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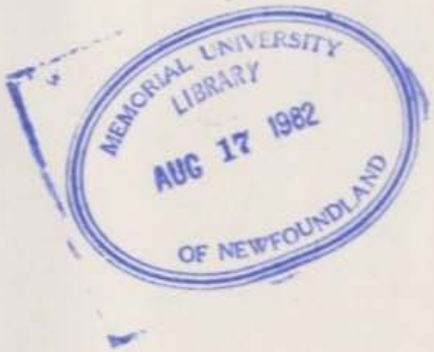
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EFFECTS OF EXPECTANCY BIAS AND DEGREE OF DOGMATISM ON SENIOR EDUCATION STUDENTS' RATINGS OF TEACHER COMPETENCE

by

© Sheldon McBreairty

A Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Education

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March, 1981

ABSTRACT

The present study investigated the combined effects of expectancy bias and level of dogmatism on judgements of teacher competence, specifically, the effects of exposing senior education students to systematically biased evaluative information on their judgements of teacher competence. Of equal importance was an examination of interactive relationships between the expectancy bias and the level of student dogmatism.

Ninety-two subjects (student teachers) were subjected to either a negatively biased or a positively biased written, evaluative communication concerning a Grade 7 teacher. Subjects were also assessed as to degree of dogmatism. A video-tape of the teacher instructing his class was subsequently viewed by the subjects. The teacher's performance was then rated by all subjects, including 28 unbiased subjects acting as a control group, using a teacher evaluation questionnaire designed for the present study.

Results showed a significant expectancy bias effect, though no significant dogmatism effect was evident. No interaction was observed between expectancy bias effects and dogmatism effects. Although sex of subjects was not controlled for, an analysis revealed a significant inter-

action between expectancy bias and sex, such that, males with positive expectations tended to provide a more positive evaluation of the teacher competence. Also, a significant three-way interaction was observed between effects of expectancy bias, dogmatism, and sex of subject. It was recommended on the basis of results, that future studies control for sex as well as investigate the suggestion that people's expectations affect their thoughts and behaviors. Also, it was recommended that investigations be made into the role of expectations in a variety of educational evaluations.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It is with appreciation that the writer extends his thanks to those persons who by their help and encouragement have made this study possible.

A special note of thanks is due Dr. Glenn Sheppard, who through his initiative guidance and constructive suggestions has supported the writer in this endeavor.

The author acknowledges the assistance of Dr. Terry Boak and Dr. Frank Wolfe, who by their review of the thesis made available to the writer many valuable and constructive suggestions.

For the professional job of typing the material, the author extends his appreciation to Mrs. Mary Lawor.

Finally, warmest thanks is expressed to my wife, Hope, for her faithful encouragement, without which this project would not have been possible.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of expectancy bias on judgements of teacher competence. More specifically, the study investigated the effects of exposing senior education students to systematically biased evaluative information on their judgements of teacher competence. Of equal importance was an examination of any interactive relationship between the expectancy bias and the level of student dogmatism.

The major independent variable consisted of exposing students to one of two experimental treatment groups; one group of students received a positive evaluation of the teacher attributed to a credible source, while another group of students received a negative evaluation of the teacher attributed to the same source. The other independent variable consisted of scores on the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale, Form E. The experimental session involved having all students view a 10-minute video-tape of a grade seven teacher and then rate that teacher's performance on a teacher evaluation questionnaire. The dependent measure consisted of scores on the teacher evaluation questionnaire.

The present study was designed to evaluate the following questions:

1. What is the effect of expectancy bias on evaluation of teacher competence?
2. What is the effect of level of dogmatism on evaluation of teacher competence?
3. What is the interactive effect of expectancy bias and dogmatism on evaluation of teacher competence?

Three research hypotheses were generated from the above questions:

Hypothesis 1: Subjects who receive the positive expectancy bias will judge the teacher on the Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire to be significantly more competent than will subjects who receive the negative expectancy bias.

Hypothesis 2: Subjects defined as high dogmatic will judge the teacher on the Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire to be significantly less competent than will subjects defined as low dogmatic.

Hypothesis 3: There will be a significant interaction between dogmatism and expectancy bias, such that high dogmatic subjects receiving a positive expectancy bias will judge the teacher on the Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire to be significantly more competent than will high dogmatic subjects receiving a negative expectancy bias.

Rationale

Many theories have been put forward to explain the role of expectations in human behavior (Festinger, 1957; Heider, 1958; Kelly, 1955; Lecky, 1945; Rotter, 1954). Kelly (1955) stated that, "A person's processes are psychologically channelized by the ways he anticipates events. . . . This is to say that human behavior may be viewed as basically anticipatory rather than reactive (p. 46)." Festinger's (1957) cognitive dissonance theory enlarges upon this statement by proposing that human beings strive to maintain cognitive consistency by interpreting events in such a way so as not to violate internalized expectations.

Expectancy research in education has provided evidence that teachers form differential expectations of student performance, and that teachers behave toward students according to those expectations (e.g., Cooper, 1979b; Dusek, 1975). However, in a review of past expectancy studies, West and Anderson (1976) questioned the conclusions made in many of these studies, claiming that teacher expectancy had been treated as "an assumed construct contingent on the experimental information (p. 615)." Their recommendation was that future research investigate teacher expectancies using systematic manipulation of types and sources of information. Their view was also shared by Rose (1977).

There is also evidence to suggest that the expectancy phenomenon may very well be mediated by important dimensions of personality such as authoritarianism (e.g., Adams & Beatty, 1977; McFall & Schenkein, 1970), a dimension defined by Rokeach (1960) as the degree of open- or closed-mindedness a person possesses (p. 58). Though few studies have investigated the relationship between teacher authoritarianism (dogmatism) and teacher expectancies, there is some evidence that dogmatism is a mediating factor for teacher expectancy effects (Babad, 1979; Lazzlo & Rosenthal, 1970; Rubovits & Maehr, 1973).

On the basis of past studies, it appears that any paradigm designed to deal with the relationship between teacher performance and the host of educational outcomes, must necessarily account for the potency of teachers' expectations and its, as yet, poorly understood relationship to such mediating variables as personality characteristics. This, of course, necessitates a systematic manipulation of the experimental conditions and an assessment of subjects' personality characteristics as contributing variables.

Investigations into the relationship between teacher expectancies, teacher dogmatism, and evaluation have important implications for research which seeks to identify teacher competencies. Recent studies involved teachers rating the competence of other teachers and then assessing the personality of those defined as competent (e.g., Victor,

1976). The result is a statement of the personality type of persons rated as competent, yet no mention is made of the personality type or expectancies of those persons doing the rating. This latter information is necessary in light of results of studies of teacher expectations. The question raised by these studies is as follows: Since teachers' ratings of student competence have been related to teacher expectancies and teacher personality, is it not possible that teachers' perceptions of teacher competence are similarly based on expectancy set and personality factors?

Answering this question is in turn important for the evaluation processes which are an integral part of the educational system. In the province of Newfoundland, each new teacher is required to undergo a probationary teaching period of two years. During those two years, the teacher is evaluated by supervisory personnel, all of whom have at one time been classroom teachers. As well, in a move to satisfy both public and professional demands for educational accountability, many school boards in Newfoundland have decided to evaluate, periodically, the performance of tenured teachers (i.e., teachers with two or more years of teaching experience). In both of these cases, teachers are evaluating teachers.

Though such evaluation procedures are routinely carried out, much controversy exists as to what is meant by teacher competence (e.g., Centra, 1977; Hazard, 1975;

Wasserman & Eggert, 1978). This controversy is viewed as being mainly due to the relative absence of evidence relating teaching behaviors to student outcome (e.g., Hazard, 1975; Silvernail, 1979). In the absence of such evidence, it becomes all the more essential that the complex dynamics of the evaluative process be understood. This necessitates building on the results of studies investigating the role of expectancy and personality in teachers' classroom behaviors, since these studies have demonstrated a relationship between teacher personality (e.g., Babad, 1979), teacher expectancies (e.g., Rose, 1977), and teachers' classroom behavior. The central issue becomes then, whether or not teachers' perceptions of teacher competence are also based on expectancy and personality.

In an effort to identify the relationship evaluation has to expectancy and personality, the present study employed teacher-trainees in the rating of the performance of a teacher viewed on video-tape, in order to simulate a standard teacher evaluation situation. The present study was a response to two directives of past research: firstly, the term 'teacher expectation' was operationally defined as exposure to one of two types (i.e., positive vs. negative) of biasing information; secondly, an effort was made to identify the factors involved in the evaluation process. This in essence is the rationale for the present study. It attempts to answer the call for stricker control of the

information used to create expectancies (e.g., West & Anderson, 1976), and it seeks to partially answer the call for a clearer definition of those factors operating in the teacher evaluation process (e.g., Centra & Potter, 1980).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Although much research has been carried out in the areas of teacher competency, teacher expectancy, and teacher dogmatism, few studies have attempted to relate findings from the expectancy and dogmatism research to an examination of perceptions of teacher competency. Following is a review of literature concerning teacher expectancy effects and teacher dogmatism effects, a review of the main concerns in the search for competency criteria, and a statement of the resulting directives for future research.

Expectancy

Many theorists of human behavior have long held to the belief that internalized values determine expectations, which in turn form the basis for man's interpretation of his world (Festinger, 1957; Heider, 1958; Kelly, 1955; Lecky, 1945; Rotter, 1954). One such theorist is Kelly (1955), who stated that, "A person's processes are psychologically channelized by the ways he anticipates events. . . . This is to say that human behavior may be viewed as basically anticipatory rather than reactive . . . (p. 46)." Rotter (1954) concurred with this view when he stated that ". . . . one of the major predictors of behavior is the subject's expectancy regarding the outcome of his behavior

in a given situation. . . . Behavior is a function of the expectations of the subject (p. 102)."

Festinger's (1957) cognitive dissonance theory proposes that human beings strive to maintain cognitive consistency, that phenomena are interpreted in such a way so as not to violate internalized expectations. Bruner (1941) had earlier investigated the readiness of individuals to respond selectively to various environmental stimuli, concluding that the stronger the internalized expectations, the less information needed to confirm them and the greater the amount of information needed to disconfirm them.

Merton (1948) expressed the concern that expectations which may be initially false can create a chain of events causing the original prediction to become true. The term "self-fulfilling prophecy" was subsequently coined to describe this phenomenon. The concept of the self-fulfilling prophecy soon became the explanation for all the seeming inequalities of outcome within educational settings (Rappaport & Rappaport, 1975). The Merton (1948) theory was the subject of many investigations designed to determine whether or not teachers' expectations were a factor in the educational process.

