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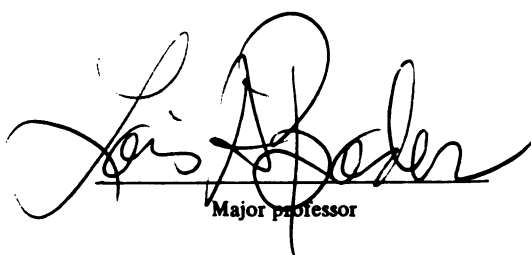
CONGRUENCE OF TEACHER, STUDENT, AND PRINCIPAL
PERCEPTIONS OF THE CLASSROOM PRACTICES OF
SELECTED HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH TEACHERS

presented by

Henry Greenfield

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

Ph.D. degree in Secondary Education
and Curriculum



Major professor

Date October 1978



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1978

CONGRUENCE OF TEACHER, STUDENT, AND PRINCIPAL
PERCEPTIONS OF THE CLASSROOM PRACTICES OF
SELECTED HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH TEACHERS

By

Henry Greenfield

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ABSTRACT

CONGRUENCE OF TEACHER, STUDENT, AND PRINCIPAL PERCEPTIONS OF THE CLASSROOM PRACTICES OF SELECTED HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH TEACHERS

By

Henry Greenfield

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this descriptive study was to analyze data regarding high school English teachers' classroom practices as perceived by the teachers, their students, and their principals. An attempt was made to determine if there was congruence of perceptions between teachers and their students, and between teachers and their principals regarding the teachers' classroom practices.

Design of the Study

The population of the study included students, teachers, and principals in the greater Lansing and greater Grand Rapids areas in Michigan. Fifteen high schools were selected. From each school a simple random sample determined three English teachers to be surveyed. One class of each of the teachers surveyed was selected for study, according to availability when the researcher visited the school site.

Fifteen principals, 45 teachers, and 935 students from high schools ranging in enrollment from 659 to 2,100 were involved in the study. Each respondent was requested to complete the 42-item Inventory of Classroom Practices, designed for this study. The data were analyzed by an items-to-test correlation (coefficient alpha) and a one-way analysis of variance.

Major Findings

Statistical tests revealed congruence of perceptions in five areas: teacher and student perceptions in regard to providing a positive classroom climate, teacher and principal perceptions in regard to providing a positive classroom climate, teacher and principal perceptions in regard to providing student-centered indirect instruction, teacher and student perceptions in regard to promoting group classroom interaction, and teacher and principal perceptions in regard to promoting group classroom interaction.

Statistically significant agreement of perceptions was noted in the following areas:

1. There was a statistically significant difference at the .05 level between teacher and student perceptions of the teacher as being high, average, or low in providing a student-centered indirect approach in the classroom. Teachers who ranked themselves low and average were ranked differently by their students. Teachers who

ranked themselves as high were ranked very differently by their students.

2. There was a statistically significant difference at the .05 level between teacher and student perceptions of the teacher as being high, average, or low in providing comprehensive evaluation. The difference was least in the average and high groups. These two groups were significantly different from each other and from the low group.

3. There was a statistically significant difference at the .05 level between teacher and principal perceptions of the teacher as being high, average, or low in providing comprehensive evaluation. In the high and average groups, there was little difference between the teachers' and principals' perceptions, and these were not significantly different from one another. However, both average and high groups were significantly different from the low group.

Conclusions

Within the limitations of the study, it was concluded that student, teacher, and principal perceptions of teachers' classroom practices generally were congruent. The categories that showed incongruence between students and teachers were student-centered indirect instruction and evaluation and reports. Principals' perceptions were

congruent with those of the teachers in all categories except evaluation and reports.

Recommendations

Teachers may consider using inventories similar to the one devised for this study (1) to collect data about existing conditions in their classrooms without using an outside evaluator, (2) to help them assess growth in specific attempts to change classroom practices, or (3) to help them focus on discrepancies of viewpoints.

Research should be undertaken (1) to discover if there is a relationship between congruence of teacher and student perceptions and affective and/or cognitive growth; (2) to discover if perceptions about English teachers' classroom practices are congruent with those regarding the classroom practices of teachers of other disciplines (math, science, social studies); and (3) to discover if other variables, such as sex, training, and experience, affect congruence of teacher, student, and principal perceptions.

To My Family:

Geri, Carl and Sharron, Jena, Jamey,

Jason, Jennifer

Gary and Lori, Kathy and Floyd

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Background

Educators may not be aware of their influence on students and the way students perceive them. Amidon (1965) believed teachers should become more aware of the importance of their classroom behavior. He wrote:

The primary responsibility of the classroom teacher is to guide the learning activities of children. In the process of this interaction he influences the children, sometimes with planned behavior, sometimes consciously without planning, but often without awareness of his behavior and the effect of this behavior on the learning process (p. 1).

Students may judge teachers on the basis of teacher performance in the classroom. However, what the teacher expects to be perceived in the classroom might not necessarily be what the students actually experience. Hence it may be important for teachers to be aware of their influence and how others perceive them during classroom instruction. Amidon (1965) stated:

The teacher, then, is continually exerting influence on the children and on the learning situation. But how much knowledge does he have about the methods of influence he is using? How much does he know about how children perceive his behavior? And how much control is he able to exert over his behavior in the classroom? By studying his own behavior in some systematic, objective manner, the teacher may gain further insight into his influence (p. 1).

Therefore it seems important that a study be conducted to determine the congruence of teacher and student perceptions of teacher classroom performance.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to analyze student, teacher, and principal perceptions of classroom practices employed by selected high school English teachers. An attempt was made to determine if congruence existed among these individuals' perceptions of teacher classroom practices in five categories: instructional procedures, group interaction, classroom climate, classroom control, and evaluation and reports.

Five major classroom practice categories were selected as the areas in which to obtain perceptions about teachers' classroom performance. They are: instructional procedures, group interaction, classroom climate, classroom control, and evaluation and reports. These categories were selected because of their prominence in research dealing with classroom characteristics (Dunkin & Biddle, 1974; Gump, 1967; Flanders, 1970).

Questions pertaining to instructional procedures and classroom control were asked to determine whether the teacher was viewed as providing student-centered indirect instruction. Classroom climate was examined to determine if the teacher provided a positive climate. Group

interaction dealt with the interaction provided by teachers in the classroom. Evaluation and reports were concerned with whether the teacher was perceived as providing comprehensive evaluation procedures.

These five areas were formulated into a list of statements regarding classroom practices, to elicit students' and principals' perceptions of the teachers' behavior in the specific categories. Teachers were asked to respond to the same questions so that their perceptions could be compared with those of their students and principals. Principals' perceptions were included in the study to compare their views with those of the students and teachers. This appeared to be a logical decision because not only are principals directly involved with teachers and students, but they are the chief evaluators of teachers and are responsible for hiring and retaining them.

Importance of the Study

The study is important because it may provide an objective way to examine student and principal perceptions of teachers' classroom behavior. The study may offer a basis for clarifying teachers', students', and principals' perceptions. As a result of such clarification, teachers may choose to alter or delete some of their classroom practices if they feel congruence of perceptions about

such practices is important for cognitive or affective growth.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined in the context in which they are used in this study:

Perception: In Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary (1949), perception is defined as "an immediate or intuitive cognition of judgment often implying nice observation and subtle discrimination" (p. 624). It is in this context that the term is used in the present study.

Positive climate: Positive climate is the warm atmosphere created by the teacher's classroom practices.

Classroom practices: Classroom practices are procedures used by teachers for the purpose of instruction.

Teacher-centered direct approach: This approach is one in which the teacher chooses to control behavior and instruction by lecturing, giving instructions, and selecting work to be done. At times the teacher may criticize the students and justify his own authority (Flanders, 1970).

Student-centered indirect approach: This approach is one in which the teacher chooses to control behavior and instruction by allowing students to construct rules

for correct behavior and assist in planning when and how work is to be done. Additionally, the teacher seeks the opinions of students, accepts their ideas, and praises or encourages them (Flanders, 1970).

Comprehensive evaluation: Comprehensive evaluation is a method by which the teacher judges a student's effort and achievement. Conversely, students are allowed to judge the teacher and themselves.

Group interaction: Group interaction is the process by which individuals reciprocally act upon one another.

Research Questions

In an attempt to gain further insight into the congruence of student, principal, and teacher perceptions of teachers' classroom practices, the following research questions were considered:

1. Is there a difference between teacher and student perceptions of the teacher as being high, average, or low in providing a positive classroom climate?
2. Is there a difference between teacher and principal perceptions of the teacher as being high, average, or low in providing a positive classroom climate?
3. Is there a difference between teacher and student perceptions of the teacher as being

high, average, or low in providing student-centered indirect instruction?

4. Is there a difference between teacher and principal perceptions of the teacher as being high, average, or low in providing student-centered indirect instruction?
5. Is there a difference between teacher and student perceptions of the teacher as being high, average, or low in promoting group interaction in the classroom?
6. Is there a difference between teacher and principal perceptions of the teacher as being high, average, or low in promoting group interaction in the classroom?
7. Is there a difference between teacher and student perceptions of the teacher as being high, average, or low in providing comprehensive evaluation procedures?
8. Is there a difference between teacher and principal perceptions of the teacher as being high, average, or low in providing comprehensive evaluation procedures?

Limitations of the Study

The following limitations were noted in regard to the study:

1. The research was limited to the reported perceptions of high school English teachers, students, and principals from selected high schools in greater Grand Rapids, Michigan, and greater Lansing, Michigan.

2. No restrictions were made regarding the size of a high school, as long as it had four or more English teachers with whom the random selection process could be applied.

3. The research data were limited to the "frequency" portion of the Inventory.

4. No attempt was made to generalize beyond the study sample. It is difficult to establish perceptions as fact, regardless of the sample and the instrument used. Therefore, the data produced by the Inventory must be considered in light of this limitation.

5. The personal feelings of the respondents might have prevented them from responding objectively to the questions in the Inventory. Students and principals might have thought they could reward or punish the teacher by their answers, depending upon how they felt at the time they completed the Inventory. Also, respondents' possible misunderstanding of the questions must be considered a limitation. One does not know if the respondents really understood the questions.

Overview

Included in Chapter I were a brief background of the study, the purpose and importance of the study, definitions of important terms used, research questions to be answered, and limitations of the study.

In Chapter II a review of the literature related to the present research is presented. The chapter contains a discussion of the five major categories of classroom practices selected for analysis in this study.

Chapter III contains a description of the materials and procedures employed in the study. The design and methodology of the research are discussed in detail.

An analysis of the data and findings of the study are included in Chapter IV.

Chapter V provides a summary and discussion of the findings and conclusions drawn from the study. Implications of the inquiry and suggestions for future research are also indicated.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to analyze student, teacher, and principal perceptions of the classroom practices employed by selected high school English teachers. The review of the literature focuses on five major areas selected on the basis of their importance to the classroom setting. These areas are: instructional procedures, group interaction, classroom climate, classroom control, and evaluation and reports.

The five categories of classroom practices reviewed in this chapter were the major topics of concern in comparing the perceptions of the respondents. The literature pertaining to these five categories was used in constructing the items for the Inventory devised for this study.

Instructional Procedures

Teacher Characteristics

As a result of her research on teacher characteristics, Kleinfeld (1975) classified teachers according to four types of behavior:

Traditionalists (Professional Distance-Active Demandingness): "These teachers ignore the interpersonal dimensions of the classroom, which they consider a professionally illegitimate area of concern."

