# THE PREDICTIVE VALIDITY OF THE TEACHER PERCEIVER INTERVIEW TO TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS 

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Thesis Approved:


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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter Page
I. INTRODUCTION ..... 1
Statement of the Problem ..... 6
Purpose of the Study ..... 7
Background and Value of the Study. ..... 8
Assumptions. ..... 10
Limitations. ..... 11
Definition of Terms ..... 11
Summary ..... 13
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE ..... 14
Introduction ..... 14
Interview Techniques ..... 14
The Teacher Perceiver Interview ..... 17
Original Development of the TPI Process ..... 17
Characteristics of the TPI ..... 20
Standard Error of Measurement. ..... 23
Correlation With Other Measures ..... 23
Literature Opposing the TPI ..... 26
Conclusions and Recommendations ..... 28
Teacher Effectiveness ..... 29
Teacher Evaluations ..... 45
Tulsa School Effectiveness Program ..... 52
Improving Schools ..... 55
Summary. ..... 62
III. METHODS AND PROCEDURES. ..... 63
Introduction ..... 63
Description of Population ..... 63
Sample Population ..... 63
Demography of Tulsa (1984-85). ..... 65
Description of Instrumentation ..... 66
Data Collection ..... 72
IV. ANALYSIS OF DATA. ..... 77
Introduction ..... 77
Results of Statistical Analysis. ..... 78
Summary ..... 87
Chapter Page
V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS. ..... 88
Summary and Conclusions ..... 88
Implications ..... 90
Recommendations for Further Study. ..... 91
BIBLIOGRAPHY ..... 93
APPENDIXES ..... 99
APPENDIX A - ITEM ANALYSIS FORMAT ..... 100
APPENDIX B - TEACHER PERCEIVER INTERVIEW SCORESHEET ..... 102
APPENDIX C - STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE (7-ASQ) ..... 105
APPENDIX D - PRINCIPAL'S EVALUATION FORM. ..... 107
APPENDIX E - CORRESPONDENCE ..... 109
APPENDIX F - ITEM ANALYSIS ..... 112

## LIST OF TABLES

Table Page
I. Summary of Obtained Internal Consistency Reliability Estimates ..... 22
II. Summary of Obtained Internal Consistency Reliability Estimates for Select Subsamples. . . . . . . . . . . 22
III. Number of School Systems That Conduct Formal Evalua- tions of the Instructional Performance of Classroom Teachers . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 46
IV. Voluntary Response to Principals' Evaluation ..... 64

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure Page

1. Scattergram Depicting TPI and Evaluation I ..... 80
2. Scattergram Depicting TPI and Evaluation II ..... 81
3. Scattergram Depicting the Relationship Between TPI and Total Evaluation. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 83
4. Scattergram Depicting the Relationship Between Evaluation I and Evaluation II ..... 84
5. Scattergram Depicting the Relationship Between Evaluation I and Total Evaluation. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 85
6. Scattergram Depicting the Relationship Between Evaluation IIand Total Evaluation. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 86

## CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

The educational system, as we know it, is in the process of change. With the increased involvement of parent groups, student population decline, achievement test score decline, and the A nation at Risk (1983) report to the President, educators are having to find ways to improve the quality of the teachers in the classroom.

The demand for excellence can be translated into a demand for more effective teacher selection practices by personnel officers. A vast amount of information is available concerning each prospective teacher. Employment files include resumes, test scores, grade-point averages, official transcripts, letters of recommendation, entry-level committee recommendations, and the results of the personal interview. Although all of these parts constitute the whole, the greatest source of information, if used effectively, is probably the personal interview. The reliability, validity, and general worth of using a structured interview to select successful teachers is the topic of this paper.

The interview is man's oldest and most often used device for obtaining information. With a well-conceived questionnaire, an interview can be used to obtain a great deal of information. The interview can be flexible and adaptable to many situations, and it can be used when other methods are not possible or adequate.

Using the interview technique, questions may be asked directly or indirectly. When asked a question directly, a person may or may not give the desired response. Presented with the same question, using an indirect format, the person may respond with the desired information without being aware that it is being given. Indirect questioning involves asking the person for an opinion or an impression of a situation. Most data collection methods in sociology and psychology utilize these questioning techniques.

The interview procedure assumes that a candidate's behavior in the past can serve as a guide for predicting future performance. The individual is believed to remain much the same in the future as he/she was in the past. He/she is expected to retain the same or similar characteristics or personality and behave in accordance with previous patterns.

The major shortcoming of the interview technique is the time involved. Interviews may require many hours to complete. The actual interview may involve as much as two hours. The interpretation and scoring of the interview can consume another two to three hours. The time investment can be translated into a monetary figure. Therefore, in terms of individual effort and cost, the interview is not always the most economically effective method of applicant selection.

Regardless of cost involved, researchers indicate that information obtained in the interview is crucial in selection. Meggison (1970) supported this, saying that the diagnostic interview is probably the most important step in the whole selection procedure, as all the relevant information is brought into focus during the interview.

The interview is the method par excellence for filling in the gaps left by other information-gathering techniques such as applications, resumes, and employment histories. The interview provides information beyond the written data. The interviewer can explore future aspirations and prior job history with the applicant.

The personal interview serves to delve into the personality of the applicant. Koerner (1969) stated:

Because an individual's personality has a way of permeating everything he does, the investigation of a candidate's personality should take priority during an interview. Other information regarding background, experiences, and certification qualifications can be gleaned from the written application. The interview is the one opportunity to penetrate the superficial. Questions should be structured to uncover the individual's personality indirectly. The questions should require the person to think while trying to verbalize. Other questions should involve immediate decision making. Interviews further should be formatted to contain questions having no pat answers. Items should require the respondent to explain and re-explain (p. 102).

Meggison (1970) supported this opinion of the interview. Primarily, the interviewer seeks to ascertain the applicant's level of maturity, ability to persevere, and degree of self-discipline. Secondly, he/she searches for the correct attitude, knowledge, and skills needed for successful job performance. In summary, the interviewer attempts to evaluate the person's ability to utilize available resources in solving complex problems.

Kerlinger (1967), a statistician, stated that the most important use of interviews should be to study relations and test hypotheses. The interview is a psychological measuring instrument. Perhaps more accurately, the products of interviews (respondents' answers to carefully contrived questions) can be translated into measures of
psychological variables. Interviews and questionnaires are therefore subject to the same criteria of reliability, validity, and objectivity as any other measuring instrument.

The structured interview consists of prescribed questions formulated before the interview and stated in such a manner that the interviewee will reveal something about himself/herself in the answers he/she gives. Most structured interviews are administered by asking the same questions in the same order to all interviewees, thereby increasing the reliability of the interview. The interviewer is allowed very little liberty in asking questions. Interviewers are trained using permissible variations in the questions.

Development of the questions used in the structured interview is extremely important. According to Kerlinger (1967), there are three types of questions in common use: fixed alternative (closed), openend (open), and fixed scale-alternatives, also known as scale items.

Fixed alternative items offer the respondent a choice among two or more alternatives (yes-no, agree-disagree). A neutral third choice (undecided, don't know, not applicable) is provided for the purpose of relieving stress in the interview. The disadvantage of this type of interview questioning is that it limits the respondent to the constraints set by the interviewer. Without probes, the respondent cannot reach beyond the superficiality of the questions.

Open-ended items do not impose restrictions on the content and manner of respondent answers. The open-end questions supply a frame of reference for the respondent's answers while putting a minimum of restraint on the answers and their expression. When answering openend questions, the respondent reveals the ability to express himself,
to organize his thoughts, and to respond in-depth based on his experience and knowledge. Responses to open-end questions can suggest possibilities of relations and hypotheses. Respondents will sometimes give unexpected answers that may indicate the existence of relationships not originally anticipated. The disadvantage of using openended questions is the amount of time it takes to administer the interview.

The scale question is a set of verbal items, each of which is answered by expressing degrees of agreement or disagreement or some other mode of answer. Scale items have fixed alternatives and place the respondent at some point on the scale. The use of scale items in interview questions is a development of great promise, since the benefits of scales are combined with those of interviews.

Brannon (1975) elaborated even further on the advantages of the structured interview. In addition to obtaining the teacher's ideas on the questions presented, the interviewer has the opportunity to observe such important characteristics as: poise, enunciation, phrasing, posture, facial expressions, manner of dress, cleanliness, and mannerisms. The school interviewer should be seeing the respondent at his/her best.

To achieve reliability, interviewers must be trained and questions must be pretested and revised to eliminate ambiguities and inadequate wording. Validity of structured interviews can be increased by eliminating interviewer bias through training.

In two separate studies, Ghiselli (1966) and Yonge (1956) found that interview estimates of intelligence compared to actual intelligence test scores proved to be valid. In addition, the interview
appeared to have good potential as a predictor of self-confidence, the ability to express one's self effectively, certain types of attitudes, sociability, and a variety of other mental abilities.

Where the interview approach is planned in advance and a relatively structured format is followed (so that the same questions are asked of all interviewees), relatively good validities have been obtained against job performance criteria. In 1947, McMurry conducted a rather sizable predictive validities study. In his report, McMurry stated that when a highly structured, patterned interview approach was followed, the interviews yielded a correlation of .43 with people who stayed for 18 months. The employees who rated higher initially in the employment interview stayed longer. When rated by their superiors, the results were compared with the earlier interview judgments. A predictive validity coefficient of .68 was obtained. Subsequent studies using the same patterned interview format produced correlations with. success criteria consistently in the .60's. It is evident that when the selection interview is used in a relatively standardized manner and individualized interviewer approaches and biases are controlled, the interview can be quite effective.

Statement of the Problem

With the publicized decline in quality and the few number of people entering education, it is even more essential than ever to ascertain the best qualified person for the job. It is imperative that the written reports on the individual be properly interpreted, but more important is the ability to assess the personal interview with the individual.

Answers to the following questions will be sought:

1. Is there a significant difference in the scores on the Teacher Perceiver Interview (TPI) between teachers across levels of instruction (elementary, junior high, senior high)?
2. Is there a correlation between the TPI score and the score each teacher received from their supervisors on the Principals' Evaluation?
3. Do the TPI and the Principals' Evaluation measure approximately the same attitudes of teachers?
4. Are the Tulsa Public School Effectiveness Correlates represented on the Principals' Evaluation?
5. Did the addition of Rosenshine and Fursts' (1971) characteristics of an effective teacher invalidate the results of the Principals' Evaluation?

## Purpose of the Study

The Tulsa Public School Independent School District Number One has been using a structured interview since 1979 as a part of its hiring procedure. The Teacher Perceiver Interview (TPI) was designed by Selection Research Incorporated (SRI), Lincoln, Nebraska. The purpose of the present study is to verify the predictive validity of the TPI as it relates to the selection of effective teachers in Tulsa, OKlahoma.

Can the TPI validly predict the effectiveness of a prospective teacher? If an interview is given to a sizable sample of "master" teachers (deemed to be effective by their peers and administrators), there will be commonalities in their responses to the interview. If
prospective teachers are asked the same questions and respond in like manner, does this indicate that the prospective teacher has the same potential as the "master" teacher to be effective?

Background and Value of the Study

SRI has interviewed over 2,500 teachers who were identified by their administrators and students as being "effective." The interview consists of 60 questions or situations to which the "effective" teachers responded. Their responses were recorded and processed to find the commonalities that existed. These commonalities generally dealt with behavioral controls such as attitudes, knowledge, generalized skills, ideals, and interests.

The SRI Perceiver Academies call the following 12 categories "basic life themes." These themes, when identified systematically by a trained perceived specialist through the SRI Perceiver Academies' interview process, reveal significant success patterns in teachers. For teachers, SRI defined these themes as follows:

Mission. Mission is what takes some individuals and groups out of society's mainstream in order to assure the quality and purposiveness of that mainstream. Mission is a deep, underlying belief that students can grow and attain self-actualization. A teacher with mission has a goal to make a significant contribution to other people.

Empathy. Empathy is the apprehension and acceptance of the state of mind of another person. Practically, we say we put ourselves into the other person's place. Empathy is the phenomenon that provides the teacher feedback about the individual student's feelings and thoughts.

Rapport Drive. The rapport drive is evidenced by the teacher's ability to have an approving and mutually favorable relationship with each student. The teacher likes students and expects them to reciprocate. Rapport is seen by the teacher as a favorable and necessary condition of learning.

Individualized Perception. Individualized perception means that the teacher spontaneously thinks about the interests and needs of each student and makes every effort to personalize each student's program.

Listening. The listening theme is evident when a person spontaneously listens to others with responsiveness and acceptance. Listening is viewed as beneficial to the speaker.

Investment. The investment theme is indicated by the teacher's capacity to receive satisfaction from the growth of students. This is in contrast to the person who must personally perform to achieve satisfaction.

Input Drive. Input drive is evidenced by the teacher who is continually searching for ideas, materials, and experiences to use in helping other people, especially students.

Activation. Activation indicates that the teacher is capable of stimulating students to think, to respond, to feel--to learn.

Innovation. The innovation theme is indicated when a teacher tries new ideas and techniques. A certain amount of determination is observed in this theme because the idea has to be implemented. At a higher level of innovation is creativity, where the teacher has the capability of putting information and experience together into new configurations.

Gestalt. The gestalt theme indicates that the teacher has a drive toward completeness. The teacher sees in patterns and is uneasy until work is finished. When gestalt is high, the teacher tends toward perfectionism. Even though form and structure are important, the individual student is considered first. The teacher works from individual to structure. Beware of inflexibility.

Objectivity. Objectivity is indicated when a teacher responds to the total situation, getting facts and understanding first as compared to making an impulsive reaction.

Focus. Focus is indicated when a person has models and goals. The person's life is moving in a planned direction. The teacher knows what the goals are and selects activities in terms of these goals.

The TPI is audiotaped in order that it might be reviewed by the original interviewer or by another trained interviewer. A composite score is given and the interview sheet becomes part of the interviewee's employment folder, along with the teaching certificate, updated application, medical examination, official transcripts, and letters of recommendation. The completed employment folders are made available to administrators in need of teachers. When the administrator finds an applicant he/she feels might be qualified, a personal interview is arranged at the school site. When the administrator makes the decision for employment, a selection slip is forwarded to Personnel. Personnel offers the contract and performs the functions necessary for emp loyment.

Assumptions

The following assumptions were used in this study:

1. There are differences among teachers. Some are more effective than others.
2. Principals are in the best position to judge a teacher as being effective, provided the teacher has been under their supervision at least one year.
3. People that do not plan to make teaching a career leave before the fourth year of teaching.

## Limitations

The following were the limitations for the study:

1. Tulsa Public Schools believed the TPI to be a good indicator of teacher effectiveness; therefore, the school system hired few of the applicants who were rated low on the interview.
2. A large portion of the teachers hired in 1979 were not presently teaching in the Tulsa Public School system at the time of this study.
3. Cooperation of the principals was voluntary; consequently, not all possible administrative evaluations were completed and returned.
4. Persons to be evaluated had to be under the supervision of the evaluating principal for at least one full school year.

## Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following definitions were used:

Teacher Perceiver Interview (TPI). The TPI is a structured interview instrument designed to record 12 "life themes" which are considered to be descriptors of outstanding teachers.

Selection Research Incorporated (SRI). SRI is the company founded by Donald 0 . Clifton whose sole purpose is to train administrators to select the best possible employees. The Perceivers Academies, Incorporated, is a branch of SRI that specializes in teacher and administrator selections procedure.

Principal's Evaluation. The Principal's Evaluation is an instrument devised by the researcher based upon the student questionnaire ( 7 A SQ) from SRI. This instrument evaluates the teacher on the 12 life themes of the TPI and the six characteristics of Rosenshine and Furst (1971).

Item Analysis. The Item Analysis is the examination of each question of the Principal's Evaluation by instructional levels, and according to which life theme on the TPI it measures and which of the Tulsa Public School effectiveness correlates it measures. There is an analysis, a surmary, and a conclusion section at the bottom of each page.

TPI Life Themes. The TPI life themes are 12 characteristics desirable in teachers. They consist of: mission, empathy, rapport drive, individualized perception, listening, investment, input drive, activation, gestalt, objectivity, and focus. (These life themes have been described in detail in this chapter.)

School Effectiveness Correlates. School Effectiveness Correlates are organizational characteristics espoused by Edmonds (1979) and adopted by the Tulsa Public Schools in 1981 as part of the superintendent's five-year effectiveness goal. The correlates are: to strengthen administrative leadership, to emphasize learning, to
monitor progress, and to encourage strong support from parents. (These correlates are described in detail in Chapter II.)

## Summary

Of all the information-gathering devices used to complete an employment folder, the most important is the personal interview with the prospective teacher. This study concerns itself with making the initial employment interview a more valid predictor of success for the interviewee and a more useful part of the selection procedures. Chapter II contains a review of the literature regarding the areas of major concern in this study. Chapter III presents a description of the population, instruments, and data collection procedures. Chapter IV contains the findings of the research. Chapter $V$ presents conclusions, recommendations, and suggestions for future research.

## REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

## Introduction

The review of the literature focuses on: (1) interview techniques in selecting personnel, (2) development of the TPI, (3) characteristics of effective teachers, (4) evaluating teacher effectiveness, and (5) Tulsa School Effectiveness Program.

## Interview Techniques

The most important part of the hiring procedure is the personal interview with the candidate. The final decision to hire is often made during the interview. During the interview, the interviewer tries to evaluate the interviewee's personality, maturity, perseverance, and self-discipline. As one gets further into the interview procedure, other character traits can be observed: poise, enunciation, body language, manner of dress, cleanliness, facial expressions, posture, and ability to speak extemporaneously. The personal interview can also be used to ask questions raised by the printed forms (resume, application, transcript, previous employment, health). If used properly, the interview supplies further information, often revealing reasons for leaving previous employment and giving insight into future expectations. The key to a successful interview is the
planning that takes place prior to the actual meeting. By using a structured interview, one achieves more reliable information and it gives the interviewers a more objective basis for comparing the interviewees.

Pellicer (1981) endorsed the use of a structured interview. He compared the "good ol' boy" approach to the structured interview. The structured interview is defined as a "series of predetermined questions arranged in such a way that the administrator is able to gather information about a prospective teacher in areas deemed to be essential to successful performance" (p. 492). Pellicer described how seven administrators of Greenville County in South Carolina created their own structured interviews. He listed four advantages to their interview:

1. It gives the interviewer solid evidence on which to base a decision to hire or not to hire.
2. The nature of the questions requires the respondent to think and answer with substance.
3. With practice, the interviewer becomes more confident and relaxes, knowing the questions well and the general responses to "listen for" items.
4. Prospective teachers are impressed by the organization of the interview and feel the school system has a sense of purpose, knowing the type of teacher it seeks.

In a study by Casteter (1976), $85 \%$ of the responding principals saw the interview as being a very significant factor in teacher selection. Even so, Thayer (1978) indicated that many administrators believed they asked penetrating questions but did not know if the
answers were appropriate. Often, the administrator hires the applicant who seems to reflect the administrator's own attitude.

Certain other conclusions regarding the decision-making process in the interview are derived from a series of studies carried out at McGill University over a 10 year period (Webster, 1964). As a result of this research, it is now clear that in the actual employment situation most interviewers tend to make an accept-reject decision early in the interview. The interviewers do not wait until all the information is collected. A bias is developed and stabilized a short while after the discussion begins. This bias then serves to color the remainder of the interview and is not usually reversed.

The McGill study (Webster, 1964) also indicated that interviewers are much more influenced.by "unfavorable" than by "favorable" data. If any shift in viewpoint occurs during the interview, it is much more likely to be in the direction of rejection. With a clear-cut conception of the stereotype candidate, the interviewers, in a sense, are looking for deviant characteristics, and thus for negative evidence with regard to hiring. Positive evidence is given much less weight.

The nature of interviewing lends itself to some abuse. To prevent the interviewer from taking unfair advantage of the interviewee, Schustereit (1980) cited a few of the rights an interviewer could violate while questioning the respondent. He named the Equal Pay Act of 1963, Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, and the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (also known as Equal Employment Opportunity Laws, EEO). The statutes, laws, and acts named ban all discrimination in employment due to race, color, weight, religion, age, sex, national origin, or nonjob related handicaps. Questions with regard to marital
status, number and ages of children, or any questions concerning pregnancy should also be avoided. The maze of statutes, laws, and acts that one could violate would almost necessitate a structured interview to be certain that the respondent's civil rights are not infringed upon.

In the past 35 years the structured interview called the "Teacher Perceiver Interview" has been revised and researched. Not one case could be found that anyone having been interviewed by using the TPI felt that their rights had been violated.

## The Teacher Perceiver Interview

The following information (pages 17 through 29) regarding the TPI was taken from the Muller (1976) TPI manual:

The TPI is an individually administered structured interview composed of 60 questions. The interview questions are designed to permit an individual to express himself on different job-related issues and, through these expressions, the interviewer can better understand the individual. It is the understanding that is important, according to SRI president Muller (1976).

The history and research on the TPI was made available to the researcher after having received the necessary training. The information which follows regarding the origin and research of the TPI is available to the general public and is used in their public relations and sales campaigns.

Original Development of the TPI Process

In the early 1950's, Dr. Donald 0. Clifton, President of SRI, had
the responsibility for a counseling program at the University of $\mathrm{Ne}-$ braska (Muller, 1976). A counselor was to spend some time with each freshman student each week. In these conferences, they were to consider the freshman's development in terms of academic, social, leadership, and creative capacity. There were not enough professional counselors to do this job, so counselors had to be selected from the seniors and graduate students.

As the semester progressed, counselors were heard saying that it was a waste of time. Other students were saying that it was the best experience they had on campus. The researchers noted that if a person said it was a waste of time, others who were going to the same counselor were likely to be thinking that the program was a waste of time. On the other hand, if a freshman who found that the program was great, the other students going to the same counselor were also likely to be positive. It was hypothesized that the counselor, as a person, was making the difference. The question was, how could the researchers select the counselors who would develop the activating type of a relationship with the counselee?

To obtain help, Dr. Gardner Murphy, past president of the American Psychological Association (APA), was invited to the campus. he studied the situation and concluded that the personal values were the distinguishing characteristics that discriminated between the counselors who were succeeding and those who were not. He recommended the Allport-Vernon Study of Values, the Pressey Interest Attitude Scales, and several other pencil and paper tests. These tests were applied but the results were confusing and inconsistent (Muller, 1976).

While the initial results were discouraging, the original hypothesis still appeared to have merit. Continued experiences with the counselors indicated that different counselors talked differently about their students. They seemed to have different thought patterns. For example, counselors who had positive results from students talked spontaneously about individuals, while the counselors drawing negative responses tended to discuss procedures. In light of the initial discouraging results, a different procedure was followed. The next procedure was to tape record interviews with both the successful and unsuccessful counselors. Psychologists, following specific direction, analyzed the interviews and differences were identified between successful and unsuccessful counselors.

The initial work with counselors led to other areas and to continuous accumulation of experience in selection of people. A process of interviewing the person and analyzing their thought patterns from the interview was developed. This procedure appeared to be more predictive than standardized paper and pencil tests (Muller, 1976).

The original instrument, entitled the TPI (first edition), was constructed in 1971. The items and theme areas were based on the series of research studies conducted at the University of Nebraska during the 1950's and 1960's. This was followed by several years of research conducted by SRI analysts in interviewing teachers considered to be "most effective" by their administrators and also prospective teachers. The TPI's first edition was field-tested in four major school systems and subsequently, the second edition was developed. Following several years of use and training, researchers made minor revisions in the scoring procedures and the third edition evolved.

The fourth edition was printed in 1975. With only minor revisions and clarifications, the fifth edition was printed in 1977, and is being used today.

In some of the early studies of the TPI it was important to correlate the interview analyses with other evaluations of the teacher. Bonneau (1965) found a significant correlation of .67 between the interview analyses and a teacher rating completed by their students. Dodge, and Dodge and Clifton (cited in Muller, 1976) conducted several studies using the interview process for teachers. The results of these studies were high stability among responses and significant correlations between the interview and student ratings of their student teachers.

In 1969, Lieske (cited in Muller, 1976) concluded that the interview process was highly effective at predicting the performance of elementary level teachers who could effectively activate students. Also in 1969, Winsman (cited in Muller, 1976) found a strong relationship between the interview analysis and the teacher-student rapport of vocational education teachers, and in that same year, Warner (cited in Muller, 1976) found a highly predictive relationship between the interview analysis at the conclusion of the teachers' senior year of college and the rating they received from administrators and their students at the conclusion of the teachers' first year of teaching.

## Characteristics of the TPI

The following results were based on the fifth edition of the TPI and followed procedures given by Guilford (cited in Muller, 1976). Teacher Perceiver certification requires interpretation agreement
between the individual being trained and a Perceiver Academy analyst. Using items as a reference base, there must be $85 \%$ or greater agreement between the trainee and the analyst. This percentage must be based on a minimum of 32 interviews. This training requirement constitutes a major reliability reference point for the TPI.

In addition to the interrater reliabilty built into the training process, the interrater reliability was specifically tested and reported by Coker et al. (cited in Muller, 1976). Based on 20 interviews, they found a Fisher interclass correlation of $r=.87$.

Internal consistency reliability of the TPI has been estimated for several samples. A summary of these coefficients is given in Table I. As noted in Table I, all coefficients were Kuder-Richardson Formula 21 coefficients. The coefficients were representative, in that speed of work and themes were not factors. However, in the event that themes were functioning as dependent items, the reliability was estimated using a theme as an item. The reliability was estimated via theme-total correlations after the effect of the theme was deleted from the total score. The resultant reliability estimate was $r=.92$, which was substantially higher than the K-R 21 results (uncorrected $r$ was .96).

The preceding results reflected the total instrument and undifferentiated samples. To determine if there was any evidence to suggest internal consistency reliability varied by select subsamples, the Kuder-Richardson Formula 21 procedure was used (Table II). (All sample members were inplace teachers.) The obtained results were consistent with total sample results. Available evidence suggested that the internal consistency reliability of the TPI was also consistent.

TABLE I
SUMMARY OF OBTAINED INTERNAL CONSISTENCY RELIABILITY ESTIMATES*

| Study | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Sample } \\ & \text { Size } \end{aligned}$ | Perceiver <br> Edition | $\begin{aligned} & \text { K-R } 21 \\ & \text { Coefficient } \end{aligned}$ | Notes |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Perceiver Academy 1 | 493 | 4th | . 77 | All were volunteer inplace teachers |
| Perceiver Academy 2 | 81 | 4th | . 77 | Sample was volunteer inplace teachers |
| Perceiver Academy 3 | 110 | 5th | . 76 | Sample was volunteer inplace teachers |
| Perceiver Academy 4 | 54 | 5th | . 76 | Sample of teacher applicants |

*Kuder-Richardson Formula 21 Coefficients
Source: G. Muller, Teacher Perceiver Interview Manual (1976).

TABLE II

## SUMMARY OF OBTAINED INTERNAL CONSISTENCY <br> RELIABILITY ESTIMATES FOR SELECT <br> SUBSAMPLES*

| Subsample | N | K-R 21 Coefficient |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Elementary Teachers | 50 | .74 |
| Secondary Teachers | 45 | .78 |
| White Teachers | 37 | .70 |
| Black Teachers | 42 | .81 |

*Kuder-Richardson Formula 21 Coefficients, TPI (fifth edition)
Source: G. Muller, Teacher Perceiver Interview Manual (1976).

Early research on the interview process indicated that responses were stable over time; however, these studies did not directly use the TPI (Muller, 1976). At this time, test-retest reliability of the TPI had not been established.

## Standard Error of Measurement

The standard error of measurement was based on the variability and reliability of an instrument. To provide an estimate of the TPI standard error of measurement, the reliability was conservatively placed at $r=.75$ (internal consistency--see Table I), and variability was placed at $s=8.00$, which was larger than obtained standard deviations (a separate technical report includes all obtained and reported standard deviations). Using the two values cited, the standard error measurement for the TPI total score was 4.00 points. This result indicated that obtained TPI total score values would be expected to be within 4.00 points of "true" scores two out of three times and in 19 out of 20 times the obtained score would be within eight points of the "true" score.

While standard error of measurement scores were estimated, it must be noted that a TPI score is of secondary importance. The understanding of the interviewee is the point of emphasis, not the score obtained.

## Correlation With Other Measures

Evidence regarding the validity of the TPI was drawn from several different studies,'many of which were local district validation studies. As a matter of policy, Perceiver Academies strongly recommends
each adopting district conduct their own validation study. To support the recommendation, Perceiver Academies will, if requested to do, provide technical assistance and resources to support validation studies.

Local validation studies are frequently not reported in the general literature. Because of this, Perceiver Academies will provide, on request, copies of local validation studies, providing the participating districts have submitted written permission to release the studies.

A separate technical manual that includes both local validation studies and other technical characteristics of the TPI has been prepared. This technical manual is available on request from Perceiver Academies. Studies presented in the technical manual are summarized below. The technical manual provides markedly more detail of the studies.

Before reviewing the various studies pertaining to validity, the following critical points should be noted:

1. By definition, no instrument can be considered valid. Validity is specific to given situations and contexts, and the studies completed on the TPI were conducted within specific situations and contexts. Any generalization of the results should be done with extreme caution.
2. Validation studies of the TPI have been restricted to studying the relationship between the TPI and student or administrator ratings.- No studies dealing with student achievement have been completed and no claims are forwarded concerning the TPI and student achievement. Studies are currently in process with regard to student achievement.
3. Only total results from the TPI are reported in the following studies. This is consistent with earlier cautions cited concerning the theme scores. (Experimental research completed concerning the themes is reported in several of the referenced studies.)
4. Studies dealing with the TPI used total scores and no item scores were considered. With the TPI, no inferences should be drawn from any given single response.
5. All studies reviewed are considered to be concurrent criterion based studies. While in some studies there was a time lapse between TPI administrations and criterion administrations, the study was still considered to be concurrent.

