

A STUDY OF THE EFFECTS OF THE
BARTLESVILLE PUBLIC SCHOOLS'
INSTRUCTIONAL SKILLS PROGRAM
ON TEACHER ANXIETY AND
TEACHER AUTONOMY

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PREFACE

This study is concerned with the effect of a school district's specific staff development program on teacher anxiety and teacher autonomy. The program is designed to improve the teaching skills of the district's teachers. Each teacher in the district is required to undergo the training.

The author wishes to express his appreciation to his major adviser, Dr. Kenneth St. Clair for his encouragement and assistance throughout this study. Appreciation is also expressed to the other committee members, Dr. Russell Dobson, Dr. Patrick Forsyth, and Dr. Deke Johnson.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The recent report by the National Commission on Education has thrust public education into the national limelight. Current ASCD president, Lawrence Finkle (1983), said,

Recent reports by prestigious national groups have confirmed the American public's disenchantment with their schools. Everywhere people are demanding higher standards and better results (p. viii).

All 50 states in the Union are addressing, or have already addressed, the issue of excellence in education to a degree (Walton, 1983). If public schools are to survive they must develop workable strategies for continuous self renewal (Dillon-Peterson, 1981).

Rubin (1975) observed that immediately upon graduation from a training institution, educators embark upon a journey of obsolescence. Joyce and Morine (1977) found that substantial continuous staff development was essential for the improvement, renewal, and survival of public education.

Brandt (1982) stated that the main thrust of a staff development program should focus on the development of skills. It should help teachers become more effective, flexible professionals, and it should be applicable to the classroom. Lucas (1978) believes that in order to

be competent decision-makers, teachers should be updated about new ideas and educational developments. They will need inservice training for most of this professional improvement. Inservice education facilitates the imparting of classroom skills because teachers have countless opportunities to practice new skills in their own classrooms, and the majority of teachers involved in the inservice training are keenly interested in the growth of their teaching competencies. Joyce (1981) believes that no matter how competent teachers are, they need to appraise their professional methods regularly to look for new alternatives, to hone the skills they possess, to learn new skills, and to make the learning environments of schools more successful.

During the 1981-1982 school year, the Bartlesville Public Schools embarked on a staff development program designed to improve the teaching skills of its teachers and administrators and to enhance student learning. Traditionally, the methods utilized to provide staff improvement in the Bartlesville Public Schools have been primarily restricted to college courses and workshops. While these methods are useful and worthwhile, they are not always sufficient--especially the inservice workshops. The workshops have usually been of the short-range variety. They have lacked follow-up, evaluation of the participants' success, and have been void of actual classroom teaching involvement.

The Rand studies indicated that long term training efforts are more likely to succeed than short term ones (McLaughlin and Marsh, 1978). The Bartlesville staff development program was designed to continue over several months.

Joyce and Showers (1980) recommended a presentation-demonstration-practice-feedback-coaching format.

Bartlesville included a presentation-demonstration-practice-feedback-coaching format in each of the new staff development efforts. Most of the practice occurred within the teachers' own classrooms, with their own students, while they were being observed. Feedback and coaching were provided during the conference following the observation. An advantage of the considerable amount of practice is, as Wood and Thompson (1980) suggested, that direct and concrete experiences which allow the learner to apply what is being learned are essential for inservice education.

The Bartlesville School District's staff development program was patterned after a state-wide staff development program implemented in Arkansas by Don Roberts, Director of General Education, Arkansas Department of Education. Three staff members from the Bartlesville school system visited some school districts in Arkansas during the 1980-1981 school year to observe this program. They returned with the recommendation that it be adopted by the Bartlesville School District. A classroom teacher and an assistant superintendent were subsequently trained as instructors of this program.

Swedmark (1978) stated that districts using their own personnel to conduct training sessions were at an advantage because of their awareness of local policies, objectives, and problems existing in the district. However, Joyce ("Synthesis of Research on Staff Development," 1980) hypothesized that teachers do not want their evaluators for trainers. The purpose of evaluations and training should be distinguished more clearly if teachers are to remain comfortable with local administrative personnel as trainers.

A district-wide staff development program should apply to everyone within the district, and administrators should be the first people trained. This will dispel the belief that the program is something the administration is doing to the teachers (Melton, 1981). Participation of the principals in the training is vital. The knowledge gained enables the principals to assist teachers and to be more supportive of teachers' efforts (Berman and McLaughlin, 1978).

In the summer of 1981, all administrators in Bartlesville received intensive training in the area of instructional skills. Paul Burge from Arkansas State University presented for four days in July and Gary Standridge, an instructional skills consultant from Arkansas, presented for four days in August.

Roberts had previously implemented the same program in Newport News, Virginia, while serving as superintendent

of schools for that city. Implementation in both Newport News and in Arkansas occurred from the application of results of educational research by Madeline Hunter of the University of California at Los Angeles, which had attempted to isolate those elements she had identified as common to successful teachers--whatever their subject area or academic levels. The research began when educators from UCLA addressed what it takes to make a successful teacher: one who increases the probability of students' learning. They believed they should focus on the teacher's professional decisions and the manner in which the teacher implemented these decisions in a classroom. Obviously, there is both a science and an art of teaching, but the ability to use the science of teaching correctly can only enhance the probability that learning will occur and more easily allow the art of teaching to emerge (Hunter, 1983).

The team observed hundreds of successful and unsuccessful teachers to identify and label those professional decisions so they could determine invariants of successful teaching. These invariants would have to be present regardless of content, method, age of the learner, or the learner's culture.

The researchers had attempted to isolate those elements that were identified by Hunter and narrowed down to six. She had lumped them together as what she called the "total teaching act." They included "knowledge of content," "planning skills," "selection and use of

appropriate materials," "classroom management," "human relations skills," and "instructional skills" (Roberts, 1982).

All are interrelated, but the one single skill Roberts seized on as unique to education and the most likely to achieve his goal of improving student achievement was the last one (Roberts, 1982). There are five basic components of the instructional skills area (Roberts, 1982). They are:

1. Selection of objectives (to teach) at the appropriate level of difficulty,
2. Teaching to an objective,
3. Maintaining the learner's focus on the objective,
4. Monitoring and adjusting, and
5. Using "without abuse" the principles of learning (p. 2).

By selecting the objective at the correct level, a teacher carefully matches learners to the right level of instruction according to task analysis. To teach to the objective, the teacher generates overt behavior in the student that is pertinent to the specific objective being learned. To establish and maintain learner focus through the entire lesson, the teacher uses set, closure, and covert and overt behavior that is relevant to the objective. The teacher also monitors student progress and makes adjustments, if necessary (Burge, 1981 and Standridge, 1981).

Because there are degrees of motivation, retention, reinforcement, and transfer in every learning environment, the teacher can manipulate these principles of learning to bring the student's level of motivation in line with

what is needed for the learning and can use reinforcement theory to strengthen or weaken behavior. Wise use of retention and transfer variables increases learning. The teacher augments these skills with an understanding of Bloom's (1956) taxonomy of educational objectives so that he or she can help learners develop appropriate levels of thinking (Burge, 1981 and Standridge, 1981).

Roberts began by having his entire administrative staff, including himself, undergo the training cycle, and he then gradually extended it to all school administrators and teachers in the Newport News schools--on school time, not their own. The instruction involved not only the usual lecture approach but also actual classroom application with trained observers watching and offering on-the-spot critiques of the performance. The staff development program was called "Program for Effective Teaching" (Burge, 1981 and Standridge, 1981).

The Newport News students' scores on nationally standardized tests began to make striking advances. After two years, for example, the number of fifth graders computing at their grade level jumped from 32% to 56%. They also experienced a significant rise in reading. After the first five years, math computing scores had risen from 32% at, or above, grade level to 60% (Greenwood, 1981).

Among the many factors related to successful student achievement, the professional competence of teachers is the most critical. Students will learn to the extent that

teachers apply judgmental principles of human learning. When the principles of human learning are abused, either by being misused or not used at all, the probabilities of successful student achievement will be decreased. Teachers who apply their knowledge of theory and content in the planning and implementation of instruction increase the opportunity that students will have to be successful achievers (Roberts, 1981). If teachers are to have the necessary supervisory and administrative support needed to become and remain competent instructors, those who have decision-making responsibilities must increase their knowledge, available resources, and commitment to inservice and staff development activities that are both theoretically and practically sound. Studies and critical incidents have shown that teachers tend to do a better job if they are given more practical information about how to implement the theories that they learn. Likewise, administrative and supervisory personnel could do a better job of helping teachers improve their instructional skills if they had a better understanding of the components of effective teaching (Roberts, 1981).

Following its training, the Bartlesville school administration began to determine the goals and the course content for the Instructional Skills Program. That which was learned from the visits to the Arkansas school districts, the training from Burge and Standridge, as well as selected literature authored by Hunter, formed the basis

for the program. The goals of the staff development program were to provide:

1. a common framework for moving toward more effective and efficient instruction by improving the skills of teachers in grades K-12,
2. a means of communicating through the use of a common terminology, and
3. a training strategy which emphasized the critical elements involved in instruction at any level.

The objective of the course was that the participants be able to know, comprehend, and apply the components of instructional skills while teaching students. The course was designed to last for four weeks. Four days of the course were spent in instruction at the Bartlesville Education Service Center. The remainder of the time was to be spent by the teacher in his or her classroom applying the components of instructional skills to his or her teaching. During this remainder, the teacher would be observed three times by an instructional skills instructor and two times by his or her principal.

The participants received twenty-four hours of instruction at the Bartlesville Education Service Center plus five observed practices. Each practice session was followed by an instructional conference between the teacher and the observer.

The objectives of the staff development program were implied by the following questions:

- A. Can the teacher use the process of task analysis to determine which objective the learner needs next?
1. Can the teacher identify the terminal objective?
 2. Can the teacher use the process of brainstorming to list possible enroute learnings?
 3. Can the teacher select from the possible learnings only those essential to the terminal objective?
 4. Can the teacher sequence the enroute learnings if there is a sequence necessary for the learner?
 5. Can the teacher form diagnostic questions from the enroute learnings?
- B. Can the teacher teach to an objective?
1. Can the teacher give a relevant explanation?
 2. Can the teacher ask relevant questions?
 3. Can the teacher provide relevant activities?
 4. Can the teacher respond to the learner's efforts in relevant terms?
- C. Can the teacher monitor the progress of the learner and make appropriate adjustments when necessary?
1. Can the teacher generate overt behavior among all members of the class?
 2. Can the teacher interpret the overt behavior correctly?
 3. Can the teacher use the interpretation to decide appropriate action?
- D. Can the teacher focus the learner's thinking on the objective at the beginning of the lesson and maintain

that focus until the lesson's end?

1. Anticipatory Set

- a. Can the teacher state the learning in specific terms?
- b. Can the teacher involve the learner(s).
- c. Can the teacher relate the learning to experiences or the life of the learner(s)?

2. Closure

Can the teacher involve the learner(s) in summarizing the learning?

3. Covert Behavior

Can the teacher stimulate continuous and relevant covert behavior among all members of the class?

4. Overt Behavior

Can the teacher generate relevant overt behavior among all members of the class?

E. Can the teacher use, without abuse, the principles of learning?

1. Reinforcement

- a. Can the teacher use positive reinforcement effectively when needed as response to the learner?
- b. Can the teacher use negative reinforcement effectively when needed as response to the learner?
- c. Can the teacher use extinction effectively

when needed as response to the learner?

- d. Can the teacher use the schedule of reinforcement appropriate to the situation; i.e., can the teacher use a regular schedule of reinforcement followed by an intermittent schedule of reinforcement?

2. Motivation

- a. Can the teacher appeal to the learner's interest?
- b. Can the teacher provide for success through teaching to an objective at the correct level of difficulty and complexity?
- c. Can the teacher consistently provide a moderately pleasant, feeling tone?
- d. Can the teacher consistently provide a moderate amount of tension?
- e. Can the teacher consistently provide specific knowledge of results?
- f. Can the teacher consistently provide rewards related to the learning?