Sophisticates (Professional Distance-Passive Understanding): "Their professional distance is not coldness but sophisticated reserve. . . . They prefer a discussion class where students can discover intellectual concepts for themselves."

Sentimentalists (Personal Warmth-Passive Understanding): "These teachers tend to be extremely warm, kindly people who find it difficult to make any demands upon any students."

Warm Demanders (Personal Warmth-Active Demandingness): "These teachers spend a substantial amount of time . . . establishing positive interpersonal relationships, not only between teachers and students but also within the student group." Upon establishing rapport, the teachers become demanding, but their demands are always accompanied by a warm smile, gentle teasing, and other forms of gentle support.

Although her research did not provide sufficient evidence to prove that those teacher types exist, Kleinfeld's work is pertinent to this study because she conceptualized and defined types of teacher behaviors. The

Traditionalist and the Sophisticate may be associated with directness and a teacher-centered approach, whereas the Sentimentalist and the Warm Demander may be associated with indirectness and a student-centered approach. In addition, the Traditionalist and the Sophisticate may be associated with criticism, whereas the Sentimentalist and the Warm Demander may be associated with teacher warmth, including praise and acceptance of pupils' ideas.

Ryans' (1960) study of teacher characteristics involved more than 100 research projects and 6,000 teachers in 1,700 schools. The researcher attempted to identify and analyze patterns of classroom behavior, attitudes, viewpoints, and intellectual and emotional qualities that may characterize teachers. One outcome of the study was the identification of three patterns of teacher behavior:

Pattern Xo--warm, understanding, friendly versus aloof, egocentric, restricted teacher behavior.

Pattern Yo--responsible, businesslike, systematic versus evading, unplanned, slipshod teacher behavior.

Pattern Zo--stimulating, imaginative, surgent versus dull, routine teacher behavior.

In addition, Ryans investigated other dimensions of teacher characteristics. He found: (1) The attitudes of elementary school teachers toward pupils, administrators,

fellow teachers, and nonadministrative personnel were markedly more favorable than were those of secondary school teachers. (2) Actual pupil behavior in the classroom (based upon observers' assessments) did not appear to be related to the teachers' attitudes. (3) The educational viewpoints expressed by secondary school teachers were more traditional, while those of elementary teachers were less traditional. (4) The verbal understanding scores (based on vocabulary and verbal analogy items) of secondary school teachers were significantly higher than those of elementary school teachers; on this measure English and foreign language teachers surpassed teachers from all other subject-matter areas within the secondary school. (5) Male teachers at both the elementary and secondary school levels appeared to be markedly more emotionally stable than female teachers (p. 567).

Teacher Behavior

Different terms have been used in describing teacher behavior. Behavior is termed autocratic or democratic (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939), dominative or integrative (Anderson, 1945), teacher-centered or learner-centered (Withall, 1949).

Flanders (1970) developed an instrument for observing classroom behavior. From his research on "direct" and "indirect" influence and his Interaction

Analysis Categories, much has been contributed to the understanding of teacher behavior.

Dunkin and Biddle (1974) discussed 100 studies that examined indirectness with regard to its process occurrence. They stated that teacher behavior is predominantly direct and that pupils speak publicly in the classroom not more than 25 percent of the time.

Data regarding indirect teachers are conflicting. With regard to predictability-process relationships, Dunkin and Biddle (1974) indicated that indirect teachers are more likely than direct teachers to be judged superior by others, to score higher on the National Teachers Examinations (history and philosophy), to be traditionally trained, and to be male. Additionally, they are more likely to earn higher scores on the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory Scale, to have greater ego strength, to be less authoritarian, to be more likely to have humanistic attitudes toward pupils, and to have higher expectations for pupil achievement. However, conflicting data have indicated that indirect teachers are not likely to earn higher scores on the MTAI Scale, are not more likely to have humanistic attitudes toward pupils, and do not have higher expectations for pupil achievement (Dunkin & Biddle, 1974).

Experimental studies have shown there is no relationship between teacher indirectness and the achievement of average pupils (Amidon & Flanders, 1967; Carline, 1970; Gunnison, 1968; Herman, Potterfield, Dayton, & Amershek, 1969; Rian, 1960). But Alexander (1970) and Schentz (1963) found that high teacher indirectness raises the manipulative performance of average pupils. Also, Amidon and Flanders (1961) reported high teacher indirectness slightly raises the achievement level of dependent-prone pupils. Additionally, Gunnison (1968) found that high teacher indirectness improves pupil attitudes toward the teacher. Good and Brophy's (1972) study, concerned with the influence of pupil conduct on teacher behavior, indicated that low pupil achievement produces greater directness than does high pupil achievement.

With regard to pupil achievement, several studies have shown that teacher directness produces significant achievement, whereas other studies have indicated that indirectness contributes significantly to achievement. Strozak (1972) and Wolfson (1970) found that pupils whose teachers exhibited a high rate of indirect to direct techniques produced significantly higher achievement scores than students whose teachers used a high ratio of direct to indirect techniques. On the other hand, Cleminson (1972) reported that pupils taught by

teacher-oriented, large-group instruction seemed to show higher achievement than those taught by student-oriented, small-group instruction.

Calfee's (1976) study, which was designed to document the classroom activities of teachers, student groups and individual students, indicated that reading and language arts are usually associated with direct instruction, whereas mathematics lessons are likely to be under the students' control.

Teacher Warmth

Teacher warmth includes praise, acceptance of pupils' ideas, and criticism.

Praise.--Studies by Altman (1970), Dahllof and Lundgren (1970), Flanders (1970), Furst and Amidon (1967), Lohman and Hough (1976), Perkins (1964), and Tisher (1970) have shown that, in standard classrooms, teachers use praise sparingly.

Silberman (1969) and Good and Brophy (1973) found that teachers give more praise to high-achieving pupils, whom they say they favor, and to whom they feel more attached and less indifferent. Flanders (1970), Soar, Soar, and Rogasta (1971), and Wright and Nuthall (1970) determined that high incidence of teacher praise is associated with greater pupil achievement. In contrast,

several studies have indicated that praise is unrelated to pupil achievement (Harris & Server, 1966; Hunter, 1968; Wallen, 1966).

Acceptance of pupils' ideas.--According to a number of researchers, teachers accept pupils' ideas less than 8 percent of the time (Dahllof & Lundgren, 1970; Furst & Amidon, 1967; Tisher, 1970). Flanders (1970) and Soar (1966) reported that teachers' acceptance of pupils' ideas was unrelated to pupil achievement. Yet Perkins (1965) found teacher acceptance of pupils' ideas to be directly associated with pupil achievement. Hughes (1973) discovered that low teacher acceptance and high teacher praise following correct responses increased pupil achievement more than did high acceptance and low praise following correct responses.

Criticism.--On the average, teachers use criticism as a classroom practice less than 6 percent of the time (Altman, 1970; Lohman & Hough, 1967; Perkins, 1964). Medley and Hill (1970) found that higher teacher scores on NTE English and literature examinations were associated with greater teacher use of criticism.

Rubovits and Maehr (1971) discovered that teacher dogmatism, as measured by the Rokeach Scale, was unrelated to the teachers' use of criticism. Conversely, Rowe (1973) found that teachers' dogmatism, as measured by the same

scale, was associated with greater use of criticism. Also, Good and Brophy (1972) and Silberman (1969) found that higher teacher rejection of pupils was associated with greater use of criticism. They also found that higher teacher indifference to pupils was associated with lower use of criticism.

A number of research efforts have revealed that teachers' expectations for pupil achievement were unrelated to their use of criticism (Cornbleth, Davis, & Button, 1972; Evertson, Brophy, & Good, 1972, 1973; Kranz, Wilber, and Fishell, 1970). On the other hand, other researchers have found that higher teacher expectations for pupil achievement were associated with teachers' use of less criticism (Dalton, 1969; Medinnus & Unruh, 1971; Rowe, 1973). Finally, Cook (1967), Felsenthal (1970), and Spaulding (1973) discovered that greater teacher criticism was associated with lower pupil achievement.

Group Interaction

Teachers' classroom practices may affect interaction between teachers and students and among the students themselves. Soar (1966) wrote, "The most effective learning depends on the tension the child feels, the emotional climate and the teacher control present in the classroom" (p. 10). These elements may contribute to group interaction in the classroom setting.

Research concerning five categories of classroom group interaction--lesson format, group structure, group function, teacher and pupil roles, and location features--was considered relevant to the present study.

Lesson Format

Studies by Gump (1967) and Perkins (1964, 1965) indicated that primary-school students spend most of their time in seatwork and class recitation, which may inhibit interaction. Adams and Biddle (1970) concluded that much class time was spent in lecturing, questions, responses, and directives. Dunkin and Biddle (1974) stated, "Not surprisingly, subject matter is found to affect the lesson format, with mathematics featuring a closer, more formal relationship between group function and structure than social studies" (p. 209).

Group Structure

Research by Adams and Biddle (1970), Hogan (1973), and Hill and Furst (1969) has indicated that much of the classroom day is spent in whole-class activities. Subject matter does affect group structure. More peripheral groups and noninvolved persons participate in social studies than in mathematics lessons. Additionally, classrooms are more likely to become group organized as pupils reach the higher grades. Classrooms with computer-assisted

programs have more teacher interaction with pupils than do classes without such programs. Teachers' age and sex both appear to influence group structure.

Adams and Biddle (1970) and Gump (1967) reported that pupils are likely to be involved in small groups. Intellectualization takes place in peripheral groups, but nonrelevant subject matter is included there also.

Group Function

Group function, the purpose for which the class was formed, may play an important role with regard to interaction. Studies by Hogan (1973) and Hill and Furst (1969) indicated that most school time is taken up with academic lessons rather than with their planning or structuring by pupils and teachers; as a result, interaction is diminished.

Teacher and Pupil Roles

A teacher's control ideology may determine the nature of the verbal behavior he/she displays. This behavior could affect the quality and quantity of interaction in the classroom. Rexford, Willower, and Lynch (1972) studied the verbal aspect of teacher control. Their findings showed that teachers who had a custodial ideology (maintenance of order, distrust of pupils, and a moralistic approach to pupil control) were more direct in their verbal behavior than were teachers with a humanistic

ideology (accepting, trustful, and optimistic concerning students' ability to be self-disciplinary and responsible). However, the hypothesis that custodially oriented teachers would employ a larger percentage of teacher talk failed to reach the .05 significance level.

Wrape (1971) also investigated the subject of verbal interaction. However, he looked at the influence of these verbal student-teacher interactions on both the subject-matter achievement and the self-concept of intermediate-level students. He found there were no statistically significant differences in achievement outcomes among students of above-average, average, or below-average levels of intelligence, nor were there significant differences between students of high or low levels of achievement.

An important aspect of Wrape's study was that high subject-matter learning was directly related to average teacher interaction. Also, for students with above-average and average IQ's, the highest mean scores were associated with the teacher's interaction pattern, which was average. A direct interaction pattern for students with below-average IQ's produced the highest mean subject achievement. None of the patterns was found to be "best" in terms of effects on pupil achievement.

Smith (1971) studied total teacher behavior as it relates to student-teacher interaction. He concluded that teachers use different patterns of behavior when working with students of different achievement levels and that students react to their assigned activities in different ways, depending on the pattern of classroom organization.

