the 1800s. Edwards described student teaching as:

> Another essential requisite in a normal school is, that it gives its pupils an opportunity of some kind of practice in teaching, under the supervision and subject to the criticism of experienced and skillful instructors.[62]

Another comment from Peirce described the purpose of student teaching as one in which "under my supervision, the normal pupils had an opportunity, both to prove and improve their skills in teaching and managing schools."[63]

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A more recent description by Wiggins in 1957, identified two main

purposes of student teaching. These were:

> To help the student become a skillful and creative
> teacher, depending less and less upon the
> supervising teacher, in preparation for the time he
> will have his own class to teach and only himself to
> rely upon in the classroom and to provide the
> student teacher with the chance to decide whether
> teaching is what he genuinely wants to do.[64]

Finally, a 1984 description of the purposes of student teaching is

offered by Cruickshank, who stated that:

> A final component of professional studies consists
> of teaching experiences in natural classroom
> settings. The purpose of these experiences is to
> provide student teachers with work settings in which
> they may put to use what they have learned about
> teaching and learning over an extended period of
> time, assuming most, if not all, responsibility for
> teaching.[65]

It was this approach, the apprenticeship approach, that dominated the

purposes of student teaching during the nineteenth century and into the

twentieth century. As Bennie described it, "The approach was largely that

of practicing the teaching act until one was pronounced a qualified

teacher."[66] Apprentice teachers were to perform the same way as the

teachers who trained them. This idea, though modified somewhat, is still

reflected in descriptions of the purposes of the student teaching

experience.

A shift in philosophy occurred in the middle of the twentieth century

when the student teaching experience itself was regarded as such, an

experience "in which the prospective teacher was considered to be a

student of teaching during the classroom experience."[67] This way of

thinking had great implications for the roles of both the supervising and

cooperating teachers. The classroom became more of a laboratory in which "the student teacher experiments, probes, and inquires. The members of the student teaching triad moved from the role of judge to the role of teacher."[68] The laboratory school movement flourished. However, in many cases, these changes were made without being carefully studied. Studies into effective teaching were still taking place, for the most part, in inservice teacher education programs. As Gage stated:

> It would be gratifying if the evidence on the
> improvability of teachers in the sense of getting
> them to use research-based teaching practices could
> be drawn from work in preservice teacher programs.
> But I, at least cannot provide that kind of
> evidence.[69]

In fact, as Cruickshank stated, "There have been few opportunities for the preservice teacher in the field or on campus actually to engage in diagnostic and prescriptive activities and to receive systematic feedback."[70] The failure to use research on teaching effectiveness associated with practicum experiences continued to be a problem. The laboratory school movement did not go far enough in providing for critical analysis of effective teaching behavior. As Clark, Snow, and Shavelson observed:

> Practice, by itself, did not enable teachers to
> increase student achievement. This finding
> indicates that teachers might profit from a process
> that would enable them to observe more
> systematically the effects of their teaching on
> students--i.e., a training program that would help
> teachers become researchers of their own teaching
> effectiveness.[71]

The trend towards providing students with a greater variety of direct teaching experiences gained momentum in the 1960s and 1970s. Along with

these earlier and more diverse types of experiences was the beginning of a
more analytical and clinical approach in helping students analyze specific
components of the teaching act itself. New terms like simulation,
micro-teaching, and interaction analysis were used in efforts to study
specific teaching behaviors.

The need for closer school-college cooperation became evident in the
later 1960s as more teacher training institutions placed students in
varied clinical experiences. Over the past 20 years, a greater shift has
been evident in the increasing numbers of clinical experiences. Howey,
Yarger, and Joyce found that the three most prevalent clinical experiences
are sophomore year observation and participation, junior year observation
and participation, and senior year student teaching.[72] A number of
factors have been influential in the trend towards this emphasis. The
climate of the country demands competency for its teachers, and a
competency-based approach to student teaching was a solution to the
problem at hand. Miller and O'Bruba stated that "teacher educators need
to identify those competencies necessary for effective student teaching.
Teachers trained in specific competencies will achieve a greater degree of
success and will be better equipped to insure their students'
opportunities for optimum achievement."[73]

As public schools became more heavily involved in the student
teaching aspect of teacher education, public school teachers demanded a
more participatory role with the colleges in the actual process of teacher
preparation. Also, teacher education institutions were struggling to
upgrade their professional images. As Cruickshank summarized:

> A major problem associated with the practicum
> experience is enhancing its image among teacher
> educators and academicians. As long as it continues
> to be viewed simply as an apprenticeship, it will be
> shunned by those who view their role as more
> important than just monitoring behavior. As the
> practicum experience becomes more laboratory and
> clinically oriented, its image will probably
> improve.[74]

The changing roles of supervision and evaluation in student teaching,

discussed in later sections, also served as factors in the emphasis

towards more objective means of analyzing effectiveness in student

teaching.

Supervision in Student Teaching

Bennie stated that "there is a lack of definition of the supervisory

role which has caused the low status of those who fulfill the position.

This in turn reflects a lack of concern for the function."[75] One

definition that seems to reflect the supervisory role today is offered by

Henry and Beasley. "Supervision means facilitating the growth of a future

teacher through observation, analysis, conferences, and

information-sharing."[76]

As in inservice teaching, supervision has suffered a great deal of

criticism through the years. A lack of definition, confusion over

supervisory roles, lack of training, and little structure and objectivity

in evaluation methods by supervisors have all served as factors

questioning the importance of supervision in student teaching.

There are two main functions of supervision: the evaluation

function, which will be discussed in much greater detail in the next

section, and the teaching function. Anderson stated that it was possible

to apply the supervisory relationship between supervisors and inservice teachers to the relationship between cooperating teachers and student teachers for two reasons: the first being that student teachers come into the relationship expecting to learn because they are in the role of student and the second being that the cooperating teachers have the skills needed to help these student teachers study teachers in the actual classroom setting, which fulfills the teaching function of supervision.[77]

Traditionally, the evaluating function has been the main focus of supervision. In fact, supervision in student teaching had changed very little from theory and practice in classrooms from 50 to 75 years earlier.

When the accountability movement and the shift towards research in the nature of teaching began to gather support, it was necessary to take a closer look at the process of supervision. The teaching function of supervision gained importance. Certainly, the supervising and cooperating teachers who viewed supervision as being important in a teaching function performed differently from those teachers who believed their function to be one of critic or evaluating teacher.

Even though the trend has focused on a more analytical approach now towards supervision of student teachers, much is still being written about the importance of the relationships between supervisors, cooperating teachers, and student teachers.

Efforts have been made to incorporate the two in two separate dimensions of supervision. The more analytical dimension has been referred to as "clinical supervision," which Cogan described as "supervision focused upon the improvement of the classroom performance of

the teacher by way of observation, analysis, and treatment of the performance."[78] This approach, described in more detail earlier in the teacher evaluation section, utilizes a sequence approach to the process. The observation experiences are extremely important to this process. Typically, the most common experience involving observation is to observe the cooperating teacher and others who will give the student teacher a chance to analyze a variety of teaching approaches. The establishment of a purpose to each observation enables a student to concentrate on specific features of the teaching process and record interactions that can be analyzed systematically at a later time. The teaching dimension to supervision here is crucial in guiding students in the analysis of what has taken place in the observation.

The systematic observation of the student teacher by both the cooperating teacher and the supervising teacher is crucial in providing feedback to the student regarding his/her performance. Here again, purposes and objectives need to be established and discussed before the observation in order for proper analysis to take place in the postobservation conference and analysis.

The second important dimension of supervision is called the "interpersonal dimension," which examines the effectiveness of interactions between supervisors and those being supervised. Blumberg was very influential in championing the hypothesis that "different descriptions of the behavioral styles of their supervisors by teachers would produce different evaluations of the overall quality of their interpersonal relationships."[79]

Dussault has been very influential in applying interpersonal relationships in supervision to the student teaching experience. Dussault's theory is concerned only with the teaching function of supervision and the affective meanings of the supervisory conference in student teaching.[80] He stressed that the supervisor be genuine, express positive regard for the student teacher, and be successful in communicating empathic understanding in the many contacts with the student.[81] If those conditions have been met, Dussault said that a greater change will be able to be observed in the student teacher's personality and behavior. He then listed changes observed in the supervisee at the end of the student teaching experience.[82]

Clearly, it is the combination of these two dimensions, the analytical and the interpersonal, that assures success in the supervisory function. We have the tools to make this process more objective and analytical. When we integrate this knowledge, we can help ensure that the outcomes are more productive.

Emans provided a summary of recent studies into the supervisory influence on student teachers. Conflicting evidence has been cited with some of the studies indicating that supervisors from the universities set the standard for requirements, evaluation, and objective criticisms regarding the student teacher's performance. Many other studies indicated that the cooperating teacher has the primary influence, with the university supervisor acting as an outsider. In fact, these conclusions have led others to call for the elimination of the supervising teacher all together.[83]

Emans proposed the redefining of the role of the student teaching
supervisor in order to ensure a more influential role in the student
teacher-cooperating teacher-supervisor triad. These proposals call for:

1. The functions of college supervisors to be
   changed so that they would have less direct
   responsibility for the immediate and direct
   supervision of student teachers than they
   presently have.
2. College supervisors serve in an inservice mode
   by working with school personnel on curriculum
   development and the improvement of teaching.
3. College supervisors focus attention on the
   interpretation of the theory and research that
   comprise the knowledge base for education.[84]

Student Teacher Evaluation

Like supervision, student teacher evaluation has undergone much
needed changes in structure, definition, and purpose through the years
because of criticisms from all members of the educational community.
Bennie defined evaluation at its best as the "mutual analysis of successes
and failures and the identification of the causes of each as the student
teacher strives for continual improvement in the teaching role."[85] The
problem here is that the common practice in the past has been that
evaluation gave general rather than specific help and relied upon the
subjective rather than the objective analysis of performance by student
teachers.

Criticisms of evaluation of student teaching can be cited as early as
1914 when students of the Wisconsin Normal Schools complained that their
supervising teachers criticized their teaching without making it clear how
to correct the defect. Michalak also found that student teachers

frequently had no means of knowing definitely what their teaching faults were. They claimed the criticisms and suggestions given by the critic teachers were vague and indefinite, leaving the student teachers with little idea or knowledge of how to improve their teaching in the classroom.[86]

Traditionally, the three-way conference with the student teacher, cooperating teacher, and university supervisor in attendance has been the principal format used in the evaluation of a student teacher's teaching performance. However, there are many other ways to evaluate the student teaching experience. These evaluation methods range from general comments written by cooperating and supervising teachers and self-evaluation on one end of a continuum to highly structured observation systems on the other.[87]

Certain basic principles concerning student teaching evaluation are necessary to bring about a more systematic way of providing for the maximum growth of a prospective teacher. Several attempts at defining purposes have been made over the decades. Peirce, writing in his journals, described one of the first principles of evaluation as the understanding of the purposes of the learning or experience to be evaluated.[88] The concept of a student self-evaluation also became the impetus for a principle of individualization in evaluation. His writings, in 1839, provided others with the idea that evaluation needed to be continuous, specific, comprehensive, and interpersonal in order to be successful.[89] It is a marvel to see these same principles suggested over

a hundred years later by Bennie in his description of evaluation principles.

Evaluation using self-criticism extensively was encouraged about the time of the Civil War. Sheldon of the Oswego Normal School felt that criticism was an important technique in order to help improve teaching ability and encouraged critic teachers, supervisors, principals, and student teachers in this process.[90]

About 1905, Merriam did a research study involving 1,185 normal school graduates and tried to establish a relationship between good grades and teaching ability. Although there were negligible results, he is given credit for trying to research it with objective measures.[91]

A unique change in evaluation methods was brought about by the development of the Ohio Teaching Record at Ohio State University in 1939. This form utilized two purposes, observation and analysis, by providing for anecdotal evidence of the teacher's classroom practice and parallel items to record. As Beecher summarized: "Perhaps its most significant effect has been to guide thinking away from measurement, in its narrow sense, to evaluation in its currently accepted meaning as associated with learning and growth of the individual teacher."[92]

Other instruments of this time period reflected the influence of the Observation Record and combined ratings of teaching characteristics and also the mechanics of teaching in forms for critic teachers to use during observation periods.