3. Retention

- a. Can the teacher provide meaning for and in the learning?
- b. Can the teacher consistently provide moderately pleasant, feeling tone?
- c. Can the teacher provide an adequate amount of guided, independent practice?

- d. Can the teacher provide for an adequate degree of original learning?
- e. Can the teacher provide for positive transfer?

4. Transfer

Can the teacher provide for transfer and avoid negative transfer through use of:

- similarity of learnings?
- association of learnings?
- critical attributes in a learning?
- degree of original learning?

The course instruction is interlaced with an appreciation for Bloom's (1956) Sequential Classification of Question Cues:

--Knowledge (memory questions)

Tell--list--describe--who--when--where--which--
 what--do you remember--state--does--define--
 identify--did you know that--relate--

--Comprehension (translate)

Change to different symbol or medium--tell in
 your own words--describe how you feel about--
 relate--interpret--compare and contrast--what
 is an analogy to--when can you extrapolate from
 that--discover and explain--what does it mean--
 what are the relationships--

--Application (problem solving)

Demonstrate--use it to solve--how can you use

it--

--Analysis (reached, derived)

How--reason--why--what are causes--what are consequences--what are the steps of the process--how would you start--arrange--specify the conditions--which are necessary for--which one comes first, last--what are some specific examples of--list all the problems, solutions--

--Synthesis (Productive-divergent thinking, originality and imagination)

Create--devise--design--how many hypotheses can you suggest--think of all the different ways--how else--what would happen if--think of as many as you can--what it would be like if--how many ways are possible--compose--develop--in what ways can you improve--suppose--form a new--think of something no one else has thought of before--

--Evaluation (judge to a standard, set criteria)

Set standards for evaluating the following--which are good, bad--which one(s) do you like--what do you think are the most likely--rate from good to poor--select and choose--is that good or bad--weigh according to--evaluate the results--judge the evidence--judge according to these standards--judge by how you feel--what is the problem--are these solutions adequate--will it work--decide which--

All teachers in the Bartlesville school system, K-12, are being trained in these instructional skills and Bloom's (1956) taxonomy. For four days over a four week period, the teachers being trained attend all-day sessions at the Education Service Center. While they are at the center, their instructors use the same instructional skills with these teachers that they are expected to use when working with their students. A great deal of research on staff development focuses on methodology of presentation and stresses that the training itself should mirror good teaching principles. To learn new strategies for teaching, teachers need to study theory, observe demonstrations, be given opportunities for practice with careful feedback, and, lastly, receive on-site coaching (Joyce, 1981). Sessions dealing with only abstract, word-oriented talk will not adequately change behaviors (Wood and Thompson, 1980).

After each session where the expectancies are established, each teacher teaches his or her own students a lesson while an Instructional Skills instructor is present. The instructor takes notes on the lesson behaviors and follows the observation with a conference with the teacher. Together they discuss the specific teacher behaviors that contributed to the learning process, usually identify one behavior that may not have been conducive to learning, and brainstorm for alternatives that might be more appropriate in a similar situation. The

conference, usually held immediately after the observation, gives the teacher a chance to refine his or her understanding of the theories learned in the training sessions by applying these skills in the classroom.

While in training, teachers are not evaluated by the instructors. After the teachers have completed the course, their building principals continue with them the cycle of supervision by repeated observations and conferences. In these observations and conferences, the principals endeavor to keep the content that was learned fresh on the minds of the teachers and upgrade their own supervisory skills. Joyce and Showers (1980) said that if teachers are coached, chances for successful skill development are enhanced. They identified five components of training. They are (1) presentation of theory, (2) modeling or demonstration, (3) practice under simulated conditions, (4) feedback, and (5) coaching. They also listed four levels of impact. They are (1) awareness, (2) knowledge, (3) principles and skills, and (4) application and problem solving. From a review of 200 research studies they concluded that inservice activities, especially those aimed at mastery of a new approach, are more likely to reach the fourth level--application--if they include all five components, especially coaching.

The appropriate time to use specific instructional activities is also noted as an important ingredient of

inservice education (Glassberg and Oja, 1981). They stated that training must be concrete, continuous, and teacher-specific. The kind of hands-on training that permits teachers to experiment with new techniques and to request assistance when they need it is more likely to lend itself to a more successful program. Teachers are mainly interested in and perceive the need for specific teaching techniques or instructional practices. Teachers are searching for practical, concrete innovations and answers relating to valid instructional methods--not educational theory. Teachers want inservice programs that relate to their present teaching situations (Ngaiyaye and Hanley, 1978).

Teachers have a need to know what works--not just what should or ought to work (Ngaiyaye and Hanley, 1978). Close observation of the classroom procedures, followed by one-to-one conferences providing detailed feedback relating to daily concerns of classroom management and instruction, will provide the kind of support that will allow teachers to adopt new techniques and procedures that will translate to increased student achievement (Spaulding, 1980).

The Principal's Role in Staff Development

According to Duke and Corno (1981), among local school personnel, the most critical person in insuring successful staff development is the building principal

because he or she normally serves as gatekeeper for new programs in any school. Typically it is the principal's monitoring of staff development efforts that makes the difference in determining the effectiveness of any program. Many experts in inservice education believe the major task of building-level administrators is to assist teachers to grow in professional competence. The principal, according to Caldwell (1982), is the critical participant in insuring instructional improvement because the principal establishes the prevailing theme for the school's climate. For school improvement and personal and professional growth, the principal is the key.

Theoretical Background

Madeline Hunter (1974) sees teaching as a decision-making process. She has attempted to establish for teachers and administrators an understanding of the scientific principles of learning. The incorporation of these principles, she believes, will enable the art of teaching to emerge. She said there is knowledge that generating certain behaviors in teachers increases the probability of generating desirable learning in students and minimizing undesirable learnings. Hunter (1983) also views teaching as an application of scientific findings gleaned from observation of human behavior and from research in human learning. However, she does not reject the presence of artistry in teaching which can go beyond

science. Teaching is based on three categories of decisions made by teachers. These are decisions made deliberately and are predicated on cause-effect relationships. They are (1) content decisions, (2) learner behavior decisions, and (3) teacher behavior decisions. The teacher must task-analyze to determine the objective to be taught. The teacher must then decide what the learner will do to accomplish this objective. Whatever the decision, the learner's behavior must lead to the accomplishment of the objective and it must be effective for this particular learner. Only after the learning objective and the appropriate learner behavior have been selected can the teacher behavior decisions be made. These decisions must determine the principles of learning to be implemented that will affect the learner's motivation, retention, degree of original learning, and his or her ability to transfer this learning to new learning situations. An examination of the cause-effect relationships in the teaching-learning process must then be made. Hunter stated two generalizations: (1) Learning is incremental and proceeds in sequence. The sequence can be either dependent or independent in nature. (2) Certain principles of learning, validated by research, have been identified which contribute significantly to achieving learnings in the teaching-learning process. Hunter stated that understanding and incorporating these principles is critical to the teaching-learning process. They affect

the rate and degree of achievement. Understanding of these cause-effect relationships helps explain, predict, and produce successful learning.

Hunter (1976) indicated that there are four essential steps in implementing a program to improve instructional skills. The first step is to develop a cadre of supervisors who become sophisticated in the analysis of teaching. These persons must develop skills to be able to (1) understand the generalizations and principles of the "what" and "how" of teaching, (2) identify and generate principles of learning in teaching situations, (3) determine if these principles are being used or abused in a teaching episode, (4) apply these principles in teaching episodes, (5) assess achievement of these skills, and (6) conduct a teacher conference while employing the components of effective instruction. The second step is to develop the instructional skills in teachers through staff development programs. In step three, supervision is to take place between inservice sessions. Observation adds incentive for the teacher to practice and to transfer the skills to the classroom. In the fourth step, the supervisor confers with the teacher to build on demonstrated strengths and remediate areas in need of improvement. "A total district wishing to increase the effectiveness of instruction needs to accomplish all four basic steps" (Hunter, 1976).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of the acquisition of the Bartlesville Public Schools' Instructional Skills Program content on teacher anxiety and on teacher autonomy.

Morse and Lorsch (1970) identify an assumption that, if true, is relevant to teaching. The assumption is:

human beings bring varying patterns of needs and motives into the work organization, but one central need is to achieve a sense of competence (p. 67).

Successful performance causes good feelings and these feelings can consistently and reliably motivate a worker more than can salary and benefits. So, if the acquisition of these instructional skills increased a teacher's feelings of competence, a more successful performance should be expected.

One could assume that accompanying a person's sense of competence in his or her job skills would be a reduction in anxiety related to his or her job. Parsons (1972) reported that a person's anxiety level is related to skill acquisition. Since evidence exists that anxiety can impair performance in a variety of tasks, it is suspected that this evidence extends to impairment of teaching performance as well (Parsons, 1972).

However, would the imparting of these instructional skills to the teacher affect his or her feeling of

autonomy within the organization? The answer to this question would depend on the amount of constraint from the organization as perceived by the teacher in the performance of his or her teaching. Forsyth and Danisiewicz (1978) stated:

Autonomy, considered in terms of the professional's attitude, is related to his feeling that he is free to exercise his judgment and discretion. In a sense, this attitudinal aspect may be the most crucial of all, since the individual reacts to his perception of the situation and his attitude reflects the manner in which he perceives his work (p. 6).

Lortie (1969) believes the teacher is not reluctant to grant the principal clear authority over those matters which do not bear directly upon his or her teaching activities. The principal's primary sphere of decision making is the school at large; the teacher's is the classroom. Classrooms are small universes of control with the teacher in command. The unrationalized nature of individual teaching techniques within these "universes" restricts administrative initiations. An administrator's decision regarding teaching may alter the area of decision making of the teacher.

Statement of the Problem

The problem central to this study was that information was not in existence regarding the effects of this staff development program on a teacher's level of anxiety and perception of autonomy.

Hypothesis I

There will be a significant lowering of teacher anxiety specifically related to teaching after completing the Bartlesville Public Schools' Instructional Skills staff development program.

Hypothesis II

There will be a significant lowering of perceived autonomy from the employing organization by teachers after completing the Bartlesville Public School's Instructional Skills staff development program.

Limitations

Approximately 20% of the teachers in the Bartlesville schools had received this training in the year preceding this research. Consequently, the terminology and a discussion of the skills existed in all of the buildings. Because of this, it would have been difficult to select a control group that had not been influenced to a degree by the Instructional Skills Program. Some caution is in order in interpreting these findings which may artificially downplay differences between the two groups. In addition, since a non-random, limited sample of convenience was used, the findings cannot be generalized.

Definition of Terms

For the purposes of this study, these basic terms need to be defined:

anxiety--A response to stress experienced by a person cognitively, mortorically, or physiologically.

autonomy--Freedom to make decisions without external pressures.

anticipatory set--identifying the learning for the learner at the outset of the lesson; includes focus, motivation, and transfer.

terminal objective--that which is to be taught in a daily lesson in order to meet the goal: includes statement of the learning, statement of learner behavior, the condition(s), and the expected performance level.