Teacher Expectancy

Various investigations have been made into the effects of teacher expectations. Studies have shown teacher

expectations to affect student self-concept (Braun, 1976), teachers' judgement of student ability (Clifford & Walster, 1973), teachers' judgements of student behavior (Berschied & Walster, 1973), and teachers' perceptions of student potential (Cooper, 1979a). However, most initial studies sought to directly related teacher expectations to student performance (e.g., Meichenbaum, Bowers & Ross, 1969; Reismann, 1962; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968; Rubovits & Maehr, 1971; Wilson, 1963). Undoubtedly, the most controversial of these was that of Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968).

In the Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) study, teachers were told that validation was needed for an instrument designed to predict intellectual gain. In that connection, students were administered a standard I.Q. test designed to measure verbal and reasoning ability. Teachers were later made aware of those students randomly labeled by the experimenters as academic "spurters". These same I.Q. tests were later re-administered and the results compared with those of the first administration. On the basis of gains in scores from one administration to another it was concluded that such gains were a direct result of teacher expectations of performance.

In a review of the literature, Finn (1972) noted that replications of the Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) experiment have largely failed to substantiate their claim. Finn proposed, however, that these results do not refute

the functioning of expectations, but merely bring into question the strength of the experimental treatment (i.e., whether or not teachers' expectations were functionally altered). It was argued that expectations must be distinguished from hopes, desires and aspirations, in that expectations "imply the anticipation of the behavior most likely to occur given the individual and circumstances (p. 390)."

The Finn (1972) study employed 300 fifth grade teachers in the rating of essays written by fifth grade students. Teachers were given prior false race, sex, and I.Q. information. Results showed a locale of teacher (urban vs. suburban) x I.Q. interaction demonstrating that urban teachers rated the essays presumably written by high I.Q. students higher than those presumably written by low I.Q. students. Results were viewed as indicating that teacher expectations cannot be explained simply in terms of classroom dynamics, but must be explained through a multi-dimensional approach.

In a review of the literature, Dusek (1975) noted that attempts to duplicate the results of Rosenthal and Jacobson had been largely unsuccessful. It was suggested that any further use of the Rosenthal and Jacobson paradigm would prove futile. It was recommended that further research investigate ". . . the bases upon which teachers form their expectations for students' performances and the relationship

of these bases to students' achievement in the academic situation (p. 680)." In essence, Dusek recommended that further research seek to define the causal conditions of teacher expectancies, since there was strong evidence that teachers do form expectations for student performance (e.g., Brophy & Good, 1970; Dusek & O'Connell, 1973; O'Connell et al., 1974; Rist, 1970), and that teachers do treat students differentially consistent with such expectations of performance (e.g., Brophy & Good, 1970; Good & Brophy, 1972).

In an effort to identify the parameters of teacher expectancy, Braun (1976) reviewed the literature and proposed a research model which took into account the student's self-concept. Braun concluded that dealing with expectancy effects within the classroom requires that teachers recognize the strong relationship between self-image and the goals children set for themselves. He stated that "teachers need to be sensitized to the biases and stereotypes they hold, and encouraged to examine these seriously in relation to their classroom behaviors (p. 209)." This has been echoed by Bar Tal (1978) who concluded that in future teachers be trained to help change children's self-perceptions.

In a review of past studies, West and Anderson (1976) suggested it might be legitimately concluded from such studies that student achievement influences teacher expectancy rather than concluding that teacher expectancy influences

student achievement. Such speculation by the authors seems justified in view of the absence of any consistent definition of expectancy or of the variables used to indicate the existence of expectancy (p. 616). They concluded that past studies had treated teacher expectancy as "an assumed construct contingent on the experimental information (p. 615)." Recommendations were that future research investigate teacher expectancies using systematic manipulation of types and sources of information.

Similar concerns were voiced by Rose (1977) in an extensive review of the literature. Rose concluded that although some studies have recognized the importance of the strength of all sources and types of information which act in the development of expectancies (Finn, 1972; Fleming & Anttonen, 1971; Jose & Cody, 1971), few have engaged in the direct manipulation of message variables (i.e., source and type). Rose concluded the question raised by past studies was: What are the causal conditions in forming differential expectations?

Rose (1977) employed 240 elementary teachers in the rating of a student viewed on video-tape. Teachers were seated in front of a TV monitor and received packets of information concerning the student which combined negative, neutral and positive comments attributed to various sources. Teachers rated the student using various criteria and were then given further bits of information before being

asked to rate the student again. Comparisons were made of intra-teacher ratings to determine the effects of source and content of information and to determine whether teachers use new information to readjust their expectations of students. It was found that content of information produced differential ratings while source of information did not. It was also found that teachers readjusted their expectancies according to new information received, a finding similar to that of Murphy (1974). Rose concluded that examination of the cognitive process and the variables affecting that process is a viable means of investigating teacher expectancies.

Using a record-card type of information, Cooper (1979a) investigated the effects of information content and source on teacher expectancies. Teacher trainees were given various types of information (i.e., supportive, non-supportive) attributed to various sources (i.e., peers, parents, etc.) and were asked to rate the probable success on a reading test of hypothetical third grade students. It was found that preperformance information dictated the judgements made by teacher-trainees. In addition, it was found that the source of the information had no effect on judgements. These results supported earlier findings (e.g., Rose, 1977) and again may suggest the need to investigate teacher expectancies as a contributing variable.

Levin, Ims and Vilmain (1980) investigated the way in which undergraduate students predicted the performance of hypothetical students based on two sources of information differing in variability. Results indicated that subjects may take information reliability into account and differentiate between sources, but there may also be a tendency to immediately accept numerical scores because of their perceived objectivity. They cautioned that teachers must carefully consider the reliability of their sources of information before making evaluations, diagnoses, and critical treatment decisions.

Expectancy and pupil control. There is also evidence to suggest the dynamics and potency of any expectancy phenomenon may be mediated by important pupil characteristics such as physical attractiveness (Kleinke, 1975), intelligence (Terman & Oden, 1951) and social class (Bernard, 1973). Richey and Richey (1978) cited these factors as those often considered by teachers when attributing worth or potential to a given student. The authors see this as a tendency to judge behavior as being due to intra-personal factors rather than to situational factors. They see the expectancy sets which result as the belief that "good things happen to good people and bad things to bad people (Richey & Richey, 1978, p. 217)."

Following is a review of recent studies which have taken a relatively new perspective on the expectancy

phenomenon. These studies have not made direct proposals in the direction of the present study but have implied the need to explore pupil characteristics, situational factors, and teacher personality variables as they relate to teacher expectancies.

Cooper (1977) raised this new direction for expectancy research when he found that teacher expectancies were positively related to teachers' perceptions of their control over student performance. This line of research draws from the work of Bandura (1977) and others who suggested that a person's perceptions of control over circumstance determines "whether coping behavior will be initiated, how much effort will be expended, and how long it will be sustained in the face of obstacles and aversive experiences (Bandura, 1977, p. 191)."

Using the Personal Control Questionnaire (PCQ), Cooper, Burger and Seymour (1979) concurred with the Cooper (1977) finding. They also found that teacher-initiated interactions were viewed by teachers as more controllable than student-initiated interactions.

Cooper (1979b) reviewed past studies and concluded there is little evidence that teacher expectations bias student performance. This review also supported the claim that expectations can sustain student performance at undesirable levels. Results of recent studies were noted (e.g., Cooper, 1977), and it was further concluded that

teachers wanted to be in control of when their efforts and potential failures would occur, and that this need for control may be due to "recurring uncontrollable and overly demanding interactions with low achievers (p. 404)." Since presenting new or difficult material to low achievers requires a large commitment of time, it appears that teachers tend to present new and more difficult materials to high achievers more than to low achievers. These conclusions led Cooper (1979b) to propose a model for expectation communication and behavior influence which takes into account student ability and background, teacher performance expectations, and teacher perceptions of control over student performance (p. 396).

Cooper, Hinkel and Good (1980) employed 204 third grade students and their 17 teachers in determining answers to questions raised by previous studies of teacher perceptions of control. Teachers ranked students on general academic ability and on probability of success at verbal academic tasks. All possible classroom interactions were observed and the type of interactions noted. After classroom behavioral data had been collected, all teachers responded to the Personal Control Questionnaire (Cooper et al., 1979). It was found that greater teacher control over a student was associated with less interaction with that student ($t = [15] = 2.13$, p .05). Results were viewed as demonstrating that high expectations led teachers

to believe such students required less assistance because of their achievement record. No relationship was found to exist between teacher control and amount of criticism or between teacher control and amount of evaluation provided by the teacher.

These studies have indicated that teacher expectancies are related to teacher perceptions of control over students. It might be noted that other studies have related high dogmatism to a desire for a custodial approach to classroom management (Helsel, 1976; Hoy, 1965). There appears, therefore, to be some theoretical and empirical basis for believing that expectancy may interact with important situational variables as well as with personality traits. Teacher perceptions of competence appear to be a the function of various factors (i.e., teacher personality, pupil characteristics, situational factors) which create expectations. Consequently, expectancies may be viewed as a complex phenomenon, the investigation of which requires strict control and definition of relevant variables.

Based on a review of the various theoretical conceptualizations of the expectancy phenomenon as well as speculation as to its significant correlates and the data to date, the following conclusions appear warranted:

1) Teachers possess differential expectations of student performance (e.g., Brophy & Good, 1970)

2) Teachers attend to students differentially

on the basis of expectations (e.g., Good & Brophy, 1972)

3) Teachers are influenced by different types of information concerning students (e.g., Rose, 1977)

4) Teachers express greater feelings of control over students for whom they have high expectations (Cooper, Burger & Seymour, 1979)

5) Teachers attend to students differentially on the basis of expressed degree of control over students (Cooper, Hinkel & Good, 1980).

Expectancy and information variables. Past studies have demonstrated that teachers pay more attention to the content rather than the source of information concerning students when required to rate students' ability (Cooper, 1979a; Rose, 1977). Some studies outside the field of education concur with these findings (e.g., Craig, 1977; Milling, 1976), while others suggest the source of information is the primary factor effecting behavior and expectation (e.g., Levin, Ims & Vilmain, 1980; Kaplan, 1972; Walton, 1975).

These latter studies are noteworthy in light of past studies which have related effectiveness of message source to such mediating factors as degree of expectancy violation (Kohn & Snook, 1976), amount of information delivered (Lashbrook, Snavely & Sullivan, 1977), amount of criticism of source (Burgoon, Miller, Cohen & Montgomery, 1978), consistency of messages (Heslin, Rotton & Black, 1977), degree of subject dogmatism (Powell, 1962; Rotton,

Blake & Heslin, 1977), and the strength of the message (Lumsden, 1977). These findings certainly suggest a rather complex relationship between message source and strength of expectancies created.

Rossiter (1976) reviewed 68 communication experiments, analyzing them in terms of types of subjects and experimental context. Results of the analysis indicated that past studies lacked adequate controls and adequate descriptive information concerning subjects, experimenters and procedures. Rossiter recommended future studies be conducted so that clearer interpretation of results might be made.