It was earlier noted that the most common criterion used with the TPI was student ratings; less frequently, the administrator ratings. On occasion, both criterion indices were used. These are cited below with other results.

Using the first edition of the TPI, Millard and Brooks (cited in Muller, 1976) studied the TPI for three years and reported:

The SRI process of identifying teachers who are likely to be most successful in a given school district appears to be successful. This can be seen by the fact that of the 34 comparisons of ratings made by peers, administrators and students, approximately $68 \%$ of them favored those groups who were most highly recommended by the SRI process while less than $15 \%$ favored these groups who were not as highly recommended (p. 8).

Another study that used the first edition was the study by Preuss (cited in Muller, 1976). In this study, 100 students who were senior teacher candidates at a midwestern teachers' college were administered the TPI, and the students were placed into one of four classifications: Highly Recommended, Recommended, Conditional, and Not Recommended.

Concurrent with the TPI classification, the students were rated as High or Low in teaching potential by the professors. Of the 56 students classified as Recommended or Highly Recommended by the TPI process, 52 (93\%) were rated highly by the professors. Of the 34 classified as Conditional or Not Recommended by the TPI, 20 (59\%) were rated low by the professors.

A later independent study by Coker, Lorentz, and Coker (cited in Muller, 1976) found a highly significant difference between teachers rated high by administrators and teachers rated low by administrators. This study used results from the fourth edition of the TPI and the analysis used discriminate function procedures. The study sample was composed of 64 practicing teachers that volunteered for the study.

Hypothesis II stated: There is no correlation between the TPI score and the teacher's effectiveness score as perceived by the teacher's supervisor. The Tulsa-based study will parallel the criteria set by previous SRI studies in that the study will use total scores and no item scores will be considered. Although this study has a time lapse of four years (from interview to evaluation of the subjects), it will be considered concurrent. The researcher felt that elementary, junior high, and high school students lacked the maturity and insight to judge their teachers' effectiveness, but instead would judge the teachers' popularity. Lacking an administrator's evaluation for the teacher, the researcher converted the SRI student evaluation (Appendix C) of the teacher to read as an administrator's evaluation of the teacher.

Literature Opposing the TPI

Not all studies and articles concerning the TPI are favorable.

Two studies failed to find significant correlations between the TPI and student ratings--one by Shockley (1977) and another by Schilly (1975). However, in Schilly's study of a northern archdiocese school, the TPI did significantly correlate with administrator ratings.

Lasher (cited in Crocker, 1968)), using the third edition of the TPI, found no significant difference across college grade levels (freshman through senior). Shockley (1977) found no difference between Spanish surnamed and non-Spanish surnamed teachers using the third edition of the TPI. Muller (1976) found no difference between black and white teachers using the fourth edition of the TPI. Pellicer (1981) was cited earlier as favoring the structured interview. He mentioned the TPI, but indicated that he would favor local norms for the interview. He also favored the local school system injecting their goals, objectives, and philosophies into a locally developed interview.

The most extensive independent study of the TPI was conducted by Miller (1977) entitled A Preliminary Investigation of the Teacher Perceiver Instrument for Teacher Selection. This study was supported in part by contracts and grants from the National Institute of Education to the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, University of Texas at Austin.

The investigation consisted of three separate phases: Phase I (a review of the literature on teacher selection and the employment interview in general with special attention to the documentation of the TPI provided by SRI); Phase II (an examination of the implementation of the Teacher Perceiver system); and Phase III (a series of interviews of practitioners and administrators in the Austin, Texas

Independent School District comparing use of the TPI with traditional methods of teacher selection).

## Conclusions and Recommendations

Four major conclusions may be drawn from this preliminary investigation:

1. The empirical basis for the claims of the various Perceiver systems are weak. There is essentially no empirical base for any Perceiver system, except the Teacher Perceiver. The 12-question format of the Teacher Perceiver has never been subjected to empirical validation. Only one study has been completed on the 24 -question format. The 60 -question format has been the subject of a number of studies; however, none of these studies has appeared in refereed journals.
2. There is some evidence that the 60 -question format of the Teacher Perceiver is partially predictive of student ratings of new teachers; however, there is no evidence that the Teacher Perceiver is predictive of any outcome of good teaching (improvement in test scores).
3. There is no evidence that the Teacher Perceiver is superior to classical interview techniques in the selection of effective teachers.
4. Questions of conflict of interest and invasion of privacy have arisen in the implementation of Perceiver systems in at least one school district.

For the above reasons, the following recommendations are justified:

1. No Perceiver system, with the exception of the Teacher Perceiver, should be used on any but an experimental basis by AISD, until the predictive validity of such systems has been empirically demonstrated.
2. Similarly, if the Teacher Perceiver is employed, only the 60question format should be utilized. The predictive validity of the 12-question screener or other subsets of the 60-question interview is yet to be demonstrated.
3. The value of the Teacher Perceiver in staff development programs is highly uncertain.
4. In conjunction with more objective measures of capability, such as college records, the 60-question format of the Teacher Perceiver may be of value in the identification of promising teachers. However, it must be remembered that so far the Teacher Perceiver has only been shown to be predictive of teacher popularity, not teacher effectiveness.

Clearly, the Teacher Perceiver has not been demonstrated as the solution to the difficult problem of teacher selection. Until such a demonstration can be made, the ultimate responsibility for teacher selection should continue to lie in the multidimensional evaluation of the prospective teacher by experienced interviewers.

## Teacher Effectiveness

The ERIC search of the literature revealed 5,053 articles under the descriptor "teacher effectiveness." This fact is mentioned only to point out that "teacher effectiveness" has been and remains on the minds of educational researchers. There seems to be three common ways
of talking about teacher effectiveness. Schofield and Start (1979) published an update of the product variables assessment. They classified teacher effectiveness research as: (1) product studies based on assessment of pupil growth, (2) process studies based on observations and evaluation of teachers' behaviors during the teaching act, and (3) presage studies based on teacher qualities, characteristics, or traits.

Using Schofield and Start's (1979) model of the three types of research being employed in describing teacher effectiveness, an attempt will be made to categorize the recognized authorities in the field into the group they are currently writing. The first category to be explored is product studies--those based on assessment of pupil growth.

Noteworthy researchers attempting to define teacher effectiveness in terms of pupil growth and achievement are Mitzel and Medley (1959), as well as many others. To do this, pupil growth and achievement must be broadly viewed to include all-around pupil growth--the so-called intangibles and well as the tangibles--and remote outcomes as well as immediate effects. Some of the intangibles mentioned are the teachers' roles as directors of learning, as friends and counselors of pupils, as professional workers, as politically motivated citizens, and as active or inactive church members. All these intangibles have important implications for pupil growth and achievement. In 1948, Barr said that when the teacher's influence upon pupil growth and achievement is under investigation, due consideration must also be given to factors other than teaching upon pupil change. In a study conducted by Leinhardt (1977), second grade classrooms were pre- and
post-tested. The instructional environment of each was analyzed in regard to specific outcomes on the standardized achievement tests. The results were inconclusive, but pointed to the need for perfecting the instrumentation for measuring the instructional environment.

In 1957, Mitzel and Medley co-authored an optimistic report on the development of an effectiveness criterion based on pupil growth. They argued that any attempt to identify characteristics of the effective teacher must begin with the development of a reliable criterion measure of this kind. Using a design and covariance technique aimed at controlling differences in learning aptitude and previous achievement among pupils and differences in grade level and mean improvement scores between schools, it was concluded that there were substantial differences among beginning teachers in effectiveness in stimulating pupils to learn to read.

Sixteen years later, in 1973, Medley implicitly abandoned all hope of empirical clarification in the area of teacher effectiveness. He rejected the unidimensional model of teacher effectiveness, the notion of one imaginary set of competencies constituting the trait of teacher effectiveness. In its place he substituted the "idiosyncratic" model, where no lawful relationships seem to be feasibly discoverable. Medley deplored the fact that after 75 years of research in the area, it is not even possible to state a simple connection between the presage variable of teacher mathematics achievement and a product variable (pupil gains in mathematics). In relation to process variables, Medley referred to Rosenshine and Furst's (1971) review of some 50 studies attempting to relate teacher performance variables to
product variables, claiming that only 11 such characteristics have been identified as even probably related to teacher success.

In spite of Medley's (1973) pessimism, some progress is notable in comparing the product studies in teacher effectiveness. For example, Gardner (1974) stated that lawful relationships between teacher behaviors and pupil outcomes may be concealed by using class mean scores as a measurement of the outcome variable. He conducted a study on students' attitudes toward physics to substantiate his findings and claimed that the results would not have been detected by the less sophisticated correlational techniques traditionally used in processproduct studies.

Veldman and Brophy (1974) reinstated the product study when they used a series of regression models in a comprehensive study of second and third grade teachers over a four year period of time. They reasserted the validity of studying teacher effects on pupil achievement when they stated that reasonably stable estimates of teacher influence could be obtained from standardized achievement measures of pupil performance. The areas of study were in reading and arithmetic. Their data indicated that teachers do differentially affect pupil learning to a degree that is both statistically and practically significant.

An interesting part of the product studies comes from the United Kingdom in studies done by Bennett (1976) and Cane and Smithers (1971). They did a product study correlating the teachers' knowledge to the amount of progress achieved by the students. They found that children learned more in the classrooms of teachers who knew what material they wished to present, presented it in a structured fashion, and insisted that children work at it. In the United States., Wiley
(1973) and Berliner (1976) conducted similar studies with similar results.

Ultimately, all research on teachers and teaching will stand or fall on the validity of the criteria by which the effectiveness of teaching is gauged. Currently, the substance of these criteria changes with the winds of philosophical fashion. If only product variables are appropriate criteria, the establishment of connections will depend on the choice of appropriate predictor variables and the use of appropriate experimental designs and statistical techniques.

The "process studies" deal with observations and evaluations of the act of teaching. Some of the tangibles that will be considered are: (1) evaluations by supervisors, students, and peers, (2) attractiveness of the learning environment, (3) atmosphere of the classroom, (4) age of both teachers and students, and (5) social-economic status of the students.

The first step for identifying "process studies" characteristics of effective teaching is to examine what teachers do in the classroom. Some observable indicators of effective classroom teaching as identified by the principle researchers are as follows:

Ryans' (1960) Factors--one of the earlier studies on process-stated opposites and pointed out that the teachers rated nearer the positive poles of each factor are considered more effective teachers. Ryans' thinking was based on these examples: (1) teacher is warm and understanding versus cold and aloof, (2) teacher is organized and business-like versus unplanned and slipshod, and (3) teacher is stimulating and imaginative versus dull and routine.

Flanders (1970) said that direct teaching was characterized by teacher reliance on lecture, criticism, justification of authority, and giving of directions. Flander's indicators of teaching styles were: (1) teacher asks questions, (2) teacher accepts students' feelings, (3) teacher acknowledges students' ideas, and (4) teacher praises and encourages students. Flanders believed that direct and indirect teaching behaviors are necessary for good teaching.

Brophy and Evertson's (1975) research on teacher effectiveness drew together eight basic principles of effective teaching:

1. Teachers make a difference. Certain teachers elicit more learning than others.
2. Several clusters or patterns of teacher behavior are consistently related to learning gains.
3. Effective teachers allocate more of their time for teaching.
4. Effective teachers know how to organize and maintain a classroom learning environment that maximizes the time spent on productive activities and minimizes time lost during transitions or disruptions.
5. Students taught under direct instruction do better than those taught with individual or discovery learning approaches in learning basic skills.
6. Efficient instruction provides both whole and small group instruction if conducted at a rapid pace involving small, easy steps, and builds in success rates of $75 \%$ for teacher questions and nearly 100\% for independent work.
7. Approaches to instruction vary with context, particularly grade and ability level. Students in higher grades are expected to
have mastered the basics to use them to learn other things and to manage their own learning to a greater degree.
8. Indirect instruction, use of student ideas and high frequency of on-task student talk appears to be an effective teaching method for upper grade students.

Rosenshine and Furst (1971) were able to select 11 variables that they considered most promising for assessing teacher behavior in terms of student achievement. A further refinement narrowed the 11 variables to the five Rosenshine and Furst correlates: (1) teacher is enthusiastic, (2) teacher is businesslike and task-oriented, (3) teacher is clear when presenting instructional content, (4) teacher uses a variety of instructional materials and procedures, and (5) teacher provides opportunities for students to learn the instructional content. These five characteristics will be mentioned again in Chapter III in regard to the Principals' Evaluation.

Rosenshine and Furst's (1971) review of hundreds of research studies concluded that the direct instruction approach is more likely than other approaches to produce gains in student achievement. They felt that the message was clear--what was not taught and attended to in academic areas was not learned. In support of Rosenshine and Furst, the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study's (BTES) most general finding was that academic learning time was the most important variable influencing student learning (Berliner, 1976). Academic learning time is defined as the amount of time a student spends attending to academic tasks, while also performing with a high success rate.

Teaching is a personal interaction between two or more individuals. The purpose of this interaction is to impart knowledge and
understanding. Ideally, the person imparting knowledge will have personality traits that will cause the student to admire and emulate the teacher's behavior. However, if a teacher is disliked, he can also have a profound effect on the student's attitudes. In a study of 1,031 students, over half of them claimed to have permanent changes as a result of contact with teachers they disliked. Evans (1952) found that the class behavior varied according to the teacher they were with and tended to mirror the teacher's behavior, particularly with regard to aggression. Anderson (1965) found that the teacher's behavior was essentially the same, but the behavior of the students had conformed to that of their new teacher.

How important is a teacher's personality to the students? Flanders (1963) found that at the beginning of a school year, students were more concerned with the problems of adjusting to their new teacher's personality than with the problems of learning and achieving. He concluded that learning commenced once the student found there was no threat in the new situation. Murphy and Lewin (cited in Crocker, 1968) are two more researchers who have helped to establish that groups of pupils do act differently with different teachers. Chetcuti (cited in Crocker, 1968) took us one step further and stated that pupils' morale depended significantly upon the teacher's attitude toward them. The students with the best self-concept tended to be those who believed their teachers have a high opinion of them. Stock and later Phillips (both cited in Crocker, 1968) both showed that the teacher's opinion of the children he teaches depends upon his opinion of himself. In short, academic progress made by a pupil depends upon his self-worth which, at
least in part, depends on the teacher's opinion of him which, at least in part, depends on the teacher's opinion of himself.

Presage studies are based on teacher qualities, characteristics, and personality traits. Since personality and attitude permeates everything one does, it is logical to study personalities in the investigation of teacher effectiveness.

The task of selecting effective techers should be to simply identify the desired characteristics, then match the applicant's personality traits. In 1967, Anastasiow described the most desirable and least desirable personality traits of teachers. He stated that the weak teachers were seen as argumentative, defensive, opinionated, rigid, anxious, and inhibited, and that the superior teachers were seen as adaptable, adventurous, alert, appreciative, capable, charming, cheerful, clear thinking, conscientious, considerate, cooperative, curious, dependable, efficient, energetic, enterprising, enthusiastic, fair minded, frank, helpful, imaginative, insightful, intelligent, kind, mature, natural, patient, poised, sincere, sympathetic, tactful, thoughtful, tolerant, understanding, and warm.