Bloom's Taxonomy of the cognitive domain--a hierarchy of six levels of thinking often referred to as levels of complexity.

clinical supervision--on-sight observation, analysis, feedback, reinforcement, and assistance for an individual in his or her job.

closure--eliciting feedback from learners at the end of a lesson in order to determine if learners grasped critical attributes of the learning.

covert behavior--unobservable mental processes.

critical attribute--the unique characteristics or elements of a specific learning which make that learning separate and distinct from any other learning.

enroute learnings--teachable subunits of a terminal objective.

guided practice--initial practice directed and monitored by the teacher.

independent practice--practicing without direction or assistance after adequate guided practice.

instructional conferencing--a meeting of the observer and the observee in which analysis, feedback, reinforcement, and assistance are given.

learning--one component of a terminal objective that defines the specific content component (information, skill, or process) taught in a lesson.

modeling--demonstrating exactly what learners are to do in a step by step fashion.

monitor and adjust--observing learner behavior during practice and choosing appropriate alternatives when necessary.

motivation--a state of need or desire that activates a person to do something that will satisfy that need or desire; controlled by six variables.

overt behavior--specific observable activity from each learner in response to instruction.

principles of learning--reinforcement, retention, transfer, and motivation.

positive reinforcement--strengthens behavior because reinforcer is desired.

negative reinforcement--temporarily stops behavior because the reinforcer is not desired.

retention--the ability to retrieve learned information from the memory bank; is dependent on five controllable variables.

task analysis--a sequential order of related learning steps from easy to difficult.

teaching--giving input (data) and modeling a skill or process, and checking for understanding before asking the learner to perform.

transfer--the ability to learn in one situation and then to use the learning in other situations where it is appropriate; linking an old learning to the new.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Research indicates that the acquisition of skills that leads to a feeling of increased competence can decrease the level of anxiety of workers (Parsons, 1972). Therefore, the effect of a school district staff development program designed to improve the instructional skills of teachers could also lower the level of anxiety of these same teachers. However, if the school district requires all of its teachers to participate in the staff development program and closely monitors the teachers' use of these acquired skills, the level of perceived autonomy of the districts' teachers might also be lowered.

This chapter presents the literature and research related to the problem of determining whether imposing specific teaching skills on a district's teachers affects their level of anxiety and/or autonomy. The review is divided into the following sections: (1) Anxiety, (2) Anxiety as it relates to Stress, (3) Teacher Anxiety/Stress, (4) Teacher Burnout, (5) Reducing Teacher Anxiety/Stress, (6) Teacher Autonomy, (7) Instructional Skills, and (8) Summary.

Anxiety

According to Jersild (1955), regardless of the age in which we live, we live in an age of anxiety. To live means to struggle. To live means to face the conflicts that exist in each person's life. Conflict and anxiety are inevitable because people who truly seek to live will embrace experiences that involve conflict. They will purposely enter situations that may arouse anxiety. While this anxiety will not be welcomed, people who want to live will not run from life to avoid it.

The concept of anxiety is a key concept in education. Jersild (1955) said it is a key ingredient in the lives of teachers. He further stated,

If in education we try to evade anxiety, we thereby try to evade the challenge of facing ourselves; we evade an essential task and make added trouble for ourselves and others.

To know the people we teach we must recognize that anxiety plays, or may be playing, an important role in their lives and in our own. For a teacher to know those whom he teaches and their anxieties, he must know himself and seek to face his own anxieties (p.26).

Anxiety/Stress

This author found it to be very difficult to research the concept of anxiety as it relates to teaching without encountering the concept of stress as it relates to teaching. Friedman (1978), in his research aimed at reducing debilitating anxiety and increasing the skills necessary to successfully cope with stressful situations in a school

setting, found in his review of the literature many labels used synonymously in the discussion of anxiety. The labels being used interchangeably were stress, fear, phobia, anxiety, and tension. May (1982) found that there is a tendency in America to use stress interchangeably with anxiety.

Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1977), found that there are many definitions of stress as well as many approaches to research on stress. Stressful situations can occur as a result of environmental conditions and individual differences as they relate to the perception and appraisal of situations. In previous research conducted by the first author, teacher stress was defined as

a response by a teacher of negative affect (such as anger, anxiety, or depression) accompanied by potentially pathogenic physiological changes (such as increased heart rate, or release of adrenocorticotrophic hormone into the bloodstream) as a result of the demands made upon the teacher in his role as a teacher (p. 299).

In their research presently being cited, they regarded teacher stress as "a term denoting an area of research exploring all aspects of stress among teachers" (p. 299).

Janis (1958) stated that the concept of stress has not been adequately defined but, in general, seems to signify a condition characterized by anxiety.

For the purposes of this chapter the definition of stress will be a nonspecific response of an organism to stimulus. This was given by Hans Selye, a Canadian neurophysiologist (Johnston, Markle, and Holt, 1982). Anxiety will be defined as a response to stress experienced directly

by the person cognitively, motorically, or physiologically (Coates and Thoresen, 1974).

Neutral, value-free definitions are complicated in practice because people are never neutral or free of values. People turn stress into eustress, the productive energy that gets them up in the morning; and distress, which, if not resolved, is increasingly painful and debilitating. Eustress transforms dreams into achievements. Distress can threaten life itself (Johnston, Markle, and Holt, 1982).

Selye (1977) stated:

We can no longer count on 'having finished our training' for our work or on 'having arrived at our goal' in society; nowadays the skills and knowledge demanded by any job, as indeed the goals of society itself, are developing (or at least changing) at such an unprecedented rate that our first objective must be to learn how to cope with the stress of adaptation to change as such, both in our work and in our social goals. Only then can we hope to succeed in overcoming the distressing loss of stability and perhaps even to enjoy the challenge of adjustment to ever-changing tasks, aspirations, and possibilities (p. 6).

He believes it is unimportant whether stress is pleasant or unpleasant. What matters is the degree of the need for bodily adjustment or adaptation. A mother, receiving news of her son's death in Vietnam, suffers tremendous sorrow. However, if years later she learns he is alive and well, the mother experiences extreme joy. The specific emotions, sorrow and joy, caused by the two events are direct opposites; but the nonspecific demand to readjust is still present.

Selye (1977) does not believe that defining stress is sufficient. It is critical to specify what stress is not. This will dispel misconceptions. Stress is not just nervous tension, for stress reactions are known to occur in lower animals and plants that have no nervous systems. Stress is not only nervous exhaustion or strong emotional arousal. Stress can be the absence of emotional stimuli often noticed during isolation or social ostracism.

Stress, according to Selye, cannot be avoided. Even in slumber and fully relaxed, a person experiences some stress. For example, the heart continues to pump blood, the intestines continue to digest food, the muscles work the chest to permit breathing, and the brain is involved in dreams. Total freedom from stress is death.

In the opinion of Selye, the term "stress" is often misused. In conversation, if a person says he is under stress, he means he is experiencing excessive stress or distress, much like the phrase "running a temperature" refers to an unusually-high temperature. Psychological distress often follows prolonged or unvaried stress or frustration.

Selye has produced evidence that animals subjected to continuous stress for long durations go through three stages: (1) initial shock reaction, then (2) resistance, and finally (3) exhaustion. As a machine gradually wears out, likewise the human body eventually becomes the victim of wear. Selye concluded his research by noting that one's

ability to adapt (adaptation energy) is finite. He compared this adaptability to an inherited pool of wealth from which one may withdraw throughout life, yet to which one may never add.

The secret of success is not to avoid stress and thereby endure an uneventful, boring life, for then our wealth would do us no good, but to learn to use our capital wisely, to get maximal satisfaction at the lowest price. Often, the satisfaction of any experience must be bought at the price of sacrificing another. It pays to learn how not to squander this valuable asset on futilities (p. 11).

Teacher Anxiety/Stress

In 1938, the NEA reported that 37.5% of a nationwide sample of over 5,000 teachers expressed serious worry and nervousness. In 1951, NEA did a similar study and found that 43% of the 2,000 teachers sampled indicated "considerable strain and tension." In 1976, another NEA survey found that 78% of the teachers reported moderate to considerable levels of stress (Coates and Thoresen, 1974).

Willard McGuire (1979) expressed the belief that, "Stress is leading to teacher burnout and the problems threaten to reach hurricane force if it isn't checked soon (p. 5)."

Guzicke (1980) stated that anxiety among teachers (1) is prevalent, (2) may be associated with less positive teacher-pupil relationships and the use of less effective teaching and discipline techniques, and (3) may be associated with increased student anxiety.

Fuller (1969) endeavored to identify concerns of pre-service and practicing teachers. Her work occurred through the analysis of recorded typescripts of student teaching seminars and interviews with student teachers. These records, over an extended period of time, were used in the identification and classification of problems which student teachers experienced and the concerns they expressed about these problems. These expressed concerns when grouped into definable developmental and sequential stages, showed that the early concerns of student teachers were characterized by a concern for self and self-protection, while the later concerns of student teachers and inservice teachers satisfied with their teaching were characterized by a concern for others and for pupil learning. Fuller stated that, for practicing teachers, concerns center around their

ability to understand pupils' capacities, to specify objectives for them, to assess their gain, to partial out one's own contribution to pupil difficulties and gain, and to evaluate oneself in terms of pupil gain (p. 221).

The work climate of an organization is what employees perceive it to be. The teachers' perceptions of their school, job, and work environment is their reality. These perceptions determine the level of identification with or alienation from their job, the degree of labor-management polarization, and the acceptance or rejection of the values of the organization. These perceptions will increase or decrease teachers' levels of anxiety (Albrecht, 1979).

Hendrickson (1979) stated that the causes of stress

can come from external or internal sources. External factors influencing teachers' stress levels can include student behavior, community attitudes toward education, collective bargaining issues, layoffs, interpersonal relationships, and job mobility. The physical environment, if noisy and hectic, can also cause stress. Obviously, people's stress tolerance is determined by their own individual physical and emotional limits. Internal stressors are related to the nature of the person. These stressors are self-concept, expectations, and attitudes. Internal conflict between the ideal and the real can be stressing (Giammatteo and Giammatteo, 1980).

Hunter (1977) stated that air traffic controllers, surgeons, and teachers are members of three of the most potentially stress-producing occupations in the world. These occupations require on-the-feet, high-speed thinking skills as well as the ability to make hundreds of daily decisions that occur as a result of new and unexpected situations. These decisions are caused by the fact that each profession must deal with the variances in human behaviors and nature's penchant for capriciousness.

Because of the intense stress, most people do not choose air traffic control for their lifelong occupation. Surgeons and teachers do make this commitment. Surgeons may argue that teachers do not have situations of life and death to deal with. To this, teachers might appropriately respond by contrasting different responsibilities.

True, but when you are working with one patient, at that moment he/she is your only responsibility. You aren't also responsible for other patients to see that they are working diligently to recover their health. And you don't have to keep your eye on some patients that are apt to disorganize the sheets or pour out their medicine. We are responsible for the learning and behavior of everyone in the class at the same time (p. 2).

Also teaching presents a five to six hour day of potential stress--aside from paper grading afterwards. Students are not always the same. This depends on what has just occurred or is about to occur with them.

Hunter (1977) further stated that

Teachers must handle the daily feeling that one false move on their part, one careless remark, one inadvertent blunder and the result will be instant chaos. It's amazing that with all this stress, teachers retain their sanity, to say nothing of their sense of humor, their commitment to students, and their downright artistry in performance (p. 3).

No events can always be labeled as anxiety producing because teachers' feelings and reactions differ. What is stressful for one teacher could stimulate another. Hunter added that

"Emotional allergies" of different people can trigger their stress and produce a reaction in a vulnerable body spot. Also the social and emotional context are as important as the physical properties of the stressor (a shove from the aggressive shopper vs. a shove from an affectionate friend) (p. 3).

Stress can be benign and its effect produce growth, or it can be malignant and destructive to a person's body system. Channeled in the right direction, stress builds strength and competence which will prepare the teacher

for the next encounter, thus enhancing a positive self-concept. This growth occurs when a situation happens that proves difficult enough to challenge the teacher to find new ways to resolve the situation. The next time this situation is encountered, the teacher experiences less anxiety and as this process continues, these once-stressful conditions can be anticipated with minimal or no stress. The ability to cope will transfer to other similar situations and those situations will also become less stressful. Therefore, successful encounters with stress strengthen general resistance to stress and enhance development of the ability to encounter similar problems without a stress reaction.

However, the body's responses to debilitating anxiety caused by malignant stress are

difficulty in breathing, chronic insomnia, urinary and bowel abnormalities, nausea, ulcers, personality change, depression, addiction to drugs and alcohol, all of which are of long duration, have a cumulative effect and are destructive to the body's systems (p. 4).

Hunter (1977) described three factors that can determine if stress exerted on a teacher will be benign or malignant. These factors are:

1. The possession of coping behaviors which are effective and for which there is feedback as to the degree of their effectiveness.