Findings from communication research indicated the need for greater controls. As well, it appears that the effectiveness of the source of information is dependent on many factors, making it a variable requiring successive experimental controls to clarify its role in the creation of expectancies. However, when combined with results from the educational context, manipulation of message type appears to be a credible means of creating differential expectancies.

Teacher Dogmatism

There is increasing evidence to suggest that the dynamics and potency of any expectancy phenomenon may very well be mediated by important personality dimensions such as tolerance for ambiguity (Bieri et al., 1966; Granger,

1953), ego-involvement (Sherif & Hovland), susceptibility to expectancy influence (Metee, 1971), and authoritarianism (Adams & Beatty, 1977; Costin, 1968; Kirscht & Dillehay, 1967; McFall & Schenkein, 1970).

Authoritarianism is a term used interchangeably with dogmatism and open/closed mindedness. Rokeach (1960) defined open-mindedness as "acting on information . . . independently on its own merits, in accord with the inner structural requirements of the situation (p. 58)." He defined closed-mindedness as the inability "to distinguish between information received about the world and information received about the source (Rokeach, 1960, p. 58)." Rokeach (1960) operationally defined dogmatism (open/closed mindedness) as a score on a forty-item instrument designed to assess the rigidity of an individual's belief system. Research in the area of teacher dogmatism has shown that teachers defined as high dogmatic differed from those defined as low dogmatic in their orientation to bureaucratic norms (Kuhlman, 1976), in their attitudes toward educational change (O'Reilly & Fish, 1976), in their attitudes toward teaching (Johnson, 1977), and in their beliefs concerning classroom management (Helsel, 1976).

In the O'Reilly and Fish (1976) study, 302 teachers were assessed as to degree of dogmatism, tenure status, and receptivity to educational innovation. Results showed that resistance to educational change was significantly

related to dogmatism ($F(1, 298) = 58.33$, $p < .01$) and tenure ($F(1, 298) = 5.28$, $p < .05$), demonstrating that high dogmatic teachers and high tenure teachers were most resistant to educational innovation.

Kuhlman (1976) investigated the relationship between bureaucratic orientation and dogmatism of beginning teachers. High dogmatic teachers were shown to have greater deference to school bureaucracy than low dogmatic teachers ($F(1, 164) = 25.42$, $p < .001$). Analysis showed bureaucratic orientations to increase over first year of teaching for both the high dogmatic ($t = 4.14$, $df = 84$, $p < .001$) and low dogmatic ($t = 2.25$, $df = 79$, $p < .05$) teachers. Results indicated a tendency of both open- and closed-minded teachers to be socialized towards complying with bureaucratic norms as teaching time increased.

Chrong and Wadden (1978) have investigated teacher dogmatism as a determinant of student self-concept. Teachers were defined either as most experimental (least dogmatic) or least experimental (most dogmatic). These two groups were found to be significantly different in their degree of experimentation ($t = 7.80$, $df = 20$, $p < .01$) and in their degree of dogmatism ($t = 13,96$, $df = 20$, $p < .01$). The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale was administered to 544 elementary pupils at the beginning and end of a semester. Analysis of covariance revealed changes in measured self-concept to differ between students with high

dogmatic and low dogmatic teachers. This finding indicates that pupils taught by the least dogmatic or most experimental teachers have a significantly higher self-concept at the end of one semester than pupils taught by the most dogmatic or least experimental teachers ($F(1, 1085) = 30.028$, $p < .001$). The following conclusion was made:

> It is now apparent that educators can no longer afford to ignore or to pay lip service to the affective dimension of teacher education. Since children's self-concept is a crucial determinant for their achievement in school, and the types of teacher personality do make a difference, as much attention as possible should be given to the affective dimension of teacher education programs as well as of teacher candidates (Cheony & Wadden, 1978, p. 125).

Selected studies have been elaborated upon, which illustrate the wide range of findings relating teacher dogmatism to attitudes and behaviors within the context of the school. Following is a review of findings relating teacher dogmatism to teacher expectancies.

Teacher dogmatism and teacher expectancy. Several studies have related dogmatism to susceptibility to expectancy bias (Adams & Beatty, 1977; Costin, 1968; McFall & Schenkein, 1970), but few have related teacher dogmatism to teacher susceptibility to expectancy bias. Lazzlo and Rosenthal (1970) ascribed high and low status to experimenters and then measured the status effect on ratings of selected photos by high and low dogmatic teacher trainees. It was found that high dogmatic subjects were significantly more

susceptible to high status experimenter effects than were the low dogmatics ($F(1, 56) = 6.28$, $p < .02$). Results indicated that experimenters who were ascribed the more authoritative status, communicated their expectancies to the high dogmatic subjects effectively enough, but appeared to be resisted by the low dogmatic teacher-trainees.

Rubovits and Maehr (1973) observed teachers' behaviors following the manipulation of an expectancy regarding student potential. Differential interactions with black (gifted-nongifted) and white (gifted-nongifted) students were noted. All teachers were relatively inexperienced and had not previously been exposed to teaching blacks. Results indicated that teachers rated students according to expectations, but in addition, high dogmatic teachers were found to have differential expectations for potential performance of blacks and whites.

Babad (1979) conducted two separate studies to determine the effects of personality and type of expectancy bias on the evaluative judgements of teacher-trainees. In the first study, education students rated two drawings allegedly made by children of different socio-economic levels. Subjects who rated the drawings according to the expectancy described themselves as more reasonable and less emotionally extreme than did subjects not responding to the expectancy bias. In the second study, similar differences were observed from responses to questions

pertaining to political ideology. Combined results were viewed by the experimenter as indicating that susceptibility to expectancy bias is related to persons defined as high dogmatic.

Research attempting to relate dogmatism to teacher expectations has provided limited support for the following proposals:

1) High dogmatic teacher trainees are more susceptible to biasing influences than low dogmatic teacher trainees (Lazzlo & Rosenthal, 1970)

2) High dogmatic teachers may rate students on the basis of race (Rubovits & Maehr, 1973), and socio-economic factors (Babad, 1979).

Teacher Competence

In recent years much attention has been devoted to achieving a definition of teacher competency. The resulting definitions have been many and varied, but it appears little agreement exists among educators as to what actually is meant by teacher competency (e.g., Centra, 1977; Hazard, 1975; Kavanaugh, 1978; Lawrence & Branch, 1978; Moomaw, 1977; Rencher, Wadham & Young, 1978; Schultheis, 1979; Spady, 1977; Wasserman & Eggert, 1978). Typical of comments is the following conclusion from two educators whose responsibility it is to observe and certify new teachers:

> The struggle for the identification of "good teaching" goes on and on--a lot of hoo-rah, but not too much evidence that something positive is actually happening to the educational product: the classroom teacher (Wasserman & Eggert, 1978, p. 2).

One plausable explanation for this situation has been proposed. Hazard (1975) attribues it to "the lack of verifiable data which demonstrate teacher performance as a casual factor in pupil achievement (p. 39)." Bertiner (1974) recognized this causal relationship as essential when he indicated that any proposed teacher competencies must have a relationship to pupil achievement in order to be accepted. The Hazard (1975) statement becomes increasingly credible when viewed in light of the relevant literature.

Silvernail (1979) extensively reviewed those studies which attempted to relate teaching styles to student outcomes. The conclusion was that since teaching involves a multitude of variables, it has been difficult to identify precise cause-and-effect relationships. It was stated that:

> To date, an overwhelming amount of the research has been able to establish only correlational relationships between selected teaching styles and behaviors and pupil achievement. . . . Additional research is urgently needed (Silvernail, 1979, p. 30).

The conclusions have been echoed by Centra and Potter (1980) in a review of literature related to teacher effects. It was stated that:

> Few studies in the literature on teacher behavior could reasonably be used as the basis for administrative decision-making in the schools; in fact, the conclusion most readily generalizable across these studies is that more research is clearly needed (p. 281). .

The authors appear to be concluding that if the goal of past studies was to relate teacher behavior to student outcomes, they have fallen somewhat short of that goal. Centra and Potter (1980) proposed a model designed to explain classroom dynamics and teacher effects as presented from research. They declared that student behavior and student learning are most directly affected by student characteristics, teaching performance, and within-school conditions, and that teacher characteristics affect outcomes only as far as they might affect teacher performance. However, the authors concluded that a primary need for future research was to clarify the relationship between various teacher characteristics and teaching behavior. They further stated that past studies have concentrated on "the qualities of teaching rather than on teaching behavior per se" (p. 281), the implication being that an understanding of teaching quality necessitates a thorough understanding of teaching behavior and its predetermining factors. Literature to date has demonstrated the need to relate teaching behavior to student outcomes, but to accomplish this by first relating teacher characteristics to teaching behavior.

Peer Competency Ratings

Recent efforts to identify teacher competencies have employed teachers in the evaluation of other teachers.

Edwards (1977) has provided evidence of the reliability of peer ratings as predictions of future performance. Further studies have generally concluded that peer ratings of teaching behavior are cohesive in the belief as to which teachers are competent and which are not (e.g., Casey & Solliday, 1978; Grant & Carvell, 1980), but there is little evidence as to which intra-teacher variables are responsible for such perceptions. It has been shown that peer judgements of preferred work partners are related to certain interpersonal qualities, such as self-disclosure, interpersonal flexibility (Halverson & Shore, 1969; Klockars, 1978).

Victor (1976) examined peer judgements of teaching competence as a function of field independence and dogmatism. The study employed 50 teacher-trainees enrolled in a training program for teachers of emotionally-disturbed children. After one semester, subjects were asked to nominate other individuals in the group as first, second and third choices for a partner in various activities. Results showed that choices were a function of the interactive effects of dogmatism and field independence ($F(1, 46) = 12.53$, $p < .005$). Persons most frequently chosen were low dogmatic and field dependent while persons least frequently chosen were high dogmatic and field dependent.

Field dependent persons appear more prone to be guided by positions attributed to an authority figure or

peer group (Denver, 1967) and may rely on external sources for a definition of acceptable attitudes (Wilkin, 1965). Results from the Victor (1976) study indicate that persons judged as most competent were open-minded individuals who relied to some extent on other persons for directives.

A study by Scheck and Rhodes (1980) employed a principal, vice-principal and two counsellors in the rating of the competency of 30 junior high teachers. Dependent measure was teacher scores on a measure of internal-external control (I-E). It was found that teachers scoring high internal (i.e., believing they were in control of and responsible for their own behavior) were rated as high in overall teaching competence by observers ($X^2 = 3.35$, $p \leq .05$; Yule's Q = .69). The authors conclude the results suggest the I-E dimension is an important consideration in selection of students for teacher-training and selection of teachers for employment.