Joyce and Harootunian (cited in Medley, 1973a) implied that the teacher should be able to plan and control his professional behavior. An effective teacher can teach many kinds of lessons, can reach many diverse learners, can create different climates, and can adapt to conditions. This seems to say it is not what the teacher does but when the teacher does it that is important. This would put teacher effectiveness as a dynamic rather than a static thing, a direction toward which to move rather than a static point at which the teacher arrives.

Bantock (1965) concluded that several studies suggest that, typically, good teachers:
(a) are identified with people rather than separate from them;
(b) feel basically adequate and able to cope with problems;
(c) feel trustworthy, reliable and dependable;
(d) feel wanted rather than unwanted;
(e) see themselves as worthy, people of consequence, dignity and integrity (p. 28).

Bantock concluded therefore that their personalities are probably not unlike any healthy bricklayer, doctor, or other occupation.

In 1961, Dugan pointed out that, of the thousands of studies carried out, not one single factor significantly predicted teaching competence. Unselfishness and mental stability have not, he claimed, been proved necessary for effectiveness. This fact comes as a surprise only to educators.

A large number of different words have been used to describe "essential" attributes of the good teacher: abstract, creative, has divergent ability, flexible, imaginative, shows ingenuity, displays initiative, open-minded, original, has problem-solving ability, and is resourceful. In everyday language, these terms are not all used synonymously by any means. To describe someone as "adaptable" does not automatically conjure up the same image as it does when we use the word "imaginative." However, in educational language many of these words are used more or less synonymously, thus Charters and Maples (cited in Evans, 1952) saw resourcefulness and imaginativeness as bracketed together, while Lynch (1961) saw the words "creative,"
"purposeful," "problem solving," and "adaptability" as being put to the same use. Parnes (1962) talked of creativity and problem solving and Barr (cited in Evans, 1952) spoke of originality, creativeness, and initiativeness as being used synonymously. Styles (cited in Crocker, 1968) said that creative teaching is characterized by inspiration, imagination, ingenuity, and initiative. Sprinthall, Whitely, and Mosher (1966) felt that flexibility implied creativity and divergent thinking, and that open mindedness as used by other researchers also had the same meaning. Anderson (1965) talked of factor analysis, leading his team to the conclusion that creativity/divergent thinking ability was made up of fluency, flexibility, originality, and the ability to elaborate.

There is an enormous volume of writings describing attributes a successful teacher must possess. One of the most frequently used words has been "flexible," or the implication of flexibility in other words and phrases.

Flanders (cited in Hamachek, 1960) found that the most successful teachers tended to be those able to range across a continuum of behaviors; poor teachers always tended to use the same interaction style. Hamachek, in reporting this, also found that a variety of researchers used the word "flexible" more than any other adjective.

The ability to be spontaneous (seizing opportunities that present themselves in the classroom) can be seen as part of the ability to be flexible. Flanders (cited in Kane, 1967) assumed that different learning situations would be enhanced by different types of teaching. In setting up a joint research in New Zealand and America, Flanders hypothesized that the tighter control of a teacher-centered classroom
would produce better pupil learning of subjects such as mathematics, while a flexible teaching situation would produce better pupil learning in areas such as social studies. No such difference was ever proven. The most flexible teachers always got the best results, with all pupils, in all subjects in both countries.

Another aspect of personality that deals with teaching is intelFigence as measured by an Intelligence Quotient (IQ) text. Considerable discussion exists as to exactly what it is that IQ tests really measure. Burt (1969), by no means alone, kept alive the discussions as to the relative contribution which inheritance and experience play in intelligence. However, probably very few people would argue with the suggestion that, in general, some people are more successful in grappling with both the everyday problems of life and with more abstract and academic problems which they may meet. These same people tend to do better at getting high scores on conventional IQ tests. As a result, we tend to expect the person of high IQ to be a "high flier" academically and career-wise. This expectation is more often right than wrong. Teaching is no exception. Correlations between IQ scores and measures of teaching competence are usually positive, although low. Vernon (1953) said that for a teacher to have an IQ below 110 was a handicap, but above that level it made no difference what it was. Cattell (cited in Crocker, 1968), in his earlier British research in 1931, found that the average IQ of student teachers was between 111.5 and 126. Cattell claimed never to have found a successful teacher with an IQ below 100. In 1945, Super and Crites (cited in Crocker, 1968) obtained their remarkably similar figures for teachers conscripted into
the American forces during World War II, with most IQ's falling between 112 and 126.

In America, Boardman (cited in Evans, 1952) obtained a correlation of +0.258 between a measure of IQ and a measure of general teaching ability for 157 teachers at four high schools. In 1916, Mead and Holley (cited in Halliwell, 1965) obtained a significant correlation of +0.243 between general course scholarship and practice teaching marks. Two years later, Payne (cited in Halliwell, 1965) ranked 359 graduate student teachers for academic performance and then compared the top and bottom thirds for teaching performance. The top group was rated as superior for management of children, instruction, and attention to details of school business. In 1937, Stuit (cited in Halliwell, 1965) got similar results for 161 graduates at the University of Nebraska. He found that roughly one-third of the students rated as "inferior" teachers had subaverage academic grades, but only one-tenth of the "superior" teachers were academically subaverage.

Johnson and Morris (cited in Halliwell, 1965) sounded a warning from their own research at New York State College, where they too found that the below average academics among the student body also tended to be less satisfactory as teachers. They pointed out that in spite of this trend, many poor teachers had high academic qualifications.

Some of the results of research into the possible relationship between measured IQ and practice teaching results are worth a brief mention. Generally, researchers have concluded that the relationship is too low to warrant using the IQ as a selection device for employment.

Most modern educators believe that tender-minded, child-centered attitudes and behaviors are the essence of good teaching. It is hardly surprising, therefore, that someone possessing those attitudes and putting them into practice in the classroom is labeled a "good" teacher, despite the lack of concurrent evidence that high scores on "warm" teacher scales produce better results from their students (Sheldon, Coale, and Copple, 1959). In their book Characteristics of Teachers, Sheldon, Coale, and Copple observed the following trends:

1. The attitudes of elementary teachers toward pupils, toward administrators, and also toward fellow teachers and nonadministrative personnel in the school were markedly more favorable than were similar attitudes of secondary teachers.
2. The attitudes of teachers who were judged by their principals to be superior in teaching performance were significantly and distinctly more favorable toward pupils and also toward administrators, than the attitude of teachers who were judged by their principals to be unsatisfactory or poor.
3. The educational viewpoints expressed by secondary teachers were of a more traditional or learning-centered nature, while those of elementary teachers leaned more in the direction of permissiveness.
4. There was a tendency for elementary teachers who were judged to be warm and understanding in classroom behavior, and also those judged to be stimulating in their classes, to manifest superior emotional adjustment.

Several researchers have hypothesized that the younger the age of children a person desires to teach, the more child-oriented they are. OOne researcher's work in this area resulted in a significant difference
between elementary and secondary teachers beyond the 0.005 level. This finding led Brown, Fuller, and Richek (1967) to construct the Brown Self-Report-Inventory and then use it to compare the child-oriented responses of 96 prospective elementary teachers with the scores of 78 prospective secondary teachers. Their hypothesis that prospective elementary teachers would be more child-oriented than prospective secondary teachers was supported beyond the 0.00001 level of significance. Fox (1961), at Illinois University, found that not only were "desire to work with children" and "desire to impart knowledge" the most frequently given reasons, but the 75 potential elementary teachers listed the first of these significantly more often than the 98 potential secondary teachers.

In this study, the researcher will examine how the participating administrators perceived their teachers across the three levels of instruction. Emphasis will be to examine "child oriented" questions on the Principals' Evaluation and compare the three levels of instructor's scores. Also to be examined will be the "subject or task oriented" questions to compare the three levels of instructors. These investigations will help to answer Hypothesis I, which stated: There is no significant difference between the principal's perception of teachers' attitudes across the three levels of instruction (elementary, junior high, and senior high).

Despite the several researchers showing that personality is relatively stable over long periods, Vernon (1953) pointed out that personality can change in altered conditions. Another complication that arises with personality measurement is the assumption by the
researchers that the test they have used does in fact measure those facets of personality which it claims to meásure.

Few researchers would suggest that one type of teacher is ideal for all children. Teachers appear to be drawn from a wide crosssection of society and that no one personality type is identifiable as more successful than the rest. Medley (1973a) pointed out that it is simplistic to assume that all effective teachers achieve their effect on students in the same manner (process or technique) and that they act alike while they are teaching. He concluded that researchers must come to the conclusion that teaching is a very complex act instead of a unidimensional process.

An even more frequent failing would be the reliance placed on the often low proportion of people in the original sample who actually complete a set of questionnaires or volunteer to do a personality profile. Start (1966) used a 16 Personality Factor instrument on 43 teachers and had the headmaster rate them for overall teaching ability. Four teachers refused to complete the form. Start reported that they did not appear to be significantly different from the rest of the staff, except that they were somewhat less friendly. In all these cases something makes those who refuse to cooperate or forget to return a form, different. Is it a higher level of fear, paranoia, insecurity? Are they really no different from those who, conversely, volunteer to be probed, to give hours to filling in questionnaires or to allow observers to sit in their classrooms?

In the present study, the subjects did not volunteer but the principals who evaluated them did volunteer. It was apparent that not all teachers who were hired in 1979 were still teaching in Tulsa. Part
of the reason might be that, since World War II, the human service sector of the labor force has been one of the largest growth sectors in the American economy. There is increasing competition for men and women who are service-oriented with relatively high academic ability. Many of these new service-oriented occupations carried more salary and prestige than did teaching. The Equal Rights Amendment (ERA) and other women's movements have begun to open new occupational opportunities for women just as the Civil Rights Movement did for black minorities.

## Teacher Evaluations

In June of 1977, Educational Research Service (ERS) surveyed 1,075 superintendents of school systems, varying in size (156 to 1,078,431 pupils), regarding their practices for evaluating teacher performances. A large school system consists of 25,000 or more pupils, a medium sized school system ranges from 10,000 to 24,999 pupils, a small system is 2,500 to 9,999 pupils, and a very small school system is less than 2,500 pupils (Table III).

Six general approaches to teacher evaluation were identified in the literature. These provide a useful way to categorize the research results, although much of the research is applicable to more than one mode. The six general approaches are:

1. The use of students' ratings of teaching through questionnaires, checklists, and other survey instruments.
2. Evaluation based on observation by supervisors, such as principals.
3. Evaluation using an observation instrument or system, such as the Flanders Interaction Analysis System.
4. Self-evaluation by teachers.
5. Evaluation based on gains shown by students on various tests.
6. Evaluation through especially designed "teaching tests."

TABLE III
NUMBER OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS THAT CONDUCT FORMAL EVALUATIONS OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL PERFORMANCE OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS

| Teacher Category | $\frac{\text { Size of School System }}{\text { Small }}$ |  |  |  | Total |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Large | Med. | Smalt | Very Small |  |
| Tenured/Continuing Con- |  |  |  |  |  |
| bationary Teachers | $89.1 \%$ | $\begin{aligned} & 124 \\ & 93.9 \% \end{aligned}$ | $86.9 \%$ | $89.4 \%$ | $\begin{gathered} 338 \\ 90.4 \% \end{gathered}$ |
| Tenured/Continuing | 2 | 1 | 1 | -- | 4 |
| Contract Teachers Only | 2.0\% | . $8 \%$ | 1.2\% | -- | 1.1\% |
| Probationary Teachers | 8 | 6 | 7 | 3 | 24 |
| Only | 7.9\% | 4.4\% | 8.3\% | 5.3\% | 6.4\% |
| Neither Tenured/Contin- |  |  |  |  |  |
| Nor Probationary Teachers | 1.0\% | . $8 \%$ | 3.6\% | 5.3\% | 2.1\% |
| Total | 101 | 132 | 84 | 57 | 374 |
|  | 100.0\% | 100.0\% | 100.0\% | 100.0\% | 100.0\% |

Of the six modes listed, evidence suggested that supervisors' ratings (number 2 above) is by far the most commonly used technique. An observation instrument in the form of a checklist (number 3 above) is the most common practice in the United States. In 1974, a study of

500 school districts in the United States revealed that $75 \%$ used the principals' ratings, aided by a checklist of desired traits approved by the individual districts.

Can an administrator recognize an effective teacher? Beery (1962) arranged for 76 unqualified teachers and 343 qualified teachers., all of whom started to teach in Florida in 1959, to be compared. Their educational backgrounds were known and their teaching was observed by:

1. People involved in teacher education, supervision, or administration.
2. Professional laymen who could be expected to make general judgments of good and bad teaching (medical practitioners observed biology, and so on).
3. A former school superintendent who saw every teacher.

Each teacher was visited five times in the year. Each visit lasted between one to one and a half hours. The observers did not know the professional status of the teachers. The qualified teachers were judged significantly superior to the unqualified--the trend was beyond the 0.01 level. Some of the nonqualified teachers were rated higher than some of the qualified. The noneducational observers were as able to recognize the superiority of the fully qualified teachers as were the educators. This last finding suggested that rating of teachers may be a global affair. which does not vary tremendously whenever the judges state their fundamental criteria.

- In discussing evaluations of teachers, two questions arise. Who should evaluate teachers? Pine and Boy (1975) agreed that the logical approach should include the teacher as self-evaluator of his/her own
competency and other colleagues who are in a position to judge his/her competency. Cummings and Schwab (1973) felt that it is the duty and obligation of "superiors" in an organization to evaluate subordinates. There is a dichotomy that arises from the evaluation if it is always from the superior to the subordinate. The teacher feels defensive about his/her actions and tries to justify everything. On the other hand, the superior feels inadequate to appraise skills or make judgments that he/she may not be able to implement (Heichberger and Young, 1975).

In a NSPRA report (Evaluating Teachers for Professional Growth, 1974), the literature indicated that there is a trend toward peer evaluations, student evaluations, and parent evaluations. The report further pointed out that these are future trends and that teachers are not quite ready for such evaluations now.

What instrument should be used in evaluating? After determining the purpose of evaluation, school districts must choose proper instruments for measuring teacher performance (Bolton, 1973). Some factors to be considered are cost, time, relevance, validity, reliability, and ease of administration. The most commonly used systematic procedures include the following:

1. Flanders Interactional Analysis, which analyzes verbal interaction between teachers and students (Flanders, 1970).
2. Galloway Nonverbal Communication, which analyzes the types of nonverbal behaviors teachers use with students by means of videotape recording (Galloway, 1973).
3. Parson's Types of Question Analysis, which analyzes interaction patterns of group members.
4. Bales Interaction Process Analysis, which analyzes interaction patterns of group members.
5. Verbal Interaction Category System, an adaptation of the Flanders system, including measurement of the nonverbal behavior of the teacher and student (Griffith, 1973).
6. Classroom Observation Record, which analyzes cognitive levels on which classroom verbal interaction takes place (Griffith, 1973).
7. Observation Guides, a comprehensive itemization of specific and observable aspects of teaching and learning which helps a supervisor to monitor certain phases of instruction (Griffith, 1973).
8. Briggs Observation Guide, a collection of questions which serves as a guide to help supervisors arrive at judgments regarding the purpose of a lesson, classroom climate, organization and development of lessons (among others) (Griffith, 1973).
9. Videotape Analysis, a system which allows teacher and supervisor to review a lesson and reach consensus on constructive alternatives for teaching improvement (Griffith, 1973).
10. Observation Schedule and Record System (OSCAR), a verbal category system which yields frequency counts of the occurrence of different verbal behaviors (Medley, 1973b).
11. Instrument for the observation of Teaching Activities (IOTA), a written description of classroom behavior by a team of at least three observers ("Observation Procedures," 1975).