With regard to teacher roles, Hill and Furst (1969) and Bellack et al. (1966) indicated that teachers spend most of their time as recitation or discussion leaders, supervisors of action, and informers; they are not directly involved in classroom events.

Concerning pupil roles, pupils spend most of their time listening, watching, reading, and writing (Perkins, 1964; Gump, 1967). Dahllof and Lundgren (1970) and Power (1971) reported that interaction is paramount in the pupil role. Yet teachers verbalize 60 percent of the utterances in the lesson, whereas students verbalize only 40 percent.

Location Features

Innes' (1973) study of the environmental forces in open and closed classroom settings revealed that behavior in open settings was characterized by more social interaction, more interaction when peers led each other into activities, and less casual behavior.

Student location in the classroom may affect the amount of interaction that occurs. As early as 1934, Davis (1964) discovered that pupils located around the periphery of the classroom were more likely to be spectators and less involved than more centrally located students. Adams and Biddle (1970) found that the majority of "emitters" and "targets," teachers or pupils, were located at the front and center of the classroom. Hence the teacher may be able to control the amount of student interaction by controlling the location of chairs or desks in the classroom.

Classroom Climate

The climate of the classroom may be influenced by the teacher's classroom practices, some of which might stimulate the growth of personal relationships between student and teacher. Rogers (1969) noted: "The facilitation of significant learning results from certain attitudinal qualities which exist in the personal relationship between the facilitator and the learner" (p. 106). He identified the following qualities as ones that facilitate learning: realness, prizing, acceptance, trust, and empathetic understanding.

Another aspect of classroom climate is pupil behavior. McDonald (1972) investigated the influence of teacher and pupil perceptions on classroom behavior.

Specifically, he hypothesized that pupils who liked the teacher or who felt the teacher liked them would be warmer toward the teacher than pupils who disliked or felt they were disliked by the teacher. Analysis of the data indicated that pupils did not respond differently to the teacher on the basis of their perceptions about liking or being liked. Rather, McDonald found that pupils were generally neutral in their responses.

Teacher praise plays an important part in the overall climate of the classroom. The results of Vakil's (1970) doctoral study showed that when people are rewarded with praise in the presence of others, both the receiver of the reward and those present when the reward is given develop positive attitudes. Pupils whose teachers used praise and encouragement had a positive attitude toward those teachers and also developed positive attitudes toward other pupils in the classroom.

In research he conducted in 1971, Hardy evaluated 36 high school students to determine the effects of praise as a behavior modification approach. The results indicated that verbal praise was not a statistically significant generalized reinforcer. Also, individual teacher differences significantly affected verbal and hand-raising responses. These responses, in turn, affected teacher image. In addition, verbal and hand-raising responses were correlated with study habits and teacher image.

Dunkin and Biddle (1974), in reviewing numerous studies dealing with classroom climate, made the following remarks regarding praise (or approval) and teacher acceptance of student ideas and criticism (or disapproval):

Praise and acceptance occur but infrequently, but so does criticism. Teacher use of praise and criticism are strongly associated with teacher attitudes toward, and expectations for pupils, while evidence concerning these matters is missing for teacher acceptance. Experimental training appears to have the effect of inducing greater teacher acceptance, while few effects are reported for either praise or criticism. More relations are reported for the effects of criticism of product variables than for either praise or acceptance (p. 127).

Marshall (1972) investigated the classroom climate of 192 Sioux Indian pupils with respect to achievement and attitudes of alienation toward school. He hypothesized that the indirect teaching method would be met with reduced levels of alienation, greater achievement motivation, and more positive attitudes toward school. Findings indicated that intense manifestations of alienation, lack of motivation, and dislike of school were related to the use of narrow recall questions or situations demanding student response to such questions. Study findings also showed that school became increasingly more meaningful and useful when the students were given an opportunity to initiate their own questions and ideas for consideration. The general patterns appeared to support increased indirect teacher influence, leading to silent study and contemplation.

In Reynolds' (1974) study comparing one open school and one traditional school, data did not provide support for either open or traditional instructional programs. However, evidence suggested that the open classroom instructional program effectuated positive changes in the affective areas of self-concept and attitude toward school. Students in both instructional programs performed equally well in the achievement of basic skills.

Classroom Control

The term classroom control may infer that the teacher controls the events and students in some way. In a sense, the teacher may do this when he adopts classroom practices that may determine the kind of control he has in the school setting.

An important aspect of classroom control is "directiveness," that is, the amount of teacher talk (such as giving directions and instructions) as opposed to the amount of student talk allowed by the teacher (including student-initiated talk). Dunkin and Biddle (1974) compiled the findings of 25 studies concerned with directiveness as an aspect of classroom control. They reported the following:

1. Teacher talk comprised at least half of all time spent in normal classroom interaction (Dahllof & Lundgren, 1970; Furst & Amidon, 1967). The amount of

teacher talk was unrelated to pupil achievement (Flanders, 1970; Sharp, 1966; Wright & Nuthall, 1970).

2. Teacher questions, teacher lecturing, and teachers' use of directions comprised about 30 percent of classroom time (Furst, 1967; Furst & Amidon, 1967). According to Amidon and Giammatteo (1967) and Pankratz (1967), teachers who were rated as "superior" lectured for shorter periods of time and gave fewer directions than those who received lower ratings.

3. Pupil talk comprised only one-fifth to one-third of all classroom interaction time (Furst, 1967). It appears that pupil talk declines with advancing grade levels (Furst & Amidon, 1967). Teachers who were rated "superior" allowed more student talk in their classrooms, according to research conducted by Amidon and Giammatteo (1967). However, various studies have indicated that the amount of pupil talk was unrelated to pupil achievement (Fortune, Gage, & Schutes, 1966; Wright & Nuthall, 1970).

Two interrelated aspects of classroom control are discipline and student behavior. Inherent in discipline is the element of dealing with deviant behavior. According to Gnagey (1968), the teacher is responsible for the control of the classroom "by the kinds of rules he makes and enforces in his room" (p. 8). He delineated five types of considerations a teacher might use in judging an action to be deviant:

1. "Moral considerations" are a major influence. Gnagey commented: "Unless a teacher wishes to run the risk of imposing his own ethics upon the children of citizens who also have freedom of belief, he must constantly be looking for a more inclusive standard."

2. "Personal considerations" are those values that are unique to the teacher and may be violated by the student (carelessness, defiance, rudeness).

3. "Legal considerations" are a part of the state or local school law and extra-legal rules made by the administrative personnel of a building (truancy, cutting class, tardiness).

4. "Liability considerations" concern behaviors that are a threat to the student's health and safety (quarreling, bullying, smoking, drinking).

5. "Educational considerations" relate to impeding the learning process (inattention, talking). Cheating, tardiness, and truancy could also be objected to on educational grounds.

A teacher's verbal behavior may influence his/her classroom control. Dadey (1971) studied the relationship between teachers' perceived classroom verbal behavior and frequency of discipline problems. The research involved 30 teachers and 600 students, and resulted in the following statistically significant findings:

1. Students perceived teachers who used more direct influence as having more discipline problems than those who used less direct influence.

2. Teachers who perceived the ideal teacher as using more praise and encouragement experienced more discipline problems than did teachers who saw ideal teachers as using less praise and encouragement.

The subject of the Kounin, Friesen, and Norten (1958) study was how teachers attempt to control deviance in the classroom. The researchers categorized the incidents of deviant behavior according to how the teacher dealt with them: through clarity, firmness ("I mean it"), child treatment intensity (negative, neutral, or positive), and focus misbehavior ("Stop that talking!" "Do these math problems.").

For only 1 out of 30 teachers was there a significant correlation between any aspect of his control technique and the success of the effort. The researchers concluded, however, that "This study does indicate that dimensions of concrete teacher techniques can be delineated that make a difference in how children behave in a classroom (Kounin et al., 1958, p. 12).

Gump (1967) studied the way in which teacher handling of deviant behavior affects the students who observe the discipline, rather than those who are disciplined. He found that when the teacher made it very clear

what he/she expected of a child, the observing children responded with increased conformity and decreased non-conformity. The clarity of the teacher's direction and the firmness of the teacher's technique tended to be related to the students' reactions. Also, roughness in the control technique led to decreased conformity and increased nonconformity; disruptive behavior followed.

Another aspect of classroom control is the use of behavior modification techniques. One such technique is praise. Several studies have demonstrated that teacher praise reduces pupil deviance (Becker, Madsen, Arnold, & Thomas, 1967; O'Leary, Becker, Evan, & Saudargas, 1969; Wasik, Senn, Welch, & Copper, 1969).

Teacher criticism has been found to increase the number of correct pupil responses (Birnbrauer, Wolf, Kidder, & Tague, 1965) as well as pupil task involvement (Bushell, Wrabel, & Michelis, 1968).

Intrinsic tokens (such as points) increase pupil task involvement (Broden, Hall, Dunlap, & Clark, 1970; McKenzie, Clark, Wolf, Kathera, & Benson, 1968). Other researchers have indicated that extrinsic tokens (such as candy) decrease pupil deviance and increase pupil attendance (O'Leary et al., 1969; O'Leary & Becker, 1967).

Evaluation and Reports

One of the greatest concerns of teachers, parents, and pupils is evaluations and reports of pupil progress. According to Wilhelms (1967), the fundamental purposes of evaluation are to: (a) facilitate self-evaluation, (b) encompass all the objectives, (c) facilitate teaching and learning, (d) generate records appropriate to various uses, and (e) facilitate decision making on curriculum and educational policy.

Wrinkle (1947) suggested that marks should fulfill four functions:

1. Administrative functions--marks indicate whether a student passed or failed, graduated or was transferred.
2. Guidance functions--marks identify areas of special ability and/or inability, the advisability of enrolling in certain courses and/or avoiding others.
3. Information functions--marks are the chief means by which students and their parents receive information regarding the students' achievement, progress, and success or failure in school work.
4. Motivation and discipline functions--marks stimulate students toward greater effort in their learning activities. At times, they are used to determine eligibility to participate in school activities, to play on athletic teams, or to earn scholarships (p. 120).

Much has been written and researched about grades and evaluation systems. Yet this subject continues to plague educators, perhaps because they are placed in the position of making judgments of scholastic achievement while being influenced by many other factors, such as peer, parent, and student pressure (Ream, 1970).

Parents seem to be less concerned than educators about the inadequacies of marking and reporting systems. Morris (1952) reported that the majority of parents of fifth and sixth grade pupils preferred letter grades and disapproved of statement-type reports. Yauch (1960) concluded that parents tended to prefer whatever type of evaluation practice was currently employed in their school system. Richardson (1960) pointed out that parents often have unwarranted confidence in the precision with which grades can indicate a child's ability and his probable success in adult life.

Wickersham (1964) indicated that report cards can have important effects on students. Children's feelings about grades and report cards were positively related to their perceptions of themselves and their relationships with school and home. Several children in Wickersham's study expressed strong feelings about grades and report cards, as related to themselves. These children felt pressured with regard to grades when they realized that

the aspirations or expectations set by or for them were not readily achievable.

Cavanaugh (1970) and Ploghoft (1957) investigated two alternatives to the traditional letter-grade report card. Cavanaugh's study revealed that "no grade" report cards brought about positive changes in students' attitudes toward school functions and tended to increase positive attitudes toward self and peers. Also, students demonstrated a more positive feeling about report cards and continued to show progress in academic areas.