In an effort to assess teacher professionalism in the evaluation of peers, Stapleton, Thompson, Frankiewicz and Croft (1980) examined perceptions of teacher behaviors which seemed to challenge authority without crossing the border of authority (i.e., brinkmanship behaviors). Teachers were rated on a semantic differential scale measuring each of the factors "evaluation," "potency," and "activity" which are said to underlie semantic meaning (Osgood, Suci & Tannenbaum, 1957). The primary objective was to identify

those factors involved in teachers' perceptions of the brinkmanship behaviors. It was found that in addition to the above three factors, two other factors emerged as forming the basis of ratings: "aesthetic" and "normal." Overall, results indicated that judgements of teachers' behaviors were qualitative in nature.

Results of peer rating studies appear to indicate that teachers were being judged according to various personality dimensions. However, it must be noted that personality assessments were made on those being rated and not on those doing the rating. Assessing the personality of those being rated may be opposite to the direction proposed by Centra and Potter (1980). They suggested that studies investigate the relationship between teacher characteristics and teacher behaviors, rather than investigate the quality of teaching (pp. 281, 289). The former approach allows for an understanding of the pre-determinants of teacher perceptions of competency, and not merely for a classification of perceived competencies. Scheck (1979) addressed this concern in an examination of peer evaluations of college instructors. It was proposed that personal bias might be a very real factor in persons rating teaching behaviors. The concern was that competency might be assessed directly in terms of the rater's personal persuasions.

Summary

Past studies have sought to identify those teacher competencies which are important to student outcomes. Though teacher qualities have been categorized, attempts to relate teacher qualities to student outcomes have produced equivocal results. It has been suggested that investigations be made concerning the relationship of teacher characteristics to teaching behavior, and in so doing more readily define teacher competencies.

A recent approach to defining teacher competencies involved teachers rating teachers. There is evidence that the personalities of those being rated determine judgements of competency. However, little evidence exists to suggest that judgements are made on the basis of the rater's personality. There is some indication, however, that teachers' classroom behaviors and ratings of student ability are related to personality variables such as dogmatism. There is also strong evidence that teaching behavior is related to both teacher expectancy and teacher dogmatism, and that teacher expectancy is in turn related to both teacher dogmtism and information content. In short, past studies have provided evidence to suggest there is a complex relationship between teaching behavior and such factors as teacher expectations, teacher personality and pupil characteristics, and that a better understanding of this relationship would lead to an understanding

of the complex relationship between teaching behavior and student outcome.

On this basis, the present study sought to investigate the effect of dogmatism and expectancy bias on teacher-trainee judgements of teacher competence. Teacher trainees, assessed as to degree of dogmatism, were asked to rate the teaching behavior of a teacher viewed on video-tape, after having read biasing information (positive vs. negative) about the teacher. Source of the information was not manipulated. Ratings were registered on a teacher evaluation questionnaire designed for the present study.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

Design

The study employed an experimental 2 x 2 factorial design. The independent variables were a measure of dogmatism and a type of biased, written communication. Dependent measure used was scores resulting from administration of a teacher evaluation questionnaire. The experimental design was implemented by initially assessing subjects as to the degree to which they were judged to be dogmatic or closed-minded, as measured by the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale, Form E (Rokeach, 1960). Two dogmatism groups were created by designating those above the median as High Dogmatic and those below the median as Low Dogmatic. Determining whether or not these groups were significantly different from each other was reserved until experimental sessions were complete, since it was anticipated that several of these students would be absent during those sessions, and consequently affect the degree of difference between the two dogmatism groups.

As well, it was anticipated that several students would attend the experimental sessions who had not previously completed the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale. It was decided to

include these students in the experimental sessions, but not assign them to either of the treatment groups. These students were to act as a control group against which to assess the experimental manipulation. As well, including them would minimize the amount of distraction coming from students who would otherwise be non-participants.

High Dogmatic subjects were randomly assigned to one of two types of written messages or communications, as were Low Dogmatic subjects. This resulted in four treatment groups (see Table 1). One message type was supportive and positive, while the other was of a non-supportive, negative type. Each message communicated an evaluative judgement of a teacher's teaching performance, and each was presented as having been written by that teacher's principal and by his educational district supervisor.

TABLE 1

2 x 2 Factorial Design: Dogmatism x Expectancy Bias

		Expectancy Bias	
		Positive	Negative
Dogmatism	High	Scores resulting from	
	Low	Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire	

Subjects

The subjects were 120 senior education students enrolled in the Faculty of Education, Memorial University of Newfoundland for the Spring semester, 1979. Their senior status was defined by using only those education students enrolled in senior level courses in education (i.e., 3rd and 4th year courses of a 4-5 year undergraduate degree program in education). In addition, only those students who indicated they had been officially accepted into the Faculty of Education as full-time education students were chosen as participants.

Twenty-eight of the 120 subjects served as a control group, while the remaining 92 were assigned to one of four treatment groups. Of the 92 subjects involved in the experimental manipulation, 39 were male and 53 were female. Of the 28 subjects comprising the control group, 9 were male and 19 were female.

Apparatus

Instruments

Three primary instruments were employed in the study: 1) The Rokeach Dogmatism Scale, Form E, used as a measure of dogmatic personality; 2) two written communications (one positive/supportive, the other negative/non-supportive), used to create the expectancy bias prior to

presenting the video-tape; and 3) a teacher evaluation questionnaire, used by subjects to evaluate a teacher's classroom behavior as presented on the video-tape.

Dogmatism scale. The process of identifying subjects according to their measured degree of dogmatism was accomplished by using the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale, Form E (Appendix A), defined by Rokeach (1960) as an instrument to measure the extent to which a person's belief system is open or closed. Form E, the form used in this study, is a forty-item questionnaire requiring the respondent to assess each of the forty statements by writing +1, +2, +3, or -1, -2, -3, according to the respective responses of "I agree a little," "I agree on the whole," "I agree very much," or "I disagree a little," "I disagree on the whole," "I disagree very much." No neutral response is possible short of not responding. The theoretical range of the total test is a score of from 40 to 280. The higher the numerical value of the score, the more dogmatic (closed minded) the subject was judged to be.

Rokeach (1960) constructed his scale through the testing of left-of-center groups and right-of-center groups using the "Method of Known Groups." For example, in one study, graduate psychology students selected acquaintances who were to be high dogmatic and those who were to be low dogmatic. The high dogmatic individuals (closed-minded) scored significantly higher than the low dogmatic individuals

(open-minded) on the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale (Rokeach, 1960, Ch. 5). In further studies, differences were observed between scores of Catholics and Protestants, and between scores of Communists and Liberals (Rokeach, 1960, Ch. 6).

The final forty-item scale, Form E, had reported odd-even reliabilities, corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula, of .81 for the English colleges sample, and .78 for the English worker sample. In nine other test samples at Michigan State University, Ohio State University, and at Veteran's Administration domiciliary, the reliabilities ranged from .68 to .93. These analyses compared subjects in the upper and lower quartiles of the frequency distribution and found subjects to differ consistently and in a statistically significant manner on the great majority of items (Rokeach, 1960, p. 88-89).

The assumption made by Rokeach, and that substantiated through research, is that people act on the basis of internalized constructs. Rokeach suggests, ". . . we tend to value people in proportion to the degree to which they exhibit beliefs, subsystems, or systems of belief congruent with our own" (Rokeach, 1968, p. 83). Whereas subjects in the present study make evaluative judgements concerning the behavior of another individual, it is important to accurately define the internal constructs of the persons making those judgements. As Kerlinger (1973) concludes, "Rokeach's work is another serious and ambitious

attempt to measure important and complex variables, with, it is believed, considerable success" (p. 501).

Teacher evaluation questionnaire. The teacher evaluation questionnaire employs the Semantic Differential technique developed by Charles Osgood (1958), which essentially is a method of observing and measuring the psychological meaning of concepts. Osgood's intention was to measure the associative meanings of concepts as points in what he termed 'semantic space' (Osgood, 1958, Ch. 2). The semantic differential is a combination of controlled association and scaling procedures, where the subject is provided with a concept to be differentiated and a set of bipolar adjectives against which to make that measurement. The task is to indicate for each concept the direction of association and its intensity on a seven-point scale. When a subject judges a concept against a series of scales, that judgement represents a selection among a set of alternatives, and tends to localize the concept as a point in the semantic space (Osgood, 1958, Ch. 3).

In an effort to isolate adjectives which would best serve as polarized scales for the assessment of meaning, Osgood and his associates (1958) presented 40 nouns to 200 subjects and asked them to generate descriptive adjectives for each one. The 50 most frequently used adjectives were made into sets of polarized adjectives. These served as the sample of descriptive adjective scales used in the

validation study. Of the 50, over half were judged to be of an evaluative nature.

To determine which of the 50 descriptive scales were most effective in the differentiation of meaning, 100 subjects were asked to respond to 20 concepts using the 50 polarized adjective scales. This created a 1000-item test form. Correlations resulting from pairing each scale with every other scale revealed the relative ability of each scale to differentiate and define meaning. This relative ability becomes a criterion in choosing polarized scales for research purposes.

Reliability of the semantic differential technique is determined by the ability of a given scale to consistently produce the same score, value or point in the semantic space. The semantic space is described as being composed of three factors: evaluation, potency, activity (Osgood, 1958, Ch. 2). Consistently high factor loadings in a single factor area of the semantic space suggests a scale which would be highly reliable in differentiating meaning. Choice of scales to be used in research would, therefore, be based on the ability of a given scale to differentiate and define meaning, as indicated by factor loadings.

Eight polarized scales were chosen for use in the present study. Seven were of an evaluative nature, while one was a potency factor scale (i.e., a scale used to judge

the strength or weakness of a given concept). One of the scales (complete-incomplete) was not in the original list of 50, but was used in a subsequent study (Osgood, 1958, p. 47). Table 2 lists the eight scales used and their respective factor loadings. Five scales were placed with each of the 10 concepts, the choice of scales depending on their relevance to a given concept.

TABLE 2

Factor Loadings of Polarized Scales used in the Present Study

Polarized Scale	Factor Loadings[a]	
	Evaluative	Potency
good-bad	.88	.05
complete-incomplete	.32	.05
valuable-invaluable	.79	.04
clear-hazy	.59	.03
pleasant-unpleasant	.82	-.05
tasteful-distasteful	.77	.05
fair-unfair	.83	.08
strong-weak	.19	.62

Note: Factor loadings are those reported by Osgood (1958), pp. 37, 53.

[a]Factor loadings are decimal quantities out of 1.00.

The choice of concepts to be judged is dictated by the nature of the research. Concepts must be relevant to and representative of the area of research interest. In short, 'good judgement' is a good rule of thumb (Osgood, 1958, p. 77). Although there are semantic differential profiles for such terms and concepts as 'education,' 'school,' and 'teacher' (Heise, 1965; Snider & Osgood, 1969), concepts relevant to the evaluation of teacher performance were not evident in these profiles. Consequently, concepts were chosen which would allow for accurate evaluation of teaching performance and which would "cover substantial parts of the semantic space" (Kerlinger, 1973, p. 569).