Even though a teacher cannot control the student's home environment or the student's I.Q., the teacher can certainly control his or her own teaching behavior. There-

fore, if the teacher possesses a wide range of teaching skills and has a good knowledge of cause-effect relationships between that teaching behavior and the student's learning, the stressor of feeling helpless can be controlled. This would imply that a good pre-service education followed by continued professional growth of instructional skills would be most effective in preventing stress. Unfortunately, the inservice provided for the teacher's continual growth can be one of the most provoking sources of stress if this inservice translates to additional hours of time to the teacher's already busy schedule. This is especially true if the inservice content is the latest fad (which won't work) or some method dreamed up by some "theorist, romanticist or dreamer who never knew or has long forgotten what 'kids are really like'" (p. 5).

2. The predictability of the stressful situation.

Knowing "what is coming" allows the teacher to draw upon his or her professional skills and knowledge at hand and be prepared to cope with stress. Having a situation unexpectedly "explode" does not give that opportunity. Accurate anticipation of "what might happen" is not the consequence of divine revelation but results from having learned cause-effect relationships in education and from being sensitive to the meaning of "signaling clues" from certain students or situations.

The experienced teacher is aware of what the kids will be like on the afternoon of the school's talent show

and will prepare calming activities. The first-year teacher who is without that knowledge will go home with a migraine.

3. The duration or repetition of the stressful circumstances.

Surprisingly, an especially stressful situation will not normally contribute so much to a harmful impact as will its duration or frequency. Although the physical reaction to stress is immediate, results from reoccurrence of that stress may become cumulative. The ability to "shake it off" and thereby eliminate the stress for a brief period can change its malignant potential. Hunter (1977) points out that unless teachers have an effective prescription to "shake-off" the constant stress producing conditions associated with teaching, "burnout" can occur.

Public attitude could be one of these long-duration stresses. Johnson, Markle, and Holt (1982) believe the current public attitude toward teachers could contribute to "burnout."

Quite suddenly, teachers as a group are being held responsible for a host of problems displayed by schools, students, American business and industry, and the society at large. Whereas teachers were once viewed as guardians of our intellectual heritage and the mentors of our children, they now find the profession under assault for ineptness, incompetence, and cynicism. The resulting role conflict appears to be profound and, in many cases, disabling (p. 9).

Burnout

According to Cedoline (1982), a large amount of research on burnout is focused in two arenas. The arenas are (1) helping professions, like teachers, social workers, counselors, school administrators, psychologists, and (2) public employees, like police officers, appointed officials, air traffic controllers, health workers, and others.

Cedoline (1982) reported that professional and public workers are continually required to respond unemotionally to emotional issues. This is especially true if a public image is to be maintained. The work often requires the helping professional to assume the model of a selfless person able to solve complex problems through a regular basis of intervention. Helping professionals are expected to give emotional support while remaining non-judgemental. They are inundated with requests of "give me," "tell me," and "help me." Their clients often demand immediate assistance on which the survival of the client depends. These constant stressors can repeatedly stimulate the workers' fight or flight reactions. These repeated stimulations are capable of draining the workers' energies and affecting their personal lives. This kind of continued stress can lead to job burnout which is an inability to adequately cope with the demands of their work responsibilities.

Cedoline (1982) compared progressively destructive job burnout to the differing degrees of traumatic burn

injury:

First degree: The signs and symptoms of burnout are occasional and short-lived. By providing distractions such as rest, relaxation, exercise, hobbies, or "time out," one can successfully return to a normal level of job satisfaction.

Second degree: Symptoms become more regular, last longer, and are more difficult to overcome. Normal attempts to rest and relax do not appear to be effective. After a night of sleep, the sufferer wakes up tired. Even after a weekend the victim is still tense and not ready to take on a full day's work without feeling tired. By the end of the week, the worker is exhausted and needs to dip deeply into his or her reserves to gain any new energy. A cynical attitude develops and is usually directed toward supervisors, supervisees, and recipients of services or products. Mood changes are noticeable. Concern over effectiveness becomes a central and disturbing issue.

Third Degree: At this level symptoms are continuous. Often, physical and psychological problems develop that are not quickly relieved with conventional medical or psychiatric attention. Self-doubt about one's competence becomes pervasive. Depression and negative feelings toward the self are rampant, with limited insight on the part of the sufferer regarding their causes. Social withdrawal from work and personal relationships becomes apparent. Serious consideration is given to finding another job or simply quitting the profession altogether. Family problems can intensify and lead to marital separations (pp. 22-23).

Symptoms of progressive stages of burnout have been listed by Cedoline (1982). They are:

1. Physical Burnout Stage
 - Constant fatigue.
 - Noticable physical drain.
 - Minor ills become everyday ailments with lingering effects.
2. Intellectual Burnout Stage
 - Evidence of information overload.
 - Inattention; lack of concentration.
 - Reduced alertness.
 - "Time watching."
 - Missing deadlines or doing tasks at the last

minute.

3. Social Burnout Stage
 - Irritability or being outright rude.
 - Not wanting to deal with people.
 - Constantly putting off necessary interactions.
 - Covert desire to "play games" during interaction.
 - Behavior transfer from problem area to other activities. Perception of not having time or, desire to put off projects.

4. Psycho-Emotional Burnout Stage
 - Conscious decision to miss deadlines.
 - Feeling that too much is demanded of burned out person.
 - Feeling that one's efforts are geared toward meeting needs of others.
 - Continual boredom with present, burnout environment.
 - Alienation and refusal to get involved with tasks involving people.

5. Spiritual (Dealing with Self) Stage
 - Needs of others become a threat.
 - Value system breaks down.
 - Little or no personal effectiveness.
 - No link to societal contributions.
 - Desire to change location or environment.
 - Job divorce.
 - Desire to escape (pp. 23-24).

Feinberg (1979) addressed the issue of teacher burnout in the elementary school and suggested ways in which the problem could be alleviated. He said,

First we have to determine if the job depression is internalized. If you have trouble sleeping, no appetite or sexual drive, emotional outbursts of anger, you probably have internalized kinds of problems and need professional counseling. Maybe the solution is retirement or changing jobs. But if you're perfectly happy away from your job, then you know that it is an external problem and your job is getting to you. For these people we can do something (p. 62).

Feinberg compared the mind with a tire.

If it isn't rotated it is going to wear out faster. To rotate the mind, don't have it constantly in the same gear. Maybe switch assignments for

a year, Kindergarten this year, fourth grade next year. But also, go beyond that, spend your leisure time with adults. Do something different evenings and summers.

It's important to build self esteem. Many industries have adopted the Japanese practice of a godfather--placing a person in charge of newer employees to inspire or teach, to act as a guardian. Schools could, and should adopt this practice (p. 62).

Feinberg described other ways to ward off the effects of stress.

Many industries spend a lot of money developing athletic facilities for its employees' after-hours use. Schools already have these facilities. A physical workout after school to limber tired muscles will go a great way toward eliminating mental weariness.

Finally, we--teachers, parents, the business community--must work toward raising the status of the teacher in the professional field. The public must perceive teachers as professionals as it did years ago. The health of our educational system depends on the effectiveness and mental attitudes of its teachers. We'll have fewer burned-out teachers when they begin to feel and assume their great influence in the future of the nation (p. 62).

Reducing Teacher Anxiety/Stress

Johnston, Markle, and Holt (1982) believe there is encouraging news from research related to stress management and coping behavior for teachers.

Stress is taking a heavy toll on our teachers and is, in turn, affecting our schools and our children. However, stress can be managed and controlled. Attention should be given to reducing the in-school variables that produce stress and to training teachers for individual stress management. Just as teachers are prepared through inservice education for other conditions that are part of the educational setting, proper emphasis must be placed on training them to cope with the unique and widespread stresses associated with their careers in contemporary education (p. 11).

Hunter (1977) identified two categories of stress reducing devices that can re-route the teacher's energy, reduce stress, and re-establish the equilibrium that was lost because of anxiety.

Her first category of stress reducers consists of activities that stimulate creativity in an entirely different field, something that demands so much activity that the teacher cannot do it and still think about teaching. Examples are art, dance, music, etc. These activities will allow the teacher to escape periodically from the rigors of teaching.

A second category of stress reducers consists of activities which require only participation. Activities in this category are soothing and non-demanding. Reading, gardening, needle work, or certain physical activities that require low levels of skill (jogging, walking, bicycling, etc.) are found in this category.

Hunter (1972) said that for a well balanced program to counteract the effects of stress, the teacher should become involved in physical activities, emotional and social activities, and intellectual activities.

Teaching is physically draining and leaves one fatigued but it rarely allows the teacher opportunity to exercise the muscles. Therefore, physical activities like swimming, racket sports, jogging, or any of the several other activities which require rigorous movement that increases

breathing, heart rate, and improves muscle tone will do much to leave the teacher with a pleasant, relaxed tiredness. This is much better than the tense exhaustion or the mentally drained feeling that so often is noticed at the end of the teaching day.

Emotional and social stress reducers refer to coming into contact with new tasks, books, and social activities which produce a strong reaction or perhaps involve some risk. Hunter (1972) stated that,

Emotional and social respite from stress occurs when one does the same thing over and over; a repetitive operation which because of lack of demand acts as an emotional massage (and teachers need one). The very same [physical] activities, swimming, running, pushups, can serve this purpose as can needlepoint, gardening, macrame, light reading, T.V., etcetera (p. 8).

Relaxing with friends is often a most healing social experience and soothes tension resulting from stress and frustration. But beware of always talking about problems at school instead of enjoying a refreshing change of focus (Hunter, 1972).

A stimulating, social stress reducer is the intentional seeking of new friends with different occupations, new clubs, or classes. Talking about teaching can become an addiction, and a new group of acquaintances who know little about teaching will not tolerate only discussions of educational problems. Hunter (1972) stated,

Seeing the world through other people's nonteaching eyes can provide the perspective that is needed as well as highlighting the invariance of problems in all professions. The relief is similar to that of parents who get together and

discover, 'It isn't me--its the nature of kids'
(p. 9).

An intellectual stress reducer could be learning about something outside the teacher's specific area of interest. Reading to improve the mind or learning about something new can give the teacher a respite from the stress of the classroom. The feeling that one is growing intellectually can provide a fulfilling experience with favorable implications toward the teacher's educational, emotional, and social development.

Hunter (1972) believes a well-balanced program to reduce the effects of stress is necessary while teachers are teaching. She stated that this program

should include systematic exploration of both demanding and relaxing activities in physical, social, intellectual and emotional areas. . From sampling actual experience and participation, the teacher should select at least one stimulating and one relaxing activity for weekly pursuit, not just for summer vacation. The prescriptions for teachers must be their own, and will vary greatly according to the situation and individual. Teachers must assess their own needs in terms of nonteaching activities. A balance between stimulation from invigorating demands of one's self and relaxation from pleasurable non-demanding activities will maintain a resilient and creative professional (pp.9-10).

Hunter believes the school districts should be involved in helping the teacher cope. She stated,

We have long acknowledged the variance in student learning needs. It's about time school districts accommodated the variance in the needs of teachers which enable them to do an artistic and professional job in the classroom. This need can be partially met by a program for continuing individualized professional growth which provides constantly accelerating, coping and predictive skills that will increase satisfaction and reduce stress in fulfilling the daily demands in teaching (p. 10).

Teacher Autonomy

In schools teachers are considered to be salaried workers who are under subjection to a governing board which employs them. This employee status denotes subordination and implied a certain amount of control will be asserted over the workers. Some employees experience extremely close supervision while others toil under general or even loose control (Lortie, 1969).

Weber (1947:324) defined control as "the probability that certain specific commands (or all commands) from a given source will be obeyed by a given group of persons." Katz (1968) implied that there is a sphere of discretion with those who are being controlled. This control over a group by a given source is possible because of the power possessed by the given source. However, there is also power possessed by the group being controlled. Hage (1980) stated that occupational groups want power commensurate with their training and skill.