Ploghoft investigated using parent-teacher conferences as an alternative to report cards. Even though conventional report cards were retained as a part of the progress report, in most cases teachers and administrators agreed that the conferences were desirable and were probably favored by parents because they promoted better home-school relationships.

Summary

Considered in this chapter was the related literature and research concerning five categories of classroom practices. In the first section, literature related to instructional procedures was explored. Included was a discussion of teachers' use of indirect or direct approaches in the classroom. According to the research

cited, teachers in standard classrooms are generally direct and use little praise, acceptance, or criticism with their pupils. Generally, classrooms are affectively neutral and only criticism appears to be related to pupil outcomes.

The second section of the chapter dealt with group interaction. The data indicated that many factors influence interaction in the classroom. Teachers can encourage or limit interaction by the way they plan their lessons, structure the groups for instruction, or locate the students in the classroom. Open classrooms seemed generally to provide more interaction than closed classrooms.

In the third section research concerned with classroom climate was examined. Studies of teacher use of praise and criticism have provided no clear-cut evidence that either technique produces cognitive or affective growth. Openness has been shown to produce some affective growth, but the case for openness with regard to cognitive growth is not decisive.

The fourth section of the chapter pertained to classroom control. Teachers' directiveness, discipline, and verbal behavior may contribute, in a degree, to teacher control. Also, research concerning the use of behavior modification techniques to control deviant behavior showed

generally positive results in reducing deviance and increasing pupil task involvement, attendance, and number of correct responses.

Research and literature related to classroom evaluation and reports comprised the fifth section of the chapter. The research indicated that students and parents generally perceive grades as powerful forces. Alternative reporting methods, such as no-grade report cards, have failed to replace traditional methods of evaluating and reporting. Researchers have noted that parents may place unwarranted confidence in grades as accurate predictors of their children's success in adult life.

In Chapter III the design of the study is described. Data-collection procedures and the method of reporting results are explained. Also, the reliability coefficients for the Inventory of Classroom Practices, the instrument developed for this study, are reported.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

In this chapter the sample-selection procedure is described, the pilot study is discussed, and the data-collection and analysis techniques are explained.

The Population

The population was comprised of secondary English teachers, their students, and their principals from the greater Grand Rapids and greater Lansing areas in Michigan. The population was ethnically, racially, and socioeconomically mixed. The students' grade levels ranged from ninth through twelfth.

Selection of the Sample

The sample included 935 students, 45 teachers, and 15 principals from 15 high schools located primarily in suburban and marginally rural areas. The enrollments in these schools ranged from approximately 650 to more than 2,100 students.

Three English teachers from each high school were randomly selected. One class of each of the teachers was selected for study, according to availability when the

researcher visited the school site. The only selection criterion applied in choosing a class for study was that it be a general English class.

Construction of the Instrument

The data for the study were obtained by means of a structured Inventory of Classroom Practices, which was developed for this study. The questionnaire contained 42 items related to various classroom practices (see Appendix). These items were developed after studying the related literature and research concerning classroom characteristics. (For example, Wright and Nuthall [1970] examined teacher praise and teacher interaction. Items V.7 and II.1 of the inventory are related to those concerns.) Suggestions concerning instrument items were also obtained from guidance committee members and those who participated in the pilot study.

Three inventory forms were used: Form A--Principal, Form B--Teacher, and Form C--Student. The questions in each form of the inventory were identical, except for minor wording differences that made each form appropriate to the specific group of respondents. The inventories were used to collect quantifiable and comparable information in a uniform manner from all respondents. The data obtained from the completed inventories were

analyzed to determine whether there was congruence in respondents' perceptions concerning teachers' classroom practices.

Items in Group I, "Instructional Procedures," provided data to establish whether teachers were perceived as providing "teacher-centered directness" or "student-centered indirectness."

Items in Group II, "Group Interaction," sought to determine whether the teachers were perceived as promoting "interaction" or "noninteraction" in the classroom.

Items in Group III, "Evaluation and Reports," sought to determine whether teachers were perceived as providing "comprehensive evaluation and reporting" or "limited evaluation and reporting."

Items in Group IV, "Classroom Control," provided data to discover whether the teachers were perceived as providing "teacher-centered directness" or "student-centered indirectness."

Finally, items in Group V, "Classroom Climate," sought to determine whether the teachers were perceived as providing a "positive" or "neutral" classroom climate.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted with teachers, students, and principals from selected high schools in the greater Lansing and greater Grand Rapids areas. Suggestions made

by the respondents concerning clarity and intended meaning of certain items were incorporated into the inventory. The pilot study helped to familiarize the investigator with the actual procedure of administering the instrument and to estimate how long it would take a respondent to complete the inventory.

Administration of the Inventory

The investigator met with each superintendent, or a designated representative, to obtain permission to conduct the study in his/her school district. The purpose of the study was explained and procedural questions answered.

The Inventory of Classroom Practices was administered in the following manner: The investigator personally distributed the questionnaire to each member of the sample. Respondents independently completed the instrument and returned it to the investigator, who kept a record of the number of inventories distributed for completion and the number returned. A 100 percent response was realized.

Method of Reporting Results

The information recorded on each inventory was tabulated on a coding form and keypunched onto an IBM card. An item analysis of each of the items in the inventory was conducted by comparing the item to total-test correlation. "Coefficient alpha" was used to measure internal consistency. Reliability coefficients were reported as well.

After the items were analyzed, an "items to test" correlation was made; only those items that produced the moderate .25 items-to-test correlation were retained. Six items failed to meet this requirement and were eliminated. Items that failed to meet the correlation requirement were deleted, and the internal consistency measure of reliability was then recomputed. The standardized alpha (reliability) of the inventory was generally high. (See Table 1.)

Table 1.--Reliability coefficients for the Inventory of Classroom Practices.

Category	Subjects	# of Items	Standardized Item Alpha (Reliability Coefficient)
Inst. Procedures	Students	10	.84621
Inst. Procedures	Teachers	10	.68525
Inst. Procedures	Principals	10	.89675
Group Interaction	Students	7	.81832
Group Interaction	Teachers	7	.80390
Group Interaction	Principals	7	.81567
Eval. & Reports	Students	6	.75741
Eval. & Reports	Teachers	6	.78800
Eval. & Reports	Principals	6	.87784
Classroom Control	Students	4	.48857
Classroom Control	Teachers	4	.63068
Classroom Control	Principals	4	.54910
Classroom Climate	Students	9	.79742
Classroom Climate	Teachers	9	.88829
Classroom Climate	Principals	9	.90981

A one-way analysis of variance was used to determine differences between and within groups. Each teacher responded to statements in the inventory in terms of the following Likert-type scale (5--always, 4--often, 3--sometimes, 2--rarely, 1--never). A numerical score corresponding to the response (5, 4, 3, 2, 1), multiplied by the number of items included in the individual category scale, resulted in the respondent's total score on each scale. In the same manner, students and principals responded and their scores were tabulated. On the basis of their mean self-perception scores, teachers were grouped as high, average, or low in each category, according to a norm-referenced procedure. Student and principal perceptions of the teachers were grouped in the same manner. The data indicated whether there were significant differences between the teachers' perceptions and those of their students and principals.

Each group's perceptions were plotted to give the reader a pictorial presentation of the data gathered for the study, including some possible trends. These graphs, as well as a discussion of the data gleaned from responses to the research instrument, are presented in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

Introduction

This study was designed to investigate the perceptions of teachers' classroom practices as reported by the teachers, their students, and their principals. To accomplish this objective, the students, principals, and teachers were asked to complete a 42-item Inventory of Classroom Practices.

The subjects for the study were selected from 15 high schools in the greater Lansing and greater Grand Rapids areas. The sample included 45 high school English teachers, 935 students, and 15 principals from those high schools. In total, 995 individuals were involved in the study.

This chapter contains a restatement of the research questions and an analysis of the statistical data pertaining to each question. A summary of the findings concludes the chapter.

Research Questions and Results

Question 1: Is there a difference between teacher and student perceptions of the teachers as being high, average, or low in providing a positive classroom climate?

The one-way analysis of variance showed the F-value to be .3964, which did not exceed the .05 level of significance (Table 2). This indicated there was no statistically significant difference between the teachers' rankings of themselves as high, average, or low in providing a positive classroom climate and the rankings of these teachers by their respective students.

Table 2.--ANOVA source data for providing a positive classroom climate: teachers and students.

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between groups	2	64.9714	32.4857	.3964	.5762
Within groups	<u>30</u>	<u>2458.6649</u>	81.9555		
Total	32	2523.6364			

Question 2: Is there a difference between teacher and principal perceptions of the teacher as being high, average, or low in providing a positive classroom climate?

The one-way analysis of variance showed the F-value to be .0594, which did not exceed the .05 level of significance (Table 3). Hence there was no statistically significant difference between teachers' rankings of themselves as high, average, or low in providing a positive classroom climate and the rankings given these teachers by their respective principals.

Table 3.--ANOVA source data for providing a positive classroom climate: teachers and principals.

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between groups	2	243.4095	121.7048	.0594	.9425
Within groups	<u>30</u>	<u>61509.3177</u>	2052.3106		
Total	32	61752.7273			

Question 3: Is there a difference between teacher and student perceptions of the teacher as being high, average, or low in providing student-centered indirect instruction?

As shown in Table 4, the one-way analysis of variance showed that the F value of 5.2898 did exceed the .05 level of significance. Therefore, statistically significant results occurred, indicating there was a lack of congruence between students' and teachers' perceptions in this category. Teachers who ranked themselves as low and average in providing a student-centered indirect approach were ranked differently by their students. The teachers who ranked themselves as high in this area were ranked very differently by their students.

Question 4: Is there a difference between teacher and principal perceptions of the teacher as being high, average, or low in providing student-centered indirect instruction?

The one-way analysis of variance showed that the F-value was 1.8172, which did not exceed the .05 level of

significance (Table 5). Hence there was no statistically significant difference between teachers' rankings of themselves as high, average, or low in providing student-centered indirect instruction and their respective principals' rankings of them in this area.

Table 4.--ANOVA source data for providing a student-centered indirect approach (instructional procedures): teachers and students.

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between groups	2	172.1341	86.0670	5.2898	.0108
Within groups	<u>30</u>	<u>488.1083</u>	16.2703		
Total	32	660.2424			

<u>Subset 1</u>	<u>Subset 2</u>	
	<u>Group 2</u>	<u>Group 1</u>
Group mean	3.3750	4.333

	<u>Group 3</u>
Group mean	8.900

Table 5.--ANOVA source data for providing a student-centered indirect approach (instructional procedures): teachers and principals.

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between groups	2	182.6939	91.3470	1.8172	.1799
Within groups	<u>30</u>	<u>1508.0333</u>	50.2678		
Total	32	1690.7273			

Items pertaining to classroom control were also used to answer Research Questions 3 and 4. Neither group, students nor principals, showed significantly different responses than teachers in this area (Tables 6 and 7).

Table 6.--ANOVA source data for providing a student-centered indirect approach (classroom control): teachers and students.

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between groups	2	54.1026	27.0513	2.5328	.0989
Within groups	<u>26</u>	<u>277.6905</u>	10.6804		
Total	28	331.7931			

Table 7.--ANOVA source data for providing a student-centered indirect approach (classroom control): teachers and principals.