Two of the ten concepts used in the present study were taken from a study by Kerlinger (1968), where university students were asked to pretend to hire teachers based on teacher profiles made available to them. Teachers were chosen on the basis of competencies which students felt were important to effective teaching. Two of these, 'imagination' and 'ethical conduct,' were chosen as concepts to be judged by students in the present study.

Eight additional concepts were chosen from a study by Wotruba and Wright (1975), where university students were asked to compile lists of teacher competencies thought to be essential to effective teaching. This resulted in a comprehensive list of teacher competencies regarded by

students as necessary to effective teaching. These competencies were rated according to the importance placed on each by the students. The eight chosen for the present study were among those receiving highest ratings.

The ten concepts (see Table 3) were chosen because they were relevant to the present study, and because their ability to cover the 'semantic space' has been substantiated through research. It is important still, to point out that subjects will not be judging the concepts, but will be judging a teacher's classroom performance in terms of each concept. The concepts are simply competency areas against which to make assessments.

The resulting Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire (Appendix B), therefore, contains 10 concepts listed with five polarized scales below each one. Subjects were able to view a teacher's performance and then rate that teacher on the 10 areas. This rating was completed by responding to the polarized adjective scales, as in the following example from the Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire: The concept of 'Enthusiasm' had the polarized scales 'hazy-clear,' 'unpleasant-pleasant,' 'strong-weak,' 'good-bad,' and 'incomplete-complete' below it. Subjects would rate the teacher's enthusiasm according to the five scales provided.

Expectancy bias communications. The independent variable of communication type (expectancy bias) constitutes

TABLE 3

Ten Concepts Used in Present Study and Their Source

Source	
Kerlinger (1968)	Wotruba and Wright (1975)
1. imagination	3. communication skills
2. ethical conduct	4. subject knowledge
	5. attitude toward students
	6. enthusiasm
	7. personality
	8. organizing ability
	9. flexibility
	10. ability to evaluate students' performances and behaviors

a procedure fundamental to this study and so is included here. Half the subjects were given a written communication concerning a teacher they were about to view on video-tape, which was positive and supportive of that teacher, while the other half received one which was negative and non-supportive of the teacher (Appendices C,D). However, both communications were identical in paragraph length, format, style, and alleged source. The only difference was in the use of certain nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, which would make the communication either positive or negative. For

example, the positive message contained the sentence, "Mr. _____ seems to possess many of the communications skills necessary . . .", while the negative message contained the sentence, "Mr. _____ seems to lack many of the communication skills necessary . . . ." The infinitives 'to possess' and 'to lack' are the only differing constructions in the two sentences.

Each communication consisted of the same number of sentences. Both were comprised of statements alleged to have been written by two of the teachers' superiors, a principal and a district supervisor, but contained references to evaluations made by others, such as students, colleagues, etc.

The selection of these communication variables (i.e., non-verbal medium, common source, positive/negative type) was based on a review of the theoretical and empirical literature which suggests that certain characteristics contribute significantly to the credibility of the communication (Milling, 1976; Powell, 1962; Lumsden, 1977). However, use of this type of communication (i.e., a message in the educational context) was dictated by the nature and context of the present study. For students pursuing careers in the field of education, such a written communication and the subsequent task of teacher evaluation would seem to be necessarily relevant and applicable to the educational context. In short, the expectancy bias which was created

was done so in a manner with which the subjects could easily identify.

Video-tape

A video-taped cassette recording of a teacher instructing a Grade 7 class was used as a stimulus. It was a 10-minute segment constructed from selected excerpts of a 40-minute session in which the teacher was filmed over one complete class period. The teacher was filmed in his own classroom, teaching his usual curriculum, and instructing a Grade 7 class which he would normally be teaching at that time. Filming was done, therefore, in a very natural setting for both teacher and students.

The 40-minute session was originally used as part of a video-taped presentation entitled Teachers Looking at Themselves (Sheppard & Boak, 1978), in which the teacher is asked to view his performance in the classroom and entertain comments and suggestions. This was done with a view to helping the teacher become more self-directed. Therefore, the 40-minute tape, Teachers Looking at Themselves, was a video-tape of the teacher evaluating his performance, with occasional unnarrated segments of the teacher in the classroom. These unnarrated segments totaled 10 minutes, and constitute the tape used in the present study. The editing of the 40-minute tape to retain only the unnarrated segments was accomplished by a professional

film editor at Educational Television Services, Memorial University of Newfoundland. The resulting 10-minute tape was viewed by Drs. Glenn Sheppard and Terrance Boak of Memorial University's Educational Psychology Department, and was assessed as being representative of that teacher's classroom behavior.

Procedure

Initial Session

Subjects were solicited by request through regular classes in courses from the education faculty. Courses chosen were those 3rd and 4th year courses which were part of a 4-5 year undergraduate degree program in education. Professors were approached individually and permission was obtained from each to use selected class times. Professors were told the exact nature of the study, but were asked to refrain from discussing this with students. Each class was initially begun by the professor telling his class that the experimenter was engaged in a form of graduate research, and that their participation would be greatly appreciated. The experimenter then addressed the students.

Students were reassured that participation was not mandatory, and that a decision not to participate would have no reflection on their grades or on them as individuals. Students were simply told the study was in an important area of research, and that further details and explanation would

be provided at a later date. Each student was then given a copy of the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale, Form E complete with instructions as to its use. If a student did not complete the scale, this was seen as a decision not to participate.

Each student was then asked to place the following information at the top of the scale: 1) the course being taught in the class where data was being collected, 2) whether or not the student was enrolled as a full-time education student, and 3) the last three digits of the student's IBM number. They were then given verbal assurances that no attempt would be made to identify them as individuals, but that these numbers would allow for individual identification at the next session though still not identifying students by name.

A total of nine classes completed the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale, yielding a total of 150 respondents. Of this number, 16 were eliminated because they were not full-time education students. The remaining 134 scores were divided by designating subjects as High Dogmatic or Low Dogmatic depending on their dogmatism scores placing above or below the median dogmatism score. This was done so that expectancy bias treatment groups could be assigned. Table 4 describes the distribution of the 134 dogmatism scores. Treatment groups were created by randomly assigning equal numbers of each of Low and High Dogmatic subjects to receive either the positive or negative expectancy bias.

TABLE 4

Range, Mean, and Median of 134 Dogmatism Scores

Range	80-240
Median	143.07
Mean	142.01

Note: Due to absences during the experimental sessions, only 92 of these students completed the study.

The result was four separate experimental treatments with a specific number of subjects in each treatment group (see Table 5).

TABLE 5

Number of Subjects Initially in Each Treatment Group

		Expectancy Bias	
		Positive	Negative
Dogmatism	High	N = 33	N = 34
	Low	N = 34	N = 33

Note: It was anticipated that due to absences, numbers per treatment group would change.

A total of 34 students were absent during the experimental (second) session, leaving a total of 100 participants. Though such absenteeism was anticipated, the assigning of treatment groups had to be done prior to the second session, without any knowledge of who would be absent. The 34 absentees caused the four treatment groups to still contain unequal numbers of subjects. Consequently, it became necessary to eliminate a further eight subjects whose dogmatism scores were within three points of the median dogmatism score, after experimental sessions were complete. This resulted in equal numbers of subjects in each group. The resulting 46 High Dogmatic scores were compared using a t-test, and found to be significantly different ($t = 14.197$, $df = 90$, $p < .001$).

Experimental Session

Arrangement was made with each professor to conduct the experimental session in each class which had completed the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale. These sessions were conducted approximately three weeks after the dogmatism scores were collected, and involved subjects receiving an expectancy bias and subsequently evaluating a teacher viewed on videotape.

Each session was begun with each professor again reminding students that their cooperation would be appreciated. The experimenter then proceeded to explain that

subjects were about to see a video-tape of a teacher instructing one of his Grade 7 classes. Students were advised that neither teacher nor students was playacting, and that all observed behaviors should be viewed as being typical of the classroom behaviors of teacher and students.

Booklets were then distributed to students according to their particular treatment group. Subjects were identified by the 3-digit IBM number placed on the completed dogmatism scales. Subjects receiving either of the expectancy bias treatments were given booklets containing the following: 1) General Instructions (Appendix E), 2) either a Supportive communication concerning the teacher or a Non-supportive communication concerning the teacher (Appendices C, D), and 3) a copy of the Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire, complete with instructions as to its use (Appendix B).

During the course of the experimental sessions, 28 students were participating for the first time, and so had not completed the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale, nor had they been assigned to either of the four treatment groups. It had been decided by prior design, to include all such students in the study as a control group against which to measure the experimental manipulation, and as well to minimize distraction from non-participants. All such students were given booklets containing the following: 1) General Instructions (Appendix F) which differed from

those given biased subjects, and 2) a copy of the Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire, complete with instructions as to its use (Appendix B).

After booklets had been distributed, students were told to closely follow the instructions contained in their booklets. When sufficient time had elapsed to read the necessary information in the booklets (approximately 10 minutes), students were again cautioned to regard the video-tape as actual, and representative of the teacher's classroom behavior. Students were then instructed to close their booklets, and the video-tape was begun.

Following the tape presentation, students were asked to open their booklets to the instructions for completion of the Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire. Instructions were read aloud with added explanation where necessary, after which the questionnaires were completed.

Following collection of questionnaires, subjects who had received an expectancy bias were given the opportunity to indicate the type of teacher they had expected to see just prior to viewing the video-tape. This was accomplished by distributing a Likert-type scale from 1 to 10, one meaning an excellent teacher was expected, and ten meaning an extremely poor teacher was expected (Appendix G). This additional information was collected to gain some further measure of the effectiveness of the expectancy bias, and to provide for a more informed discussion of results.

Subjects were cautioned against discussing particulars of the experimental session, since this might influence those who would participate at a later date. This was necessary due to experimental sessions being spread over a period of five days, something which could not be avoided because of scheduling conflicts over available class times. In part for this same reason, no formal debriefing sessions were held, since to do so for each class would certainly jeopardize the remainder of the experimental sessions. However, individuals who inquired after the study was complete as to the exact nature of the study, were completely debriefed. The time at which experimental sessions ended was too close to final examinations to secure additional class time for extensive debriefing.

CHAPTER IV

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF DATA

Data was analyzed using the statistical procedures contained in the computer program Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Following is a description of data from the Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire, the results of tests of research hypotheses, and results of additional analyses.

Description of Data

The dependent measure used was scores from the Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire. A description of these scores for all treatment groups is provided in Table 6. There were observable differences between the mean scores of positive and negative expectancy bias groups. Differences also appeared to exist between the mean scores of high and low dogmatism groups. A further difference was observed between mean scores of high dogmatic subjects receiving a positive expectancy bias and high dogmatic subjects receiving a negative expectancy bias. Observed differences were in the directions proposed by research hypotheses.