Although the techniques are not without problems, many educators value them because they enhance the quality of observation by instructional leaders (Brandt and Perkins, 1973). There are three other types
of nonsystematic observation procedures: rating scales, checklists, and narrative reports.

Ratings scales contain a list of descriptors regarding certain teacher classroom behaviors. The rater checks the extent to which the teacher manifests the quality described. Popham (1974) maintained that rating scales are better than nothing, especially if they are used to isolate the extremely weak or strong teacher.

Checklists consist of a number of items considered to describe essential behavior in the teaching-learning process. Medley (1973) claimed this method to be qualitative, but Griffith (1973) saw several advantages to checklists:

1. They direct attention to aspects of a lesson which an observer might otherwise miss.
2. They give a degree of objectivity to an evaluator's observations.
3. They provide a permanent record which is quick and easy.
4. They help the teacher to analyze his/her own lesson and what a supervisor considers important.

Griffith (1973) also pointed to some of the pitfalls of checklists such as superficiality. Checklists become routine and supervisors fail to reflect and analyze the relative importance of the existence of classroom qualities.

Narrative reporting is an attempt to report everything that took place during the classroom visitations. The report is then later analyzed by the teacher and the evaluator. Some evaluators are using audio or video taping of the lesson to provide an opportunity to reinspect classroom activity and teacher-pupil intëraction.

Problems associated with assessing teaching performance and effectiveness are the following:

1. Cummings and Schwab (1973) perceived the task as two incompatible roles (judgmental and counseling).
2. Bridges (1974) maintained that evaluations undermine the major function of an administrator--that of improving professional performance. He pointed out that most administrators are not prepared to handle face-to-face confrontations involving the communication of negative information. The administrator is often expected to evaluate the performance of professionals who possess competencies which are different from his/her own.

Bridges (1974) cited a study in which administrators used leniency in evaluating teachers as a strategy to establish authority over the subordinates (for eliciting the loyalty, support, and willing compliance of subordinates).
3. Brody (1977) pointed out that it is fairly easy to identify a bad teacher, but researchers have not as yet pinpointed the qualities that make one teacher superior to another.
4. McAfee (1975) concluded after his study that neither teachers nor supervisors can evaluate a teacher's performance, background, and abilities. He suggested further study in the self-evaluation of teachers.
5. Dunkin and Biddle (1974) maintained that the studies found did not focus on the actual process of teaching in the classroom--the crucial events of teacher-pupil interaction, task performance, and use of materials and equipment affect learning outcomes.

## Tulsa School Effectiveness Program

The report of the National Commission on Excellence in Education (A Nation at Risk, 1983) has become so familiar that it is hard to remember how surprising it was when it appeared. Most educators were entirely unprepared for its tone and emphasis. It had been assumed that it would present a characteristic product of the committee pro-cess--a report temperate and evenhanded.

The first surprise, then, was that the Commission somehow managed to transcend those inclinations toward caution, to write a report that was straightforward, outspoken, and at moments, nearly fierce. The second surprise was the acclaim it received and the continuing attention it gained for the problems of American education. Why a chronic crisis is suddenly perceived to be acute, why one event strikes a nerve while another similar event does not, why we unexpectedly develop the collective conviction that something must be done, are all pertinent questions.

It is important to bear in mind that the report made no new discoveries. The sorry state of American schools had been evident for many years. If there was a true mystery, it was not that the report said what it did or attracted attention, but why it had taken so long; why enlightened opinion had not previously been fully engaged. One could hear a good deal about the problems privately--parents retelling some of the hair-raising stories brought home by their children, or college teachers reporting the most recent impropriety encountered in student compositions.

When A Nation at Risk (1983) took the country by storm against all expectations, the nerve had been struck. A public long unhappy about the schools but held at bay by bureaucratic inertia, intimidated by expert opinion, had at long last found its own interests voiced, and by the most unlikely agent of redemption--the federal government. Other reports were to appear in the following months, but the Commission, in preceding them, also foreshadowed them, or seemed to, so that these later works were accommodated into the "paradigm" already established. A bandwagon was soon rolling. The politicians who had shown no previous interest in education, let alone in its quality, quickly added their voices. What many parents suspected, and what many teachers knew intuitively, was confirmed each time new findings appeared.

Nor was the plight of the schools known only privately. A number of journalists (notably Sewall of Newsweek and Maeroff of the New York Times) had been writing trenchant stories (later books) on the problems of education and what might be done about them. One annual ritual was a story reporting the latest decline in SAT scores. Another annual event was the Gallup poll of public opinion about the schools-sometimes slightly up, sometimes down, but on the whole, bleak.

The number of American youngsters scoring over 650 on the verbal portion of the SAT declined by $45 \%$ in the 10 -year period of 1972 to 1982. In the most meticulous cross-national research yet carried out which compared American, Japanese, and Taiwanese children, Stevenson (1984) found that in mathematics only one American child appeared in the top 100 fifth graders, and that among the 20 American fifth grade classrooms, not one classroom had an average score on the mathematics
test which was equivalent to that of the children in the worstperforming Japanese classroom.

Stevenson's declaration was unemotional, yet he nonetheless termed these (and similar) findings as devasting, made all the more so by the fact that American children were more advantaged than were their Asian counterparts, coming from well-educated families and attending much smaller classes. Still, it was felt that the pain occasioned by these findings could be borne, given the belief that reform was at hand.

As soon as the reform of education became a public issue, one began to notice efforts to change the subject, to divert the discussion to other questions. The most obvious form this took was politi-cal--each presidential candidate, declared and undeclared, rushed into speech. Planks were drafted, platforms rewritten. The true course of education had been subverted/had been enhanced/would be moved forward by the new/old administration. New programs were needed. New programs were not needed. More money was needed. More money was not needed. In other instances, the discussion was moved to issues closer to education, yet secondary in importance. Merit pay for teachers--it may or may not be a good idea--but its importance is questionable. It is hard to see how, even over time, it would produce a significant improvement in teaching and learning. Yet, the issue of merit pay, pro and con, absorbed a considerable amount of discussion and debate. Another example was the controversy about the competence testing of current teachers. It was unclear what effect it would have beyond harassing an already beleaguered group.

In a number of state legislatures, plans for the competence testing of high school seniors were being debated, at times carried out. Looking back, it can be seen that by the late 1970's, a critical mass of writers, intellectuals, and academics--few of them deeply in the education establishment--were beginning to be heard on the failures of schools (for example, Diane Ravitch, Chester Finn, Dennis Doyle, and Tommy Tomlinson). At the very end of that decade, one was aware that a number of large studies of high schools were under way (for example, studies by James Coleman, Gerald Grant, John Goodlad, Ernest Boyer, Theodore Sizer). All of these studies were initiated by a mounting uneasiness about the condition of secondary education.

## Improving Schools

Although many people now doubt that school reform can be a primary means for social progress, nevertheless, substantial evidence and belief remain that schools can be improved and that education is a vital resource in the solution of human problems. Planned changed in schools is slow for many reasons. One reason is that Americans disagree about the goals of education. Because goals are important, clear and definite programs of change are difficult to identify and implement. Another reason that change is slow is that new educational practices are rarely supported by solid research not communicated to practitioners in effective dissemination programs. Still another reason is the bureaucratic nature of public schools, in which few incentives exist for institutional change. Thus, the time lag for diffusing innovations that was lamented by Paul Mort so long ago still exists.

It is realized, for example, that racial minorities have made substantial political and social gains, although progress has not been as fast as many had hoped. Substantial changes have occurred, especially in the south, in race relations in the schools. Strong, positive examples exist of successful, integrated schools.

A startling example of successful change was reported by Robbins and Teeter (1977). Twenty years after forced integration in Little Rock, Arkansas, Central High School is regarded as one of the best in the nation. Other examples are found in Affirmative School Integration (Hill and Feely, 1968).

Likewise, although many large-scale educational change projects .-appeared to be unsuccessful, many examples of successful change in local areas have been documented. Furthermore, the researcher recognized the limitations of the methods of evaluating change. Many disappointments are failures in research and evaluation, not in the possibility of school improvement.

Efforts to improve schools during the 1950's and 1960's have left a substantial record of positive achievement, which shows that valuable improvements can be made in schools. Furthermore, when reasonable goals and expectations are established, one can be quite optimistic. about the probabilities of success. Specifically, the record shows:

1. Dramatic changes in local schools are possible through systematic and deliberate efforts at improvement.
2. Large amounts of money to initiate and sustain educational innovations are not essential.
3. Hard evidence exists showing that such local change efforts produce desired changes in pupils.
4. Much is known about factors associated with successful local change, such that school improvement can be planned and managed.

The period from 1950 to 1970 was a time of unprecedented growth in American society and American schools. Faith in social progress was high and schools were given a central role in social reform. With massive support from private foundations and the federal government, a variety of educational innovations were encouraged in schools. A systematic technology for planned change in education was created in the process. Because this optimism about the role of schools in improving society resembled the earlier Progressive Era in American history, it was labeled "The New Progressivism."

By contrast, since 1970, very different conditions have emerged as a context for American education. Worldwide resource shortages produced inflation and reduced economic growth. School enrollments nationally began to decline. Disillusionment about the role of schools in social progress was common, and schools were criticized for declining achievement test scores.

The "new reality" for public schools has meant that new and different means for improving schools were needed. Conservation of scarce resources became a major theme as budgets tightened. Attention to priorities was essential in a time of retrenchment and reallocation. More realistic attitudes developed about what schools could and could not accomplish, and new emphasis was needed on human resource development in schools.

Lessons from efforts to improve schools during the 1950s and 1960s suggest two basic principles: (1) the individual school as a social organization is the optimal focus for change, and (2) the local
school organization must be linked to other organizations within the larger educational system to provide the conditions for improvement. A major statement of this view has been presented by Goodlad (1975). Out of more than 15 years of study and personal experience with educational change, Goodlad adopted as a primary principle:
. . . the optimal unit for educational change is the single school with its pupils, teachers, principal--those who live there everyday--as primary participants. The interactions of these people, the language they use, the traditions they uphold, the beliefs to which they subscribe, and so forth, make up the culture of the school (p. 175).

It is the culture of the local school, in Goodlad's view, that should be the focus of change.

In attempting to improve the effectiveness of the Tulsa Public School District Number One, superintendent Dr. Larry Zenke (1982) asked that each school be responsible for writing its own local effectiveness plan based on Edmonds' (1979) five indicators he considered to be indispensable characteristics of effective schools. Edmonds and his colleagues at Harvard University identified these factors as:

1. Building Leadership. The principal displayed strong professional behavior, understood the contribution of teachers to the school's goals, regularly visited and observed classrooms, and made useful suggestions to improve instruction.
2. Instructional Leadership. The adults in the building-parents, teachers, administrators, support staff--were consistent in statements about the school's instructional goals. They not only understood but abided by these aims. Consistency among statements was more important than the particular goals named.
3. The Learning Climate and Facility. Effective schools were clean, attractive, organized, and physically secure. They had adequate instructional space. Newness and fanciness were not determining factors.
4. Implied Teacher Expectations. Observers looked only at what they thought or felt. Students were asked if they thought their teacher expected anyone in the class to fall below an acceptable level of achievement. In effective schools the students answered no. Teachers who expected achievement got it.
5. Monitoring System. Effective schools had a system for monitoring and assessing pupil performance which was derived from their instructional objectives. The faculty did not continue practices that did not work. If achievement data or other feedback indicated a need for change, they were willing.

Edmonds (1979) believed that to reach a set of fairly firm conclusions about the institutional and organizational characteristics that distinguish the effective schools from the ineffective schools, it could be concluded that it is not the family background that determines pupil performance, but the school response to the family background. Schools which provide effective instructional programs do exist and their success is based on institutional characteristics which can be clearly described.

In November of 1981, members of the superintendent's executive staff set "to provide optimal learning for each student" as its fiveyear goal. The executive staff unanimously adopted the idea that if the schools are to be effective in accomplishing this goal, they must exemplify the five characteristics described by Edmonds (1979). These
characteristics were developed to serve as objectives in the school improvement program (effective February 25, 1982). The directive to principals is as follows:

Each principal, in concert with his staff members, is charged with the responsibility of designing a plan to promote the achievement of the 'five indispensable characteristics of effective schools.' The plan will include a separate activities plan for each of the five objectives with at least one activity included for each objective. The number of activities planned should be limited to those which are most likely to promote the accomplishment of the objective and which can reasonably be carried out during the succeeding school year. The plans are to be reviewed with the school planning council and submitted to the appropriate Director of Education no later than May 15.

Tulsa has been very fortunate to have escaped some of the very real problems impacting upon urban school systems across the nation. Some of these include severe financial problems, desegregaton turmoil, teacher strikes, and severe student discipline problems, to name a few, most of which have not occurred in Tulsa to any degree. As a result, the Tulsa school system and community have been able to concentrate their energies on 'teaching the children' rather than on 'fighting the battles.' Evidence of the success of these efforts is seen in above average student achievement test scores; a favorable climate between the Board, administration, and teachers which has helped foster a climate of cooperation rather than one of adversity; and a supportive community for the public schools as evidenced by the wide margin of support for the recently passed millage elections. With the existing positive climate in the Tulsa schools, the opportunity exists to take an already good school system to even greater heights of effectiveness. I am confident, with the continued spirit of support and cooperation, improved school effectiveness can be the end result for all of the schools in Tulsa (Zenke, 1982, pp. 1-2).

One of the research questions that came as a result of this study
was: Are the Tulsa Public Schools Effectiveness Correlates represented on the principal's evaluation of the teacher? As part of this research, an item analysis of the principals' evaluation will be conducted. The data will be broken into three levels of teaching:
elementary, junior high, and senior high schools. Each question will be examined as to what life themes (TPI) the question adheres, as well as to which school effectiveness correlated the question belongs. The bottom of the data sheet will be a summary, conclusion, and analysis section in regard to the data (Appendix A).