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between groups	2	20.2522	10.1261	2.3415	.1161
Within groups	<u>26</u>	<u>112.4375</u>	4.3245		
Total	28	132.6897			

Question 5: Is there a difference between student and teacher perceptions of the teacher as being high, average, or low in promoting group interaction in the classroom?

The one-way analysis of variance showed the F-value to be .9907, which did not exceed the .05 level of significance (Table 8). Therefore, there was no statistically significant difference between teachers' rankings of themselves as high, average, or low in promoting group interaction in the classroom and the rankings given these teachers by their respective students.

Table 8.--ANOVA source data for promoting group interaction: teachers and students.

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between groups	2	53.0114	26.5057	.9907	.3831
Within groups	<u>30</u>	<u>802.6250</u>	26.9542		
Total	32	855.6364			

Question 6: Is there a difference between teacher and principal perceptions of the teachers as being high, average, or low in promoting group interaction in the classroom?

The one-way analysis of variance showed that the F-value of .6452 did not exceed the .05 level of significance. This means there was no statistically significant difference between teachers' rankings of themselves as high, average, or low in promoting group interaction in the classroom and their respective principals' rankings of them in this area.

Table 9.--ANOVA source data for providing group interaction:
teachers and principals.

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between groups	2	18.7027	9.3513	.6452	.5317
Within groups	<u>30</u>	<u>434.8125</u>	14.4937		
Total	32	453.5152			

Question 7: Is there a difference between teacher and student perceptions of the teacher as being high, average, or low in providing comprehensive evaluating procedures?

The one-way analysis of variance showed the F-value to be 6.5194 (Table 10), denoting a statistically significant difference at the .05 level. The difference between the teachers' and students' rankings was least in the average and high groups. These two groups were significantly different from each other and from the low group, which was most different from the other two groups.

Question 8: Is there a difference between teacher and principal perceptions of the teachers as being high, average, or low in providing comprehensive evaluation procedures?

As shown in Table 11, the one-way analysis of variance showed the F-value to be 3.9005; this was a statistically significant difference at the .05 level. The discrepancy between the teachers' and principals' rankings was least in the high and average groups, and these

groups were not significantly different from one another. Both of these groups, however, were significantly different from the low group. (See Table 11.)

Table 10.--ANOVA source data for providing comprehensive evaluation and reports: teachers and students.

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between groups	2	93.9738	46.9869	6.5194	.0038
Within groups	<u>36</u>	<u>259.4621</u>	<u>7.2073</u>		
Total	38	353.4359			
<u>Subset 1</u>				<u>Subset 2</u>	
	<u>Group 2</u>	<u>Group 3</u>			<u>Group 1</u>
Group mean	1.8000	4.0690			7.8000

Table 11.--ANOVA source data for providing comprehensive evaluation and reports: teachers and principals.

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between groups	2	173.3966	86.6983	3.9005	.0293
Within groups	<u>36</u>	<u>800.1931</u>	<u>22.2276</u>		
Total	38	973.5897			
<u>Subset 1</u>				<u>Subset 2</u>	
	<u>Group 3</u>	<u>Group 2</u>			<u>Group 1</u>
Group mean	3.2759	3.4000			9.6000

The data may also be presented pictorially, through the use of plots. The figures that follow represent the results reported above. Only data that are statistically significant may be considered important to the study.

To interpret the plots, the reader should understand the following use of symbols:

1. The diagonal line represents the teachers' perceptions of their own classroom practices.
2. The \triangle 's represent the principals' perceptions of the teachers' practices.
3. The \square 's represent the students' perceptions of the teachers' practices.

The \triangle 's and \square 's that fall above or below the diagonal line represent the congruence of student and principal perceptions with those of the teachers.

Figure 1 depicts teachers' perceptions of themselves compared to students' and principals' perceptions of them in regard to providing a positive classroom climate. The students ranked teachers higher in this category than the teachers ranked themselves. The principals' perceptions were mixed. About half ranked the teachers higher and half lower; a few agreed with the teachers' own rankings.

Figure 2 pertains to student-centered indirect instruction (instructional procedures). Most of the

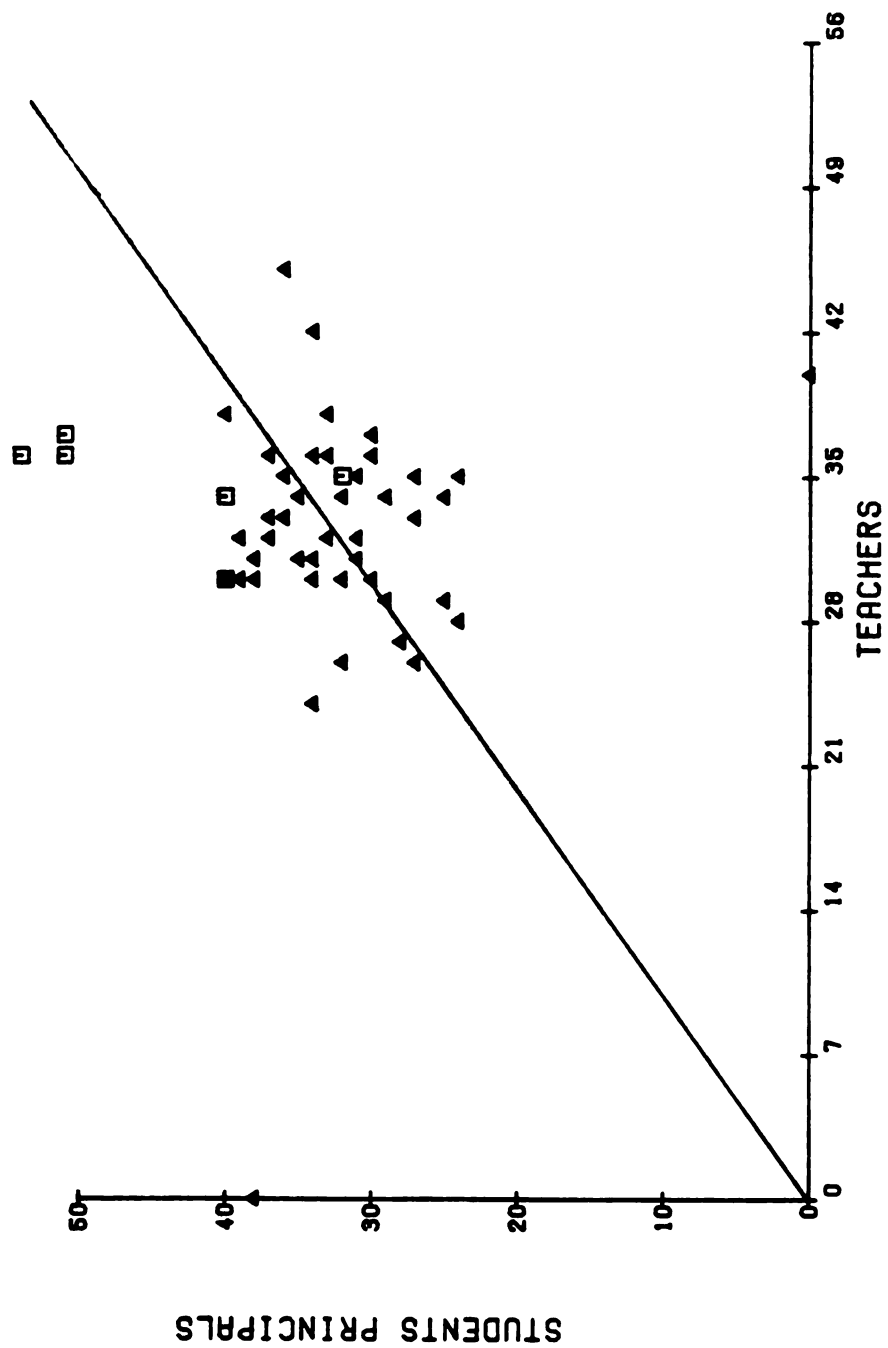


Figure 1.--Congruence of teacher, student, and principal perceptions: classroom climate.

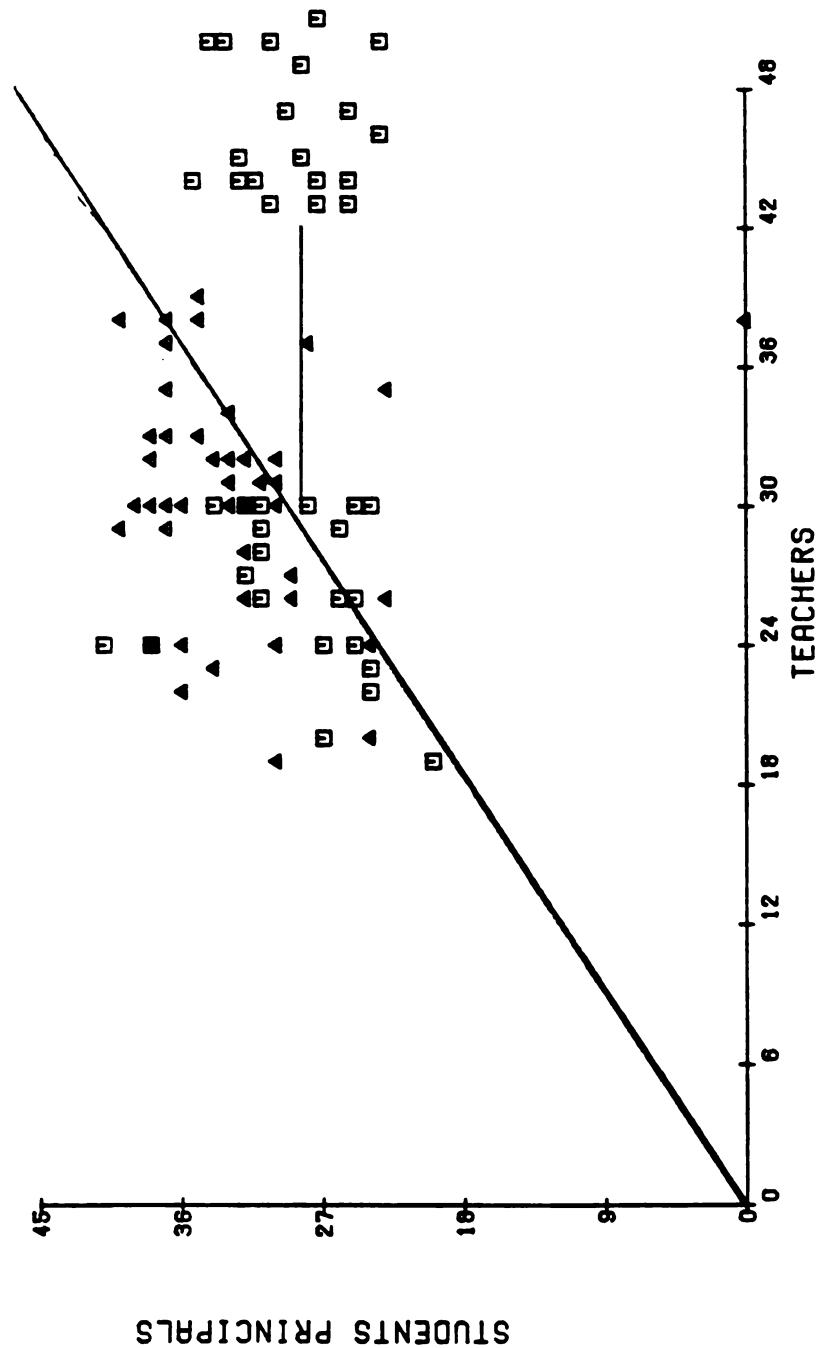


Figure 2.--Congruence of teacher, student, and principal perceptions: student-centered indirect instruction (instructional procedures).

students ranked their teachers lower than the teachers ranked themselves, whereas most principals ranked the teachers higher than the teachers ranked themselves. Statistically significant data in this category related to students' perceptions.