Research Hypotheses

Research hypotheses were tested by use of a 2-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). Table 7 presents the results

TABLE 6

Means and Standard Deviations of Scores Obtained by Treatment Groups on the Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire
N=92 (Equal Groups of 23)

Treatment Groups	Positive Expectancy		Negative Expectancy		Total	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
High Dogmatic	191.26	67.16	152.87	57.51	172.06	62.34
Low Dogmatic	211.61	66.45	180.17	62.99	195.89	64.72
Total	201.43	66.80	166.52	60.25	183.98	63.52

TABLE 7

Analysis of Variance of Effect of Expectancy Bias vs. Dogmatism on Scores Obtained from the Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	df	F	p
Expectancy Bias	28035	28035	1	6.922	.010*
Dogmatism	13057	13057	1	3.224	.076
Bias X Dogmatism	278	278	1	.069	.794
Residual	356,407	4050	88		

of these comparisons.

Hypothesis 1: Subjects who receive the positive expectancy bias will judge the teacher on the Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire to be significantly more competent than will subjects who receive the negative expectancy bias.

This hypothesis was confirmed and accepted as true ($p = .01$).

Hypothesis 2: Subjects defined as high dogmatic will judge the teacher on the Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire to be significantly less competent than will subjects defined as low dogmatic.

This hypothesis was not confirmed and was rejected as being false ($p = .076$).

Hypothesis 3: There will be a significant interaction between dogmatism and expectancy bias such that high dogmatic subjects receiving a positive expectancy bias will judge the teacher on the Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire to be significantly more competent than will high dogmatic subjects receiving a negative expectancy bias.

No interactive effects of dogmatism and expectancy bias resulted. This hypothesis was not confirmed and was rejected as being false ($p = .794$).

Additional Analyses

Male vs. female. Sex of subject is a variable which was not controlled for in the design of the present study.

However, comparisons of effects of sex vs. dogmatism and of sex vs. bias revealed a significant sex x bias interactive effect (see Table 8). Males rated the teacher as significantly more competent than did females when both groups were presented with a positive expectancy bias. (A description of data for sex x bias is presented in Table 9).

TABLE 8

Analysis of Variance of Effect of Expectancy Bias vs. Sex of Subject on Scores Obtained from Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	df	F	p
Expectancy Bias	22625	22625	1	5.717	.01
Sex of Subject	4795	4795	1	1.212	.27
Bias x Sex	16687	16687	1	4.217	.04
Residual	348260	3957	88		

This result carried with it the suggestion that sex of subject may have been a factor contributing to other results of the present study. For this reason, a 3-way ANOVA was completed, combining the variables of dogmatism, expectancy bias, and sex. A significant 3-way interaction

resulted from this comparison. Since there was no significant changes from previous comparisons, only the results of the 3-way interaction were reported (see Table 10).

TABLE 9

Means, Standard Deviations, and Number of Subjects of Expectancy Bias vs. Sex of Subject on Scores Obtained from Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire

Treatment Group	Positive Bias	Negative Bias	Total
Male	N=24, $\bar{X}$=221.04 S.D.=61.46	N=15, $\bar{X}$=156.6 S.D.=47.62	N=39, $\bar{X}$=188.82 S.D.=54.54
Female	N=22, $\bar{X}$=183.76 S.D.=69.88	N=31, $\bar{X}$=171.32 S.D.=67	N=53, $\bar{X}$=177.54 S.D.=68.44
Total	N=46, $\bar{X}$=201.43 S.D.=65.67	N=46, $\bar{X}$=166.52 S.D.=57.31	N=92, $\bar{X}$=183.98 S.D.=63.52

A description of data for sex x bias x dogmatism is presented in Table 11. The nature of this interaction is such that the sex x bias interaction existed only for subjects defined as high dogmatic. In other words, males rated the teacher as more competent than did females when both were given a positive expectancy bias, but only when these males and females were subjects defined as high dogmatic. (Figure 1 illustrates the nature of this interaction.)

TABLE 10

Analysis of Variance of Effect of Expectancy Bias vs. Dogmatism vs. Sex of Subject on Scores Obtained from Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	df	F	p
Bias x Dogmatism x Sex	16567	16567	1	4.360	.04
Residual	397778	4371	84		

TABLE 11

Means and Number of Subjects of Expectancy Bias x Dogmatism x Sex of Subject on Scores Obtained from the Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire

Treatment Group	High Dogmatic		Low Dogmatic	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Positive Bias	$\bar{X}$=238.22 n = 9	$\bar{X}$=161.07 n = 14	$\bar{X}$=210.73 n = 15	$\bar{X}$=213.25 n = 8
Negative Bias	$\bar{X}$=133.62 n = 8	$\bar{X}$=163.13 n = 15	$\bar{X}$=182.85 n = 8	$\bar{X}$=179 n = 16

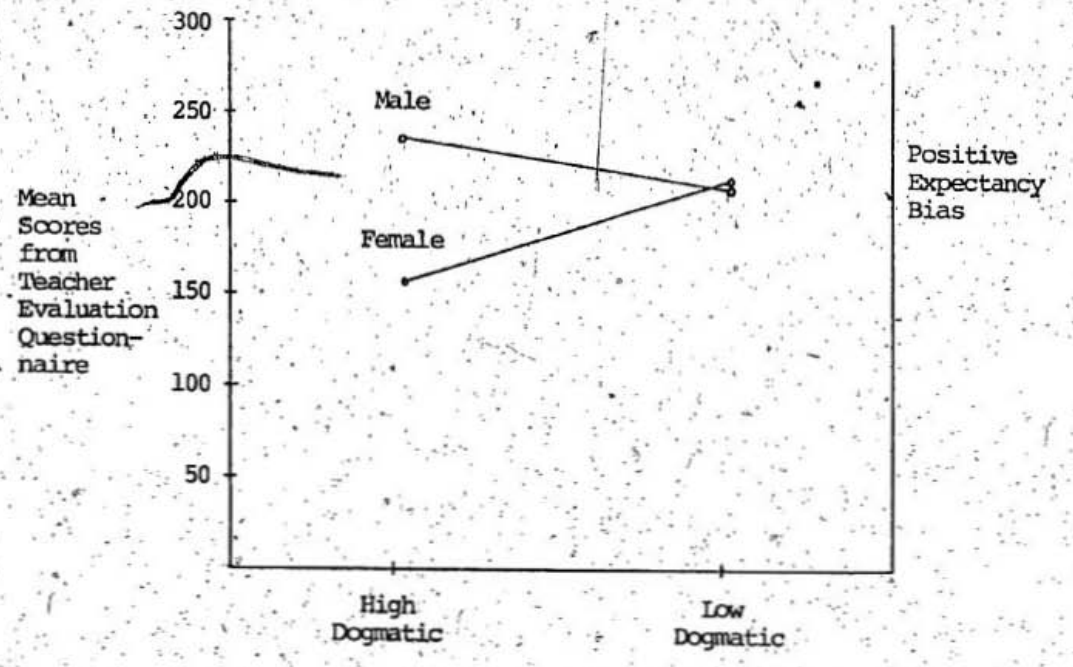


FIGURE 1. Nature of 3-way Interaction of Dogmatism, Expectancy Bias, Sex of Subject.

Unbiased subjects. Scores on the Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire obtained from the 27 unbiased (control) subjects were compared with scores obtained by positively biased subjects, as well as with the scores obtained by negatively biased subjects. Results of these comparisons are presented in Table 12. Neither of the biased groups differed from the unbiased group, though the difference between negative biased subjects and unbiased subjects approached significance.

TABLE 12

T-tests of Positive Expectancy Bias vs. Unbiased and Negative Expectancy Bias vs. Unbiased on Scores Obtained from the Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire

T-test Comparison	Mean	S.D.	df	t
Positive Bias	201.43	66.8		
vs.			72	.814*
Unbiased	190.42	48.93		
Negative Bias	166.52	60.24		
vs.			72	1.864**
Unbiased	190.42	48.93		

*p > .20
**p < .07

Expectancy check. After subjects had completed the Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire, each was given an opportunity to indicate on a 10-point Likert-type scale the type of teacher expected on the video-tape prior to viewing

the video-tape. Subjects registered expectations ranging from 'Excellent Teacher' (#1) to 'Extremely Poor Teacher' (#10).

A t-test was applied to the means of the two groups designated positive expectancy bias and negative expectancy bias. Results revealed a significant difference between the expectancy scores of the two expectancy groups. Subjects who had received a positive expectancy bias indicated they had expected to see a competent teacher on video-tape, while negatively biased subjects indicated they had expected to see an incompetent teacher on video-tape. (Results are presented in Table 13). The negative relationship is explained by the scale being constructed so that a high score indicated a negative rating, while a low score indicated the subject was making a positive rating.

TABLE 13

T-test of Positive Expectancy Bias vs. Negative Expectancy Bias on Scores Obtained from the Expectancy Check (Likert-type Scale)

Positive Bias		Negative Bias			
Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	df	t
2.35	1.19	7.78	1.77	90	-17.22*

*p < .001

Note: Scores on Expectancy Check range from 1 to 10.

Specific questionnaire concepts. Analysis of variance was applied to each of the 10 concepts on the Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire, comparing scores on each concept of positively biased subjects and negatively biased subjects. (Results of these comparisons are presented in Table 14). Concepts rated significantly different by the two expectancy groups are denoted in Table 14 by an asterisk. These concepts are assumed to be contributing most to the difference in positive expectancy effects and negative expectancy effects.

TABLE 14

Analysis of Variance of Positive Expectancy Bias vs. Negative Expectancy Bias on Scores Obtained from Specific Concepts on the Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire

Concept	SS_b	SS_w	MS_b	MS_w	df	F	p
Communication Skills	621	4782	621	53	1,91	11.685	.001*
Ethical Conduct	507	5771	507	64	1,91	7.908	.006*
Enthusiasm	439	5713	439	63	1,91	6.918	.01*
Ability to Evaluate Students' Behaviors and Performances	448	5888	448	65	1,91	6.946	.01*
Organizing Ability	344	4881	344	54	1,91	6.350	.02*
Flexibility	296	6141	296	68	1,91	4.337	.04*
Attitude Toward Students	204	5405	204	60	1,91	3.397	.07
Subject Knowledge	113	6059	113	67	1,91	1.680	.20
Imagination	86	7208	86	80	1,91	1.075	.30
Personality	55	4600	55	51	1,91	1.072	.30

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Discussion

The present study sought to identify the extent to which personality and expectancy are factors in the evaluation of teacher competency. Three hypotheses were proposed and evaluated. Results of the study were not unequivocal, but did suggest that both expectancy and personality were factors affecting teachers' perceptions of teacher competence.