Bridges (1974) maintained that teacher evaluation (including teacher rating and subsequent counseling in cases of unsatisfactory results) undermines a major function which it was adopted to serve-the improvement of professional performance. According to Bridges, the conditions of such evaluations are conducive to leniency. Several factors predispose administrators to overstate the qualifications and contributions of evaluatees, one of which is that administrators are ill-equipped by their academic preparation to handle face-to-face confrontations involving the communication of negative information. Bridges also cited as evidence supportive of the leniency hypothesis a case study of efficiency ratings of employees by a federal agency:

Two rating systems were used by the agency during the experiment--one a public disclosure and the other a nondisclosure system. Under the former, poor ratings prevented the employee from receiving within-grade salary increases. Moreover, the employee had the right to see the rating, to receive advance warnings of less than satisfactory ratings, to receive job counseling, and to appeal unsatisfactory ratings. Under the nondisclosure system, supervisors were willing to discuss the ratings with the employee but no advance warnings were given for less the 'good' ratings, no appeal was possible, no employee's job would be affected by the rating, and only the research staff had access to the ratings. The results of the experiment indicated that, under the public disclosure system, there was a preponderance of high ratings--80\% of the employees received 'excellent' or 'very good' ratings; no one was rated 'fair' or 'unsatisfactory.' Under the nondisclosure system, however, only $57 \%$ of the employees received evaluations of 'excellent' or 'very good,' while 12\% received ratings of 'fair' (pp. 116-121).

The structured interview has proved to be of great value to the potential employer. Out of this need for a better interview technique, the TPI was developed. The TPI has 12 life themes that are identified by its developers as the characteristics desirable of a teacher.

Tulsa Public Schools created six Effectiveness Correlates based on Edmonds' (1979) research. The correlates are characteristic of school effectiveness. This study will compare the TPI scores with the scores of the same teachers on the Principal's Evaluation. The criteria for the evaluation were: The teachers were hired in 1979, had been administered the TPI, and had been under their supervisors for a minimum of one school year.

This study will examine the commonality between the TPI and the School Effectiveness Correlated on the Principal's Evaluation. This study will examine the perceived difference in attitudes of teachers at the different levels of instruction (elementary, junior high, and senior high).

## CHAPTER III

## METHODS AND PROCEDURES

## Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine the predictive validity of the TPI as it pertained to effective teachers in the Tulsa. Public Schools. The reliability and validity will be examined by comparing the TPI with the principal's evaluation. Included in this chapter are: description of population, description of instrumentation, procedures used in data collection, and analysis.

## Description of Population

The Tulsa Public Schools made the TPI one part of its intake process for new teachers in 1978. Along with the usual informationgathering devices, the TPI is used for screening candidates.

Variables for teachers are: gender, age, race, teaching experience, level of instruction (elementary--K-6, junior high--7-9, senior high--10-12), graduating university, and highest level of education. This study concentrated its focus across the three levels of school teaching in regard to teacher effectiveness as perceived by the teacher's supervisor and as measured by an evaluation checklist.
Sample Population

Tulsa Public School Independent School District Number One hired

211 teachers to fill vacancies during the 1979-80 school year. In the 1984-85 school year, 118 of the original 211 teachers remained in Tulsa, but not necessarily at the same school or in the same assignment. That yields a retention rate of $56 \%$ for those teachers, over a five-year span. This is a little better than average, according to Schlechty and Vance (1981). Out of the 118 teachers who remained in the Tulsa Public Schools, principals voluntarily returned $65 \%$ of the evaluations. The sample size for this research is 77. In compiling the research, cooperation was asked of 68 administrators. The results are compiled in Table IV.

TABLE IV
VOLUNTARY RESPONSE TO PRINCIPALS' EVALUATION

|  | Evaluations <br> Possible | Evaluations <br> Returned | $\%$ <br> Returned |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 41 Elementary Principals | 68 | 46 | 68 |
| 13 Junior High Principals | 21 | 16 | 76 |
| 8 Senior High Principals | 21 | 13 | 62 |
| 6Coordinators or Admin- <br> istrators of Special <br> Projects | 8 | 2 | 25 |
| Total | 118 | 77 | 65 |

Upon investigation of the TPI scores of the teachers no longer employed by the Tulsa Public Schools, the researcher could not find any skew in the population that might indicate leaving the system was anything but choice or circumstances. Those leaving the Tulsa system reflected a cross-section of those originally hired. Reasons given for leaving varied from "spouse being transferred" to "starting a family." No one mentioned leaving due to lack of professional atmosphere or stimulation in the Tulsa School System.

Demography of Tulsa (1984-85)

To increase the understanding of the community and the city of Tulsa, the following demography is presented:

Tulsa lies at the edge of the foothills of the Ozarks along the Arkansas River, and has an elevation of 700 feet above sea level. The surrounding terrain is gently rolling hills. Sunshine is abundant, and good flying weather throughout the year has contributed to Tulsa's development as one of the country's aviation centers. An average precipitation of 38.77 inches, combined with the yearly average high temperature of 69.8 , creates a wide range of outdoor recreation.

The population of Tulsa in the 1980 census was 470,593 . By race, Tulsa is composed of $85.1 \%$ white, $9.3 \%$ black, $4.1 \%$ American Indian, $1.6 \%$ Spanish, and the balance of the population consists of Asian, Pacific Islanders, and others. There is $27.5 \%$ of the population under the age of $18,62.6 \%$ between the ages of 18 and 64 , and $9.9 \%$ over the age of 65 . There are 128,154 family households. The median income in 1979 was $\$ 21,125$ per family. The civilian labor force consists of 136,316 males and 102,270 females. The unemployment rate in 1983 was
7.8\%. Compared nationally, Tulsa would be considered an average predominantly white community with Christian ethics and average incomes.

To understand the depth and scope of the study, a brief description of the Tulsa School System is offered:

The Tulsa Public School District Number One is 139.27 square miiles in area and includes territory in Tulsa, Osage, Wagoner, and Creek Counties, with $81.5 \%$ of the total area lying within the Tulsa city limits. There are 63 elementary schools, 17 middle schools, and 9 high schools, making a total of 89 schools in the entire district.

The 1984-85 operating budget is $\$ 132$ million, with a net cost per pupil in average daily attendance of $\$ 3,084.02$ in the regular dayschool program, excluding capital outlay. The student membership consists of 21,298 elementary students, 9,599 middle school students, 8,168 high school students, and 5,626 students in special education, making a total membership of 44,691 students.

Serving this population is 2,783 certificated personnel and 1,812 classified personnel. Money is provided by local sources (42.73\%), county sources (3.81\%), state sources (48.79\%), and federal sources (4.67\%). The greatest percentage of all income is designated for instruction (63.26\%).

## Description of Instrumentation

Teacher Perceiver Interview

The TPI includes 60 questions or situations written in an openended style to promote discussion on the part of the interviewee.

During the discussion that follows the question, the interviewer has certain key phrases or ideas to listen for--these become the correct answers, or the "listen fors." Scoring the interview is a "yes" or a "no" as to whether the "listen for" was mentioned. Scoring is done on a sheet distributed to trained interviewers by SRI.

The TPI scoresheet is two-sided (Appendix B). On the front is found the individual's name and other vital information regarding personal appearance, teaching field, teaching preference, and teaching experience. On the front sheet at the bottom a space is provided for an overall summary of the applicant. The space is reserved for "Division for Personnal Service Use Only." The interview is rated from 10 to 0,10 being the highest. Space is given for comments on the individual's credentials and/or references. A special place is reserved for the applicant's student teaching experience. The last two lines on the fact sheet list the applicant overall as being a "Priority One," "Priority Two," "Priority Three," "to Hire," or "Not Recommended for Hire" (Appendix B).

The backside of the TPI scoresheet is a simple marking system for recording affirmative responses to situations (Appendix B). The scoresheet consists of a rectangle with 12 columns for each life theme represented and five rows for each question asked from that category. Ample space is provided to the left of the rows to total the rows easily and to arrive at a grand total by adding down the spaces. Space is also provided on the left of the scoring rectangle for further comments about the individual being interviewed. Finally, there is space for the interviewee to sign his/her name to the interview.

## Principal's Evaluation

SRI has available a student questionnaire to be used in rating a teacher's effectiveness in reflecting the traits found in the 12 life themes. The student questionnaire is made up of 40 statements about "my teacher" (Appendix C). Each question or statement follows the same pattern that all SRI literature follows: number 1 deals with the life theme "Mission," number 2 deals with "Empathy," number 3 deals with "Rapport," and number 4 deals with "Individual Perception" (see Chapter II).

The Tulsa Public School policy has been to evaluate teachers twice a year the first three years of employment and then once every three years thereafter. This district evaluation instrument has a broad base and is general in nature; therefore, it is used to evaluate all teachers regardless of subjects taught or level of instruction. A general evaluation does not lend itself to addressing specific problems or praise areas a teacher might possess.

The Principals' Evaluation used in this study does accommodate the specific needs of teachers. The evaluation addresses the relationships teachers have with students, administrators, and peers. As seen in the item analysis sheets (Appendix F), the evaluation includes not only the life themes of the TPI but also relates to the School Effectiveness Correlates of the Tulsa Public Schools.

The researcher has used the same format as the SRI Student Questionnaire (7-A SQ) for the first 24 questions on the Principal's Evaluation (Appendix D). The change in wording consists of the statement reading." this teacher" instead of "my teacher," as found on the Student Questionnaire. Upon recommendation of the Personnel Director,
the Principal Evaluation would be limited to 30 questions. The Personnel Director felt that a higher percentage of returned questionnaires would be obtained from a single sheet questionnaire. The last six questions of the Principal Evaluation were added by the researcher, based on Rosenshine and Furst's (1971) six characteristics of an effective teacher. To avoid statistical contamination, the last six questions were handled separately in the analysis with the Pearson $r$.

The researcher's advisory committee saw an opportunity to focus on a developing hypothesis found within the Principal's Evaluation. Although it may be considered ancillary to the major hypothesis, the committee felt that it should be tested.

Hypothesis One is stated as follows: there is no significant difference between the principal's perception of teachers' attitudes across the three levels of instruction (elementary, junior high, and senior high). To test this hypothesis, the principals' responses were totaled and the mean for each question across the three levels of instruction was tested for significant differences by using a one-way between-subject ANOVA. The calculated F scores were compared to the tabled F scores to determine significance. A summary, conclusion, and analysis section is found at the bottom of each item analysis form (Appendix A).

The Principal's Evaluation consists of a Likert scale from "strongly disagree," "disagree," "undecided," "agree," and "strongly agree." The statements on the evaluation are written in such a manner as to make the SA (strongly agree) the most desirable answer. A weighted score was put on the value of each answer: strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), undecided (3), agree (4), and strongly agree (5).

To "substantiate" the life themes to effective teacher traits, the researcher did an item analysis of each question as it pertained to the TPI life themes and the Tulsa Public School's program for school effectiveness. Scores were "obtained" across the three different levels of teaching (elementary, junior high, and senior high), and a conclusion was made for each question based on a one-way between subjects ANOVA (Appendix A).

## Pearson $r$

The Pearson Product-Moment correlation will be used to test Hypothesis Two. Hypothesis Two is stated as: there is no correlation between the TPI score and teacher effectiveness as perceived by the teacher's supervisor. The data measured by the TPI and the Principal's Evaluation have no true zero point. They possess an arbitrary maximum and an arbitrary minimum score or zero point. This is called an "interval scale." The Pearson $r$ is the most appropriate measure of correlation when the sets of data to be correlated are from interval scales. The nature (+,,- 0 ) and size of the relationship between two variables is measured by a correlation coefficient $(r)$. The range of possible values is from -1.00 (perfect negative correlation) to +1.00 (perfect positive correlation). The sign (+, -) indicates if it is positive or negative correlation. The number indicates the strength of the correlation. The closer to -1.00 or +1.00 , the stronger the relation; the closer the coefficient is to zero, the weaker the correlation.

To avoid statistical contamination, the researcher ran three different correlations using the Pearson $r$. The first correlation
(Evaluation I) was between the first 24 (originally 7-A SQ) questions on the Principal's Evaluation and the scores on the TPI. The second correlation (Evaluation II) was between the last six questions on the Principal's Evaluation and the scores on the TPI. The third correlation (Total Evaluation) was between the total questions (Evaluation I plus Evaluation II) and the TPI scores.

## Cronbach Alpha

The data from the Principal's Evaluation were keypunched and computer processed using the Cronbach Alpha modification to the KuderRichardson formula 20. This process is found in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Nie, 1983). The Cronbach method focuses on the analysis of various procedures for comparing variance in a single subject's responses to error, variance estimated for the total test. The literature claims this to be a more robust measurement than other internal consistency procedures. The determining condition is that the subjects respond equally to all 30 questions.

With number of cases at 77 and the number of items at 30 , a mean for each question and a standard deviation was calculated. The reliability alpha equaled .9720. With an alpha of that size, it can be concluded that the Principals' Evaluation possesses internal consistency. The adding of the six Rosenshine and Furst's (1971) characteristics did not affect the internal consistency of the Principals' evaluation.

Teacher Perceiver Interview

Tulsa Public Schools made the TPI one part of its intake process for new teachers in 1978. Along with the usual information gathering devices, the TPI is used for screening possible candidates. After the references, medical examination, transcripts, personal data sheet, and the TPI are completed, the candidate's file is considered complete and active. Each active file is made available for principals who have vacancies in their buildings. The principal narrows his choices to a workable number and calls these candidates for a personal on-site interview. When the principal has made his decision on whom to hire, he sends a teacher selection sheet to the Personnel Office. Personnel then processes the necessary forms and offers the contract. The population of this study was limited to those teachers hired in the 1979-80 school year.

The TPI can only be administered by a trained person who has reached at least $85 \%$ agreement on interviews with a representative of SRI. These interviewing skills are updated every two years by a refresher course or a critique of a series of mailed-in tapes completed by the interviewer.

There were 211 teachers hired in the 1979-80 school year. These names and assignments were made available for this research. The researcher compared the original list of 211 and found the 118 names and assignments of teachers who are still in the Tulsa Public Schools. Each of the 118 was assigned a coded number by the secretary in Personne1. Elementary teachers were designated as a 100 prefix, junior
high teachers as 200, senior high teachers as 300 , and those working in special projects as 400 . The designated number was marked on the back side of the TPI scoresheet and on the evaluations.

The services of a secretary in the Personnel Office were employed to help with the original TPI worksheets and Principal's Evaluations. After a number had been assigned to individuals, the secretary put the numbers on the TPI worksheets and the Principal's Evaluation sheets. The TPI scoresheet is two-sided. On the front is found the individual's name and other vital statistics. The backside of the scoresheet is a simple marking system for recording affirmative responses to the situations (Appendix B). To insure confidentiality, the researcher was given only a photocopy of the back of the original scoresheet with a coded teacher's number on it. Scores on these scoresheets were calculated into percentages by dividing the number of correct "listen for" (affirmative) answers by the total possible. This composed the score for the TPI.

## Principal's Evaluation of the Teachers

The Principal's Evaluation of the teacher was sent by school mail to each supervising principal with a cover letter (Appendix E). The cover letter contained a brief statement of the problem, a simple set of instructions, and an appeal for his/her cooperation. In an effort to strengthen the appeal, the Superintendent and the Director of Personnel were asked to sign above the researcher's name. Participation in the study was strictly voluntary on the part of the principals.