Forsyth and Danisiewicz (1978) stated that some scholars maintain an interest in the amount of power an individual member of an occupation possesses. Power can be found to be displayed in several varieties of autonomy. One variety is autonomy from the employing institution. Katz (1968) defined autonomy as absence of external constraint. Forsyth and Danisiewicz (1978) said that the amount of autonomy from the employing institution possessed by members of a given occupation depends on the degree to which they

are constrained by others in the performance of their work. Furthermore, this degree of constraint reflects the individual's status as a professional.

Autonomy, according to Forsyth and Danisiewicz (1978),

involves the feeling that the practitioner ought to be allowed to make his own decisions without external pressures from clients, from others who are not members of his profession, or from his employing organization (pp. 6-7).

There are two components of professional autonomy.

The first component is related to the individual worker's control over his decisions and work responsibilities within a particular work setting, or his freedom to deal with his client. The second component is related to the autonomy of the occupational group or profession to control its decisions and responsibilities in the community in which it functions, or its freedom to direct the activities of the profession (Katz, 1968).

Schools are professional bureaucracies. Differing from the traditional bureaucracies where management exerts direct control and worker behavior is managed by a system of tight supervision, the professional bureaucracies are normally characterized by a substantial amount of decentralization and only general supervision. Admittedly, a range of organizational types exist among schools. Some are very mechanistic or machine-like within their bureaucratic makeup, but in the main, schools as a group are considered to be professional bureaucracies (Sergiovanni, 1982).

Teachers are expert specialists. They should be

afforded autonomy in their work because of their professional training and certification (Sergiovanni, 1982).

Teacher autonomy is defined as having "substantial freedom, independence, and direction in scheduling work and in deciding classroom organizational and instructional procedures" (Sergiovanni, 1982:113). As a group, public school teachers have not enjoyed a high level of professional autonomy. Most of the decisions which are important in an educational setting are not determined by the profession.

Lieberman (1956) discussed the kinds of decisions that should be made by teachers if education is to be considered a profession. These decisions are (1) subjects to be taught, (2) materials and texts to be used in teaching, (3) criteria to be used in determining which students are to be admitted, retained, and promoted at all levels, (4) the forms to be used for reporting pupil progress, (5) school boundary lines, (6) the standards for entrance into teacher training, (7) the length and content of teacher training programs, (8) the qualifications for entry into and dismissal from education, (9) the norms of professional demeanor, and (10) the authority to judge if and when practitioners have violated these norms. Lieberman concluded that teachers presently do not make these decisions.

There are many factors present in our society which function to limit the decision-making power of teachers as a professional group. There are two historical elements

that account for the small amount of teacher autonomy in public schools. They are (1) lack of teacher competence (Wayland, 1962) and (2) lay control (Clark, 1962). Some contemporary components are (1) the proportionately high number of women in education (Lieberman, 1956), (2) large amount of teacher turnover (Mason, Dressel, and Bain, 1959), and (3) the make-up of the local school system (Wayland, 1962).

This study is concerned with the individual teacher's control over decisions and work activities in a particular work setting and the freedom to deal with his or her students. The teacher's decisions and work activities are defined by the teacher's role as a professional educator in the public school setting. The classroom teacher, according to Wayland (1964), is a functionary in a basically bureaucratic system--a replaceable component whose most significant work aspects are determined by the organization.

Decision-making involves the autonomous content of a job. Where latitude for decision-making is large, an employee is authorized, allowed, and expected to use discretion or judgement while performing a task, overcoming obstacles by choosing the best of the alternative choices available at each stage of the work. Decision-making is facilitated when methods are neither prescribed nor predetermined (Jaques, 1956).

For many teachers individual professional autonomy appears to be unimportant. Some employees, perhaps many,

actually prefer to accept training, direction, and orders without questions. They may even oppose being placed in situations that would require them to evaluate or otherwise practice independent thought (Scoutten, 1962).

Where methods are predetermined and evaluation focuses on techniques rather than on outcomes, teachers possess little opportunity to exercise discretion (Simon, 1944). However, when methods are at the discretion of teachers and the outcomes are reviewed and evaluated, increased opportunity for autonomous decision-making is available (Blau, 1956).

Instructional Skills Program

The Bartlesville School District's "Instructional Skills" program is a staff development program designed to improve the teaching skills of the district's certified teachers. The program used in Bartlesville, Oklahoma is an adaptation of the Arkansas state-wide staff development program called the "Program for Effective Teaching."

The ultimate goal of the "Program for Effective Teaching" in Arkansas is to develop common teacher behaviors that produce effective, efficient, and relevant teaching (Burge, 1981).

Don Roberts, Director of the Arkansas State Department of Education, believes that the primary function of school is instruction. He postulated that the accomplishment of this function is based on three assumptions. These

are (1) 95% of learners can, with effective instruction, reach minimum competence, (2) all good teachers want to be effective, and (3) the building principal is the instructional leader in a school and should function in that capacity (Burge, 1981).

According to Standridge (1981), Hunter and the other members of the U.C.L.A. research team identified six interdependent and interrelated components which they called the Total Teaching Act. These components are the following:

1. **Mastery of Content:** One can assume that a certified teacher possesses content mastery in his/her area of certification;

2. **Planning Skills:** The teacher must plan for the learning and plan for the learners. Long-range plans and short-range plans must be made for the material to be learned and for the student who is to accomplish that learning. Planning for both is essential. Brophy and Putman (1979) stated that part of the preparation for effective classroom management is preparation for effective instruction. They also stated that students were more attentive when teachers planned lessons that followed a logical structure and moved along at an adequate pace.

3. **Appropriate Selection and use of Materials and Resources:** Effective teachers are able to select appropriate materials and resources;

4. **Classroom Management Skills:** Emmer and Evertson (1981) suggested that classroom management should be viewed

as a major dimension of effective teaching. Its relationship to learning makes it worthwhile to examine teacher behaviors that produce well-managed classrooms. Brophy and Putman (1979) found that the time the teacher saves through the development and maintenance of effective classroom management skills will allow the teacher to function as an instructional leader and not so much as an authority figure;

5. Human Relations Skills: Combs (1982) believes that if schools are to prepare youth for the future, they must heavily emphasize effective human interrelationships. Goodlad (1983:12) said, "The difference in our schools and differences in classrooms have more to do with human relationships than anything else." Dobson, Dobson, and Koetting (1982:29) said, "...good teachers view teaching as primarily a human process involving human relationships and human meanings." And;

6. Instructional Skills: This is the delivery system. Teachers may know what they want to teach but may have difficulty imparting it to their students. No one component of the Total Teaching Act is more important than the others. One cannot be effectively accomplished without the others. A weakness in one weakens the total act. A strength in one component strengthens the total act.

These six components rest on a foundation of knowledge of Human Growth and Development. This foundation is necessary for the Total Teaching Act because the approach

used will be determined by the age or level of the students--whether kindergarteners or graduate students. Instructional Skills is one component that is unique to teaching (Burge, 1981 and Standridge, 1981).

The first basic instructional skill is to select the correct objective (learning) on the appropriate level of difficulty and complexity. According to Burge (1981) there are four essentials of instructional objectives: (1) State the objective in terms of learner performance, rather than in terms of teacher performance; (2) Use an observable term related to the level of difficulty and complexity of Bloom's (1956) taxonomy; (3) State each instructional objective in terms of terminal behavior, not in terms of subject matter; and (4) State each objective so that only one outcome is included. According to Standridge (1981) there are two levels of instruction: (1) Minimum essential instruction, which is information on which other learning is based and can be mastered 100%--definitions, multiplication tables, etc.; and (2) Developmental instruction, which is information that cannot be mastered 100%--reading, basketball, etc.

The selection of the objective is accomplished through the use of a task analysis. A task analysis is a systematic procedure for determining the necessary enroute learnings leading to a terminal objective. The terminal objective is the objective for a single lesson.

There are five steps in a task analysis (Hunter,

1981). This is a process, so the steps must be followed in order:

1. Select the terminal objective and state it. The terminal objective should be written in understandable and measurable terms. It should state who the learner is, the condition under which the objective will be learned, the measurement, and the standard of performance;

2. Identify all possible enroute learnings. This can be done by brainstorming or by observing a master accomplishing the objective and then identifying the enroute learnings;

3. Weed out the non-essential enroute learnings;

4. Sequence the essential enroute learnings; and

5. Convert these essential enroute learnings into diagnostic questions.

By diagnostically analyzing each learning task, the teacher has the means to select appropriate objectives that are at the correct level of difficulty and complexity for the learner.

The advantages of a task analysis are the following:

- (1) The teacher is allowed more time to work on essentials;
- (2) Planning is allowed to be more organized;
- (3) The teacher is better equipped to anticipate potential problems in a lesson; and
- (4) The teacher can, if necessary, obtain a quick evaluation of where the lesson broke down (Burge, 1981 and Standridge, 1981).

The second instructional skill is to teach to the

objective. This is done by generating in the learner overt behavior that is relevant to the learning from which the teacher can infer covert behavior. There are four components of teaching to the objective:

1. Explanation: Information relevant to the learning may be provided via content (lecture, text, films, etc.), definition, example, process (steps), demonstration, and/or models;

2. Question: The teacher generates overt behavior by questioning individuals, by group alerting and selecting a member to respond, or by using a signal-response to monitor the whole group;

3. Response: The teacher responds to the learner's correct and incorrect answers in terms of the learning; and

4. Activity: The activity should be relevant to the learning. A guided activity is provided for a new learning. The teacher observes the overt behavior and provides immediate feedback. An independent activity may be done outside class to reinforce, maintain, or extend previously learned skills, but only after the learner has demonstrated success at the guided activity (Burge, 1981 and Standridge, 1981).

The third instructional skill is to obtain and maintain the focus of the learner on the learning. Anticipatory set is used to establish a need in the learner for the learning that only the teacher can satisfy. To induce

set, the teacher makes a statement of the learning that causes the learner to focus attention on the lesson. This focus is facilitated by involving the learner covertly by relating the learning to past, present, or future learning. Focus is maintained through the consistent engagement of the learner's mind with that which is to be learned. To complete the lesson, closure is used to restate or summarize the learning and to keep the learner involved cognitively (Burge, 1981 and Standridge, 1981). Research has shown that continuity of pupils' attention and time spent attending to academic work are important determinants of pupils' achievement (Rosenshine and Berliner, 1978 and Erickson, Hawkhead, and Moody, 1980).

The fourth instructional skill is to monitor and adjust. Monitoring and adjusting provide the teacher a framework to effectively make and implement decisions before, during and after instruction. This increases the probability that the instruction is relevant to the learning. To monitor and adjust requires a five-step process:

1. The teacher generates overt behavior with questions and/or activities relevant to the objective;
2. The teacher observes the overt behavior;
3. The teacher infers covert behavior by evaluating the progress of the learner;
4. The teacher determines if there is a need for adjustment; and if there is,
5. The teacher alters the progress of the learner

by manipulating Bloom's (1956) taxonomy, referring back to the enroute learnings, or changing the teaching modality (Burge, 1981 and Standridge, 1981). Good (1980) found that teachers who can structure, maintain, and monitor learning activities have a decided advantage in teaching basic skills when compared with teachers who assign managerial supervision to young children. Hunter (1983) believes that effective teachers are constantly prepared to alter teaching and learning behaviors based on cues that surface during the lesson.

The fifth instructional skill is to use, without abuse, the principles of learning. Burge (1981 and Standridge (1981) defined principles of learning as forces that exist in the classroom that have the power to either enhance or inhibit learning. The discussion of principles of learning refers more to the art of teaching than to the science of teaching--not so much the "what," but the "how." The manner in which a teacher uses the principles of learning is determined by that teacher's individual style of teaching. The abuse of the principles of learning occurs when they are misused or not used at the appropriate time. Hunter (1981) identified reinforcement, motivation, retention, and transfer as principles of learning. She is convinced that teachers need to master the art of consciously and deliberately incorporating these educational propellents into their regular routines of planning and teaching.