In 1945, accreditation standards governing student teaching were revised by a sub-committee of the Standards and Survey Committee of the

American Association of Teachers Colleges. This committee suggested the

following:

> That the program of evaluation be continuous and
> cooperative, with participation by the student and
> members of the faculty; that evaluation should not
> be concerned with specific techniques or patterns;
> and that emphasis be placed on the student's ability
> to use knowledge, understandings, and
> generalizations as guides to action. Reporting,
> recording, and evaluating professional laboratory
> experiences were discussed also.[93]

Fifteen years later, in 1960, educators were struggling with the

types of evaluation outcomes that would be beneficial to the total overall

program of preparation. As Kinney pointed out, "Prospective employers

look at the student teaching records as a prediction of teaching success,

regardless of the real experience in student teaching designed to reveal

presence or absence of abilities essential to teaching and evaluative

procedures adequate to measure these abilities."[94]

Evaluation was looked at in terms of curriculum-building in order to

prepare competent teachers. Evaluation was designed to determine the

degree that this purpose was achieved. The expansion of the term

"competencies" was noted. Evaluation was not to be focused on the student

teacher's development of competencies alone, but on his potential, on the

student teaching program, the total college education program, and on the

processes of evaluation itself.

In the 1970s, criticisms of student teaching were emerging. A lack

of commitment to good teacher education programs, lack of uniformity in

programs, a lack of concern for the supervisory function, and finally, the

unsatisfactory evaluation systems which fail to differentiate competent

student teachers from incompetent teachers all served as factors in the

low status of teacher education programs. The continuing lack of research

still held the key to some accountability and efforts began again to study

effective teaching practices.

As McDonald stated,

> There is no simple solution to assessing teacher
> competence, no standard techniques or tests that can
> be taken off shelves to measure it. Effective
> teaching is not well understood and it is not
> surprising that the development of an evaluation
> system will be comparably complex.[96]

Studies of today do seem to recognize the problems, shrinking faculty

resources, difficulty in working with school districts effectively, and

student time constraints, and are now striving to study evaluation systems

in terms of program compatability.

Reiff stated that "An effective evaluation of preservice teachers

should have a procedure that will determine if there is a relationship

between the content of the program and the performance criteria expected

in teaching."[97]

Davis and Zaret summarized the research studies and movement in

evaluation today by stating that:

> We believe it is essential to establish a framework
> for supervision and evaluation that encompasses all
> critical dimensions of teacher growth, from
> preservice teacher to certified teacher—a
> perspective that can balance the gatekeeping
> function with a supportive, developmental
> approach.[98]

The Role of Observation in Student Teaching

One of the most important ingredients advocated in the research studies of today regarding evaluation is the use of direct observation in the classrooms. Dunkin and Biddle, in The Study of Teaching, stated that classroom activities involving teachers and pupils are observable events and contend that research on teaching which depends on observation of classroom events is still quite new.[99]

Actually, observation as an evaluation technique is not new. Critic teachers used this method back in the normal schools. However, the criteria for their observations usually included personal characteristics and methods of teaching in the classroom. Maxwell noted in 1917 that "As things are at present, the observation of teaching is an activity pursued without much system. It is conducted without adequate preliminary or immediate intelligence, and the judgments to which it leads are not subsequently subjected to much critical thought."[100]

Efforts were then made to develop crude observation systems designed for use in classrooms to evaluate teacher performance. Since that time, hundreds of classroom observation instruments have been developed. Few evaluate only student teacher performance. Those teacher performance instruments seem to fall into two separate categories: instruments developed for specific research purposes and instruments developed to evaluate teacher performance. Most studies involving student teachers have adapted existing instruments for their own use.

The term systematic observation has been modified as components changed. However, one well-known definition by Furst and Hill in 1971

typified the term well. They defined it as "a set of procedures that uses categories to code and quantify classroom behaviors of teachers and students."[101] Medley and Mitzel suggested that the use of a direct observation system can be beneficial to the study of teaching and make the following statements:

> It seems safe to say that almost any research on teaching and learning behavior can benefit by the use of direct observations of the behaviors, and that in many instances, such observations are of crucial importance.[102]

Much of the observational research that has taken place involving student teachers is found to concern such issues as attitudinal change; student grades in relationship to performance; teaching styles compared with theory classes; relationships with both supervisors and cooperating teachers; evaluative feedback from teachers and students; and most recently, observation of competencies.

As mentioned previously, hundreds of instruments are available to measure teacher behavior, but few to measure preservice teacher performance. Most systematic observation instruments in use are designed for research use rather than for evaluating and measuring teacher performance. These instruments designed for research use collect data on specific teaching skills and generally are not suitable for evaluative purposes. However, they are appropriate for use in training programs to provide formative data on the student teacher´s teaching skills.

Rating scales, however, are used more extensively than any other device to measure teaching competency by observation. Good defined rating scales as devices used in evaluating products, attitudes, or other

characteristics of instructors or learners.[103] In order to gauge

competence, rating scales can be all encompassing, measuring intellectual

ability, including personality characteristics and teaching skills, or

more specific, identifying competency descriptors.

Although systematic observation systems will continue to gain

importance in teacher training programs, it seems they do not offer a

viable means of measuring competence of preservice candidates. Rating

scales seem to be the most appropriate instruments of measuring competence

if used in the proper context.

Some recent innovative programs utilizing observation to attempt to

measure competency in student teaching deserve mention here. The Georgia

Department of Education developed a policy in the early 1970s for teacher

certification. This performance-based process has grown to include an

assessment process that stresses (1) orientation, (2) observation, (3)

feedback, and (4) staff development, beginning with the student teaching

experience and continuing through the inservice process. The development

of Georgia's Teacher Performance Assessment Instrument (TPAI) helps

student teachers gain experience with 14 competencies and 45

indicators.[104]

A project at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill uses a

structured Classroom Observation Guide that focuses on "particular skills

each week of the practicum experience and progresses from basic to complex

skills during the course of the semester and the development of the

teacher's competence in teaching."[105] Students are rated weekly and

progress to the next level of observation only after successfully

completing the previous level.

Another system combines a 5-point rating scale with a narrative

section in competencies (tasks) in 13 categories. Sullivan's

Performance-Based Teaching Observation Scale from Dade County in Florida,

is described as a scale "used to observe, record, compare, and evaluate

teaching strategies employed by student teachers in performance-based

education programs."[106]

The College of Education at Ohio State developed a system called the

Student Information System (SIS). The four components in the system are

(1) quantitative and descriptive records on each student, (2) assessments

by cooperating teachers, supervising teachers, and peers, (3) summative

narratives of the teacher education experiences by supervisors and student

self-analysis, and (4) descriptions of the environment of on- and

off-campus settings. This system follows a developmental approach to

monitor student skills in what they call "Profile Progressive Stages."[107]

While emphasis of the Florida Beginning Teacher Program focuses on

first-year teachers, it has important implications for teacher education

program development. This project provides a set of supervised support

services for teachers in their first year in Florida schools by "assisting

them in their continued professional development and by verifying

satisfactory performance of identified generic teaching competencies."[108]

Specific components of the total program include an observation system,

knowledge base of research on teaching, training programs for supervisory

personnel, and accompanying materials for participants. The efforts of

school districts, state, and university personnel have provided a link between preservice and inservice teacher education.

While there are many other studies being developed around the country right now, these were described because of their emphasis on a total developmental and evaluative process which involves the use of observation systems. Project PRO*FILE here at Iowa State also shows evidence of a total program aimed at continuous progress of the developing teacher.

Summary

Based upon the discussions of the previous sections, an interrelatedness of the components, supervision, evaluation, and research on effective teaching can be shown. Political, economic, and social conditions of different eras have played important roles in the shifting trends of the three components described, along with student teaching practices.

One crucial aspect of the evaluation of a student teacher's abilities appears to be the actual observation of those abilities in the classroom setting. However, it is pointed out, the necessity of the compatability of supervision and evaluation methods with the objectives and purposes of those observations cannot be stressed strongly enough.

The revision of teacher education programs around the country brings to focus the growing emphasis on the competence of teachers and the need to monitor a student's progress continually throughout the program and student teaching experience.

As Griffin observed:

> Research in preservice teacher education can help a
> teacher to be in command of a repertoire of teaching
> strategies, be reflective about his/her behavior in
> classrooms, understand the school as a workplace, be
> linked to the growing technical core of teaching,
> and finally, be a discriminating consumer of
> research findings.[109]

Notes

[1]N. L. Gage, "What Do We Know about Teaching Effectiveness?" <u>Phi Delta Kappan</u> 66, 2(October 1984): 88.

[2]Richard Garguito and Fred L. Pigge, "Perceived Teacher Competencies: Need and Development," <u>Action in Teacher Education</u> 2, 1(Winter 1979-80): 5-15.

[3]B. O. Smith, "Research Bases for Teacher Education," <u>Phi Delta Kappan</u> 66, 10(June 1985): 690.

[4]Ibid., pp. 686-690.

[5]Virginia Koehler, "Research on Preservice Teacher Education," <u>Journal of Teacher Education</u> 36, 1(January-February 1985): 23.

[6]Ibid., pp. 23-30; Walter Doyle, "Learning to Teach: An Emerging Direction in Research on Preservice Teacher Education," <u>Journal of Teacher Education</u> 36, 1(January-February 1985): 31-35.

[7]Donald M. Medley, "The Effectiveness of Teachers," in <u>Research on Teaching: Concepts, Findings, and Implications</u>, ed. Penelope L. Peterson and Herbert J. Walberg (Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1979), p. 11.

[8]Ibid.

[9]W. W. Charters and Douglas Waples, <u>The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study</u> (Chicago, Illinois: University of Chicago Press, 1929), p. 18; M. Donald Thomas, <u>Performance Evaluation of Educational Personnel</u> (Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappan Education Foundation, 1979), p. 11.

[10]Donald M. Medley, <u>Research on Teaching: Concepts, Findings, and Implications</u>, p. 13.

[11]David G. Ryans, "Research on Teacher Behavior in the Context of the Teacher Characteristics Study," in <u>Contemporary Research on Teacher Effectiveness</u>, eds. Bruce J. Biddle and William J. Ellena (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1964), pp. 67-101.

[12]Ibid., p. 71.

[13]Ibid., pp. 80-99.

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CHAPTER III. METHOD

Purposes of the Study

Based on the need for continued research into the use of observation as a tool in the evaluation of student teachers and the expressed statements regarding teaching competencies, the present study states that student teachers who view and analyze Teacher Assessment Modules (TAMs) during their student teaching terms will receive higher ratings on an observation instrument than students who do not view the tapes.

The purposes of the present study include the following: (1) to investigate the ability of an observation instrument to detect mean differences in performance ratings of student teachers utilizing observation of actual classroom performance; (2) to discover the types of revisions that need to be made in the instrument if it is to be used again in evaluation; and (3) to investigate the effects of the Teacher Assessment Modules (TAMs) on student teacher performance ratings.

Research questions

General questions are listed that have been deduced for testing in the present study.

1. Does viewing of the Teacher Assessment Modules (TAMs) result in higher performance ratings?

2. Are there differences among ratings by supervising teachers, cooperating teachers, and self-ratings by student teachers?

3. Do differences exist between ratings of elementary and secondary student teachers?

4. Do differences in ratings exist between male and female student teachers?

5. Do ratings differ between Time 1 observation and Time 2 observation for supervising teachers, cooperating teachers, and self-rating of student teachers?

6. Do differences in ratings exist for each of the 12 competency areas?

7. Do correlations exist among competencies between Time 1 and Time 2 observations?

Scope and limitations of the study

1. The study is limited to teacher education students at Iowa State University during the second semester of 1984-85.

2. The ability to generalize results of the study is dependent upon the degree to which the sample is representative of the teacher education student population at Iowa State University.

3. The results of the study can only be applied to teacher education students enrolled at Iowa State and cannot be generalized to teacher education students enrolled in other institutions.

4. All participants in the study were volunteers. Those who chose to participate did so by signing an informed consent.

5. Students who withdrew from school or were in terms overseas did not participate.

6. Students, cooperating teachers, and supervising teachers who had agreed to participate but did not return the observation sheets were not included in the study.