The Principal's Evaluation involved the same questions (first 24) found on the Student Questionnaire (7-A SQ) (Appendix C) that the SRI
had researched extensively. The minor change was in the wording at the beginning of each statement. Instead of reading "my teacher," the Principal's Evaluation reads "this teacher." The last six questions of the Principal's Evaluation were added by the researcher, based on Rosenshine and Furst's (1971) six characteristics of an effective teacher. These questions were handled separately to ensure internal reliability of this addition.

In processing the Pearson $r$, the researcher correlated the first 24 questions on the Evaluation with the TPI (Evaluation I). The last six questions (Rosenshine and Furst, 1971) on the evaluation were correlated with the TPI (Evaluation II). A Total Evaluation was conducted to check for reliability and validity of the first two correlations (Hypothesis Two). A scattergram was run to plot any correlation between Evaluation I and Evaluation II.

The Principal's Evaluation of the teacher (Appendix D) has the teacher's name and coded number at the top. Also at the top of each evaluation is the name of the supervising principal or administrator. Below the line is the teacher's coded number and 30 questions or statements regarding this particular teacher. The principal evaluates the statement as it applies to the teacher and marks on a Likert scale his/her answer, from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." A weighted score is given the value of each answer ( $S D=1, D=2, U=3, A=4$, $S A=5$ ).

In an experiment by Bridges (1974), it was found that principals were more frank and objective on a teacher's evaluation if the principal was confident that the information was of a nondisclosure system.

That is, the principal will not be held accountable to the teacher for the evaluation.

Upon completion of the evaluation, the principal tore off the principal's and teacher's names and returned the evaluation to the researcher with the coded teacher's number on it. The researcher worked only with the evaluations and TPI worksheets with coded numbers to ensure the confidentiality of teachers and principals involved in the study.

After 10 days a reminder letter was sent to all principals involved (Appendix E). In the letter an appeal is made to complete the evaluation if they had not done so. The reminder letters were sent via school mail. Completed evaluations were sent to the Personnel Office via school mail.

When the evaluations were returned, they were sorted by level and matched by number with the TPI scoresheet. Due to the voluntary nature of the study, only $65 \%$ of the evaluations were completed and returned.

By means of the weighted scoring technique, each teacher was given a total score for the first 24 questions, the last 6 questions, and the total evaluation. These three scores were correlated by means of the Pearson $r$ with the TPI scores. The total evaluation score correlated with the TPI score would satisfy the question of predictive validity of the TPI.

Hypothesis One stated that there would be no significant difference between the principal's perception of teachers' attitudes across the three instructional levels. To satisfy Hypothesis One, an item analysis was performed on each question of the Principal's Evaluation.

The analysis format is found in Appendix A. The actual item analysis is presented in Appendix F, with conclusions and summaries for each of the 30 questions.

## CHAPTER IV

## ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter was to present results of the statistical analysis used for the two hypotheses considered in this study. The reader must make the final judgment as to the relevance of the findings as it may apply to his/her hiring procedure.

The primary goal of this research was to determine the predictive validity of the TPI in regard to teachers who are effective in the classroom. Answers to the following ancillary questions were sought:

1. Are the TPI's life themes represented on the Principal's Evaluation?
2. Are the School Effectiveness Correlates represented on the Principal's Evaluation?
3. Did the restatement of the student's questionnaire statements change the validity or reliability of the study?
4. Is there a significant difference in teachers' attitudes as perceived by the teachers' supervisors?
5. Can we identify any difference in attitudes across three instructional levels--elementary, junior high, and senior high?
6. Did adding Rosenshine and Furst's (1971) characteristics of an effective teacher invalidate the results of the Principal's Evaluation?

## Results of Statistical Analysis

Hypothesis One

Hypothesis One stated that there is no significant difference between the principal's perception of teachers' attitudes across the three levels of instruction (elementary, junior high, senior high). In answer to this hypothesis, the principals' responses on the Principal's Evaluation of the teacher were weighted and totaled. The mean for each question was compiled across all three levels of instruc-tion--elementary, junior high, and senior high. A difference in scoring was noticeable; therefore, a One-Way Between Subjects ANOVA was performed on the three scores to test if the difference in the scores was significant. A summary table accompanies each set of scores (Appendix F).

To answer the ancillary questions, the form described in Chapter III was developed (Appendix A). The format answers Hypothesis One by giving the weighted scores across the three instructional levels, followed by a summary table of the ANOVA. The following two categories deal with specific life themes and school effectiveness correlates that the question addresses. The conclusion, summary, and analysis portion of the form is found at the bottom of each page. The reader should be aware that in some cases the conclusion presented is based on some narrow margins of significance, and it is the reader who must make the final judgment as to the relevance of these findings.

At the end of the 30 questions is a summation sheet (Appendix F). The same precautionary warning to the reader applies to it as to the summaries of the questions.

Hypothesis Two

Hypothesis Two stated that there would be no correlation between the TPI and teacher effectiveness as perceived by the teacher's supervisor. A percentage score was calculated for the TPI by dividing the total correct number of "listen fors" by the total number possible. This percentage was identified by a coded number and correlated with the weighted score the same teacher achieved on the Principal's Evaluation concerning that teacher's effectiveness in the classroom.

The Pearson Product-Moment correlation was found in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Nie, 1983). It is used to summarize the relationship between two variables. The closer the correlation coefficient is to 1.0 , the stronger the relationship. The closer the correlation is to .00 , the weaker the relationship.

To avoid contamination errors due to the adding of Rosenshine and Furst's (1971) six characteristics of an effective teacher, the researcher correlated the first 24 questions of the Principal's Evaluation with the corresponding TPI scores. This was referred to as "Evaluation I." The Fesulting $r=.0210$ indicated that' the variance of the two scores was the same only $2 \%$ of the time. Since the correlation coefficient is close to .00 , the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis (Figure 1).

The last six questions on the Principal's Evaluation--six characteristics of an effective teacher--were correlated with the corresponding TPI scores. This was referred to as "Evaluation II." The correlation coefficient for Evaluation II was . 0128 . This also indicated that the variance of the two scores is the same only $1.28 \%$ of the time. The researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis (Figure 2).



A check for validity and reliability was made by correlating Evaluation I with Evaluation II. The result of this correlation was $r=.8878$. This led the researcher to conclude that the principal's evaluation of the teachers was consistent for all 30 questions on the Principal's Evaluation sheet. Therefore, the addition of the six Rosenshine and Furst (1971) teacher characteristics did not affect the validity or reliability of the Principal's Evaluation instrument (Figure 3 ).

The total Principal's Evaluations were correlated to the TPI scores. The results were $r=.0194$. This indicated that the variance of the two scores was the same only $1.9 \%$ of the time. The researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis and concluded, on the basis of the statistical data, that there was no predictive validity. The scores on the initial interview of the TPI and the principal's perception of that teacher's effectiveness four years later were not related (Figure 4).

Scattergrams were requested to graphically depict the Pearson Product-Moment Correlations in comparing Evaluation I with the TPI scores (see Figure 1), Evaluation II with the corresponding TPI scores (see Figure 2), Evaluation I with Evaluation II (see Figure 3), the Total Principal's. Evaluation with all the TPI scores (Figure 4), Total Evaluation with Evaluation I (Figure 5), and Total Evaluation with Evaluation II (Figure 6). Only in Figures 3, 5, and 6 can a line of regression be drawn for the values under consideration. Although the scattergrams are not conclusive evidence that there is no correlation between the TPI and teacher effectiveness, the scattergrams are graphic in the depiction of a lack of continuity.


Figure 3. Scattergram Depicting the Relationship Between TPI and Total Evaluation


Figure 4. Scattergram Depicting the Relationship Between Evaluation I and Evaluation II


Figure 5. Scattergram Depicting the Relationship Between
Evaluation I and Total Evaluation


## Summary

The statistical analysis for Hypothesis I allows rejection of the null hypothesis and a conclusion that there is a significant difference in the perceived attitudes of teachers across the three levels of instruction. In Chapter II, it was noted that the Brown-Self-ReportInventory reported that elementary teachers were more child-oriented; the results of this study supported their findings at the .05 level of significance.

The predictive validity of the TPI is at best questionable. When the scores of the TPI were correlated with the scores on the Principals' Evaluation, the coefficient equaled .0210 . The researcher failed to reject the null Hypothesis II; there is no correlation between the TPI and teacher effectiveness as perceived by the teacher's supervisor.

Using the item analysis on each question (Appendix F), there is evidence that the Principals' Evaluation is representative of both the six School Effectiveness Correlates of the Tulsa Public Schools and the 12 Life Themes of the TPI.

The treatment of the six add-on questions on the Principals' Evaluation prevented contamination. They proved to be both valid and reliable in conjunction with the other questions.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary and Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to verify the predictive validity of the TPI as it relates to the selection of effective teachers in Tulsa, Oklahoma. Two hypotheses were tested.

Hypothesis One stated that there is no significant difference between the principal's perception of teachers' attitudes across the three levels of instruction (elementary, junior high, senior high). This hypothesis developed as an ancillary question taken from the Principal's Evaluation data, which was divided across three instructional levels. The question was not one of attitudes of the teachers but of the principal's perception of the teacher's attitudes in his/ her relationship to his/her students. It is a common belief that elementary teachers are warmer and more personable with their students than junior and senior high teachers, who are thought to demonstrate more "subject-oriented" behavior. An item analysis on the Principal's Evaluation and a One-Way Between Subject ANOVA produced empirical evidence supporting this belief. The elementary teachers were perceived by their supervisors as child-oriented; secondary teachers were perceived by their supervisors as subject-oriented.

Hypothesis Two stated that there is no correlation between the score on the TPI and teacher effectiveness as perceived by the
teacher's supervisor. Data were gathered from 118 teachers hired in 1979. Each of the teachers had been given the TPI, each was still employed in the Tulsa Public School system, and each had been with his/her supervisor for at least one year. The principals participated in this project voluntarily, and 77 evaluations were returned to the researcher. The TPI scores were matched and correlated with the Principal's Evaluations using the Pearson Product-Moment correlation. The correlation coefficient equaled .0194, which means that the TPI can only account for a small portion of the variance on the Principal's Evaluation. With this evidence, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis and concluded that the TPI did not predict whether a teacher would be judged effective.

In drawing the conclusions about the two hypotheses, the reader must be reminded of the limitations of this research. Tulsa Public Schools believed the TPI to be a good indicator of teacher effectiveness; therefore, the school system hired few of the applicants who were rated low on the interview. Few teachers were hired who did not excel in this interview. With this in mind, the reader needs to assess whether the results of this study can be generalized to the total population of teachers. Cooperation of the principals was voluntary; consequently, not all possible administrative evaluations were completed and returned. The reader must keep in mind the fact that the other $35 \%$ of the evaluations could have changed the conclusions of the entire study. The sample administrators may have seen their teachers scoring more favorably than those administrators who did not participate by not returning their questionnaires.

## Implications

The implications are based on the findings of this study and conclusions drawn from the same:

1. The TPI should not be used to determine a prospective teacher's effectiveness in the classroom. The traditional information (work recommendations, grades, supervisory recommendations) were found to be equally valuable and predictive.
2. If teachers are perceived differently across the three levels of instruction, the criteria for hiring teachers should be different across these levels. If an interviewee is seeking an elementary position, he/she is expected to be a "warm, child-oriented" teacher. If an interviewee is seeking a secondary position, a more "subjectoriented" attitude might be expected. This implies that criteria used for hiring elementary teachers should be different from that used for hiring secondary teachers.
3. The Principal's Evaluation is general enough to measure life themes and correlates of the Tulsa Public Schools, but the form became tedious to fill out. A more efficient summary sheet should be developed.

Although the TPI did not prove predictive, it serves a purpose in the overall structured interview process used by most school districts in hiring prospective teachers. First, the questions on the TPI are designed to allow the interviewee to do most of the talking. A perceptive interviewer could make accurate conclusions about the interviewee's personality that would be valuable in determining whether or not to hire--particularly if the interviewer were familiar with the "listen fors" determined by the TPI. Second, the TPI takes great care
in not violating any acts or laws designed to protect interviewees' rights.

Third, it might not be the instrument (TPI) itself that is beneficial to the employer; it may be the process. The TPI causes the interviewee to express his/her attitudes on various school matters and to make decisions on situations. It also assures coverage of important concerns and it allows the interviewer to make systematic comparisons between interviewees.

## Recommendations for Further Study

As is the case in most studies, this study has created questions that need further investigation.

1. The TPI questions should be reviewed by a labor relations expert or an attorney to ascertain if any interviewee's rights are being violated.
2. Further studies should be conducted to determine differences in attitudes across the three levels of instruction (elementary, junior high, senior high). Any differences could set new criteria for hiring policy.
3. Tulsa Public Schools should adapt the School Effectiveness Correlates into a structured interview of their own design.
4. A study of teachers' strengths and weaknesses as reported on the TPI could be a valuable resource for the administrator in planning staff development projects or inservice training.
5. If a profile could be compiled on each administrator, placement of teachers having certain personality traits could perhaps be "matched" with the administrators.
6. A repliçation of this study is needed to see if the same results would be produced.
7. A new evaluation form focusing on the School Effectiveness Correlates should be implemented for Tulsa Public Schools.

In conclusion, it is the opinion of this researcher that the most valuable tool now available for hiring effective classroom teachers is the structured interview. However, this interview should be custom designed for the specific district, including its own goals and objectives. A rotating committee trained to perceive certain desirable character traits and attitudes from the interview results would be effective. The researcher questions the wisdom of depending too heavily upon one part of the total interview process and would prefer using all information available on an applicant in a balanced fashion in order to acquire the most proficient teaching staff possible.


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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

ITEM ANALYSIS FORMAT


APPENDIX B

TEACHER PERCEIVER INTERVIEW SCORESHEET

PERSONNEE TMERVIEW SHEET
Tulsa Public Schools
Tulsa, Oklahoma
Date $\qquad$ 19 $\qquad$
I. PERSONAL DATA

Name $\qquad$
Address $\qquad$

II. PROFESSIONAL DATA
$\qquad$
Grade Point Average
Teaching Fields
Minor

Teaching Preferenc
(1) $\qquad$ (2) $\qquad$ (3) $\qquad$

Teaching Experience-Number Years
III. INTERVIEW DATA

Circle the number in the appropriate column that represents your rating of the interviewee.

| - | EXCEP- <br> TIONAL | COOD | AVER- <br> AGE | COMMENTS <br> POOR |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Personal Appearance-Dress, Grooming | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 |  |
| Emotional Stability-Maturity | 10 | 9 | 8 | 7 |  |
| Personality-Poise-Enthusiasm | 10 | 9 | 8 | 7 |  |
| Communication Skills-Usage, Articulation additional comments) | 10 | 9 | 8 | 7 |  |
| Commitment to the Profession | 10 | 9 | 8 | 7 |  |
| Knowledge of Subject Matter | 10 | 9 | 8 | 7 |  |
| Knowledge of Current Teaching Techniques | 10 | 9 | 8 | 7 |  |
| Quality of Questions and Answers | 10 | 9 | 8 | 7 |  |
| Physical and Mental Vitality | 10 | 9 | 8 | 7 |  |
| TOTALS |  |  |  |  | COMPOSITE SCORE |

DIVISION FOR PERSONNEL SERVICES USE ONLY
Interview 109887 Credentials/Reierences Student Teaching $\qquad$
Contract Recommendations:
Priority One $\qquad$ Priority Two $\qquad$ Priority Three $\qquad$

Not Recommended $\qquad$


APPENDIX C

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE (7-ASQ)


APPENDIX D

PRINCIPAL'S EVALUATION FORM
Teacher's Name___ Evaluation Number
$\qquad$
Principal
Evaluation Number
paimeipals:






APPENDIX E

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CORRESPONDENCE
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# TULSA PUBLIC SCHOOLS <br> TULSA, OKlAFOMA 

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April 15, 1983
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Fellow Administrator:
Tulsa Public Schools have been using the Teacher Perceiver Interview as a part of our hiring procedures since 1978. The TP| has met with mixed reviews. To establish the value of the Teacher Perceiver Interview, l'm asking you to take time out of your busy schedule to evaluate the member(s) of your staff named on the top left side of the evaluation.