The first principle of learning is reinforcement.

Reinforcement is what the teacher does to insure that correct thinking occurs over and over again (Burge, 1981 and Standridge, 1981). Hunter (1981) said that reinforcement is always present. It is similar to the response component of teaching to the objective. If the teacher observes and then responds in a pleasant fashion, the learning will reoccur. Burge (1981) and Standridge (1981) stated that there is positive reinforcement and negative reinforcement. Positive reinforcement is when a teacher responds appropriately to a teacher generated learner behavior that the teacher wants to reoccur. Negative reinforcement deals with eliminating inaccurate responses, or inappropriate behavior. Negative reinforcement is responding to the learner in terms of the learning to an incorrect answer, and then supplying the student with the correct answer.

Scheduled reinforcement pertains to the frequency of the reinforcement. To reinforce every time the appropriate learning is emitted builds mastery. This is continuous reinforcement. Fixed ratio reinforcement is reinforcement at set intervals. This builds durability. Variable reinforcement is arbitrary reinforcement. This builds persistence. As learning is strengthened, the intervals between reinforcement become longer.

When reinforcement is correctly used with an appropriate response to the learner, the probability of subsequent answers being correct is increased. Proper use of reinforcement also can correct the thinking of other learners.

Burge (1981) and Standridge (1981) stressed that when the teacher uses positive reinforcement, (1) the praise should be for real worth, (2) each enroute learning should be reinforced before going to the next, (3) the words of praise should be varied, and (4) the teacher should specifically identify why the learner is being praised.

The second principle of learning is motivation. Burge (1981) and Standridge (1981) defined motivation as a state of need or desire within the learner that causes the learner to do something to satisfy the need. Burge (1981) paraphrased Hunter by saying that motivation allows us to inspire rather than perspire. He and Standridge (1981) said that a teacher can arrange conditions that will increase the probability that the motivation to learn will become stronger. They described six variables of motivation which relate directly to instructional skills. These are:

1. Tension: This is the learner's concern for getting the learning. Tension is sometimes defined as stress and is considered to be a healthy ingredient of the teaching-learning process if it does not become a distress. Tension is a continuum that ranges from apathy to anxiety. Both ends of the continuum are to be avoided in the use of motivation;

2. Feeling Tone: This is the learning atmosphere, determined by how the learner feels about the learning, the teaching, the other learners coupled with how the teacher feels about the learner and the learning. Feeling tone

is also a continuum that ranges from extremely pleasant to extremely unpleasant. Moderately pleasant feeling tone seems to be best for effective instruction;

3. Interest: This is something that appeals to the learner. It is vivid and causes the learner to relate the learning to the past, present, or future experience or needs. Following are ways the teacher can enhance interest in the learning for the learner: (a) by personalizing the learning so that it relates to the life of the learner. An example would be to use the learner's name as a "direct object" if the teacher is teaching parts of speech; (b) by involving the learner's sense modalities--see, hear, feel, etc.; (c) by making the learning more vivid by presenting something in a new way or by providing a colorful, descriptive set, explanation, or activity that would cause the learner to visualize; (d) by using Bloom's (1956) taxonomy to provide a variety of activities, questions, etc.; or (e) by varying the appearance of the learning environment;

4. Success: This is one of the strongest motivators. Motivation increases as success increases. The teacher should insure that the learning is not too difficult for the learner, yet difficult enough to present a meaningful challenge. While doing this the teacher should consider the different learning modalities and manipulate Bloom's (1956) taxonomy to provide success. Success can be accomplished by varying the learning for individuals or small

groups since there is no way the teacher can teach every child at his exact level of difficulty;

5. Knowledge of results: This involves ongoing evaluation. The knowledge should be immediate and specific. Learners should know the results of one learning before proceeding to the next. The teacher should be aware that comments on a learner's paper are more effective and meaningful than just a letter grade; and

6. Reward: The teacher cannot assume that the joy of learning is always a sufficient reward. There are extrinsic rewards such as food, grades, success, and praise; and there are intrinsic rewards such as self fulfillment. Extrinsic rewards are used to get the student to become satisfied with the intrinsic rewards. Extrinsic rewards should be related to the learning. When the learner achieves in math, he could be allowed to use a computer or play a math game. If the learner achieves in writing skills, he or she could be given a new pencil or eraser. The teacher must remember that the desire to learn is contagious, but so is the desire not to learn.

The third principle of learning is retention. Hunter (1967) defined retention as the process of retaining that which is learned. Burge (1981) and Standridge (1981) listed five factors that have a direct relationship to retention. These factors are the following:

1. Meaning: Meaning exists in the relationship of the material to be learned to the learner's knowledge of

past experiences. If there is no meaning, there is no remembering. Hunter (1967) stated that meaning is probably the greatest single factor that contributes to successful learning. Burge (1981) and Standridge (1981) believe that meaning is enhanced by relating the learning to the learner's life. Meaning can be strengthened by manipulating Bloom's (1956) taxonomy; the higher the level of complexity, the stronger the retention.

2. Degree of original learning: This is how well something was learned in the first place. Learning is incremental. Therefore, the teacher should concentrate on the most important concepts and not try to present a "once over lightly" type of lesson. The pace of the lesson is dependent on the learner's previous learning.

3. Feeling tone: As was previously mentioned, feeling tone is the rapport developed among the teacher, the learner, and the learning.

4. Transfer: An old learning either helps or hinders the acquisition of new learning. Positive transfer helps acquire new learning and negative transfer inhibits the acquisition of new learning.

5. Practice: The achievement of maximum learning with minimal time devoted to practice is an important goal of teaching. This opportunity to rehearse is accomplished first with massed practice and then with distributed practice. Many practice periods scheduled closely together are to be employed at the onset of the learning. This

massing of practice yields fast learning. After something has been learned, the practice sessions should be scheduled farther apart. This distributing of practice yields results in longer retention of the information that has been learned. Brophy and Evertson (1976) found that children who have difficulty in mastering information learn more by repetition. Also, the learning needs to be processed in small steps that can be mastered by the children. Burge (1981) and Standridge (1981) said that meaning, modeling, and monitoring are important when applying these following four elements of efficient, effective practice: (a) practice small meaningful parts, adding more only after those are learned; (b) schedule short, intense practice sessions where the learner is highly motivated to learn; (c) mass practice sessions at the beginning so the information is learned quickly and then distribute the practice so the learning is long remembered; and (d) allow the learner to receive knowledge of the results during the practice or as soon afterwards as possible. Violations of the principle of retention will occur if the teacher neglects to quickly check and return the learner's work.

The fourth principle of learning is transfer. This is the ability to use a prior learning in a new learning situation. A previously established learning influences a second learning. Hunter (1971) stated that there are two types of transfer: (1) positive transfer which occurs when the prior learning aids the learner in the acquisition

of new learning and (2) negative transfer which occurs when a prior learning inhibits the acquisition of new learning. Burge (1981) and Standridge (1981) believe transfer is the heart and core of problem solving, creative thinking, and all higher mental processes. They also reported transfer to be a critical factor of efficient teaching because it economizes time and energy in teaching.

There are four factors that generate transfer:

1. Similarity of two learning situations--similarity of the situation in which something is learned and the situation to which that learning may transfer. An example could be the type of dress required for a school dance. Since students usually wear their best clothes when they attend church, funerals, weddings, and other similar occasions where exemplary behavior is expected of them, school officials may encourage the same type of dress to enhance the transfer of this exemplary behavior to the school dance;

2. Association of the old and new learnings--one learning will tend to transfer to another when, for some reason, those two learnings are associated by the learner. This association can be affected by environment, time, and experiences of the learner;

3. Degree of original learning--the degree of transfer is related to the degree of effectiveness of the original learning; and

4. Identification of critical attributes or elements--the purpose of identifying the critical attributes

or generalizations in a learning is to reduce the complexity of the world around us so that past learnings can be appropriately transferred. This allows the learner to deal productively and economically with the present, rather than having to begin anew with each experience. To ensure that the learner can identify critical attributes and learn to use them, he must be taught to (a) categorize and group by certain properties, (b) identify critical properties that make something what it is, (c) practice predifferential training in simple situations in order to deal with more complex situations, (d) look for generalizations which are relevant to the critical attributes of a situation, and (e) label the relevant generalizations of a learning situation.

It was previously reported in this chapter that the building principal must function as an instructional leader if the school is to perform its primary function-- instruction. Yukl (1982) stated that the principal does not need the same level of specialized academic knowledge normally possessed by individual teachers. However, the principal should be a master of pedagogical practice and analysis of learning processes.

More effective principals seem to become visibly involved in instructional policy. Not only do they convey to their teachers their expectations of academic achievement, they also stress teaching strategies and techniques that can be used to achieve these expectations (Persell

and Cookson, 1982).

Hunter (1983) shares the opinion that no principal can be all knowing in the different content areas, but the principal can observe the method of teaching being used in a given content area and determine the effectiveness of the instructional techniques employed. She is very emphatic on this point:

The principal must be a pedagogical specialist in order to stimulate, observe, and validate constantly escalating effectiveness in instruction--the business of the school. The principal has a unique professional obligation and opportunity in that he or she is an administrator whose primary function concerns the education of each student, but who must work through the skills of the teachers. Consequently, enhancement of those teaching skills becomes a principal's primary concern. To nurture, develop, and escalate instructional excellence is the single most important function of the principal (P. 183).

Summary

This chapter examined the literature for those studies relating to this investigation. In summary, the following observations can be made.

The occurrence of emotional maladjustment among teachers has been the subject of considerable attention since the early years of this century. In a survey of 600 teachers in 1933, 17% were found to be "unusually nervous" and an additional 11% had experienced nervous breakdowns. A 1934 study of 110 women teachers disclosed that 33% of the number suffered from nervous symptoms (Coates and Thoresen, 1974).

The research reported in this chapter suggests that teachers experience a considerable amount of stress, tension, or anxiety in the performance of their teaching responsibilities. According to Coates and Thoresen (1974), little research has been done to determine to what degree teacher anxiety negatively affects students. However, they did report that a study in 1957 estimated that as many as 200,000 teachers may be affected by anxiety, and through them, five million students.

The concept of teacher autonomy in the public school setting is somewhat ambivalent. Because of their professional training and certification, teachers are regarded as expert specialists who should be afforded a high level of autonomy. However, many prefer to accept instruction, direction, and orders. Some actually try to avoid situations requiring evaluation or the exercising of independent thought.

Weick (1976) believes schools to be loosely coupled systems where teachers are normally independent of immediate administrative supervision. If this is correct, Edmonds, in his conversation with Brandt (1982) may have explained this ambivalence when he stated,

I definitely think it inappropriate for teachers to decide what is to be taught or the level at which it is to be taught. But they must have the widest possible latitude in deciding textual materials, classroom organization, instructional strategy, and the like (p. 15).

Hunter (1984) defined teaching as a decision making process with the decisions being implemented before, during, and after instruction in order to increase the probability of learning. Teachers and principals must attend to these important decisions, which affect student behaviors, on a daily basis. Also, these decisions must be made in regard to planning skills, management skills, and instructional skills to increase the student's level of involvement and success.

The literature indicated that teachers have certain traits, behaviors, and competencies with which they can improve student achievement. For example, they must clarify the lesson objective, organize instruction to include meaningful learning activities, demonstrate adequate knowledge of content, and capably assess learning.

CHAPTER III

INVESTIGATION PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study was twofold. One purpose was to determine the effects of the Bartlesville Public Schools' Instructional Skills staff development program on teacher anxiety specifically related to teaching. The other was to determine the effects of the Instructional Skills staff development program on teacher autonomy from the employing organization.

This chapter will describe the methods and procedures used in the selection of the subjects; the selection and administration of the assessment instruments; the procedure utilized in collecting data; and the analysis of data.

Selection of subjects

The subjects for this study were the 56 Bartlesville school teachers who received the Instructional Skills training during the 1982-1983 school year. There were two Instructional Skills training sessions during that year. One session occurred during the fall semester and one occurred during the spring semester. The fall session accommodated 28 teachers and the spring session accommodated 28 teachers. The training at each session was identical.