7. It is anticipated that mean scores may be high in this research
    study. Although students received separate introductory letters
    explaining their roles in the study, the Hawthorne effect may
    have influenced the mean scores for both groups.

Experimental Design

Description of sample

The population of interest to this study is the group of
undergraduate student teachers who completed their student teaching
experiences spring semester 1984-85. Student teaching was conducted in
elementary and secondary schools throughout Iowa. The sample of this
study consisted of student teachers, cooperating teachers, and university
supervisors who volunteered to participate in the project.

Sampling technique

A list of all elementary and secondary student teachers for the
spring semester of 1984-85 was provided. Each person was alphabetically
assigned a number from 1-155. Then students assigned odd numbers were
placed in the experimental group (those students viewing Teacher
Assessment Modules (TAMs)). Those students assigned even numbers were
placed in the control group (those students who did not view the tapes).

Cooperating teachers and supervising teachers were not notified which
students were placed in either the experimental or control groups.

Description of instrument

An evaluation instrument had initially been developed for use with
the viewing and analysis of the Teacher Assessment Module Tapes (TAMs).

The instrument was reviewed by 28 cooperating and supervising teachers, who suggested revisions. The instrument was then refined based on information obtained from these teachers and from a literature review which investigated the development of evaluation instruments already in use.

The final observation rating scale consists of 12 items identified as competencies which are stressed in the performance elements of Iowa State's Project PRO*FILE. These items are evaluated on a 5-point scale. The cooperating teacher and the supervising teacher were asked to observe the student teacher using the observation rating scale. All student teachers were asked to use the same rating scale for self-evaluation and discussion of the same observation periods.

Comment sections were provided under the descriptions of each of the 12 items for additional clarifying remarks. The final five items on the rating scale asked the participants to provide needed background information concerning first or second observations, level of teaching, who did the observation, and sex of the student teacher participant.

Description of experimental treatment

Students assigned to the experimental group, those viewing the Teacher Assessment Modules (TAMs), were asked to view two tapes appropriate to their subject/grade level of teaching at the beginning of the student teaching term. All tapes were located in N61 Quad in the Education homework lab. Students were then asked to view two additional tapes of their choice in the second half of the student teaching term, depending upon which competencies they wanted to view.

An instruction sheet describing the preview tapes was provided for them in each mailing. The module tape sheet was to be mailed back with the rating sheets once completed.

Procedures of the study

During the fall semester of the 1984-85 school year, Iowa State University supervising teachers were interviewed regarding the project. Suggestions and samples of evaluation instruments already in use by each of the departments were obtained. After the instrument had been refined, supervisors were again interviewed and clarification of the descriptions of the 12 competencies was given regarding observations.

At the beginning of the second semester, three separate letters were sent to cooperating and supervising teachers, students in the experimental group, and students in the control group, explaining the details of the project and outlining procedures. An instruction sheet and informed consent card were also enclosed. Examples of all correspondence can be found in the appendices.

The second mailing took place near the end of the student teaching term, and again instructions were given regarding observation strategies and directions.

Data collection

Data were collected after two observation periods, one at the beginning of the student teaching term and one at the final observation of the student. Although participants were instructed to send in their observation forms immediately after each observation period to ensure

independent ratings, it cannot be guaranteed that individual instruments were not copied and retained. The participants in each of the triads were encouraged to share their ratings in order to help the student teacher to help improve and refine teaching skills.

Stamped envelopes were provided to each of the participants at each mailing to send the data back to the investigator for analysis.

Participants who had agreed to join in the study were reminded to send in their performance ratings at the end of the term.

Assumptions for the study

For the purposes of this study, the following assumptions are made:

1. Students in the experimental group will receive higher ratings on the observation instrument than students in the control group.

2. Participants will follow the prescribed instructions concerning the procedures of the study.

3. It will be possible to separate the two groups of students by performance rating differences.

4. Participants will arrange to observe the same teaching segment, as instructed in the study procedures.

Method of analysis

Data collected in mailings, both at the beginning and at the end of the student teaching terms were keypunched on IBM computer cards. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSSx) was used to analyze the data.[3] Results were analyzed with both descriptive and inferential statistics. Chapter IV presents the results and a discussion of findings.

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CHAPTER IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter opens with a description of the characteristics of the sample. The next section discusses findings relative to each research question. Finally, the last section presents a description of additional research findings.

Characteristics of the Sample

A total of 179 students were enrolled in a student teaching practicum in either elementary or secondary education during spring semester 1985. All students except those overseas or in out-of-state programs were given the opportunity to participate in the study. The final count represented 156 elementary and secondary education students who were given the chance to become involved in this particular research project. Fifteen university supervisors and 156 cooperating teachers were contacted and asked to participate in the study along with their student teachers. A total of 80 triads (student teacher, cooperating teacher, and university supervisor) agreed to take part in the final study during the spring semester. This number represents 51 percent of the total population contacted.

Tables 1-3 describe the sample in terms of elementary and secondary classification, sex, and students in both experimental and control groups (experimental group viewed tapes, control group did not).

Students in the experimental group were instructed to view two teaching tapes at the beginning of the student teaching term. Later on in the term, they were to view two additional tapes of interest to their

Table 1. Percentages of elementary and secondary education students

Classification	Frequency	Percent	Standard deviation
Elementary	43	53.7	
Secondary	37	46.2	.502

Table 2. Percentages of male and female students

Classification	Frequency	Percent	Standard deviation
Male	28	35.0	
Female	52	65.0	.480

Table 3. Percentages of experimental and control groups

Classification	Frequency	Percent	Standard deviation
Experimental group (viewed tapes)	40	50.0	
Control group (no tapes)	40	50.0	.503

particular teaching assignments. (See Appendix C.) Students in the control group did not have access to the teaching tapes during the term.

Research Questions

This section presents the results of the analysis. The data were analyzed to answer six research questions. Each question is designed to reveal existing relationships and differences among the selected research variables.

A series of T-tests were used to indicate significant differences between means of observation times and classifications of students. Tables 4 through 9 explore the various differences between ratings of the experimental and control groups by the three separate rating groups in both the first and second observations.

Tables 10-15 report differences in ratings of elementary versus secondary student teachers as reported by the three different rating groups (self, cooperating teacher, and supervising teacher) for both the first and second observation times. A significant level of .05 is established for the statistical tests.

Tables 16-21 report differences in ratings of male and female student teachers by the three rating groups again for both the first and second observations.

Tables 22, 23, and 24 explore the differences in Time 1 observation versus Time 2 observation as reported by student teachers, cooperating teachers, and university supervising teachers.

Analysis of variance was used to test for significance of mean differences between more than two groups. Tables 25 and 26 report

differences in ratings for the 12 observation items among the three groups of raters for both observation times.

Tables 27-32 explore differences in ratings for the 12 competency areas by areas for both Time 1 and Time 2 observation. A significance level of .05 is again established for these statistical tests.

Tables 33-35 provide a Pearson correlation matrix in which an attempt is made to show relationships among the variables in the study.

The following paragraphs discuss each research question separately.

1. Does viewing of the Teacher Assessment Modules (TAMs) result in higher performance ratings?

Students in the experimental group received higher overall ratings by all three rating groups (self-rating, cooperating teachers, and university supervisors). The data indicate in Tables 4 and 5, however, that no significant differences exist in performance ratings in either observation time period as reported by the student teachers themselves. However, students in the experimental group received higher ratings than those in the control group in 10 of the 12 competency rating areas by the second observation time. Similarly, Tables 6 and 7 indicate that students in the experimental group received higher performance ratings as reported by their cooperating teacher in both Time 1 and Time 2 observations. Table 7 reveals significant differences at the .01 level in the areas of use of resources and involvement. A significant difference at the .05 level is cited in the area of organizational skills.

Tables 8 and 9 show that the experimental group received higher performance ratings in 10 and 11 competency areas, respectively, in both

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Table 4. Tape versus non-tape ratings reported by student teachers (Time 1)

| Rating item | Tape | | Non-tape | | T |
	N	Mean	N	Mean	value
Classroom control	40	3.6000	39	3.6923	0.57
Knowledge	40	4.0000	40	3.9500	0.32
Involvement	40	3.7750	39	3.7436	0.20
Explanation	40	3.8000	40	3.7750	0.14
Efficiency	40	3.7750	39	3.7949	0.13
Verbal communication	40	3.7500	40	3.8500	0.52
Non-verbal communication	40	3.6500	40	3.8250	1.08
Organization	40	3.8500	39	3.9487	0.65
Resources	38	3.4737	38	3.7368	1.54
Poise	40	3.7250	40	3.8500	0.79
Motivation	40	3.7250	40	3.9000	1.05
Evaluation	40	3.4000	37	3.6757	1.75

Table 5. Tape versus non-tape ratings reported by student teachers (Time 2)

| Rating item | Tape | | Non-tape | | T |
	N	Mean	N	Mean	value
Classroom control	40	3.9500	40	3.9000	0.36
Knowledge	40	4.3000	40	4.3250	0.17
Involvement	40	4.2750	40	3.9750	1.60
Explanation	40	4.1500	40	3.8500	1.74
Efficiency	40	4.2750	40	4.0500	1.44
Verbal communication	40	4.2500	40	4.1750	0.47
Non-verbal communication	40	4.1500	40	4.0250	0.70
Organization	40	4.2000	40	4.0000	1.21
Resources	40	4.1000	40	4.0250	0.47
Poise	40	4.0750	40	3.9750	0.68
Motivation	40	4.0500	40	4.0500	0.00
Evaluation	40	4.0000	40	3.9000	0.68

Table 6. Tape versus non-tape ratings reported by cooperating teachers
(Time 1)

Rating item	Tape		Non-tape		T
	N	Mean	N	Mean	value
Classroom control	40	3.5250	40	3.5000	0.15
Knowledge	40	3.9250	40	3.8250	0.59
Involvement	40	3.7500	40	3.6250	0.71
Explanation	39	3.6923	40	3.7750	0.48
Efficiency	39	3.7436	39	3.6923	0.31
Verbal communication	40	3.6750	40	3.8000	0.72
Non-verbal communication	40	3.7000	40	3.6000	0.56
Organization	39	3.9487	40	3.7500	1.06
Resources	40	3.7000	39	3.5897	0.61
Poise	40	3.8000	40	3.9250	0.73
Motivation	40	3.7750	40	3.7500	0.16
Evaluation	39	3.5385	38	3.3947	0.82

Table 7. Tape versus non-tape ratings reported by cooperating teachers
(Time 2)

Rating item	Tape		Non-tape		T
	N	Mean	N	Mean	value
Classroom control	40	3.8500	40	3.7500	0.69
Knowledge	40	4.3000	40	4.0250	1.88
Involvement	40	4.2250	40	3.7750	2.96**
Explanation	40	4.1750	40	3.9500	1.38
Efficiency	40	4.0750	40	3.9500	0.76
Verbal communication	40	4.0000	40	4.0500	0.33
Non-verbal communication	40	4.1250	40	3.9250	1.42
Organization	39	4.3846	40	3.9500	2.64*
Resources	40	4.4000	39	3.8205	3.91**
Poise	40	4.2500	40	3.9750	1.63
Motivation	40	4.0500	40	3.8250	1.49
Evaluation	39	3.9744	37	3.6216	1.96

*Significant difference at .05 level.