Figure 3 represents rankings in the category of providing student-centered indirect instruction (classroom control). Students' rankings of teachers were generally mixed, as compared to teachers' rankings of themselves; almost equal numbers of students ranked teachers higher, lower, or the same as the teachers ranked themselves. Principals' rankings were also mixed, with a greater percentage of them ranking teachers higher than the teachers ranked themselves.

Illustrated in Figure 4 are the teachers' perceptions of themselves and students' and principals' perceptions of the teachers in promoting group interaction in the classroom. Students' rankings of teachers were generally mixed, as compared to teachers' rankings of themselves; about the same number of students ranked teachers higher, lower, or the same as teachers ranked themselves. Principals again ranked teachers higher than the teachers ranked themselves.

Figure 5 represents the teachers' perceptions of themselves and students' and principals' perceptions of

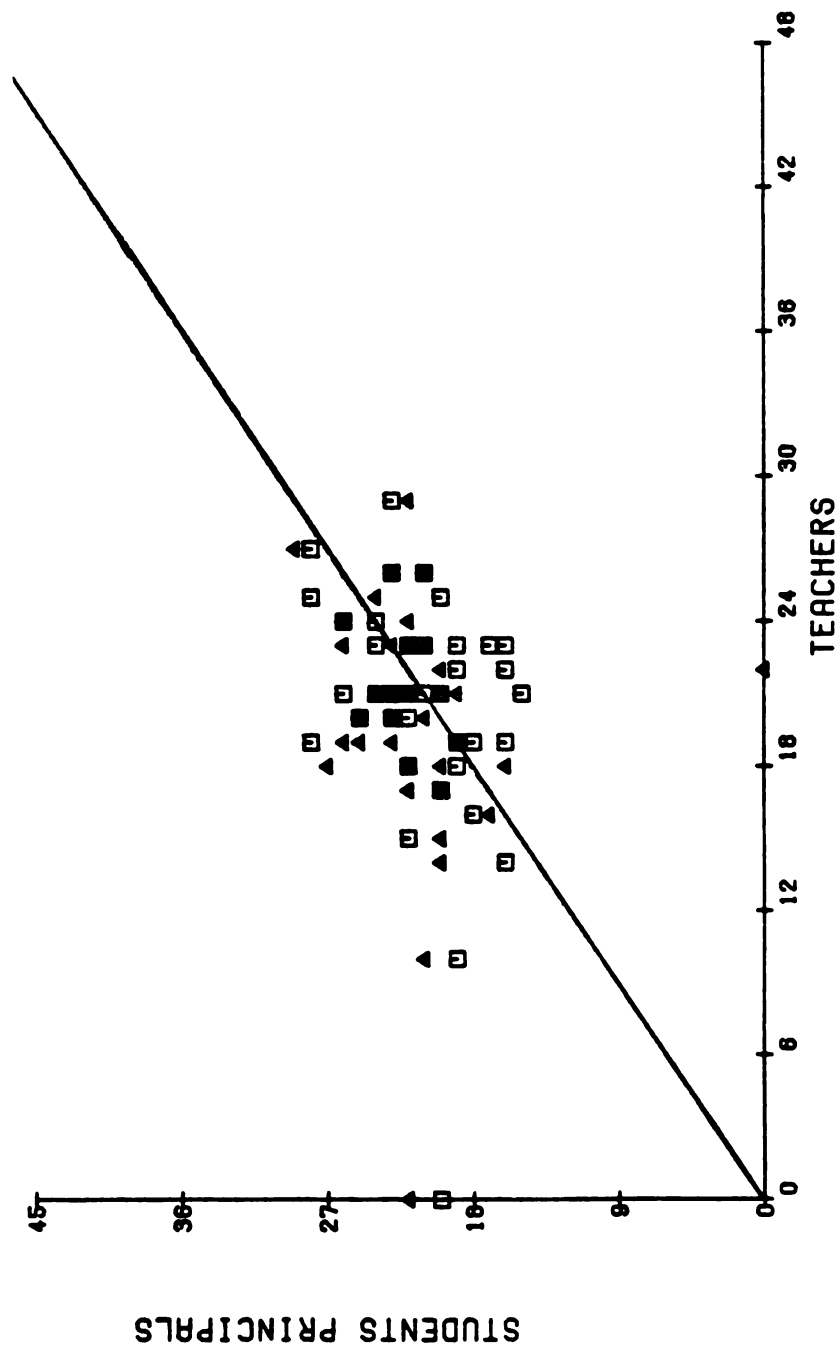


Figure 3.--Congruence of teacher, student, and principal perceptions: student-centered indirect instruction (classroom control).

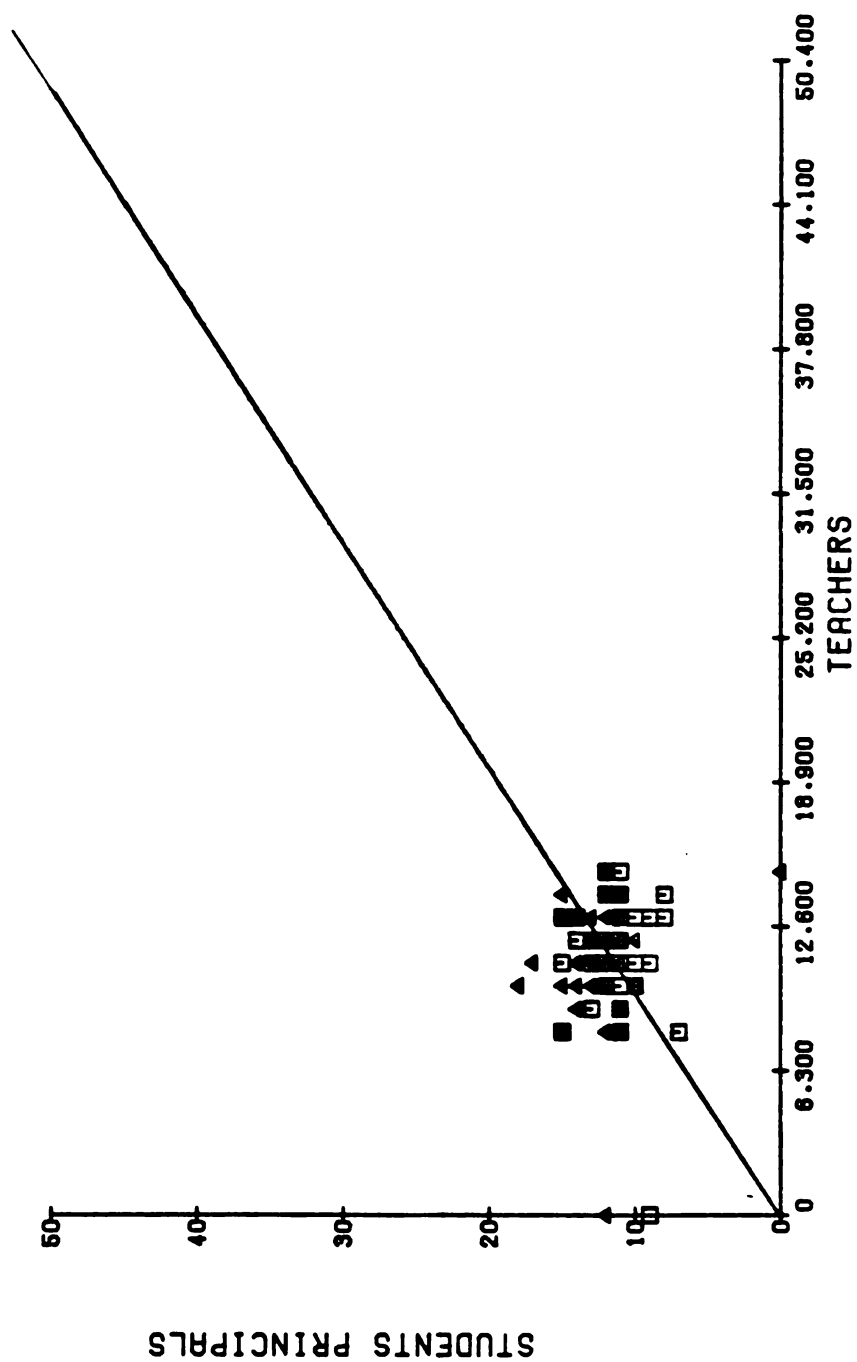


Figure 4--Congruence of teacher, student, and principal perceptions: group interaction.

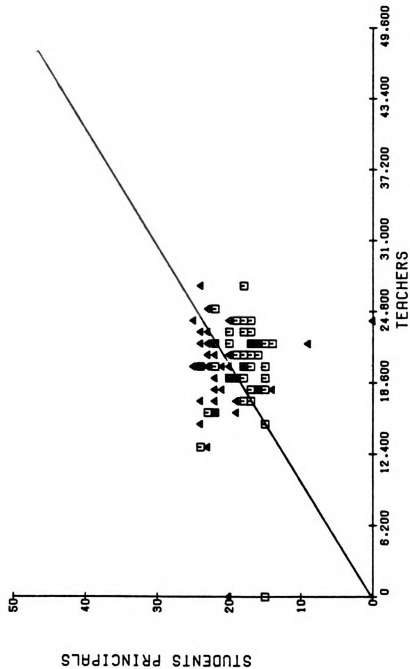


Figure 5.--Congruence of teacher, student, and principal perceptions: evaluation and reports.

the teachers in regard to providing comprehensive evaluation and reports. In general, students ranked teachers lower than teachers ranked themselves, whereas principals ranked the teachers higher than the teachers ranked themselves. Statistically significant data in this category related to both principals' and students' perceptions.

Summary

Data obtained from students, teachers, and principals regarding their perceptions of teachers' classroom practices generally indicated a lack of statistically significant differences among these perceptions. However, there were some exceptions. Students' perceptions were different from those of teachers in the student-centered indirect instruction and evaluation and reports categories. Only the category evaluation and reports showed a statistically significant difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions.

Five plots provided a pictorial representation of all the data obtained from the Inventory. Perceptions of students and principals within all categories were mixed. Students ranked teachers lower, about the same as, or higher than the teachers ranked themselves, depending on the category being considered. Generally, teachers' rankings of their own classroom practices were higher than

their students' rankings. Principals most often ranked teachers higher than the teachers ranked themselves.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate perceptions of teachers' classroom practices as reported by the teachers themselves, their students, and their principals. These perceptions were elicited by means of a structured inventory developed for the study. Responses to the instrument were analyzed using a one-way analysis of variance. The researcher compared the students' and principals' perceptions of the teachers with the teachers' perceptions of themselves in five major categories of classroom practices: classroom climate, instructional procedures, classroom control, group interaction, and evaluation and reports.

Major Results and Discussion

Classroom Climate (Teachers and Students)

Research Question 1: There was no statistically significant difference between teacher and student perceptions of the teacher as being high, average, or low in providing a positive classroom climate. Students

tended to rank the teachers higher than the teachers ranked themselves.