With the exception of the 90 teachers who had received the training the preceding year, all Bartlesville teachers were eligible to enlist for either of the 1982-1983 sessions. Each building principal was notified by the central office as to the number of teachers to be sent from his or her school. All schools in Bartlesville provided teachers for at least one of the two sessions. Table I indicates the number of teachers representing each participating school for the fall session. Table II indicates the number of teachers representing each participating school for the spring session.

TABLE I
PARTICIPATING SCHOOLS AND NUMBER OF
PARTICIPANTS FROM EACH SCHOOL
(FALL)

| Schools | Elementary/Secondary | Number of Participants from Each School |
|--------------------|----------------------|---|
| McKinley/Southview | Elementary | 5 |
| Lincoln | Elementary | 4 |
| Ranch Heights | Elementary | 6 |
| Will Rogers | Elementary | 5 |
| Wilson | Elementary | 1 |
| Central | Secondary | 7 |

TABLE II
 PARTICIPATING SCHOOLS AND NUMBER OF
 PARTICIPANTS FROM EACH SCHOOL
 (SPRING)

| Schools | Elementary/Secondary | Number of Participants from Each School |
|---------------|----------------------|---|
| Highland Park | Elementary | 1 |
| Jefferson | Elementary | 1 |
| Limestone | Elementary | 1 |
| Oak Park | Elementary | 1 |
| Wayside | Elementary | 3 |
| Central | Secondary | 2 |
| Madison | Secondary | 6 |
| Mid-High | Secondary | 5 |
| Senior High | Secondary | 8 |

Instrumentation

In order to assess the effect of the Instructional Skills training session on teacher anxiety related to teaching and teacher autonomy from the employing organization, appropriate assessment instruments were needed. The instruments selected were designed for a normal population; could be self administered; could be interpreted by the researcher; and met acceptable validity and reliability standards.

Teaching Anxiety Scale (Appendix A)

The Teaching Anxiety Scale (Parsons, 1972) was designed to measure anxiety that is specifically related to the task of teaching. It comprises a mixture of self-report statements concerning teacher reactions to teaching. The statements are of two different types, some involving emotional responses to various situations related to teaching and some involving attitudes toward the profession of teaching. The statements are presented with a rating from 1 ("never") to 5 ("always"). The middle-range options are 2 ("infrequently"), 3 ("occasionally"), and 4 ("frequently").

Approximately half of the items are positively phrased and the others are negatively phrased. A high degree of agreement with the positively phrased items is scored "low-anxious" while a high degree of agreement with the negatively phrased items is scored "high-anxious."

The Teaching Anxiety Scale was correlated with two other paper-pencil, self-report measures of anxiety to determine if teaching anxiety is related to general anxiety and situation-specific anxiety. The measurements to which the Teaching Anxiety Scale was correlated are the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale and the Test Anxiety Scale. The correlations were consistently positive and were predominately significant at the .05 level.

Internal consistency of the Teacher Anxiety Scale is high. The alpha coefficient for a group of 279 inservice

teachers in 1967 was .87.

Professional Autonomy Scale (Appendix B)

The Professional Autonomy Scale (Forsyth and Danisiewicz, 1978) consists of instruments designed to measure attitudes related to professional autonomy. The instruments were developed and field-tested to measure professional autonomy attitudes. One of the instruments specifically addresses the employee's feelings of autonomy in relation to the constraints imposed by the employing organization. The eleven Likert-type items in the instrument are related to submission to the employing organization, the employee's perception of the organization loyalty, and the respondent's alacrity to bend the organization's rules. The pilot-test for reliability and the sample alpha were identical ($\alpha = .80$).

All the statements are presented with a 1-8 choice option format, from high agreement 1-2 ("strongly agree") to low agreement 7-8 ("strongly disagree"). The middle-range options are 3-4 ("agree") and 5-6 ("disagree"). Approximately half of the items are reverse scored. A high sum of item scores indicates a high degree of attitudinal autonomy from the employing organization.

Collection of Data

On the morning of the first Instructional Skills meeting the participants were asked to complete the "Teacher

Occupational Questionnaire". This fictitious title was used in order to avoid identifying the concepts to be measured--anxiety and autonomy. A cover letter, explaining the purpose of the questionnaire, was attached to each questionnaire (Appendix C). On the same day the Instructional Skills participants were pre-tested, a control group made up of a similar number of randomly-selected teachers who had not been through the program was also pre-tested. The control group received the same questionnaire with the same cover letter. The teachers in the control group were a similar representation of each school represented in the experimental group.

Following the completion of each training session, the groups (control and experimental) were administered the same questionnaire as a post-test. A cover letter was attached to each questionnaire (Appendix D).

Analysis of Data

Using the SPSS Statistical Package, t-tests were used to determine significant differences in teacher anxiety, specifically related to teaching, between a group of teachers which had received training in an instructional skills staff development program and a representative group of teachers which had not received the training. Also, t-tests were used on these same groups to determine significant differences in perceived autonomy from the employing organization resulting from this training. The .05 level of

confidence was used for all analyses to determine acceptance or rejection of the hypotheses. Statistical procedures were carried out by the Tulsa University Computer Center.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of the Bartlesville Schools' Staff Development program on teaching anxiety and teacher autonomy from the employing organization.

The Teaching Anxiety Scale was administered as a pre- and a post-test to 56 inservice teachers during the 1982-1983 school year. Each of the instrument's self-report statements consists of five response choices that yield numerical values of 1-5. Possible scores for the instrument range from 25 to 125. A high score indicates "high-anxious" and a low score indicates "low-anxious."

The Professional Autonomy Scale was also administered as a pre- and post-test to the 56 teachers. Each of the instrument's self-report statements consists of eight response choices that yield numerical values of 1-8. Possible scores for the instrument range from 11 to 88. A high score indicates a greater degree of attitudinal autonomy from the employing organization.

Twenty-eight elementary teachers and 28 secondary teachers participated in this study. Two hypotheses were formulated and tested. A t-test was used to compare group

means. Analysis of variance was used to test for group differences by age, experience, and instruction level. The .05 level of confidence was used in all comparisons to determine acceptance or rejection of the hypothesis. Representative control groups were randomly selected and were pre- and post-tested simultaneously with their corresponding experimental groups.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics for experimental and control groups on pre-test anxiety are presented in Table III. The experimental group had a mean of 42.59 and a standard deviation of 7.65. The maximum score was 64, the minimum score was 23, and the range was 41. The control group had a mean of 41.59 and a standard deviation of 8.12. The maximum score was 62, the minimum score was 25, and the range was 37.

Descriptive statistics for experimental and control groups on pre-test anxiety are presented in Table IV. The experimental group had a mean of 52.07 and a standard deviation of 8.83. The maximum score was 73, the minimum score was 35, and the range was 38. The control group had a mean of 54.59 and a standard deviation of 9.23. The maximum score was 81, the minimum score was 37, and the range was 44.

TABLE III
 PRE-TEST STATISTICS FOR EXPERIMENTAL
 AND CONTROL GROUPS ON THE
TEACHING ANXIETY SCALE

| Group | N | X | S.D. | Maximum Score | Minimum Score | Range |
|--------------------------|----|-------|------|------------------|------------------|-------|
| <hr/> Experimental <hr/> | | | | | | |
| (Fall) | 28 | 42.32 | 7.26 | 64 | 23 | 41 |
| (Spring) | 28 | 42.86 | 8.15 | 64 | 31 | 33 |
| Total Group | 56 | 42.59 | 7.65 | 64 | 23 | 41 |
| <hr/> Control <hr/> | | | | | | |
| (Fall) | 29 | 41.65 | 6.91 | 53 | 25 | 28 |
| (Spring) | 30 | 41.53 | 9.27 | 62 | 25 | 37 |
| Total Group | 59 | 41.59 | 8.12 | 62 | 25 | 37 |

TABLE IV
 PRE-TEST STATISTICS FOR EXPERIMENTAL
 AND CONTROL GROUPS ON THE
PROFESSIONAL AUTONOMY SCALE

| Group | N | X | S.D. | Maximum Score | Minimum Score | Range |
|---------------------|----|-------|-------|------------------|------------------|-------|
| <u>Experimental</u> | | | | | | |
| (Fall) | 28 | 52.18 | 7.91 | 69 | 38 | 31 |
| (Spring) | 28 | 51.96 | 9.81 | 73 | 35 | 38 |
| Total Group | 56 | 52.07 | 8.83 | 73 | 35 | 38 |
| <u>Control</u> | | | | | | |
| (Fall) | 29 | 54.62 | 5.84 | 74 | 44 | 30 |
| (Spring) | 30 | 54.57 | 11.73 | 81 | 37 | 44 |
| Total Group | 59 | 54.59 | 9.23 | 81 | 37 | 44 |

Descriptive statistics for experimental and control groups on post-test anxiety are presented in Table V. The experimental group had a mean of 39.18 and a standard deviation of 7.75. The maximum score was 58, the minimum score was 22, and the range was 36. The control group had a mean of 40.41 and a standard deviation of 10.06. The maximum score was 65, the minimum score was 23, and the range was 42.

TABLE V
POST-TEST STATISTICS FOR EXPERIMENTAL
AND CONTROL GROUPS ON THE
TEACHING ANXIETY SCALE

| Group | N | X | S.D. | Maximum Score | Minimum Score | Range |
|---------------------|----|-------|-------|------------------|------------------|-------|
| <u>Experimental</u> | | | | | | |
| (Fall) | 28 | 40.11 | 7.27 | 58 | 22 | 36 |
| (Spring) | 28 | 38.25 | 8.23 | 57 | 23 | 34 |
| Total Group | 56 | 39.18 | 7.75 | 58 | 22 | 36 |
| <u>Control</u> | | | | | | |
| (Fall) | 29 | 40.10 | 9.69 | 60 | 23 | 37 |
| (Spring) | 30 | 40.70 | 10.57 | 65 | 24 | 41 |
| Total Group | 59 | 40.41 | 10.06 | 65 | 23 | 42 |

Descriptive statistics for experimental and control groups on post-test autonomy are presented in Table VI. The experimental group had a mean of 51.87 and a standard deviation of 8.50. The maximum score was 75, the minimum score was 33, and the range was 42. The control group had a mean of 54.30 and a standard deviation of 9.42. The maximum score was 81, the minimum score was 36, and the range was 45.

TABLE VI
POST-TEST STATISTICS FOR EXPERIMENTAL
AND CONTROL GROUPS ON THE
PROFESSIONAL AUTONOMY SCALE

| Group | N | X | S.D. | Maximum Score | Minimum Score | Range |
|---------------------|----|-------|-------|------------------|------------------|-------|
| <u>Experimental</u> | | | | | | |
| (Fall) | 28 | 50.86 | 7.65 | 72 | 33 | 39 |
| (Spring) | 28 | 52.89 | 9.30 | 75 | 35 | 40 |
| Total Group | 56 | 51.87 | 8.50 | 75 | 33 | 42 |
| <u>Control</u> | | | | | | |
| (Fall) | 29 | 54.55 | 6.41 | 75 | 46 | 29 |
| (Spring) | 30 | 54.07 | 11.74 | 81 | 36 | 45 |
| Total Group | 59 | 54.30 | 9.42 | 81 | 36 | 45 |

Table VII presents pre- and post-test comparisons of anxiety for the experimental and control groups. The pre-test mean of the experimental group was 42.59 and the standard deviation was 7.65. The post-test mean of the experimental group was 39.18 and the standard deviation was 7.75. A t-ratio yielded a t-value of 2.34 with a two-tailed probability of 0.02. The pre-test mean of the control group was 41.59 and the standard deviation was 8.13. The post-test mean of the control group was 40.41 and the standard deviation was 10.06. A t-ratio yielded a t-value of 0.70 with a two-tailed probability of 0.48.