**Significant difference at .01 level.

Table 8. Tape versus non-tape ratings reported by university supervising teachers (Time 1)

| Rating item | Tape | | Non-tape | | T |
	N	Mean	N	Mean	value
Classroom control	40	3.8250	40	3.6000	1.26
Knowledge	40	4.0000	40	3.9500	0.34
Involvement	34	3.7647	38	3.6316	0.74
Explanation	40	3.9500	40	3.7750	1.01
Efficiency	40	4.0500	40	3.8750	1.15
Verbal communication	40	3.9250	40	3.9000	0.13
Non-verbal communication	39	3.8205	40	3.7500	0.41
Organization	40	4.1000	39	3.8718	1.31
Resources	32	3.5625	26	3.5385	0.10
Poise	39	3.9744	40	4.0750	0.56
Motivation	32	3.8438	37	3.7568	0.47
Evaluation	34	3.4412	29	3.4828	0.28

Table 9. Tape versus non-tape ratings reported by university supervising teachers (Time 2)

| Rating item | Tape | | Non-tape | | T |
	N	Mean	N	Mean	value
Classroom control	40	4.1000	40	3.7500	2.16*
Knowledge	40	4.3000	40	4.1000	1.49
Involvement	39	4.0769	40	3.9750	0.65
Explanation	40	4.2000	40	3.9500	1.56
Efficiency	40	4.3500	40	4.0250	2.27*
Verbal communication	40	ı4.1500	40	4.0750	0.44
Non-verbal communication	39	4.1026	40	3.9000	1.17
Organization	40	4.4000	40	4.1250	1.60
Resources	37	4.1081	32	3.6250	2.56*
Poise	39	4.3846	40	4.1000	1.53
Motivation	35	4.0000	37	3.8649	0.80
Evaluation	36	3.8056	35	3.8571	0.28

*Significant difference at .05 level.

observations as reported by their university supervising teachers. Differences at the .05 level were noted in the second observation time for three rating areas: classroom control, efficiency, and use of resources.

2. Do differences exist between ratings of elementary and secondary student teachers?

The data indicate that elementary student teachers receive higher performance ratings by all three rating groups. Tables 10 and 11 report on ratings by the students themselves. Table 10 indicates higher ratings in 11 of 12 competency areas with significant differences occurring at the .05 and .01 levels in the areas of classroom control, knowledge of subject matter, explanations, efficiency, and use of resources. Table 11, which reports on the second observation time, shows significant differences at both significance levels in 10 areas and an increase in ratings in all 12 areas.

In addition, Tables 12 and 13 cite higher ratings for the elementary group as reported by their cooperating teachers. Differences at the .01 level were found for both observation times in the area of classroom control and at the .05 level in the area of motivation.

Finally, Tables 14 and 15 show higher performance ratings for elementary student teachers as reported by university supervising teachers in 11 of 12 competency areas for both observations. A significant difference at the .05 level was again found in the area of classroom control and at the .05 level in verbal communication, use of resources and motivation.

Table 10. Elementary versus secondary ratings reported by student
teachers (Time 1)[a]

Rating item	Elementary		Secondary		T value
	N	Mean	N	Mean	
Classroom control	43	3.8837	36	3.3611	3.44**
Knowledge	43	4.1163	37	3.8108	2.00*
Involvement	42	3.8810	37	3.6216	1.66
Explanation	43	3.9535	37	3.5946	2.07*
Efficiency	43	3.9302	36	3.6111	2.08*
Verbal communication	43	3.8837	37	3.7027	0.95
Non-verbal communication	43	3.7209	37	3.7568	0.22
Organization	43	3.9535	36	3.8333	0.79
Resources	42	3.8095	34	3.3529	2.75**
Poise	43	3.8605	37	3.7027	1.00
Motivation	43	3.9302	37	3.6757	1.53
Evaluation	43	3.6047	34	3.4412	1.02

[a]Rating scale for competency: Excellent=5, above average=4,
average=3, below average=2, unsatisfactory=1, not observed=X.

*Significant difference at .05 level.

**Significant difference at .01 level.

Table 11. Elementary versus secondary ratings reported by student teachers (Time 2)

Rating item	Elementary		Secondary		T value
	N	Mean	N	Mean	
Classroom control	43	4.0698	37	3.7568	2.35*
Knowledge	43	4.5349	37	4.0541	3.42**
Involvement	43	4.3953	37	3.8108	3.26**
Explanation	43	4.2326	37	3.7297	3.02**
Efficiency	43	4.3488	37	3.9459	2.66*
Verbal communication	43	4.3256	37	4.0811	1.56
Non-verbal communication	43	4.3023	37	3.8378	2.69**
Organization	43	4.3023	37	3.8649	2.75**
Resources	43	4.3023	37	3.7838	3.44**
Poise	43	4.1395	37	3.8919	1.70
Motivation	43	4.2558	37	3.8108	2.59*
Evaluation	43	4.1628	37	3.7027	3.33**

*Significant difference at .05 level.

**Significant difference at .01 level.

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Table 12. Elementary versus secondary ratings reported by cooperating
teachers (Time 1)

Rating item	Elementary		Secondary		T value
	N	Mean	N	Mean	
Classroom control	43	3.7209	37	3.2703	2.74**
Knowledge	43	3.9535	37	3.7838	1.01
Involvement	43	3.7209	37	3.6486	0.41
Explanation	43	3.8140	36	3.6389	1.02
Efficiency	43	3.7674	35	3.6571	0.67
Verbal communication	43	3.8605	37	3.5946	1.54
Non-verbal communication	43	3.7209	37	3.5676	0.86
Organization	42	3.9762	37	3.7027	1.47
Resources	43	3.7442	36	3.5278	1.20
Poise	43	3.9070	37	3.8108	0.56
Motivation	43	3.9070	37	3.5946	2.09*
Evaluation	42	3.5000	35	3.4286	0.40

*Significant difference at .05 level.

**Significant difference at .01 level.

Table 13. Elementary versus secondary ratings reported by cooperating teachers (Time 2)

Rating item	Elementary		Secondary		T value
	N	Mean	N	Mean	
Classroom control	43	3.9767	37	3.5946	2.75**
Knowledge	43	4.2093	37	4.1081	0.68
Involvement	43	4.0233	37	3.9730	0.31
Explanation	43	4.2093	37	3.8919	1.96
Efficiency	43	4.0930	37	3.9189	1.05
Verbal communication	43	4.1163	37	3.9189	1.31
Non-verbal communication	43	4.1163	37	3.9189	1.39
Organization	42	4.1905	37	4.1351	0.32
Resources	43	4.1628	36	4.0556	0.66
Poise	43	4.0930	37	4.1351	0.24
Motivation	43	4.0930	37	3.7568	2.26*
Evaluation	40	3.9000	36	3.6944	1.12

*Significant difference at .05 level.

**Significant difference at .01 level.

Table 14. Elementary versus secondary ratings reported by university supervising teachers (Time 1)

Rating item	Elementary		Secondary		T value
	N	Mean	N	Mean	
Classroom control	43	3.9767	37	3.4054	3.40**
Knowledge	43	3.9302	37	4.0270	0.66
Involvement	39	3.7692	33	3.6061	0.90
Explanation	43	4.0000	37	3.7027	1.73
Efficiency	43	4.0465	37	3.8649	1.19
Verbal communication	43	4.1163	37	3.6757	2.31*
Non-verbal communication	43	3.8140	36	3.7500	0.37
Organization	43	4.0698	36	3.8889	1.03
Resources	34	3.7647	24	3.2500	2.27*
Poise	43	4.1395	36	3.8889	1.39
Motivation	37	4.0000	32	3.5625	2.48*
Evaluation	32	3.5938	31	3.3226	1.86

*Significant difference at .05 level.

**Significant difference at .01 level.

Table 15. Elementary versus secondary ratings reported by university
supervising teachers (Time 2)

Rating item	Elementary		Secondary		T value
	N	Mean	N	Mean	
Classroom control	43	4.0233	37	3.8108	1.28
Knowledge	43	4.2326	37	4.1622	0.52
Involvement	43	4.0465	36	4.0000	0.29
Explanation	43	4.1395	37	4.0000	0.86
Efficiency	43	4.2558	37	4.1081	1.00
Verbal communication	43	4.1628	37	4.0541	0.63
Non-verbal communication	43	4.0698	36	3.9167	0.88
Organization	43	4.3953	37	4.1081	1.67
Resources	41	3.9268	28	3.8214	0.53
Poise	43	4.3256	36	4.1389	0.99
Motivation	37	4.0000	35	3.8571	0.84
Evaluation	38	3.8947	33	3.7576	0.74

3. Do differences in ratings exist between male and female student
   teachers?

The data indicate that no significant differences at either level
exist in the performances of male and female student teachers as reported
by the three separate rating groups. However, male student teachers rated
themselves higher in 10 of 12 competency areas in Table 16, which
describes the first observation time. Interestingly enough, Table 17,
which reported ratings for the second observation time, indicates a switch
with females reporting higher ratings in nine of the 12 competency areas.
Female student teachers also reported lower ratings in the area of
classroom control and motivation in Tables 16 and 17, although the
supervising and cooperating teachers rated them higher than male student
teachers for both first and second observations.

Cooperating teachers reported higher ratings for male student
teachers in Tables 18 and 19. The first observation times cited 10 of 12
areas in which males received higher ratings. The gap narrowed by the
time of the second observation with males receiving higher performance
ratings in seven of the 12 competency areas.

Tables 20 and 21 show evidence that university supervising teachers
reported higher ratings for female student teachers in eight of the 12
competency areas for each observation time.

4. Do differences in ratings exist between Time 1 observation and
   Time 2 observation for the three rating groups (student teachers,
   cooperating teachers, and university supervising teachers)?

Table 16. Male versus female ratings reported by student teachers (Time 1)

Rating item	Male		Female		T value
	N	Mean	N	Mean	
Classroom control	28	3.7500	51	3.5882	0.96
Knowledge	28	4.0714	52	3.9231	0.91
Involvement	28	3.8571	51	3.7059	0.92
Explanation	28	3.8214	52	3.7692	0.28
Efficiency	28	3.7857	51	3.7843	0.01
Verbal communication	28	3.7857	52	3.8011	0.11
Non-verbal communication	28	3.8214	52	3.6923	0.76
Organization	28	3.9286	51	3.8824	0.29
Resources	27	3.7037	49	3.5510	0.85
Poise	28	3.8929	52	3.7308	0.98
Motivation	28	3.7143	52	3.8654	0.86
Evaluation	26	3.6923	51	3.4510	1.44

Table 17. Male versus female ratings reported by student teachers (Time 2)

Rating item	Male		Female		T value
	N	Mean	N	Mean	
Classroom control	28	4.0357	52	3.8654	1.19
Knowledge	28	4.2857	52	4.3269	0.26
Involvement	28	3.9643	52	4.2115	1.25
Explanation	28	3.9643	52	4.0192	0.30
Efficiency	28	4.0714	52	4.2115	0.85
Verbal communication	28	4.1429	52	4.2500	0.64
Non-verbal communication	28	3.8929	52	4.1923	1.62
Organization	28	4.1071	52	4.0962	0.06
Resources	28	3.9286	52	4.1346	1.23
Poise	28	4.0714	52	4.0000	0.46
Motivation	28	3.8929	52	4.1346	1.30
Evaluation	28	3.9286	52	3.9615	0.21

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Table 18. Male versus female ratings reported by cooperating teachers
            (Time 1)

Rating item	Male N	Male Mean	Female N	Female Mean	T value
Classroom control	28	3.5000	52	3.5192	0.11
Knowledge	28	3.9286	52	3.8462	0.46
Involvement	28	3.7500	52	3.6538	0.52
Explanation	28	3.9286	51	3.6275	1.70
Efficiency	28	3.7857	50	3.6800	0.62
Verbal communication	28	3.9286	52	3.6346	1.63
Non-verbal communication	28	3.7500	52	3.5962	0.82
Organization	28	3.8929	51	3.8235	0.35
Resources	28	3.7500	51	3.5882	0.86
Poise	28	4.0000	52	3.7885	1.19
Motivation	28	3.7500	52	3.7692	0.12
Evaluation	28	3.5185	52	3.4400	0.42

Table 19. Male versus female ratings reported by cooperating teachers
            (Time 2)

Rating item	Male N	Male Mean	Female N	Female Mean	T value
Classroom control	28	3.7857	52	3.8077	0.14
Knowledge	28	4.2143	52	4.1346	0.51
Involvement	28	4.0714	52	3.9615	0.66
Explanation	28	4.0714	52	4.0577	0.08
Efficiency	28	3.9286	52	4.0577	0.74
Verbal communication	28	4.1071	52	3.9808	0.80
Non-verbal communication	28	3.9286	52	4.0769	1.00
Organization	28	4.3214	51	4.0784	1.37
Resources	27	4.1852	52	4.0769	0.64
Poise	28	4.2857	52	4.0192	1.50
Motivation	28	3.8214	52	4.0000	1.12
Evaluation	28	3.7500	48	3.8333	0.44

Table 20. Male versus female ratings reported by university supervising
           teachers (Time 1)