Expectancy. The two expectations resulting from the two types of biasing information produced significantly different evaluations of the teacher's ability. This is in keeping with results of studies involving teachers rating students' abilities (e.g., Cooper, 1979a; Rose, 1977). However, the results of the present study have implications for the evaluation process involving teachers rating teachers. These results suggest the importance of predetermined expectations in the evaluation of teachers. This is especially true in light of the claim that, ". . . the chief impetus for evaluation . . . is gathering information for making personnel decisions (Moomaw, 1977, p. 90)." If that is the case, then identification of factors involved in peer evaluation becomes essential, especially to those

being evaluated. Moomaw suggests the stated purpose of teacher evaluation is for "faculty development and improvement (p. 90)," but that this rarely happens because programs are rarely initiated to develop and improve teaching and because evaluation is carried out primarily by administration with little faculty participation (p. 90). Moomaw (1977) concludes that "faculty evaluation is still in its infancy, where it seems to have been for an unduly long time (p. 91)."

The expectations were created as the result of information which was attributed to a common source. Since there was evidence that expectancy effects may result from the multitude effect of message type and message source (Lumsden, 1977; Powell, 1962), the present study held the source constant. However, this message was attributed to various persons within the school system, and the question arises as to which source or combination of sources (i.e., at which levels of authority in the school) commanded the greatest respect. Past studies have related source credibility to amount of information delivered (Lashbrook, Snavely & Sullivan, 1977), amount of information absorbed (Walton, 1975), and expertness and trustworthiness (Hovland, Janis & Kelly, 1953). However, it remains to be demonstrated whether or not a message attributed to a principal alone, or to a teacher alone, would produce the same expectancy effects realized in the present study.

Dogmatism. High and low dogmatic students did not differ significantly in their ratings of the teacher, though the difference approached significance ($p < .07$). A recent study found that high dogmatic subjects rejected both source and message when their expectancies were disconfirmed (Rotton, Blake & Heslin, 1977). In the present study, high dogmatic trainees receiving a positive bias ($\bar{X} = 191.26$) rated the teacher the same as trainees receiving no bias ($\bar{X} = 190.42$). Viewed in light of the Rotton et al. (1977) study, it may be that when the positive expectancies of the high dogmatics were not confirmed, the source and/or message was rejected. If such were the case, expectancy violation occurred, and must be considered in future research.

Interaction. No interaction occurred between the effects of expectancy and dogmatism. Past studies investigating the combined effects of dogmatism and expectancy have been few. Laszlo and Rosenthal (1970) found high dogmatics to be more susceptible to high status experimenter effects than low status experimenter effects. Rubovitz and Maehr (1973) found high dogmatic teachers more susceptible to expectations for the performance of black and white students. However, further investigation is necessary in order to clarify the combined effects of these two variables.

Another interaction tested was between the effects of expectancy, dogmatism and the sex of the evaluator.

Though sex was not controlled for, the interaction was significant. That is, high dogmatic males rated the teacher as more competent than high dogmatic females when presented with positively biased information. Past research has indicated that females may possess a lesser tolerance for dissonance (Brandt & Hayden, 1974; Goebes & Shore, 1975). It may be that in the present study females perceived the teacher's performance as somewhat inconsistent with the previously presented message concerning him. Males might be less disconcerted by apparent inconsistencies, and rate the teacher as more competent than would females.

A study by Taylor (1979) showed that high dogmatic females rated students according to social characteristics (e.g., courteousness), whereas high dogmatic males and low dogmatic females were more objective in their ratings. The implication for the present study is that high dogmatic female students may have attended to surface indicators of competence, which may differ somewhat from the degree of competence inferred from the positively biased information. The value of this explanation, however, must be viewed in light of the numbers of positively biased, high dogmatic males (9) as compared to females (14). If the tendency suggested by Taylor (1979) existed in the present study, the larger number of females versus males would further accentuate the effect.

Conclusion

The present study provided evidence that teachers' perceptions of teacher competency are affected by prior expectations for behavior. Due to the restricted sample used in the present study, caution is needed in generalizing these results to the teaching profession at large. However, it must be noted that care was taken to ensure that subjects were students soon to be entering the teaching profession in a full-time capacity. In that respect, the results were a demonstration of the perceptions of teacher competence held by soon-to-be teachers, and may also carry implications for teacher training in view of past research (e.g., Kuhlman, 1976) suggesting that new teachers increase their deference to norms and structures prescribed by their peers as teaching time increases. The suggestion here is that susceptibility to prescribed expectations may increase as teaching experience increases.

Overall, results of the present study indicated that investigations of teacher competency must go beyond a mere categorization of teaching qualities, and be concerned with the casual factors related to teaching behavior. Expectancy set must be considered as must teacher dogmatism. Evaluator sex may also be an important factor as well, although results of the present study are equivocal in that regard because of student sex not being a controlled variable. Even though these teacher-trainees rated the teacher according to acceptable criteria of competence, it

remains that all of the above factors played a role in their evaluations of performance and competence.

Coupled with past results linking expectancy and dogmatism to the evaluation of student ability, the results of the present study suggest closer attention be given to the operation of such factors in future studies. This would appear to be true for an investigation of evaluation in any educational setting. Future studies might also investigate the role of evaluator sex as it relates to the evaluation of both male and female teachers. As well, future investigations might seek to determine the relative perceived credibility of information coming from teachers, principals, and supervisory personnel. As a result of such investigations, it is hoped that there will be a better understanding of the factors operant in the educational evaluation processes.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

ROKEACH DOGMATISM SCALE, FORM E

GENERAL INFORMATION

This study is part of a basic research project. You are being asked to participate in this project by completing the attached forms.

Specific instructions and space for your answers are included on each of the separate forms. Although your responses will become part of the project data, they will remain strictly confidential, and no information as to particular individual responses will be used in any report of the research.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated. Thank you!

FORM E

INSTRUCTIONS:

The following is a study of what the general public thinks and feels about a number of important social and personal questions. The best answer to each statement below is your personal opinion. We have tried to cover many different and opposing points of view; you may find yourself agreeing strongly with some of the statements, disagreeing just as strongly with others, and perhaps uncertain about others. Whether you agree or disagree with any statement, you can be sure that many people feel the same as you do.

Mark each statement in the left margin according to how much you agree or disagree with it. Please mark every one. Write +1, +2, +3, or -1, -2, -3, depending on how you feel in each case.

+1:	I AGREE A LITTLE	-1:	I DISAGREE A LITTLE
+2:	I AGREE ON THE WHOLE	-2:	I DISAGREE ON THE WHOLE
+3:	I AGREE VERY MUCH	-3:	I DISAGREE VERY MUCH

____ 1. In the long run the best way to live is to pick friends and associates whose tastes and beliefs are the same as one's own.

____ 2. In times like these it is often necessary to be more on guard against ideas put out by people or groups in one's own camp than by those in the opposing camp.

+1: I AGREE A LITTLE -1: I DISAGREE A LITTLE

+2: I AGREE ON THE WHOLE -2: I DISAGREE ON THE WHOLE

+3: I AGREE VERY MUCH -3: I DISAGREE VERY MUCH

____3. In the history of mankind there have probably been just a handful of really great thinkers.

____4. Most of the ideas which get printed nowadays aren't worth the paper they are printed on.

____5. It is only natural for a person to be rather fearful of the future.

____6. If given the chance, I would do something of great benefit to the world.

____7. The highest form of government is a democracy and the highest form of democracy is a government run by those who are most intelligent.

____8. A person who gets enthusiastic about too many causes is likely to be a pretty "wishy washy" sort of person.

____9. In a discussion I often find it necessary to repeat myself several times to make sure I am being understood.

____10. It is only natural have a person would have a much better acquaintance with ideas he believes in than with ideas he opposes.

____11. The present is all too often full of unhappiness. It is only the future that counts.

____12. The main thing in life is for a person to want to do something important.

____13. Man on his own is a helpless and miserable creature.

____14. It is only when a person devotes himself to an ideal or cause that life becomes meaningful.

____15. My blood boils whenever a person stubbornly refuses to admit he is wrong.

+1: I AGREE A LITTLE -1: I DISAGREE A LITTLE

+2: I AGREE ON THE WHOLE -2: I DISAGREE ON THE WHOLE

+3: I AGREE VERY MUCH -3: I DISAGREE VERY MUCH

____16. Unfortunately, a good many people with whom I have discussed important social and moral problems don't really understand what's going on.

____17. Once I get wound up in a heated discussion, I just can't stop.

____18. If a man is to accomplish his mission in life, it is sometimes necessary to gamble "all or nothing at all."

____19. Of all the different philosophies which exist in this world, there is probably only one which is correct.

____20. Fundamentally, the world we live in is a pretty lonesome place.

____21. There is so much to be done and so little time to do it in.

____22. In this complicated world of ours the only way we can know what's going on is to rely on leaders or experts who can be trusted.

____23. In times like these, a person must be pretty selfish if he considers primarily his own happiness.

____24. Even though freedom of speech for all groups is a worthwhile goal, it is unfortunately necessary to restrict the freedom of certain political groups.

____25. When it comes to differences of opinion in religion, we must be careful not to compromise with those who believe differently from the way we do.

____26. The United States and Russia have just about nothing in common.

____27. There are a number of people I have come to hate because of the things they stand for.

____28. A group which tolerates too much difference of opinion among its own members cannot exist for long.

+1: I AGREE A LITTLE -1: I DISAGREE A LITTLE

+2: I AGREE ON THE WHOLE -2: I DISAGREE ON THE WHOLE

+3: I AGREE VERY MUCH -3: I DISAGREE VERY MUCH

___29. A person who thinks primarily of his own happiness is beneath contempt.

___30. The worst crime a person could commit is to attack publicly the people who believe in the same thing he does.

___31. In a heated discussion I generally become so absorbed in what I am going to say that I forget to listen to what others are saying.

___32. Most people just don't give a "damn" for others.

___33. There are two kinds of people in this world: those who are for the truth and those who are against the truth.

___34. A man who does not believe in some great cause has not really lived.

___35. It is better to be a dead hero than to be a live coward.

___36. Most people just don't know what's good for them.

___37. While I don't like to admit this even to myself, my secret ambition is to become a great man like Einstein, or Beethoven, or Shakespeare.

___38. It is often desirable to reserve judgement about what's going on until one has had a chance to hear opinions of those one respects.

___39. To compromise with our political opponents is dangerous because it usually leads to the betrayal of our own side.

___40. I'd like it if I could find someone who would tell me how to solve my personal problems.

APPENDIX B

TEACHER EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS:

The purpose of this final portion of the study is to measure your reactions to what you have observed. You are being asked to evaluate this teacher's performance in terms of how you personally see him performing on various aspects. These aspects, or concepts, are simply areas thought to be important to the educational process. On each page you will find various areas of concern to be evaluated and beneath each a set of scales upon which to make your evaluation. Please make your evaluations on the basis of how you feel this teacher measures up on each of the areas or concepts. Though you may feel that in some cases you do not know enough about this teacher to make an evaluation, try to make an accurate inference on the basis of the observations you have made.