There may be explanations for the congruence of teacher and student perceptions concerning classroom climate. One might be the objectivity of items presented for consideration in the Inventory. Questions were definitive, and the students could have used a simple recall to assess whether teachers had exhibited certain behaviors.

Another explanation may be that teachers structure their classrooms in a variety of ways that may affect classroom climate, i.e., method of presentation, furniture arrangement, control and management. The students may have perceived those structures. Necessarily, perceptions of teachers who organized the classrooms (and who, as a result, may have produced the kind of climate present) and perceptions of the students experiencing these structures may have been congruent.

Classroom Climate (Teachers and Principals)

Research Question 2: There was no statistically significant difference between teacher and principal perceptions of the teacher as being high, average, or low in providing a positive classroom climate. Principals' rankings tended to be mixed, with about half ranking teachers higher than they ranked themselves, about half

ranking the teachers lower than the teachers ranked themselves, and a few agreeing with the teachers' own rankings.

There might be a number of reasons why teachers' and principals' perceptions concerning classroom climate were congruent. Principals might have had preconceived ideas about the kind of climate that existed in certain classrooms. They might have interacted with teachers outside the classroom in informal conversation, in meetings, or at conferences, and projected that a particular personality type would produce a certain climate in the classroom.

Another explanation for this congruence might be that principals had seen student reactions to teachers' practices, or had felt the atmosphere of the classroom when they made visitations, even though these visits might have been infrequent.

Instructional Procedures (Teachers and Students)

Research Question 3: There was a statistically significant difference between teacher and student perceptions of the teacher as being high, average, or low in providing student-centered indirect instruction. Teachers who ranked themselves as low and average in providing a student-centered indirect approach were ranked differently by their students. The teachers who ranked

themselves as high in this area were ranked very differently by their students.

The data showed that students ranked their teachers lower in this category than the teachers ranked themselves. It appears that teachers saw themselves much differently than did their students in terms of providing student-centered indirect instruction.

Many factors may have caused incongruence of perceptions between teachers and students concerning this category. The high-achieving student might respond "often" or "always" when asked whether the teacher ". . . gives individual help to those who need it." That student may rarely require assistance from the teacher, but almost always has his demands met. The teacher, however, because requests for assistance may be made infrequently by high-achieving students, may respond "rarely" or "never" to a similar question. The converse of the preceding example may also be true. A low-achieving student may require and demand much help from the teacher. Even though a majority of these demands had been met, the effort may not have been enough to satisfy the student. Therefore, responses of "sometimes" or "rarely" may result. On the other hand, the teacher may perceive his many attempts, regardless of the student's success in mastering a concept, as worthy of an "often" or "always" response.

Another example is in the area of audio-visual instructional aids used by the teacher. The responses of

students may have been based on comparisons made within the school. No definition exists about what constitutes using audio-visual aids "often." Therefore, students' perceptions rest only on whether a certain teacher uses such aids more or less than do his other teachers. However, the teacher may base his perceptions on personal comparisons. A response of "often" may really indicate that he is using audio-visual aids more this year than last. The incongruence may be a result of the students' "other-based" comparison and the teachers' self-based comparison. Another reason for an incongruent response may have been that the teachers' personal educational philosophy dictated how often audio-visual aids should be used, and this may have influenced their responses.

Finally, because of the wide variety of subjects taught within an English department, there may have been confusion about some of the questions. For instance, a question like "Does the teacher teach reading skills to those students who need them?" may have been confusing to a student in an advanced literature course, who may have defined reading as a low-level recognition skill rather than as a critical interpretation skill.

Instructional Procedures (Teachers and Principals)

Research Question 4: There was no statistically significant difference between teacher and principal

perceptions of the teacher as being high, average, or low in providing student-centered indirect instruction. Principals tended to rank the teachers higher than the teachers ranked themselves.

There may be valid explanations for why congruence of perceptions occurred between teachers and principals. Principals may have observed some of these teachers' practices in formal and informal visits. The formal visit, usually an evaluation, may have given the principal much insight into the teacher's instructional method. Many of the inventory items are found on teacher-evaluation report forms. Since the normal sequence of events is first to evaluate and then to discuss with the teacher his observations, the principals may have been knowledgeable about such rating procedures and used recall to respond to the items in the inventory.

Additionally, the principal, who normally must approve all purchase orders, may have made a valid judgment of what practices the teacher used, based on the kinds of purchases the teacher made. That is, requisitions for films, filmstrips, cassettes, and individualized workbooks signify one type of practice, whereas consistent requests for class sets of texts may have identified another type of practice.

Group Interaction
(Teachers and Students)

Research Question 5: There was no statistically significant difference between teacher and student perceptions of the teacher as being high, average, or low in providing group classroom interaction. Data indicated that students perceived teachers higher, about the same, or lower than teachers perceived themselves.

It may have been that students observed the classroom organization planned by the teacher and used recall in responding to the inventory items. Hence their views may have been congruent with the teachers' perceptions because of the structure the teacher used in setting up the class.

The educational philosophy of the teachers also might have affected congruency. According to Innes (1973), teachers who have open classroom settings have more group interaction. Students may have used recall in responding to those items dealing with how much interaction was taking place, perhaps in comparison with other classrooms.

Students could have responded by using recall to determine whether "socializing" or "partying" was permitted. The teacher may have been aware of his philosophy in permitting or not permitting such activities and responded accordingly.

Group Interaction
(Teachers and Principals)

Research Question 6: There was no statistically significant difference between teacher and principal perceptions of the teacher as being high, average, or low in providing group interaction in the classroom. In this category principals tended to rank teachers higher than teachers ranked themselves.

Principals' perceptions might have been congruent with teachers' perceptions in this category because of classroom visits. Principals may have observed, not only the structure of the classroom, but the amount of interaction that was occurring. The teacher's educational philosophy might have been reflected in this category as he/she responded to items about socializing or partying and the use of "small group" as opposed to "large group" instruction. This may have tended to make the teacher's responses congruent with those of the observing principal.

Comprehensive Evaluation and
Reports (Teachers and Students)

Research Question 7: There was a statistically significant difference between teacher and student perceptions of the teacher as being high, average, or low in providing comprehensive evaluation and reports. The students ranked the teachers differently than the teachers ranked themselves. Teachers ranking themselves high were

ranked either average or low by their students. Those ranking themselves average were ranked either high or low; teachers who ranked themselves low were ranked high or average by their students.

Many explanations may be offered for why teachers' and students' perceptions in this area were not congruent. Such statements as "The teacher gives me credit for hard work even if I don't always get things right" may have been viewed subjectively by the respondent. The struggling student who worked very hard and had trouble grasping concepts may have viewed the teacher differently than one who worked hard and made good progress.

Also, the item "The teacher is consistent when he marks or grades my work" might not have been ranked objectively. If the teacher was consistent in giving the student poor grades, this may have influenced his response. Students might not have understood the word "consistent," whereas it might have been clear to the teacher. This could also have caused incongruence.

According to the findings, teachers who considered themselves as doing a poor job in providing comprehensive evaluation and reports were ranked much differently by their students. Students might not have understood a comprehensive evaluation program at the high school level if they had never been involved in one.

Another reason for incongruence in evaluation and reports may have had relevance to the intensities of feelings that teacher evaluations and reports produce. Wickersham (1964) indicated that students' feelings about grades were positively related to their perceptions of themselves and their homes. Students might have been influenced by these feelings and responded to the inventory accordingly.

Comprehensive Evaluation and Reports (Teachers and Principals)

Research Question 8: There was a statistically significant difference between teacher and principal perceptions of the teacher as being high, average, or low in providing comprehensive evaluation and reports. The difference between teachers' and principals' rankings was least in the high and average groups, and these groups were not significantly different from one another; both of these groups, however, were significantly different from the low group. Principals generally ranked the teachers higher than the teachers ranked themselves.

Principals may have been guilty of giving blanket approval to teachers in the area of evaluation and reports. They may have visited the classrooms infrequently and seldom examined reporting and evaluation procedures.

Another reason for incongruencies in perceptions may have been that, unless many complaints were directed

toward a teacher's evaluation and reporting practices, the principal might not have concerned himself with this subject and may have had a limited knowledge of it.

Since the data indicated that, in general, principals ranked teachers higher than teachers ranked themselves, principals may have been guilty to giving generous approval of teachers' evaluation practices because they did not know how the teachers performed in this area. Perhaps the teachers were more realistic about their evaluation methods and consequently ranked themselves lower than did the principals.

Conclusions

Within the limitations of the study, the data indicated the perceptions of teachers, students, and principals concerning classroom practices were generally congruent. Statistically significant differences among teachers', students', and principals' perceptions occurred with regard to evaluation and reports. Statistically significant differences between teachers' and students' perceptions occurred in the category instructional procedures. Within these categories principals generally ranked teachers higher than teachers ranked themselves, whereas students had mixed perceptions of their teachers.

Conclusion Regarding Inventories

The Inventory of Classroom Practices may offer teachers a tool for communicating with students and principals regarding perceptions of instructional procedures, classroom climate, group interaction, classroom control, and evaluation and reports. It may provide a way to learn how teachers are perceived with regard to achievement of their goals, especially when followed by discussion with the respondents.

Teachers often experiment with alternative classroom practices. Perhaps using this or similar inventories in a pre- and posttest manner would indicate certain procedures that might be desirable to change. If, in fact, congruence of teacher, student, and principal perceptions is important, use of the inventory may offer the teacher a foundation for creating practices that might result in more congruence of perceptions. Consequently, teachers may become more flexible and willing to attempt different classroom approaches.

Implications for Practice

Following are implications for the future use of the inventory developed for this study or for similar inventories of perceptions.

1. Inventories may offer one way to collect data about existing conditions in classrooms without using an outside evaluator.

2. Inventories may allow teachers to analyze their teaching practices in light of their own goals, determining what seem to be strengths and weaknesses in their approaches.

3. Used in a pre- and posttest manner, inventories may indicate success (or failure) of specific attempts to change teacher practices and may indicate areas it would be desirable to change.

4. Inventories may offer teachers a way to increase awareness of their classroom behavior; with this increased understanding, they may change their perceptions of the kinds of practices they consider desirable or effective.

5. If there is a positive relationship between congruence of perceptions among students, teachers, and principals and cognitive and/or affective growth, these inventories may help teachers focus on discrepancies and so attempt to make them more congruent.

6. Inventories may assist teachers in discovering new approaches to old classroom methods, which might be more suitable for modern situations.

Recommendations for Further Research

The questions explored in this study lead to other related questions in the area of classroom practices. It

is recommended that further research be conducted on the following topics:

1. The relationship between congruence of student and teacher perceptions and affective and/or cognitive growth.
2. The relationship between congruence of teacher and parent perceptions and affective and/or cognitive growth.
3. The relationship between congruence of perceptions regarding English teachers' classroom practices and perceptions regarding classroom practices of teachers in other disciplines (math, science, social studies).
4. The congruence of student and principal perceptions of classroom practices of first-year and tenured teachers.
5. The effect of other variables, such as sex, race, cultural background, training, and experience, on congruence of teachers', students', and principals' perceptions.
6. Principals' and vice-principals' perceptions of teachers' classroom practices.
7. The underlying philosophies of teachers that caused them to initiate and retain practices they employ in the classroom.

It is further recommended that the study be replicated using a similar population, to corroborate the validity of the findings.