Rating item	Male N	Male Mean	Female N	Female Mean	T value
Classroom control	28	3.6429	52	3.7500	0.57
Knowledge	28	4.0000	52	3.9615	0.25
Involvement	26	3.4615	46	3.8261	1.99
Explanation	28	3.7857	52	3.9038	0.65
Efficiency	28	3.9643	52	3.9615	0.02
Verbal communication	28	3.8214	52	3.9615	0.68
Non-verbal communication	27	3.7407	52	3.8077	0.37
Organization	27	4.0741	52	3.9423	0.71
Resources	22	3.5909	36	3.5278	0.26
Poise	27	3.9630	52	4.0577	0.50
Motivation	25	3.6400	44	3.8864	1.30
Evaluation.	23	3.3478	40	3.5250	1.15

Table 21. Male versus female ratings reported by university supervising
           teachers (Time 2)

Rating item	Male N	Male Mean	Female N	Female Mean	T value
Classroom control	28	3.8571	52	3.9615	0.60
Knowledge	28	4.1786	52	4.2115	0.23
Involvement	28	4.0357	51	4.0196	0.10
Explanation	28	4.0357	52	4.0962	0.35
Efficiency	28	4.1786	52	4.1923	0.09
Verbal communication	28	4.1786	52	4.0769	0.57
Non-verbal communication	28	3.9286	51	4.0392	0.61
Organization	28	4.2143	52	4.2885	0.41
Resources	24	3.8333	45	3.9111	0.38
Poise	27	4.2963	52	4.2115	0.43
Motivation	25	3.8400	47	3.9787	0.78
Evaluation	25	3.8400	46	3.8261	0.07

, The data clearly indicate significant differences where $t \geq 1.96$ in all 12 competency rating areas between the two observation times (one at the beginning of the term and one at the end of the term). This is shown in Tables 22 and 23, which report for student teachers and cooperating teachers. Table 24 suggests significant increases in ratings for the two observation times in 11 of 12 areas. The rating area, motivation, showed an increase, but did not show the same significance level as the others.

5. Are there differences among ratings by supervising teachers, cooperating teachers, and self-ratings by student teachers?

The data indicate a significant difference at the .05 level in just one competency area by the raters. This area was classroom control shown with an F value of 3.4543. All other competency areas show no statistical significance among the three groups. Tables 25 and 26 illustrate whether the means of the population groups are different for both Time 1 and Time 2 observations. One competency area, efficiency, received an F value of 3.0069, but was not high enough to be significant at the .05 level.

6. Do differences in ratings exist for each of the 12 competency areas?

Tables 27-32 show that significant differences at the .01 level exist among the 12 competency areas themselves for both Time 1 and Time 2 observations. The F value for the mean differences in the groups showed an increase from Time 1 to Time 2 observation.

7. Do significant correlations exist among competencies between Time 1 and Time 2 observations?

Table 22. Time 1 observation versus Time 2 observation reported by
student teachers

Rating item	Time 1 $\bar{x}$	Time 2 $\bar{x}$	Standard deviation	T value
Classroom control	3.6456	3.9367	0.581	4.46*
Knowledge	3.9750	4.3125	0.711	4.25*
Involvement	3.7595	4.1266	0.719	4.54*
Explanation	3.7875	4.0000	0.610	3.12*
Efficiency	3.7848	4.1646	0.647	5.22*
Verbal communication	3.8000	4.2125	0.741	4.98*
Non-verbal communication	3.7375	4.0875	0.748	4.19*
Organization	3.8987	4.1139	0.673	2.84*
Resources	3.6053	4.1053	0.663	6.57*
Poise	3.7875	4.0250	0.716	2.97*
Motivation	3.8125	4.0500	0.641	3.31*
Evaluation	3.5325	3.9740	0.698	5.55*

*$t \geq 1.96$.

Table 23. Time 1 observation versus Time 2 observation reported by
cooperating teachers

Rating item	Time 1 $\bar{x}$	Time 2 $\bar{x}$	Standard deviation	T value
Classroom control	3.5125	3.8000	0.532	4.83*
Knowledge	3.8750	4.1625	0.679	3.79*
Involvement	3.6875	4.0000	0.773	3.62*
Explanation	3.7342	4.0633	0.693	4.22*
Efficiency	3.7179	4.0256	0.631	4.31*
Verbal communication	3.7375	4.0250	0.679	3.79*
Non-verbal communication	3.6500	4.0250	0.624	5.38*
Organization	3.8462	4.1538	0.726	3.74*
Resources	3.6410	4.1282	0.752	5.73*
Poise	3.8625	4.1125	0.606	3.69*
Motivation	3.7625	3.9375	0.632	2.48*
Evaluation	3.4459	3.7973	0.671	4.50*

*$t \geq 1.96$.

Table 24. Time 1 observation versus Time 2 observation reported by
university supervising teachers

Rating item	Time 1 $\bar{x}$	Time 2 $\bar{x}$	Standard deviation	T value
Classroom control	3.7125	3.9250	0.669	2.84*
Knowledge	3.9750	4.2000	0.551	3.66*
Involvement	3.6944	4.0000	0.705	3.68*
Explanation	3.8625	4.0750	0.610	3.12*
Efficiency	3.9625	4.1875	0.636	3.16*
Verbal communication	3.9125	4.1125	0.736	2.43*
Non-verbal communication	3.7821	4.0000	0.573	3.36*
Organization	3.9873	4.2658	0.678	3.65*
Resources	3.5517	3.8793	0.906	2.75*
Poise	4.0385	4.2308	0.646	2.63*
Motivation	3.7879	3.9394	0.685	1.80
Evaluation	3.4576	3.7797	0.655	3.78*

*$t \geq 1.96$.

Table 25. Analysis of variance for 12 observation areas as reported by three rating groups (Time 1)

(Classroom Control)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
CCS1	3.6667	.7316	72
CCC1	3.5000	.7872	72
CCT1	3.6806	.7841	72

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	95.7731	71	1.3489	
Within people	31.3333	144	.2176	
Between measures	1.4537	2	.7269	3.4543*
Residual	29.8796	142	.2104	
Total	127.1065	215	.5912	
Grand mean 3.6157				

(Knowledge)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
KS1	3.9722	.7115	72
KC1	3.8472	.7442	72
KT1	3.9583	.6594	72

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	64.8148	71	.9129	
Within people	42.0000	144	.2917	
Between measures	.6759	2	.3380	1.1613
Residual	41.3241	142	.2910	
Total	106.8148	215	.4968	
Grand mean 3.9259				

*Significant difference at the .05 level.

Table 25. Continued

(Explanation)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
EXS1	3.8056	.7986	72
EXC1	3.7361	.7871	72
EXT1	3.8333	.7691	72

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	89.6250	71	1.2623	
Within people	42.0000	144	.2917	
Between measures	.3611	2	.1806	.6157
Residual	41.6389	142	.2932	
Total	131.6250	215	.6122	
Grand mean 3.7917				

(Efficiency)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
EFS1	3.8194	.6986	72
EFC1	3.7361	.7314	72
EFT1	3.9583	.6805	72

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	62.6620	71	.8826	
Within people	44.6667	144	.3102	
Between measures	1.8148	2	.9074	3.0069
Residual	42.8519	142	.3018	
Total	107.3287	215	.4992	
Grand mean 3.8380				

Table 25. Continued

(Verbal Communication)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
VCS1	3.8056	.8498	72
VCC1	3.7500	.8005	72
VCT1	3.8750	.8711	72

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	99.8843	71	1.4068	
Within people	51.3333	144	.3565	
Between measures	.5648	2	.2824	.7899
Residual	50.7685	142	.3575	
Total	151.2176	215	.7033	
Grand mean	3.8102			

(Non-Verbal Communication)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
NVCS1	3.7222	.7547	72
NVCC1	3.6389	.8102	72
NVCT1	3.7361	.7690	72

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	88.7731	71	1.2503	
Within people	40.6667	144	.2824	
Between measures	.3981	2	.1991	.7020
Residual	40.2685	142	.2836	
Total	129.4398	215	.6020	
Grand mean	3.6991			

Table 25. Continued

(Organization)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
OS1	3.9028	.6747	72
OC1	3.8472	.8335	72
OT1	3.9583	.7771	72

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	76.2917	71	1.0745	
Within people	48.6667	144	.3380	
Between measures	.4444	2	.2222	.6544
Residual	48.2222	142	.3396	
Total	124.9583	215	.5812	
Grand mean	3.9028			

(Poise)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
PS1	3.8333	.7121	72
PC1	3.8472	.7811	72
PT1	3.9722	.8044	72

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	78.1065	71	1.1001	
Within people	48.0000	144	.3333	
Between measures	.8426	2	.4213	1.2686
Residual	47.1574	142	.3321	
Total	126.1065	215	.5865	
Grand mean	3.8843			

Table 25. Continued

(Involvement)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
IS1	3.7465	.6911	71
IC1	3.6620	.8097	71
IT1	3.7042	.7633	71

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	75.6995	70	1.0814	
Within people	44.6667	142	.3146	
Between measures	.2573	2	.1268	.3996
Residual	44.4131	140	.3172	
Total	120.3662	212	.5678	
Grand mean	3.7042			

(Resources)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
RS1	3.6852	.7223	54
RC1	3.8148	.7788	54
RT1	3.5926	.9011	54

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	66.8457	53	1.2612	
Within people	37.3333	108	.3457	
Between measures	1.3457	2	.6728	1.9818
Residual	35.9877	106	.3395	
Total	104.1790	161	.6471	
Grand mean	3.6975			

Table 25. Continued

(Motivation)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
MS1	3.8551	.7722	69
MC1	3.8116	.6919	69
MT1	3.7971	.7589	69

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	71.7198	68	1.0547	
Within people	40.6667	138	.2947	
Between measures	.1256	2	.0628	.2107
Residual	40.5411	136	.2981	
Total	112.3865	206	.5456	
Grand mean	3.8213			

(Evaluation)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
EVS1	3.5345	.7063	58
EVC1	3.5690	.7519	58
EVT1	3.4828	.5995	58

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	48.6897	57	.8542	
Within people	32.6667	116	.2816	
Between measures	.2184	2	.1092	.3836
Residual	32.4483	114	.2846	
Total	81.3563	173	.4703	
Grand mean	3.5287			

Table 26. Analysis of variance for 12 observation areas as reported by three rating groups (Time 2)

(Classroom Control)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
CCS2	3.9221	.6234	77
CCC2	3.7922	.6557	77
CCT2	3.9091	.7466	77

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	61.3593	76	.8074	
Within people	44.0000	154	.2857	
Between measures	.7879	2	.3939	1.3857
Residual	43.2121	152	.2843	
Total	105.3593	230	.4581	
Grand mean	3.8745			

(Knowledge)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
KS2	4.3247	.6775	77
KC2	4.1688	.6767	77
KT2	4.2078	.5924	77

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	53.3766	76	.7023	
Within people	44.0000	154	.2857	
Between measures	1.0130	2	.5065	1.7909
Residual	42.9870	152	.2828	
Total	97.3766	230	.4234	
Grand mean	4.2338			

Table 26. Continued

(Explanation)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
EXS2	3.9870	.7863	77
EXC2	4.0649	.7493	77
EXT2	4.0649	.7316	77

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	75.3160	76	.9910	
Within people	55.3333	154	.3593	
Between measures	.3117	2	.1558	.4305
Residual	55.0216	152	.3620	
Total	130.6494	230	.5680	
Grand mean	4.0390			

(Efficiency)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
EFS2	4.1429	.7018	77
EFC2	4.0260	.7429	77
EFT2	4.1818	.6635	77

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	49.1775	76	.6471	
Within people	64.6667	154	.4199	
Between measures	1.0130	2	.5065	1.2095
Residual	63.6537	152	.4188	
Total	113.8442	230	.4950	
Grand mean	4.1169			

Table 26. Continued

(Verbal Communication)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
VCS2	4.2078	.7134	77
VCC2	4.0390	.6775	77
VCT2	4.1169	.7604	77

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	67.2727	76	.8852	
Within people	51.3333	154	.3333	
Between measures	1.0996	2	.5498	1.6636
Residual	50.2338	152	.3305	
Total	118.6061	230	.5157	
Grand mean	4.1212			