Cut along the red line to remove your name and to guarantee the confidentiality of the teacher. The researcher, Phil Mauser, will be working only with numbered sheets. I would appreciate your response as soon as possible. The larger the sample population the more accurate the research. The sample is made up of all teachers hired in 1979 and under your supervision last year.

Please send the completed form to Personnel, att: Betty Garrison.
Thanks for your cooperation,


Delbert Pool
Pas Inforen
Phil Mauser

## TULSA PUBLIC SCHOOLS <br> TULSA, OKLAHOMA

Fellow Administrator:
Last week you should have received an evaluation from Delbert Pool's office. Tine evaiuation has the name of a teacher hired in 1979 and who was under your sucervision last year. If you have already.processed the evaluation and sent it cc $4 r$. Pool,s office, kindly disregard this communication. If you have misplaced the evaluation, call Betty Garrison for another. If you haven't completed it ver Eut insend to, you are causing Phil Mauser a bad case of hives as the informatior is necessary in his doctoral study.

Thanks for your cooperation, Peempurn Phil Mauser

APPENDIX F

ITEM ANALYSIS


TPI Tife Themes Corresponing to This Question:

| attain self-actualization. A teacher with mission has a goal to |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| maxe a significant contribution to other people. |  |
| \#2 | Rapport Drive is seen by the teacier as a favorable and macassary |
|  | condition of learning. |

School Iffectiverass Sorzelates CorFesponding to mis Question:
To dovelop high expectations for learning among all students,
parents, and staff members of the scnool.
TH emphasize learning, particularly of the basic skills, as the
first prionity in this scnool PIrst priority in this scnool.

Sumanty, Conclusion, Analysis:




TPI Fife Themes Gorresponding to This Question:
Rapoort Drive is ovidenced by the teacher's abilitr to have an aporoving and mutually favorable relationshio with each student. The taschar likes studeats and expects them to reciprocata. Rapport is seen by the teacher 23 a favorable and zecessary conaition of learning. The learning environ= ment is enhanced if there exists a mutual friendsnip or rapoort in the teacher/pupil relationshio.

School Sffectiverass Correlanes Cor=esponding to mis Ruestion:
To create in this sciool an orderly gnvironaent for learning. The bast way to achleve an orcerly enviroment is through the respect_of others rights and oroperties. Teacners buitd respect by accepting students_as they arg and students worix toward acceptance of others
$\qquad$
$\qquad$

Sumary, Conclusion, Analysis:
There is no signfficant difference in the feelings teacherg have about their studente. Principals see their teaciors as having the
ability to create an orderly envirorment for learning by establighing a mutual leelinz of resoect with their students. $\qquad$




Question \# $\%$ This teacher uses different. methods te nelp
the student learn.

Mean Neighted Response by Group:
Elementary_4.17_Junior Kigh 4.00_Senior הigh 3.30 One way Between Subiects Anova

| One way Between Subjects Anova |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Source | df | SS | MS | F |
| Tactor A | 2 | 3.7 L | 1.87 | 2.10 |
| Error | 74 | 66.27 | .89 |  |
| Total | 76 | 69.95 |  |  |

TPI tire Themes Gorresponding to This question:
Activation indicates that the teaciner is capable of stimulating students to think, to responc, to feel---to iearn.
focus is indicated when the teacher krows what tine goals are and selects ac-ivities in terms of tiese goals.

School Effectiveress Sorrelates Corresponding to This Question:
\#5 To systematically monitor progress of all students in this school
toward the achievement of specified irstractional obiectives. The teacher being aware of tie difierent tyces oz' learners will vary the techniques. and approacies to insure the acnievement of the objectives.

गे 3 To create in this school an orceriy enviroment for learning. Broady interpreted this correlate could mean that the teacher uses different
styles for discipline, instruction., axd communication with the students. Sumary, Conclusion, Analysis:

No significant diference across tipe three levels of instruction was
parceived by the supercising orinci-alg. All the teachers were judged
about average in motivating stucents by varying their instruction.




Summary, Conclusion, Analysis:

The question calls for a rating by tone orincipal on the objectivity of the teacher. All the principals rated their teachers above tine mean on this question. This question is important to every administrator because the more objective the teachers are witin the children, the better the enyironment for learning and legs time the administrator spands_on__ disciplinary problems.

Question $\frac{12}{\vec{f} \quad \text { This teacier will probably always be a teacher. }}$


Question \#_ 13 Tris teacher onjoys teacining.

Mean Neighted Response by Group:

| Elen | 4.28 | Junior High 3.56 |  | Senior High 3.60 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | One 'day Setreen Subiacts Anova |  |  |  |
| Source | df | SS | MS | F |
| Factor a | 2 | 5.27 | 2.635 | 3.5 |
| Error | 74 | 54.68 | . 74 |  |
| Total | 76 | 59.95 |  |  |

TPI Tile Themes Corresponaing to Mnis Question:
Mission is what takes some individuals and groups out of society's main-
stream in order to assure trie quality and purposiveness or that mainstream.
Mission is a deep underlying belief that students can grow and attain
self actualization. A teacner wit: mission has a goal to make a significant contribution to other people.

The investment theme is indicated by the teacner's capacity to receive a
satisfaction from the growth of students. The satisiaction comes with the

\#1 To strengtien acmiristrative 1eacersioip.
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$

Summary, Conclusion, Anaiysis:
The differences across the instric:-ional levels on this quegtion were signipicant. Elementary teacners are perceived as being more content with teacicing as an occupation tinan secondary teaccere, who ranked be= low the mean in thair respective groups. It is only logical to reason that a person me anjoys his/her ;ork vill oxcell above a disgruntled employee, hence tine choice of the life theme and school affectiveness correlates




School Zffectiveress Sorzelates Corresponding to wis Question:
\#L To emphasize learming, particulariy of the basic skills, as tie
first priority in this school.
\#3 To create in this sciool an orderly enviroment ior learning.

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Sumary, Conclusion, Analysis:
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There is a significant difference between the hign elementary teachers! score and the low junior high teacners' score. Hign school teachers raked in the middle with a score slightly higher than their evaluation mean. This scoring pattern could reflect how the teachers feel about time limitations. Elementary teachers inare more time rith gixdents and can more easily allow them to work at their own pace. High school teachers are deatraus of dexelopino zreater responsibility on the part of the studemt and might be willing to let them have "extensions." Sut
 because or the immaturity of the junior high age student.
$\frac{\text { Question \#_17 This te }}{\text { Mean Neighted Response by Group: }}$

| Mean Neighted Response by Group: |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Elem | One riay Setween Subjects Anova |  |  |  |
| Source | df | SS | MS | $F$ |
| Factor A | 2 | 6.53 | 3.22 | 4.14 |
| Error | 74 | 58.35 | . 72 |  |
| Total | 76 | 64.88 |  |  |

mPI iife Themes Corresponiing to This Question:
The listening theme is evident when a person soontaneously listens to others with responsiveness and acceptance. Listening is more than merely hearing. It is viewed as beneficial to the person speaking, $\qquad$

School Sffectiveness Jorrelates Corresponding to Mis Question:
$\$ 6$ To encourage strong support from the community.
fi 3 To create in tinis scrool an orderly environment for learning. $\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$

Summary, Conclusion, Analysis:

> Surprisingly, high school teachers were the only group who scored above their evaluation mean on this question. The other two groups were only slightly below their respoctive means.

Because of their eagerness to talk and their naivete, elementary students give their teachers more opportunities to "listen". Before a secondery teacher has this opportunity, he/sine must establish rapport and oarn roapect.


School Efeectiveness Correlanes Corresponding to This Puestion:

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#2 To develop hign expectations for Iearning among all students, parents,
    and staff members in this scrool.
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\#4 To emphasize learning, particularly of the basic skills, as the first
priority in this school.
Sumary, Conclusion, Analysis:

There is a gignificant difference in the ratings on this question, but it should be noted that the senior and funior high teachers were cated woll above theif evaluation means. $\qquad$
The uge of the word "hanoy" does not aporopriately describe how a senior or junior high teacher most often feels when a student succeeds.




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TPI Life Themes Corresponding to This Question:
The gestalt theme indicates the teacier has a drive toward completeness. the teacher sees in patterns-is uneasy until worik is innisnea. When gestalt is high the teacher tends toward perfectionism. Even though form ama structure ye inportant, the inaividual stuaent is considerea first. The teacher works from individual to structure.

Focus is indicated when a person has models and goals. The person's Ife
is moving in a planned direction. The teacher knows what the goals are and selects activities in terms of these goals.

School Effectiveress Cornelates Corzesponding to whis Ouestion:
\#3 To create in this scnool an orierly environment for learning.
H1 To strengthen the administrative leadership of this school.
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$

Sumary, Conclusion, Analysis:
Including the vord "always" in this question makes it almost impossible to score well. Sach level oí instruction is perceived as dilitory in the execution of paper work. Contrast this with the fntolerance the teachers show when students fail to complete their work. (Qustion 10.)

There is a significant difference in the scores at a .05 level, with the high gcioni teaciers being the culveith.



TPI Fife Themes Sorzesponing to This Question:
Pocus is indicated when a person has models and goals. The person's life is moving in a planned direction. The teacier knows what the goals are and selects activities in terms of these goals.

The gestalt theme indicates the teacher has a drive toward completeness. The teacner sees in patterns-is uneasy until wori is finisned. When gestalt is high, the teacher tends toward perfectionism. Even though forin and structure are inportant, the individual student is considered first. The teacher worics from individual to structure.

School affectiveness Sorreiaces Cor:esponding to whis Question:
\#1 To strengthen the administrative leadersinip of this school
j2 To develop high expectations for learnine among all students, parents,
and gtaff members in this school
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$

Sumary, Conclusion, Anaiysis:
The results on this question show no significant differencemacoss the levels of instruction. Each level scored below its respective evalua-. tion mean.

## Principals apoarently oerceived their teacrers as lacking the discipline or desire to determine where they are heading oroiesstanally.



Question \# 27 This teacher is business-like and task oriented.

TPI fife Themes Corresponding to This Question:
The gestalt theme indicates the teacher has a drive toward completeness.
The teacher sees in patternse-is uneasy until work is finished. When
gestalt is high the teacner tends toward perfectionism. Even tnough
form and structure are inportant, the individual student in considered
first. The teacher works from individual to structure.
Pocus is indicated when a person nas models and goals. The person's
IIre Is moving in a planned direction. The teacner knows what the goals
are and selects activities in terms of these goals.

School Effectiveness Sorrelates Corresponding to This Question:
\#\#3 To create in tinis school an orderly environment for learning.
\#5 To systematically monitor progress of all students in this sciool
toward the acrievement of specifisd instructional objectives
\#1 To strengthen the administrative leadershio of this school
$\qquad$
$\qquad$

Summary, Conclusion, Analysis:
There is a significant difference in ranking across the levels of instruction on this question. Junior high teaciers arg perceived as being able to perform a task from beginning to end. Senior high and elementary
teachers ranked beloy their respective normal erraluation meanse.



TPI Fife Themes Corresponding to This Question:
The innovation theme is indicated when a teacner tries new ideas and techniques. A certain amount of determination is observed in this theme because the idea nas to be inplementad. At a aigner level of innovation Is creativity where the teacher has the capability of putting information and experience together into new contiguravions.

Focus is maicated when a person nas models and goais. The person's life is moving in a planned direction. The teacier knows what the goals are afic selects activities in terms or these goals.

Imput drive is evideniced by the teacser who is contimously searchang for ideas, materials, and experiences to use in telping other people, especially students.

School Iffectiveness Sorreiates Corresponding to whis Question:
\#̈4 To emphasize learning, particularly of the basic skills, as the
first priority in this scinool
\#̈5 To systematically monitor progress of all students in this school
toward the achievement of specified instructional objectives
\#3 To create in this scrool an orcierly environment for learning

Sumary, Conclusion, Analysis:
Although there is no significant difference in scores across the levels
of instruction, elementary teachers were perceived as using the same
methods to teach their students. Junfor and senior high teachers are
perceived as seeking new ideas in presenting to their students.


# 2 <br> VITA 

Phillip J. Mauser<br>Candidate for the Degree of<br>Doctor of Education

Thesis: THE PREDICTIVE VALIDITY OF THE TEACHER PERCEIVER INTERVIEW TO TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS

Major Field: Educational Administration
Biographical:
Personal Data: Born in Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, July 18, 1943, the son of Steve and LaVerne Mauser; married to Fonda Rae Coats; son, Corey Edward Mauser.

Education: Graduated from Lanier High School, Fort Worth, Texas, 1961; received Bachelor of Science in Education degree from Northeastern State University in 1965; received Master of Teaching degree from Northeastern State University in 1967; completed requirements for Doctor of Education degree at Oklahoma State University in December, 1986.

Professional Experience: Elementary physical education teacher, Tulsa, Oklahoma, September, 1965 to January, 1966; fifth/ sixth grade teacher, Tulsa, Oklahoma, January to May, 1966; fifth grade teacher, Scottsdale, Arizona, 1966-69; fifth grade teacher, Tulsa, Oklahoma, 1969-70; educational director, Tulsa Boys' Home, 1970-76, emotionally mentally handicapped teacher, Tulsa Boys' Home, 1970-72, emotionally disturbed teacher, 1972-74; learning disabled teacher, 197476; administrative internship served at Alcott Elementary School, Tulsa, Oklahoma, 1976-77; principal of Celia Clinton Elementary School, Tulsa, Oklahoma, 1977-79; principal, John Burroughs Magnet School, Tulsa, Oklahoma, 1979 to present.


[^0]:    Sumary, Conclusion, Analysis:
    There was no significant difference in the scores across the levels of instruction on this question. Higin school teachers were the only group who scored above their evaluation mean. Elementary and funior high teachers scored wall below their respective means.

    The hign scifool Ceacner as seen by mis/her administrator is always searching for new ways of presenting materials.