TABLE VII
PRE- AND POST-TEST COMPARISONS OF ANXIETY FOR
EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

| Group | N | X | S.D. | t | Two-tailed Probability |
|---------------------------|----|-------|-------|------|---------------------------|
| Pre-test Experimental | 56 | 42.59 | 7.65 | 2.34 | 0.02* |
| Post-test Experimental | 56 | 39.18 | 7.75 | | |
| Pre-test Control | 59 | 41.59 | 8.13 | 0.70 | 0.48 |
| Post-test Control | 59 | 40.41 | 10.06 | | |

* $p < 0.05$

Table VIII presents pre- and post-test comparisons of autonomy for the experimental and control groups. The pre-test mean of the experimental group was 52.07 and the standard deviation was 8.83. The post-test mean of the experimental group was 51.87 and the standard deviation was 8.50. A t-ratio yielded a t-value of 0.12 with a two-tailed probability of 0.90. The pre-test mean of the control group was 54.59 and the standard deviation was 9.23. The post-test mean of the control group was 54.30 and the standard deviation was 9.42. A t-ratio yielded a t-value of 0.17 with a two-tailed probability of 0.87.

TABLE VIII
PRE- AND POST-TEST COMPARISONS OF AUTONOMY FOR
EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

| Group | N | X | S.D. | t | Two-tailed Probability |
|---------------------------|----|-------|------|------|---------------------------|
| Pre-test Experimental | 56 | 52.07 | 8.83 | 0.12 | 0.90 |
| Post-test Experimental | 56 | 51.87 | 8.50 | | |
| Pre-test Control | 59 | 54.59 | 9.23 | 0.17 | 0.87 |
| Post-test Control | 59 | 54.30 | 9.42 | | |

Demographic Statistics

Given the significant findings relating to anxiety for the experimental group, it was of interest to determine if relevant demographic factors could account for the reduction in anxiety. For statistical purposes, the experimental group was divided into three categories, three experience levels, and two instruction levels. Difference scores on anxiety were calculated for each individual by subtracting the post-test score from the pre-test score on the anxiety scale. Table IX presents the results of the various group comparisons. As can be seen in the Table, no comparisons were significantly different as tested by analysis of variance techniques. Therefore, neither age ($F = 0.94$, $p < 0.96$), experience level ($F = 0.14$, $p < 0.87$), nor instruction level ($F = 0.93$, $p < 0.34$) could be associated statistically with pre- and post-test reductions in anxiety.

TABLE IX

COMPARISONS OF PRE- AND POST-TEST ANXIETY SCORES FOR
THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP BY AGE, EXPERIENCE,
AND INSTRUCTION LEVEL

| Age | N |
|-------|----|
| 21-30 | 11 |
| 31-40 | 21 |
| 41- | 24 |

| Source of Variation | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | p |
|---------------------|----------------|----|-------------|------|------|
| Between | 4.23 | 2 | 2.11 | 0.04 | 0.96 |
| Within | 2945.32 | 53 | 55.57 | | |
| Total | 2949.55 | 55 | | | |

| Experience (years) | N |
|--------------------|----|
| 1-5 | 13 |
| 6-10 | 15 |
| 11- | 28 |

| Source of Variation | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | p |
|---------------------|----------------|----|-------------|------|------|
| Between | 15.47 | 2 | 7.74 | 0.14 | 0.87 |
| Within | 2934.08 | 53 | 55.36 | | |
| Total | 2949.55 | 55 | | | |

| Instruction level | N |
|-------------------|----|
| K-6 | 28 |
| 7-12 | 28 |

| Source of Variation | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | p |
|---------------------|----------------|----|-------------|------|------|
| Between | 50.16 | 1 | 50.16 | 0.93 | 0.34 |
| Within | 2899.39 | 54 | 53.69 | | |
| Total | 2949.55 | 55 | | | |

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was (1) to determine the effects of the Bartlesville Public Schools' Instructional Skills Staff Development program on teacher anxiety specifically related to teaching, and (2) to determine the effects of the Instructional Skills Staff Development program on teachers' perceived autonomy from the employing organization.

The Teaching Anxiety Scale and the Professional Autonomy Scale were administered as pre- and post-tests to the 56 teachers participating in the Instructional Skills Staff Development program during the 1983-1984 school year. The pre-test occurred on the first day of the training session and the post-test was given at the conclusion of the seven weeks training.

Control groups consisting of teachers who had not participated in the staff development program were also formed. The teachers in the control groups were a similar representation of each school represented in the experimental groups. The timing of the administration of the instruments to the control groups coincided with the testing of the experimental groups.

A t-test was used to determine if a significant difference existed between means of the experimental groups and the control groups. The .05 level of confidence was used to determine acceptance or rejection of the hypotheses.

Findings

The findings of the study were as follows:

Hypothesis 1.

There will be a significant reduction of teacher anxiety specifically related to teaching after completing the Bartlesville Public Schools' Instructional Skills Staff Development program. The .05 level of confidence was established to accept hypothesis one. Anxiety specifically related to teaching was significantly reduced.

Hypothesis 2.

There will be a significant reduction of perceived autonomy from the employing organization by teachers after completing the Bartlesville Public Schools' Instructional Skills Staff Development program. The .05 level of confidence was not established to accept hypothesis two. Perceived autonomy from the employing organization was not significantly affected.

Conclusions

The results of this study indicate that the group of teachers who participated in the 1982-1983 Instructional Skills program did experience a reduction in anxiety specifically related to the task of teaching.. However, their perceived autonomy from the employing organization was not significantly effected.

From its inception, this program was designed to assist the Bartlesville teachers to develop new teaching skills and/or sharpen existing skills. It was never intended to be a threat to them. The Instructional Skills trainers and the building principals went to great lengths to convey this message to the participants.

It is logical to expect confidence in a given task to increase as the level of competence increases. Perhaps through the intense training, coaching, and feedback that the participants received, they either perceived an improvement in their teaching competence, or they discovered that they had been effectively using many of the skills being taught before they entered the program.

It is possible to assume that teacher autonomy was not threatened because all building principals had undergone the same treatment at least twice and were aware of the concerns of the participants. This empathy for what the participants were experiencing might have caused the principals to be more careful not to infringe on those areas of classroom instruction where the teacher must be the

decision-maker.

Implications

This study provides several implications for school boards and school administrators.

It implies that teachers can be taught instructional skills that can be used in the classroom. It implies that the teacher and the administrator can learn and share a common vocabulary of teaching. It implies that burnout can be lessened if school districts will provide methods for teachers to learn new skills and hone existing skills. Finally, the study suggests that the preceding implications can be addressed without necessarily posing a threat to teacher autonomy.

Recommendations

School boards and administrators should be aware of the possibility that many teachers do not want to be burdened with having to make decisions that have no effect on what occurs in their classrooms.

Research on teacher autonomy indicates that a large percentage of teachers do not want an active role in the decision-making process of their school so long as the consequences of these decisions do not interfere with the decisions the teachers make within the confines of their classrooms. In fact, many would actually resist being involved in these decisions.

If the results of the findings of this study could be generalized to a larger population, they would indicate that developing some type of system for self-management of anxiety might be beneficial. Training teachers to recognize specific teacher behaviors that can possibly lead to stress or tension-producing situations might better equip teachers to prepare in advance for the expected anxiety.

One might infer from this research that systematic inservice in a specific teaching technique, philosophically congruent with the local district, may serve to reduce teacher anxiety.

Recommendations for further research are (1) a study of the relationship between teaching skills deficits and teacher anxiety; (2) a study of the relationship between anxious teacher behaviors and student performance; (3) a study to determine the effects of a systematic inservice in specific anxiety-reducing techniques on teacher anxiety, and (4) a study to determine the program's effect on student achievement.

This study was conducted entirely within the constraints of the Bartlesville Public School system. The Instructional Skills Staff Development program was implemented to aid and assist the members of this system so that they, in turn, will be better prepared to meet the needs of the community. The use of a similar study in a different school system, or even in the same school

system, could yield different results. The evaluation of this program should be ongoing and revised as needed.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

TEACHING ANXIETY SCALE

| | Never | Infrequently | Occasionally | Frequently | Always |
|---|-------|--------------|--------------|------------|--------|
| * 1. I feel calm and collected when I think about holding parent-teacher conferences. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. If I have trouble answering a student's question, I find it difficult to concentrate on questions that follow. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| * 3. I feel calm when I am preparing lessons. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. I'm worried whether I can be a good teacher. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| * 5. I feel sure I will find teaching a satisfying profession. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| * 6. I would feel calm and collected if a student's parent observed in my classroom. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. I feel inferior to other teachers in my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| * 8. I feel that students will follow my instructions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| * 9. I feel secure with regard to my ability to keep a class under control. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. I'm less happy teaching than I thought I'd be. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

- | | | | | | | |
|------|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 11. | I feel nervous when I am being observed by my supervisor. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| *12. | I feel confident about my ability to improvise in the classroom. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| *13. | I feel other teachers think I'm very competent. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. | I feel panicky when a student asks me a question I can't answer. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. | I feel anxious because I don't know yet whether I really want to be a teacher. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. | Lack of rapport with my students is one of my biggest worries. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. | I would feel anxious if the principal informed me he was coming to my class to observe. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| *18. | I find it easy to speak up in the planning room. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. | I worry about being able to keep the students interested in what I teach them. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. | Deciding how to present information in the classroom makes me feel uncertain. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| *21. | I feel I will have good recall of the things I know when I am in front of the class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| *22. | I feel I am as competent in the classroom as other teachers in my school | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| *23. | I find it easy to admit to the class that I don't know the answer to a student's question. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. | I feel uncomfortable when I speak before a group. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. | I feel better prepared for teaching than other teachers in my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

* Reverse scored

APPENDIX B

PROFESSIONAL AUTONOMY SCALE

| | Agree Strongly | | Agree | | Disagree | | Disagree Strongly | |
|---|-------------------|---|-------|---|----------|---|----------------------|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 1. I shouldn't allow myself to be influenced by the opinions of those colleagues whose ideas do not reflect the thinking of the administration. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 2. I believe I should adjust my occupational practice to the administration's point of view. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 3. Typically, the administration is better qualified to judge what is best for the student than I am. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 4. Personnel who openly criticize the administration of this school should be encouraged to go elsewhere. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| *5. This school should not expect to have my wholehearted loyalty and support. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 6. I believe it's important to put the interests of the school above everything else. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| *7. It should be permissible for me to violate an organizational rule if I'm sure that the best interests of the student will be served by doing so. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 8. In case of doubt about whether a particular occupational practice is better than another, the primary test should be what seems best for the overall reputation of the school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |

- *9. I should try to put what I judge to be the standards and ideals of my occupation into practice, even if the rules and procedures of this school discourage it. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- *10. I believe that administrators and the board of education should facilitate my work rather than direct it. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- *11. My colleagues and I should try to live up to what we think are the standards of our occupation even if the administration or immediate community doesn't seem to respect them. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- * Reverse scored

APPENDIX C

PRE-TEST COVER LETTER

Dear Colleague,

To assist in the completion of a doctoral dissertation, your response to this questionnaire is earnestly requested.

As you will note on the last page of the questionnaire, the statement following the last response clearly expresses that names are unimportant, and that no effort will be made to discover your identity. Rest assured that no person other than myself will see your anonymous response. The gathering of data is the only motive behind my request.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Don Derrick

APPENDIX D

POST-TEST COVER LETTER

Dear Colleague,

Please be kind enough to complete this questionnaire one more time.

As before, names are unimportant and no effort will be made to discover your identity. Rest assured that no person other than myself will see your anonymous response. The gathering of data is the only motive behind my request.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Don Derrick

2

VITA

Donald Claude Derrick
Candidate for the Degree of
Doctor of Education

Thesis: A STUDY OF THE EFFECTS OF THE BARTLESVILLE PUBLIC
SCHOOLS' INSTRUCTIONAL SKILLS PROGRAM ON TEACHER
ANXIETY AND TEACHER AUTONOMY

Major Field: Educational Administration

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