(Non-Verbal Communication)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
NVCS2	4.0779	.8073	77
NVCC2	4.0390	.6375	77
NVCT2	4.0130	.7694	77

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	76.2338	76	1.0031	
Within people	49.3333	154	.3203	
Between measures	.1645	2	.0823	.2543
Residual	49.1688	152	.3235	
Total	125.5671	230	.5459	
Grand mean	4.0433			

Table 26. Continued

(Organization)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
OS2	4.1039	.7537	77
OC2	4.1688	.7678	77
OT2	4.2597	.7848	77

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	79.0563	76	1.0402	
Within people	56.6667	154	.3680	
Between measures	.9437	2	.4719	1.2871
Residual	55.7229	152	.3666	
Total	135.7229	230	.5901	
Grand mean 4.1775				

(Poise)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
PS2	4.0130	.6588	77
PC2	4.1299	.7669	77
PT2	4.2338	.8413	77

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	75.3593	76	.9916	
Within people	58.0000	154	.3766	
Between measures	1.8788	2	.9394	2.5443
Residual	56.1212	152	.3692	
Total	133.3593	230	.5798	
Grand mean 4.1255				

Table 26. Continued

(Involvement)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
IS2	4.1266	.8529	79
IC2	4.0000	.7161	79
IT2	4.0253	.6975	79

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	71.3924	78	.9153	
Within people	64.0000	158	.4051	
Between measures	.7089	2	.3544	.8736
Residual	63.2911	156	.4057	
Total	135.3924	236	.5737	

Grand mean   4.0506

(Resources)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
RS2	4.0735	.7190	68
RC2	4.1471	.7179	68
RT2	3.8971	.8129	68

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	48.3529	67	.7217	
Within people	67.3333	136	.4951	
Between measures	2.2451	2	1.1225	2.3110
Residual	65.0882	134	.4857	
Total	115.6863	203	.5699	

Grand mean   4.0392

Table 26. Continued

(Motivation)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
MS2	4.0833	.8179	72
MC2	3.9583	.6805	72
MT2	3.9306	.7185	72

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	63.3148	71	.8918	
Within people	54.6667	144	.3796	
Between measures	.9537	2	.4769	1.2606
Residual	53.7130	142	.3783	
Total	117.9815	215	.5488	
Grand mean	3.9907			

(Evaluation)

Raters	Mean	S.D.	Cases
EVS2	3.9403	.6715	67
EVC2	3.8657	.7567	67
EVT2	3.8060	.7635	67

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	50.6368	66	.7672	
Within people	56.0000	134	.4179	
Between measures	.6070	2	.3035	.7232
Residual	55.3930	132	.4196	
Total	106.6368	200	.5332	
Grand mean	3.8706			

Table 27. Analysis of variance in ratings for 12 observation areas by areas for student teachers (Time 1)

Competency areas	Mean	S.D.	Cases
CCS1	3.6712	.7275	73
KS1	4.0137	.6971	73
IS1	3.7945	.7063	73
EXS1	3.7808	.8036	73
EFS1	3.8082	.7003	73
VCS1	3.7945	.8492	73
NVCS1	3.7397	.7459	73
OS1	3.9178	.6822	73
RS1	3.6301	.7547	73
PS1	3.8082	.7199	73
MS1	3.8493	.7578	73
EVS1	3.5342	.7087	73

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	239.0365	72	3.3200	
Within people	246.0000	803	.3064	
Between measures	12.8995	11	1.1727	3.9844*
Residual	233.1005	792	.2943	
Total	485.0365	875	.5543	
Grand mean	3.7785			

*Significant difference at the .01 level.

Table 28. Analysis of variance in ratings for 8 observation areas by
areas for cooperating teachers (Time 1)[a]

Competency areas	Mean	S.D.	Cases
CCC1	3.5263	.7741	76
KC1	3.8816	.7477	76
EXC1	3.7500	.7681	76
EFC1	3.7237	.7229	76
VCC1	3.7368	.7894	76
NVCC1	3.6447	.8116	76
OC1	3.8553	.8279	76
PC1	3.8684	.7719	76

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	195.1234	75	2.6016	
Within people	175.3750	532	.3297	
Between measures	7.9326	7	1.1332	3.5531*
Residual	167.4424	525	.3189	
Total	370.4984	607	.6104	
Grand mean	3.7484			

[a]Twelve observation areas were changed to 8 because of missing values.

*Significant difference at the .01 level.

Table 29. Analysis of variance in ratings for 8 observation areas by
areas for supervising teachers (Time 1)[a]

Competency areas	Mean	S.D.	Cases
CCT1	3.7013	.7958	77
KT1	3.9740	.6484	77
EXT1	3.8571	.7731	77
EFT1	3.9610	.6775	77
VCT1	3.9091	.8763	77
NVCT1	3.7792	.7716	77
OT1	3.9740	.7775	77
PT1	4.0130	.8028	77

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	186.3506	76	2.4520	
Within people	179.0000	539	.3321	
Between measures	6.4156	7	.9165	2.8252*
Residual	172.5844	532	.3244	
Total	365.3506	615	.5941	
Grand mean	3.8961			

[a]Twelve observation areas were changed to 8 because of missing values.

*Significant difference at the .01 level.

Table 30. Analysis of variance in ratings for 12 observation areas by areas for student teachers (Time 2)

Competency areas	Mean	S.D.	Cases
CCS2	3.9250	.6116	80
KS2	4.3125	.6674	80
IS2	4.1250	.8476	80
EXS2	4.0000	.7795	80
EFS2	4.1625	.7016	80
VCS2	4.2125	.7061	80
NVCS2	4.0875	.7986	80
OS2	4.1000	.7395	80
RS2	4.0625	.7177	80
PS2	4.0250	.6556	80
MS2	4.0500	.7940	80
EVS2	3.9500	.6541	80

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	286.2490	79	3.6234	
Within people	223.9167	880	.2545	
Between measures	10.5781	11	.9616	3.9171*
Residual	213.3385	869	.2455	
Total	510.1656	959	.5320	
Grand mean	4.0844			

*Significant difference at the .01 level.

Table 31. Analysis of variance in ratings for 8 observation areas by
areas for cooperating teachers (Time 2)[a]

Competency areas	Mean	S.D.	Cases
CCC2	3.7975	.6481	79
KC2	4.1646	.6685	79
EXC2	4.0633	.7397	79
EFC2	4.0127	.7424	79
VCC2	4.0253	.6789	79
NVCC2	4.0253	.6400	79
OC2	4.1646	.7584	79
PC2	4.1266	.7573	79

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	175.0759	78	2.2446	
Within people	143.5000	553	.2595	
Between measures	7.7911	7	1.1130	4.4780*
Residual	135.7089	546	.2486	
Total	318.5759	631	.5049	
Grand mean 4.0475				

[a]Twelve observation areas were changed to 8 because of missing
values.

*Significant difference at the .01 level.

Table 32. Analysis of variance in ratings for 8 observation areas by areas for supervising teachers (Time 2)[a]

Competency areas	Mean	S.D.	Cases
CCT2	3.9103	.7418	78
KT2	4.1923	.6043	78
EXT2	4.0641	.7268	78
EFT2	4.1795	.6595	78
VCT2	4.1154	.7556	78
NVCT2	4.0000	.7729	78
OT2	4.2564	.7802	78
PT2	4.2308	.8362	78

Analysis of Variance

Source of variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean squares	F
Between people	194.7244	77	2.5289	
Within people	148.5000	546	.2720	
Between measures	7.8910	7	1.1273	4.3213*
Residual	140.6090	539	.2609	
Total	343.2244	623	.5509	
Grand mean	4.1186			

[a]Twelve observation areas were changed to 8 because of missing values.

*Significant difference at the .01 level.

Pearson product moment correlations were tested to look for relationships among the variables in this study. Tables 33-35 illustrate correlation matrixes for quantified variables in the study. As shown, there are significant relationships among the variables in both the Time 1 and Time 2 observations. Significance levels of .05 and .01 are reached in Tables 33 and 34 for practically all the variables. Similar correlations are found in Table 35, with a few exceptions. An interesting area to observe is how the competency area resources interract with the other 12 competency areas in the second observation.

Other findings

Finally, correlations among all 36 variables provide information yielding .05 and .01 significance level relationships among almost all competency areas. These significant relationships suggest a highly reliable instrument which measures consistent results. Further study would be useful to explore these relationships.

Table 33. Pearson correlation matrix for students[a]

Time 1	Variables – Time 2											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. CCS1	.62**	.42**	.41**	.54**	.27**	.42**	.47**	.47**	.29**	.51**	.36**	.38**
2. KS1	.50**	.46**	.57**	.37**	.48**	.43**	.44**	.47**	.33**	.53**	.46**	.39**
3. IS1	.55**	.49**	.59**	.56**	.26*	.41**	.52**	.51**	.37**	.51**	.41**	.33**
4. EXS1	.46**	.42**	.40**	.70**	.36**	.44**	.39**	.43**	.29**	.60**	.52**	.32**
5. EFS1	.43**	.38**	.37**	.41**	.57**	.46**	.39**	.45**	.41**	.35**	.46**	.35**
6. VCS1	.39**	.25*	.42**	.29**	.33**	.56**	.49**	.40**	.21*	.37**	.32**	.16*
7. NVCS1	.33**	.36**	.47**	.36**	.16*	.51**	.52**	.31**	.15*	.47**	.35**	.18*
8. OS1	.33**	.36**	.45**	.35**	.14	.29**	.43**	.54**	.33**	.32**	.32**	.31**
9. RS1	.41**	.34**	.33**	.43**	.21*	.22*	.33**	.44**	.59**	.43**	.42**	.48**
10. PS1	.37**	.17*	.26*	.32**	.25*	.14	.26*	.19*	.30**	.45**	.29**	.25*
11. MS1	.36**	.35**	.44**	.46**	.30**	.41**	.41**	.45**	.31**	.50**	.66**	.39**
12. EVS1	.32**	.35**	.41**	.31**	.19*	.27**	.33**	.50**	.22*	.36**	.48**	.47**

[a]N for individual correlations varies, thus significance levels vary.

*Denotes p ≤ .05.

**Denotes p ≤ .01.

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Table 34. Pearson correlation matrix for cooperating teachers[a]

Time 1	Variables – Time 2											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. CCC1	.73**	.46**	.42**	.42**	.39**	.39**	.36**	.30**	.31**	.33**	.33**	.40**
2. KC1	.44**	.55**	.35**	.38**	.57**	.23*	.27**	.51**	.36**	.33**	.40**	.43**
3. IC1	.39**	.51**	.47**	.51**	.44**	.37**	.39**	.41**	.43**	.25*	.48**	.42**
4. EXC1	.62**	.54**	.47**	.58**	.41**	.40**	.38**	.43**	.34**	.38**	.41**	.37**
5. EFC1	.47**	.60**	.35**	.47**	.63**	.43**	.49**	.50**	.34**	.46**	.50**	.32**
6. VCC1	.50**	.38**	.44**	.38**	.43**	.57**	.50**	.38**	.40**	.50**	.47**	.26*
7. NVCC1	.53**	.32**	.29**	.38**	.42**	.44**	.64**	.43**	.45**	.46**	.64**	.37**
8. OC1	.46**	.58**	.39**	.37**	.52**	.35**	.41**	.59**	.44**	.35**	.45**	.44**
9. RC1	.52**	.49**	.46**	.40**	.52**	.26**	.36**	.45**	.51**	.43**	.42**	.50**
10. PC1	.51**	.27**	.40**	.33**	.48**	.50**	.56**	.42**	.34**	.68**	.47**	.43**
11. MC1	.53**	.45**	.37**	.28**	.44**	.37**	.48**	.37**	.40**	.32**	.57**	.40**
12. EVC1	.57**	.60**	.56**	.51**	.62**	.36**	.46**	.57**	.54**	.49**	.53**	.63**

[a] N for individual correlations varies, thus significance levels vary.

*Denotes p ≤ .05.