Here is how you use these scales:

- If you feel that the way this teacher measures up to a particular concept is <u>very closely related</u> to one end of the scale, you should place your check mark as follows:

fair_X_:__:__:__:__:__:__unfair

or

fair___:__:__:__:__:__:_X_unfair

- If you feel that the way this teacher measures up to a particular concept is quite closely related to one end of the scale (but not extremely), you should place your check mark as follows:

strong___:_X_:___:___:___:___:___weak

or

strong___:___:___:___:___:_X_:___weak

- If you feel that the way this teacher measures up to a particular concept is only slightly related to one end of the scale (but not really neutral), then you should check as follows:

valuable___:___:_X_:___:___:___:___worthless

or

valuable___:___:___:___:_X_:___:___worthless

- If you consider the concept to be neutral on the scale, both sides of the scale equally associated with the concept, then you should place your check mark in the middle space:

good___:___:___:_X_:___:___:___bad

NOTE: The direction toward which you check, of course, depends upon which of the two ends of the scale seem most characteristic of the teacher you have observed. For example, when you see the concept "SUBJECT KNOWLEDGE", you are to evaluate this teacher's "subject knowledge" as to whether it is good-bad, strong-weak, etc. You are not simply evaluating the general area of "subject knowledge".

IMPORTANT: 1) Place your check-marks in the middle of spaces, not on the boundaries:

THIS NOT THIS

___:_X_:___:___:___:___:___ (X above the boundary)

2) Be sure you check every scale under each concept--do not omit any.

3) Never put more than one check-mark on a single scale.

Sometimes you may feel as though you've had the same item before. This will not be the case, so do not look back and forth through the items. Do not try to remember how you checked similar items earlier. Make each item a separate and independent judgement. Work at fairly high speed through the items. Do not worry or puzzle over individual items. And anways remember, you are being asked to examine Ten (10) concepts thought to be important to teaching, and indicate how you feel this teacher measures up on each concept by scoring the Five (5) scales below each concept.

THANK YOU!

REMINDER: Mark an X at the place you feel appropriate for each of the Five (5) scales below each concept. You are indicating the degree to which the adjectives making up the scales describe this teacher's performance in each concept area.

(1) COMMUNICATION SKILLS

bad ____:____:____:____:____:____:____good

complete____:____:____:____:____:____:____incomplete

valuable____:____:____:____:____:____:____worthless

clear ____:____:____:____:____:____:____hazy

strong ____:____:____:____:____:____:____weak

(2) SUBJECT KNOWLEDGE

strong ____:____:____:____:____:____:____weak

good ____:____:____:____:____:____:____bad

valuable ____:____:____:____:____:____:____worthless

incomplete____:____:____:____:____:____:____complete

clear ____:____:____:____:____:____:____hazy

(3) ATTITUDE TOWARD STUDENTS

pleasant	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ unpleasant
good	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ bad
distasteful	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ tasteful
worthless	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ valuable
weak	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ strong

(4) ENTHUSIASM

hazy	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ clear
unpleasant	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ pleasant
strong	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ weak
good	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ bad
incomplete	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ complete

(5) PERSONALITY

good	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ bad
pleasant	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ unpleasant
distasteful	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ tasteful
worthless	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ valuable
weak	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ strong

(6) ETHICAL CONDUCT

bad	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ good
distasteful	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ tasteful
valuable	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ worthless
pleasant	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ unpleasant
weak	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ strong

(7) ORGANIZING ABILITY

bad	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ good
strong	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ weak
incomplete	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ complete
worthless	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ valuable
hazy	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ clear

(8) FLEXIBILITY

weak	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ strong
valuable	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ worthless
good	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ bad
incomplete	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ complete
hazy	____	____	____	____	____	____	____ clear

(9) ABILITY TO EVALUATE STUDENTS' PERFORMANCES AND BEHAVIORS

unfair ____:____:____:____:____:____:____fair

complete ____:____:____:____:____:____:____incomplete

good ____:____:____:____:____:____:____bad

strong ____:____:____:____:____:____:____weak

worthless____:____:____:____:____:____:____valuable

(10) IMAGINATION

clear ____:____:____:____:____:____:____hazy

incomplete____:____:____:____:____:____:____complete

worthless____:____:____:____:____:____:____valuable

good ____:____:____:____:____:____:____bad

strong ____:____:____:____:____:____:____weak

APPENDIX C

POSITIVE EXPECTANCY BIAS COMMUNICATION

Following are excerpts of various reports and letters concerning the teacher you are about to see. They are part of a larger file which of course is confidential with regard to persons' identities. They are being used here with permission of those persons, and with the understanding that no identities be revealed. Therefore, the particular details of these communications are not to be discussed. Just as your identities will not be known, it is being requested that no effort be made to discover the identities of those persons involved in these reports.

Nov. 8, 1977: Excerpt from District Supervisor's initial observation of teacher.

". . . Mr. _____ seems to have adjusted very well to his students. There is considerable control in the classroom, and is able to bring about order . . ."

". . . he produced a lesson plan and appeared to follow it closely and with ease . . ."

". . . My recommendation . . . is that Mr. _____ be monitored again at a later date, though at present it appears he is adapting extremely well and shows no indication of any serious deficiencies."

March 9, 1978: Excerpt from District Supervisor's second observation of teacher.

"Though it appeared that Mr. _____ had gained much expertise in classroom management, there was still evidence that further improvement has taken place . . ."

"Mr. _____ seems to possess many of the communication skills necessary in preventing unnecessary disruptions as well as in the passing on of information and knowledge . . ."

"He appears to encourage learning in his students . . ."

"Year end recommendations, as told to Mr. _____, are that my observations be related to his immediate superior, for purposes of helping Mr. _____ review his year with some helpful criticism."

June 5, 1978: Excerpt from letter sent by teacher's principal to the principal of another school and school board.

". . . and I must begin by saying I have no reservations in recommending Mr. _____ to you. As yet he has proven himself to be a very capable and talented teacher. . ."

"I am basing these statements not only on my own observations, but on the reports of his supervisor, and on the informal reports of students and other teachers. . ."

"Again, I do not hesitate to be this positive, and I would feel irresponsible if I did not fully relate our experiences . . ."



APPENDIX D

NEGATIVE EXPECTANCY BIAS COMMUNICATION

Following are excerpts of various reports and letters concerning the teacher you are about to see. They are part of a larger file which of course is confidential with regard to persons' identities. They are being used here with permission of those persons, and with the understanding that no identities be revealed. Therefore, the particular details of these communications are not to be discussed. Just as your identities will not be known, it is being requested that no effort be made to discover the identities of those persons involved in these reports.

Nov. 8, 1977: Excerpt from District Supervisor's initial observation of teacher.

". . . Mr. _____ seems to have not yet adjusted to his students. There is considerable chaos in the classroom, and he seems unable to bring about order . . ."

". . . he produced a lesson plan but did not appear to follow it closely . . ."

". . . My recommendation . . . is that Mr. _____ be monitored again at a later date to determine whether or not his difficulties are the result of having problems adapting or are indications of more serious deficiencies."

March 9, 1978: Excerpt from District Supervisor's second observation of teacher.

"Though it appeared that Mr. _____ has gained some in classroom management, there was still evidence that improvement is certainly needed . . ."

"Mr. _____ seems to lack some of the communication skills necessary in preventing unnecessary disruptions as well as in the passing on of information and knowledge . . ."

"He appears not to encourage learning in his students . . ."

"Year end recommendations, as told to Mr. _____, are that my observations be related to his immediate superior, for purposes of helping Mr. _____ review his year with some helpful criticism."

June 5, 1978: Excerpt from letter sent by teacher's principal to the principal of another school and school board.

". . . .and I must begin by saying I have reservations in recommending Mr. _____ to you. As yet he has not proven himself to be a very capable or talented teacher . . ."

"I am basing these statements not only on my own observations, but on the reports of his supervisor, and on the informal reports of students and other teachers . . ."

"Again, I do not hesitate to be this negative, and I would feel irresponsible if I did not fully relate our experiences . . ."

APPENDIX E

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS: POSITIVELY AND NEGATIVELY BIASED SUBJECTS

FILL THESE BLANKS IN FIRST:

1. IBM #: _____
2. COURSE: _____
3. EDUCATION STUDENT: YES___ NO___
4. SEX: MALE_____ FEMALE_____

INFORMATION

This final portion of our study will be asking you as perspective teachers, to take the opportunity to participate in the evaluation of another teacher. You will have the opportunity by means of video-tape, to observe the actual classroom performance of a teacher instructing a Grade 7 class.

On the following 2 pages you will be able to read excerpts from a letter and various reports made by Mr. _____'s District Supervisor and by his Principal. Please read this information over very carefully twice. After having read this information for the second time, you will observe this teacher in action. The tape you will see is not play-acted, and is to be viewed as being typical of this teacher's performance in the classroom. After viewing the tape, you will be given the opportunity to register your evaluation.

Thank you again for your cooperation. Be reminded, however, that the tape is not play-acted, nor are the letter or the reports. Therefore, just as your responses are being received in confidence, it is being requested that you keep in confidence the things you observe today, and that no effort be made to identify those persons you read about and see.

APPENDIX F

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS: UNBIASED SUBJECTS

FILL THESE BLANKS IN FIRST:

1. IBM #: _____
2. COURSE: _____
3. EDUCATION STUDENT: YES____ NO____
4. SEX: MALE_____ FEMALE_____

INFORMATION

This final portion of our study will be asking you as perspective teachers, to take the opportunity to participate in the evaluation of another teacher. You will have the opportunity by means of video-tape, to observe the actual classroom performance of a teacher instructing a Grade 7 class.

On the following pages you will be able to exercise your judgement as to the merits of a teacher. Please read this information over very carefully, and after having done so, register your evaluation according to the instructions. The tape you will see is not play-acted, and is to be viewed as being typical of this teacher's performance in the classroom. After viewing the tape, you will be given the opportunity to register your evaluation.

Thank you again for your cooperation. Be reminded, however, that the tape is not play-acted, and therefore is to be viewed carefully. As well, just as your responses are being received in confidence, it is being requested that you keep in confidence the things you observe today, and that no effort be made to identify those persons you see.

APPENDIX G

LIKERT-TYPE SCALE TO MEASURE BIAS EFFECTIVENESS

IBM #: _____

Now that the main part of your participation in this study has been completed, we would be interested in knowing what caliber of teacher you were expecting to see after you had read the reports of this teacher's Principal and District Supervisor. In other words, what sort of performance were you expecting to see? In order to determine this, we would like for you to respond to the following scale, with numbers ranging from 1 (meaning an excellent teacher) to 10 (meaning an extremely poor teacher). Indicate what your expectations were by marking an X in the space which most represents the sort of expectation you had:

Excellent Teacher — Extremely Poor Teacher

1 ___ 2 ___ 3 ___ 4 ___ 5 ___ 6 ___ 7 ___ 8 ___ 9 ___ 10 ___