APPENDIX

Form A--Principals

Male _____ Female _____

Please respond by putting an (X) in one of the Frequency boxes and an (X) in one of the Preference boxes for each of the following statements:

I. INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES

1. The teacher makes an effort to insure work assignments are understood by each member in the class.
2. The teacher gives individual help to those who need it.
3. The teacher diagnoses and prescribes each student's work.
4. The teacher uses lecture presentations.
5. The teacher uses a question, answer, and discussion approach.
6. The teacher uses a film, filmstrips, tape recordings, overhead projectors, etc.
7. The teacher teaches reading skills to those students who need them.
8. The teacher teaches writing skills to those students who need them.
9. The teacher teaches listening skills to those who need them.
10. The teacher teaches speaking skills to those who need them.
11. The teacher teaches how to interpret literature to those students who have difficulty.
12. The teacher teaches problem-solving techniques.
13. The teacher allows students to help plan school work to be done, how it is to be done, and when it is to be done.
14. The teacher uses instructional games and other such related activities.

[illegible]

1. The teacher encourages interaction between the teacher and the students and other students.
2. The teacher encourages working in small groups.
3. The teacher provides time in class for students to act out different roles so that they can understand others' feelings.
4. The teacher instructs using the class as the group.
5. The teacher has students work by themselves without help from other students.
6. The teacher tries to involve students who find it difficult to participate in classroom activities.
7. The teacher allows time for socializing in the classroom (i.e., parties, informal meetings, etc.)
8. The teacher allows time for discussion of current problems.

1. The teacher provides an opportunity for students to evaluate the teacher.
2. The teacher is consistent when he marks or grades students' work.
3. The teacher writes or says positive things to parents of students he teaches.
4. The teacher gives credit for hard work even if the student doesn't get things right.
5. The teacher lets the students judge their own work.
6. The teacher lets parents know whether their children need help in basic skills, such as reading, writing, and spelling.

Frequency		Preference	
The teacher does these things:		I would like to see this:	
Always		More	Less
Often		Satisfied	
Sometimes			
Rarely			
Never			

Form A, page 3

	Frequency					Preference		
	The teacher does these things:					I would like to see this:		
	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	More	Satisfied	Less
IV. CLASSROOM CONTROL								
1. The teacher allows students to help construct rules of the room such as restroom privileges, eating in the classroom, leaving the room, etc.								
2. When a problem arises, the teacher gets angry at what students do, but likes the students.								
3. The teacher is fair when giving penalties for misbehaving.								
4. The teacher quietly tells students to stop doing things they shouldn't.								
5. The teacher gives awards for good work or behavior (certificates, small trophies, etc.).								
V. CLIMATE								
1. The teacher talks quietly to the class.								
2. The teacher is cheerful.								
3. The teacher likes to joke and laugh with the students.								
4. The teacher allows time for "rapping" about non-school-related topics.								
5. The teacher listens carefully to each of his students when they talk to him.								
6. The teacher uses words of encouragement (i.e., "That's all right," "You're doing fine," "You're special to me," etc.).								
7. The teacher says or writes things like: "I like you," "I think you're great," "You're special to me," etc.								
8. The teacher tries to make the student feel good about something by nodding his head, smiling, or putting his hand on a student's shoulder, etc.								
9. The teacher uses ideas of students.								

Form B--Teachers

Education: B.A./B.S. _____ M.A. _____
Experience: _____ Years. Male _____ Female _____

Please respond by putting an (X) in one of the Frequency boxes and an (X) in one of the Preference boxes for each of the following statements:

1. INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES

1. I try to make sure work assignments are understood by each member of the class.
2. I give individual help to those students who need it.
3. I diagnose and prescribe each student's work.
4. I use lecture presentations.
5. I ask questions to get students to discuss classwork.
6. I use films, filmstrips, tape recorders, and overhead projectors to aid my instruction.
7. I teach reading skills to those students who need them.
8. I teach writing skills to those students who need them.
9. I teach listening skills to those students who need them.
10. I teach speaking skills to those students who need them.
11. I teach how to interpret literature to those students who can't.
12. I teach problem-solving techniques.
13. I allow students to help plan school work to be done, how it is to be done, and when it is to be done.
14. I use instructional games and other related activities.

[illegible]

1. I encourage interaction between the teacher and students and students and other students.

2. I encourage working in small groups.
3. I provide time in class for students to act out different roles so that they can understand others' feelings.
4. I instruct using the class as one group.
5. I let students work by themselves without help from other students.
6. I try to involve students who find it difficult to participate in classroom activities.
7. I allow time for "socializing" in the classroom (i.e., parties, informal meetings, etc.).
8. I allow time for discussion of current problems.

1. I provide an opportunity for students to evaluate the teacher.

2. I am consistent when I mark or grade students' work.
3. I write or say positive things to parents of students I teach.
4. I give credit for hard work even if the student doesn't get things right.
5. I let the students judge their own work.
6. I let parents know whether their children need help in basic skills, such as reading, writing, and spelling.

[illegible]

1. I allow students to help construct rules of the room, such as restroom privileges, eating in the classroom, leaving the classroom.
2. When a problem arises, I get angry at what students do, but I like the students.
3. I am fair when giving penalties for misbehaving.
4. I quietly tell students to stop doing things they shouldn't.
5. I give awards for good work or behavior (certificates, small trophies, etc.).

1. I talk quietly to the class.
2. I am cheerful.
3. I like to joke and laugh with the students.
4. I allow time for "rapping" about non-school-related topics.
5. I listen carefully to my students when they talk to me.
6. I use words of encouragement (i.e., "That's all right," "You're doing fine," "You'll make it," etc.).
7. I say or write things like "I think you're great," "You're special to me," "I like you," etc.
8. I try to make students feel good about something by smiling, nodding my head, putting my hand on a student's shoulder, etc.
9. I use ideas of students.

[illegible]

Form C--Students

	Male	Female
1. Age		
2. Sex		
3. Education		
4. Income		
5. Marital status		
6. Employment		
7. Health		
8. Family size		
9. Religion		
10. Ethnicity		
11. Political affiliation		
12. Social class		
13. Urban/rural		
14. Migration		
15. Crime		
16. Unemployment		
17. Homelessness		
18. Mental health		
19. Substance use		
20. Suicide		
21. Self-harm		
22. Suicide risk		
23. Suicide attempt		
24. Suicide completion		
25. Suicide prevention		
26. Suicide intervention		
27. Suicide support		
28. Suicide awareness		
29. Suicide stigma		
30. Suicide prevention		
31. Suicide intervention		
32. Suicide support		
33. Suicide awareness		
34. Suicide stigma		
35. Suicide prevention		
36. Suicide intervention		
37. Suicide support		
38. Suicide awareness		
39. Suicide stigma		
40. Suicide prevention		
41. Suicide intervention		
42. Suicide support		
43. Suicide awareness		
44. Suicide stigma		
45. Suicide prevention		
46. Suicide intervention		
47. Suicide support		
48. Suicide awareness		
49. Suicide stigma		
50. Suicide prevention		
51. Suicide intervention		
52. Suicide support		
53. Suicide awareness		
54. Suicide stigma		
55. Suicide prevention		
56. Suicide intervention		
57. Suicide support		
58. Suicide awareness		
59. Suicide stigma		
60. Suicide prevention		
61. Suicide intervention		
62. Suicide support		
63. Suicide awareness		
64. Suicide stigma		
65. Suicide prevention		
66. Suicide intervention		
67. Suicide support		
68. Suicide awareness		
69. Suicide stigma		
70. Suicide prevention		
71. Suicide intervention		
72. Suicide support		
73. Suicide awareness		
74. Suicide stigma		
75. Suicide prevention		
76. Suicide intervention		
77. Suicide support		
78. Suicide awareness		
79. Suicide stigma		
80. Suicide prevention		
81. Suicide intervention		
82. Suicide support		
83. Suicide awareness		
84. Suicide stigma		
85. Suicide prevention		
86. Suicide intervention		
87. Suicide support		
88. Suicide awareness		
89. Suicide stigma		
90. Suicide prevention		
91. Suicide intervention		
92. Suicide support		
93. Suicide awareness		
94. Suicide stigma		
95. Suicide prevention		
96. Suicide intervention		
97. Suicide support		
98. Suicide awareness		
99. Suicide stigma		
100. Suicide prevention		

Please respond by putting an (X) in one of the Frequency boxes and an (X) in one of the Preference boxes for each of the following statements:

I. INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES

1. The teacher explains assignments so that I understand what to do.
2. The teacher gives me individual help when I need it.
3. The teacher knows what level of work I am able to do and gives me work that I can do.
4. The teacher lectures.
5. The teacher asks questions and tries to get us to answer and discuss classwork.
6. The teacher uses films, tape recordings, overhead projectors, filmstrips, etc.
7. The teacher teaches reading skills to those students who need them.
8. The teacher teaches writing skills to those students who need them.
9. The teacher teaches listening skills to those students who need them.
10. The teacher teaches speaking skills to those students who need them.
11. The teacher teaches how to interpret literature to those students who have difficulty.
12. The teacher teaches us ways to solve problems.
13. The teacher allows students to help plan school work to be done, how it is to be done, and when it is to be done.
14. The teacher uses games and activities to help us understand our classwork.

Frequency		Preference	
The teacher does these things:		I would like to see this:	
Always		More	Less
Often		Satisfied	
Sometimes			
Rarely			
Never			

1. The teacher tries to talk to us and lets us talk to other students.
2. The teacher lets us work in small groups.
3. The teacher provides time in class when we act out different roles so that we can understand others' feelings.
4. The teacher has us work in class as one big group.
5. The teacher has each of us work by ourselves without help from other students.
6. The teacher tries to involve students who find it difficult to participate in classroom activities.
7. The teacher allows us time for "socializing" in the classroom (i.e., parties, informal meetings, etc.).
8. The teacher allows time for discussion of current problems.

1. The teacher lets us evaluate him.
2. The teacher is consistent when he marks or grades my work.
3. The teacher says or writes positive things to my parents.
4. The teacher gives me credit for hard work even if I don't always get things right.
5. The teacher lets me judge my own work.
6. The teacher lets parents know whether their children need help in basic skills, such as reading, writing, and spelling.

<u>Frequency</u>	The teacher does these things:	<u>Preference</u> I would like to see this:
Always		
Often		
Sometimes		
Rarely		
Never		
		More
		Satisfied
		Less

1. The teacher lets us help make the rules of the room (when we can use the restroom, whether we can eat in the classroom, when we can leave the room, etc.).
2. When a problem arises, the teacher gets angry at what the students do, but he likes the students.
3. The teacher is fair to all in giving penalties for misbehaving.
4. The teacher quietly tells students to stop doing things they shouldn't.
5. The teacher gives us awards for good work or good behavior (certificates, small trophies, etc.).

1. The teacher talks quietly.
2. The teacher is cheerful.
3. The teacher likes to joke and laugh with us.
4. The teacher gives us time to talk about things which have nothing to do with school.
5. The teacher listens to me when I talk to him.
6. The teacher says things like "That's all right," "You're doing fine," "You'll make it," etc.
7. The teacher says or writes things like "I think you're great," "You're special to me," "I like you," etc.
8. The teacher makes me feel good about something by nodding his head, or smiling, putting his hand on my shoulder, etc.
9. The teacher uses my ideas in class.

[illegible]

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