**Denotes p ≤ .01.

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Table 35. Pearson correlation matrix for supervising teachers[a]

Time 1	Variables – Time 2											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. CCT1	.62**	.41**	.33**	.47**	.39**	.43**	.40**	.35**	.23*	.39**	.21*	.32**
2. KT1	.28**	.62**	.34**	.38**	.45**	.49**	.44**	.34**	.26*	.45**	.40**	.30**
3. IT1	.22*	.38**	.54**	.37**	.36**	.31**	.35**	.35**	.48**	.29**	.46**	.46**
4. EXT1	.33**	.38**	.31**	.67**	.45**	.48**	.46**	.42**	.14	.33**	.21*	.27*
5. EFT1	.29**	.36**	.19	.41**	.56**	.35**	.22*	.47**	.21*	.33**	.17	.24*
6. VCT1	.38**	.37**	.34**	.53**	.36**	.60**	.50**	.46**	.17	.57**	.29**	.26*
7. NVCT1	.42**	.34**	.35**	.40**	.39**	.50**	.72**	.38**	.23*	.61**	.44**	.26*
8. OT1	.29**	.28**	.07	.30**	.45**	.35**	.28**	.62**	.09	.38**	.12	.05
9. RT1	.01	.29*	.36**	.03	.14	.19	.07	.15	.42**	.10	.36**	.27*
10. PT1	.35**	.39**	.31**	.37**	.40	.52**	.53**	.49**	.17	.69	.28**	.38**
11. MT1	.34**	.49**	.46**	.48**	.42	.45**	.43**	.35**	.34**	.50	.59**	.54**
12. EVT1	.24*	.40**	.15	.35**	.41**	.35**	.37**	.30**	.34**	.47**	.49**	.56**

[a]N for individual correlations varies, thus significance levels vary.

*Denotes $p \leq .05$.

**Denotes $p \leq .01$.

CHAPTER V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The trend towards actual observation of teaching competencies is playing an increasingly important role in the fields of supervision, evaluation, and research on effective teaching. This trend can also be shown in the current revisions taking place in teacher education programs, which stress the continuous monitoring and observation of students' progress throughout their programs.

The identification of competencies thought to be necessary for effective teaching, combined with the actual observation of these competencies exhibited in the classroom, provide both supervisors and student teachers with a more well-defined and objective means of assessment. As Miller and O'Bruba stated earlier, "...teachers trained in specific competencies will achieve a greater degree of success and will be better equipped to insure their students' opportunities for optimum achievement."[1] In contrast, those student teachers who have not been given the chance to identify particular competencies that are essential to effective teaching may not have the opportunity to enhance their teaching behaviors in the actual classroom setting. Therefore, the present study investigates the issue of student teaching quality, which focuses on discussions of specific competencies and the observation of those competencies in the classroom.

This chapter first summarizes the methodology and instruments that are used to investigate the assessment of student teaching competencies. Secondly, the chapter outlines the findings of the study. Finally, the chapter suggests areas for further research.

Methodology

The study postulates that teaching quality is enhanced when student

teachers know what is expected of them and how they will be assessed.

Also, students who have identified specific competencies that are

essential to effective teaching will perform better in their student

teaching terms than those who have not. Therefore, students who view and

analyze Teacher Assessment Modules (TAMs) during the student teaching term

will receive higher ratings on an observation instrument from their

cooperating and supervising teachers than students who do not view the

tapes. The study investigates differences in ratings between elementary

and secondary student teachers, male and female students, and differences

between two separate observation times, one at the beginning of the term

and one at the end.

Differences in ratings between the experimental group (those viewing

the tapes) and the control group (those not viewing the tapes) are also

investigated in the study by analyzing how three separate rating groups

assessed their performance. These groups included student teachers,

cooperating teachers, and university supervising teachers.

The population of interest to the study is the group of senior

education students who are in their final term of student teaching at both

the elementary and secondary levels during the spring term, 1985.

One hundred fifty-six students were invited to participate in the

study. Also invited were their cooperating teachers and university

supervising teachers. A total of 80 triads (student teacher, cooperating

teacher, and supervising teacher) agreed to take part in all facets of the investigation.

The observation instrument was one developed at Iowa State University for use in viewing the Teacher Assessment Modules (TAMs). University supervisors were asked to review the instrument. The instrument was then reviewed by 28 cooperating teachers, who suggested revisions. After refinement, the final instrument consisted of 12 items identified as competencies which are stressed in the performance elements of Iowa State's Project PRO*FILE. (See Appendix D.)

The rating checklist items are evaluated on a 5-point scale by the three separate rating groups two specified times in the student teaching term. Background items assess level of teaching, sex, tape or non-tape group, and first or second observation.

Results of the Study

General characteristics describe the sample classifications by level of teaching, sex, and experimental or control group. Students in elementary education comprised 53.7 percent of the sample. Over one-half of the sample includes females (65 percent of the sample). This reveals the heavily dominated female population at the elementary level. In contrast, only 35 percent of the sample were males.

Both the experimental and control groups had an equal number comprising the sample (40 in each group). Students in the experimental group were instructed to view two teaching tapes at the beginning of the term and two more near the end of the term before being evaluated by their cooperating and supervising teachers in each observation.

Research questions

A series of T-tests and analysis of variance statistics suggest answers to six research questions. The data (Tables 4 and 5) indicate that students in the experimental group (those who viewed the Teacher Assessment Modules) received higher overall performance ratings by the three rating groups. However, the students themselves reported no significant differences at either the .05 or .01 significance level in either the first or second observation.

Both cooperating teachers and university supervising teachers indicate significant differences in favor of the experimental group during the second observation at the end of the term. Cooperating teachers observed three areas (involvement, resources, and organizational skills) as significantly higher for those students who had viewed the TAMs. University supervisors found three areas at the .05 significance level (classroom control, efficiency, and use of resources) in which the experimental group received higher performance ratings.

The data (Tables 10-15) indicate that elementary student teachers received higher performance ratings by all three rating groups. Significant differences exist at the .05 and .01 levels in five areas in the first observation and increased to 10 areas by the time of the second observation when students evaluated themselves.

Likewise, cooperating teachers rated elementary teachers higher in 11 of 12 areas in the two observations, two at significant levels (classroom control and motivation).

Although university supervising teachers consistently gave higher ratings to elementary teachers, significant differences occurred in four areas during the first observation only (classroom control, verbal communication, resources, and motivation). The gap narrowed during the second observation in which no differences occurred at the .05 or .01 levels.

There were no significant differences reported between male and female student teachers by any of the rating groups, although cooperating teachers gave higher overall ratings to male student teachers in both observations (Tables 16-21).

Significant differences were recorded in all 12 competency areas between the first and second observations. This was true for all three rating groups. The data (Tables 22-24) do not indicate whether this is a result of viewing the Teacher Assessment Modules or improvement over time by the student teachers.

The data (Tables 25-26) indicate no statistical differences among ratings by the cooperating teachers, cooperating teachers, and self-rating by student teachers overall. The only significant difference at the .05 level occurred in the area of classroom control at the time of the first observation. Cooperating teachers gave the lower ratings for this competency. However, this significance was not observed at the second observation.

The analysis of variance tests (Tables 27-32) reveal significant differences in ratings for each of the 12 competency areas at the .01 significance level with the differences in grand means increasing between

Time 1 and Time 2 observations. The competency areas knowledge, organization, and poise received the highest rankings by cooperating and supervising teachers in both observations, while classroom control was found to be the lowest ranking competency area in either observation.

The Pearson product moment correlations indicate relationships among quantified variables (Tables 33-35). Examination of relationships among the combinations of all variables in this particular study yields significant positive relationships at the .01 level in almost every competency area for both first and second observations. Therefore, it can be assumed that students who receive high scores on one particular competency area also will receive high scores on other competency rating items.

The same correlation can be made of the relationships among variables in both first and second observations. Students who scored highly in competency areas at the time of the first observation also received high performance ratings at the time of the second observation. Likewise, cooperating and supervising teachers who rated certain competency areas highly during the first observation tended to rate those same competency areas highly in the second observations.

Other findings

The significance levels among all variables suggest that the instrument used in this study is highly reliable.

Recommendations for Further Research

Replication of the study is needed to document the differences and relationships among the competency rating items and the three separate rating groups. Additional research is needed to understand the effects of various supervision and evaluation methods in student teaching observations in the actual classroom setting. Possibly, these different methods could affect performance ratings of teaching competencies.

Though the ratings of the student teachers who viewed the Teacher Assessment Modules (TAMs) were higher overall, perhaps more significant differences could be found if the viewing of the tapes was monitored more closely. A more controlled classroom setting might be more productive than relying on student reports of the tapes they viewed.

Another revision of the observation instrument is deemed necessary to avoid confusing or misleading items. This was shown to affect the numbers reporting on at least four competency areas. These four items included evaluation, resources, poise, and motivation. Clarity is needed to further refine these competency descriptions.

In addition, further information is needed to determine how closely the observation instrument reflects the items identified in the Project PRO*FILE performance elements. It is essential that students know how they will be evaluated.

Further training is needed if cooperating teachers are to be asked to be volunteers in another study. The logistics of visiting each teacher individually were practically impossible to achieve. The use of

instruction sheets and supervisor discussions helped, but other avenues of study need to be reviewed.

Recommendations for the future use and development of the Teacher Assessment Modules (TAMs) include the study of long-term effects of viewing and analyzing the tapes earlier in a student's teacher education program, perhaps the sophomore or junior year. Also, development of additional TAMs could focus on other topics of concern in teaching, such as classroom control.

Finally, the research findings supporting those students' performance ratings in the experimental group suggest further investigation and teaching in the area of teaching competencies. It seems that Project PRO*FILE, which explores the student's educational growth through self-study, skill development, and specific teaching performance elements, is a positive step towards achieving more successful and rewarding teaching experiences.

Note

[1]Gorman L. Miller and William S. O'Bruba, "A Survey of Competencies Needed for Effective Student Teaching," <u>College Student Journal</u> 13, 1(Spring 1976): 28.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

APPENDIX A

THE PRO*FILE PROCESS

Phase I

Student Goal: to be prepared for
admission to teacher education

Phase II

Student Goals: after admission, to
continue with course work, developing
strengths and meeting identified needs

Phase III

Student Goals: to do student teaching,
to complete the program, and to gain
insights into areas of possible
professional growth

1. Course Work. (Professional Sequence Courses) 301. Instructional Media Methods of teaching
                                                                           (several courses)
    204. Foundations of Am. Education   333. Educational Psychology
    280. Teacher Aide

406. Multicultural Awareness 400 Sr. Seminar
Methods of teaching courses
                              426. Principles of Sec Ed.

2. Tenta-
    tive
Admission &
Dept. Orient.

3. Orient.
(ElEd/SecED
205R)

6. Formal
Admissions
Interview

7. Admission
to Teacher
Education

8. Student
    Teaching

10. Exit
Interview

11.
PRO*FILE
Summary

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4. Initial
Assessment
Battery

Meetings/Interviews with Advisers, faculty--
scheduled as needed

9. Final
Assessment
(use of
   (TAMs)

5. Performance Element Modules   (used as supplements to course work, or assigned
                                    by faculty and advisers.)
                    Teaching Assessment Modules

TAMs & PEMs used as resource
bank by teachers in the field

APPENDIX B

March 18, 1985

Dear Cooperating and Supervising Teachers:

As an Iowa State University graduate student in the College of
Education, Department of Professional Studies, I am presently
involved with research on the observation of student teachers.
I am writing to ask if you will participate in a study that
would help determine if the viewing of Teacher Assessment
Modules used in Project PRO*FILE here at Iowa State is of
benefit. There is no intent that participation in this project
will influence the student teachers' grades in any way.

As you know, much discussion of late has centered around the
issue of teacher competency. States are now beginning action
to help upgrade the preparation of individuals who are entering
the teaching field. Teacher education programs are making many
changes in curriculum and methods to help students have more
successful teaching experiences. Here at Iowa State, one such
program is now being field-tested. Project PRO*FILE provides
students with systematic opportunities to evaluate the skills
and expertise they are gaining.

Half of the students participating in this study will be viewing
teacher assessment modules in the first half and near the end of
their student teaching terms. I am trying to learn if the
identification and analysis of particular competencies that make
up good teaching will result in improvement of student teaching
performance. Viewing of the tapes is to be done at the student's
leisure and should not interfere with his/her regular student
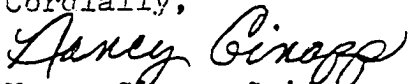teaching duties during the school day.

You will find a copy of the teacher checklist and instruction
sheet enclosed. Confidentiality of your responses will be
safeguarded. Under no circumstances will individual responses
be reported, but will be used as part of group responses.
The checklist will be coded for record keeping purposes.

Using the enclosed form, observe the student teacher twice during
the term, once during the first half of the term and once near the
end. Please return the checklist in the enclosed envelope. The
checklist will again be mailed to you for the second observation
at the end of April.

I would appreciate your participation in this study. If you wish
to participate, please return the enclosed card. Your responses
will help us gain information regarding the validity of
teacher competencies and assist us in refining certain parts of
Project PRO*FILE.

Thank you.

Cordially,

Nancy Ginapp-Guidance Counselor
Lenihan Junior High
Marshalltown, Iowa 50158

Enc.

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To Supervising and Cooperating Teachers:

1. Please pick a time when you can both be present to observe the student teacher for a specified period of time.

2. Read each competency and its descriptor.

3. Look for these competencies while you observe the student teacher in a classroom setting.

4. Decide which number on the rating scale best describes the degree to which the student teacher is exhibiting that particular competency. Circle the "X" if you have not observed the competency during the specified time.

5. There is room in the comment section under each competency if you wish to make a qualifying statement about the observation.

6. Circle only one response for each statement.

7. Place a "√" on the appropriate line for First or Second Observation and a "√" on the appropriate line marked Supervising or Cooperating teacher.

8. Each student is identified by number. A list of student names and numbers has been provided for your use. Please place the appropriate student number in the top, right-hand corner.

9. Return the checklist in the self-addressed, stamped envelope. Please write your name on the checklist. (lower left corner)

10. Any questions regarding the checklist or project should be directed to:

    Nancy Ginapp-Guidance Counselor
    Lenihan Junior High
    212 West Ingledue Street
    Marshalltown, Iowa 50158
    515-752-4595

APPENDIX C

March 18, 1985

Dear Student Teacher:

As an Iowa State University graduate student in the College of
Education, Department of Professional Studies, I am presently
involved with research on the observation of student teachers.
I am writing to ask if you will participate in a study that
would help determine if the viewing of Teacher Assessment
Modules used in Project PRO*FILE here at Iowa State is of
benefit. There is no intent that participation in this project
will influence your grade in any way.

Your cooperating and supervising teachers will be observing
you two specified times during the course of your student
teaching experience, once during the first half of the term and
again near the end of the term using the enclosed checklist.
You are asked to use this form also to evaluate your performance
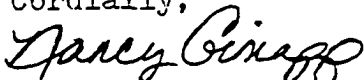during those same specified times.

Half of the students participating in this study will be viewing
teaching assessment modules at the beginning and near the end
of the student teaching term. Your group is asked to view two
tapes (appropriate to your subject/grade level) in the first
half of the semester. Later on in the term, you are asked to view
two more tapes of interest to you. The tapes are located in N61
Quad. (homework Lab). It is stressed that you do not take time
away from your regular student teaching duties to view the tapes.

You will find copies of the teacher observation checklist (blue),
instruction sheet (white), and teacher assessment module sheet
(green) enclosed. Confidentiality of your responses will be
safeguarded. Under no circumstances will individual responses be
reported, but will be used only as part of group responses.
However, it is hoped that you will feel free to discuss your
individual responses to the checklist with your cooperating and
supervising teachers in order to help improve and refine your
teaching skills during the student teaching term.

I would appreciate your participation in this study. If you are
interested in participating, please return the enclosed card.
Your responses will help us gain information regarding the
validity of teacher competencies and assist us in refining
certain parts of Project PRO*FILE.

Thank you.

Cordially,

Nancy Ginapp

Nancy Ginapp-Guidance Counselor
Lenihan Junior High
Marshalltown, Iowa 50158

Enc.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR COMPLETING CHECKLIST

To Student Teachers:

1. View two teacher assessment module tapes found in N61 Quad. (Homework Lab) at the beginning of your student teaching term.

2. Circle the numbers of the tapes that you viewed on the green module sheet.

3. Your cooperating and supervising teachers will be observing you at a specified time. Please use the same time period to evaluate your teaching performance on the enclosed observation checklist.

4. Read each competency and its descriptor.

5. Decide which number on the rating scale best describes the degree to which you exhibited each particular competency. Circle the "X" if that particular statement was not used in the lesson. There is room in the comment section for your reactions.

6. Circle one response for each statement.

7. Place checkmarks on the appropriate lines at the bottom of the checklist.

8. Each student is identified by number to protect your anonymity. Your number is _____. This will be used on both mailings.

9. Return the blue observation checklist and the green module tape sheet in the self-addressed, stamped envelope provided.

10. Another module sheet and observation checklist will be mailed to you later in the term.

11. Any questions regarding the checklist or project should be directed to:

   Nancy Ginapp-Guidance Counselor
   212 West Ingledue Street
   Lenihan Junior High
   Marshalltown, Iowa 50158
   515-752-4595

March 18, 1985

Dear Student Teacher:

As an Iowa State University graduate student in the College of
Education, Department of Professional Studies, I am presently
involved with research on the observation of student teachers.
I am writing to ask if you will participate in a study that
would help us determine if the viewing of Teacher Assessment
Modules used in Project PRO*FILE here at Iowa State is of
benefit. There is no intent that participation in this project
will influence your grade in any way.

Your cooperating and supervising teachers will be observing
you two specified times during the course of your student
teaching experience, once at the beginning of the term and
again near the end of the term using the enclosed checklist.
You are asked to use this form also to evaluate your performance
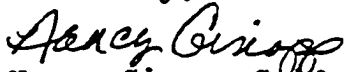during those same specified times.

You will find a copy of the teacher observation checklist and
instruction sheet enclosed. Confidentiality of your responses
will be safeguarded. Under no circumstances will individual
responses be reported, but will be used only as part of group
responses. However, it is hoped that you will feel free to
discuss your individual responses with your cooperating and
supervising teachers in order to help improve and refine your
teaching skills during the student teaching term.

Once you have completed your self-evaluation on the enclosed
checklist, please return it in the enclosed envelope. Do not
write your name on it. A number is provided for you on the
instruction sheet. The checklist will again be mailed to you
for the second observation near the end of the term.

I would appreciate your participation in this study. If you wish
to participate, please return the enclosed card. Your responses
will help us gain information regarding the validity of teacher
competencies and assist us in refining certain parts of
Project PRO*FILE.

Thank you.

Cordially,

Nancy Ginapp-Guidance Counselor
Lenihan Junior High
Marshalltown, Iowa 50158

Enc.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR COMPLETING CHECKLIST

To Student Teachers:

1. Your cooperating and supervising teachers will be observing you at a specified time. Please use the same time period once you have completed the lesson to evaluate your teaching performance on the enclosed checklist.

2. Read each competency and its descriptor.

3. Decide which number on the rating scale best describes the degree to which you exhibited each particular competency. Circle the "X" if that particular statement was not used in the lesson.

4. There is room in the comment section for any comment you would like to make regarding the competency.

5. Circle one response for each statement.

6. Place checkmarks on the appropriate lines at the bottom of the checklist.

7. Each student is identified by number to protect your anonymity. Your number is _____. This will be used on both mailings.

8. Return the checklist in the self-addressed, stamped envelope provided.

9. Any questions regarding the checklist or project should be directed to:

Nancy Ginapp-Guidance Counselor
212 West Ingledue Street
Marshalltown, Iowa 50158
515-752-4595

APPENDIX D

TEACHER OBSERVATION CHECKLIST

Circle each item as follows: X, Not Observed; 1, Unsatisfactory; 2, Below Average;
3, Average; 4, Above Average; 5, Excellent

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COMPETENCIES	EVALUATION OF COMPETENCY
CLASSROOM CONTROL...maintains discipline in the classroom by enforcing stated standards of behavior. Comments:	X 1 2 3 4 5
KNOWLEDGE...possesses a thorough understanding of the subject area. Comments:	X 1 2 3 4 5
INVOLVEMENT...encourages student participation by using a variety of instructional styles. Comments:	X 1 2 3 4 5
EXPLANATIONS...explains in a clear, consise manner using appropriate vocabulary level and examples. Comments:	X 1 2 3 4 5
EFFICIENCY...manages time and instructional activities. Students know what is expected and time-on-task is promoted. Comments:	X 1 2 3 4 5
VERBAL COMMUNICATION...employs use of good voice modulation, volume control, and proper speech. Comments:	X 1 2 3 4 5
NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION...uses effective body language, gestures, and eye contact to indicate that the teacher is listening to students. Comments:	X 1 2 3 4 5
ORGANIZATION...plans teaching sequence that links past/future objectives. The teacher is well-prepared and follows an apparent series of steps. Comments:	X 1 2 3 4 5
RESOURCES...uses a variety of sources and technology. (Examples: print and non-print media, speakers, readings) Comments:	X 1 2 3 4 5
POISE...exhibits a positive self-concept. The teacher is confident and self-assured. Comments:	X 1 2 3 4 5
MOTIVATION...stimulates student's independent thinking by encouraging new ideas. Comments:	X 1 2 3 4 5
EVALUATION...provides feedback to students to inform about progress. Comments:	X 1 2 3 4 5

Place a "√" on the appropriate lines: _____First Observation   _____Second Observation

_____Elementary   _____Secondary

_____Male   _____Female

Group Which Viewed Tapes: _____Yes   _____No

Observation By: _____Self   _____Supervising Teacher   _____Cooperating Teacher

APPENDIX E

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE WITH THE TAMS (FOR FIELD TEST)

<u>Preparation</u>: Look at Chapter 7 in the PRO*FILE Notebook, particularly page 7-4. Also, have a piece of paper on which to write down notes to yourself that might influence your evaluations on the criteria listed below.

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<u>Checkout of tape</u>: Check out the tape you which you wish to preview. Look at it and return it. Then check out the disc for that tape and go to a computer with printer (if you think you might like to print the results.)

<u>Tape</u>	<u>Grade</u>	<u>Subject</u>	<u>To be evaluated</u>
1	6	Social Studies	2 – Motivation 3 – Knowledge 4 – Involvement 5 – Explanations 6 – Efficiency 10 – Resources
2	3	Science	1 – Setting 2 – Motivation 3 – Knowledge 7 – Communication 8 – Sensitivity 10 – Resources
3	7	Math	4 – Involvement 5 – Explanations 7 – Communication 10 – Resources
4	9	English	1 – Setting 2 – Motivation 4 – Involvement 6 – Efficiency 9 – Organization 11 – Poise
5	11	English	1 – Setting 2 – Motivation 7 – Communication 9 – Organization 11 – Poise
6	12	Psychology	1 – Setting 6 – Efficiency 7 – Communication 8 – Sensitivity
7	10	Music	3 – Knowledge 6 – Efficiency 9 – Organization 11 – Poise
8	9	Spanish	1 – Setting 2 – Motivation 4 – Involvement 10 – Resources
9	K-3	Social Studies	OMITTED
10	4-6	Science	2 – Motivation 5 – Explanations 7 – Communication 10 – Resources 11 – Poise
11	Secondary	Computer Science	3 – Knowledge 5 – Explanations 8 – Sensitivity 9 – Organization
12	Secondary	English	4 – Involvement 6 – Efficiency 7 – Communication 11 – Poise

APPENDIX F

May 4, 1985

Dear Project PRO*FILE Participants:

Thanks so much for your overwhelming response to the
observation of student teaching study being done at Iowa
State this semester. I am in the process of analyzing the
data from the first observations you did. Hopefully, this
will give us more information on student teaching competencies
and assist us in refining certain parts of Project PRO*FILE.

Please take a few minutes to fill out this last observation
sheet on your student teachers. You will find a copy of the
teacher checklist and instruction sheet enclosed.

Again, thanks. Have a restful summer.

Cordially,

Nancy Ginapp - Guidance Counselor
Lenihan Junior High
212 W. Ingledue Street
Marshalltown, Iowa 50158

APPENDIX G

I have read the introductory letter which
describes the Project PRO*FILE Student Teaching
Study that was sent to me by Nancy Ginapp.

I understand what is expected of me and agree
to participate in this study.

Signature _____