A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP OF
THE MUSIC TEACHER'S SELF-CONCEPT
TO THE STUDENT'S ATTITUDE TOWARD
MUSIC LEARNING

Dissertation for the Degree of Ph. D.
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JAMES R. HUGHES
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James R. Hughes

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_Robert G. Sidnell_
Major professor

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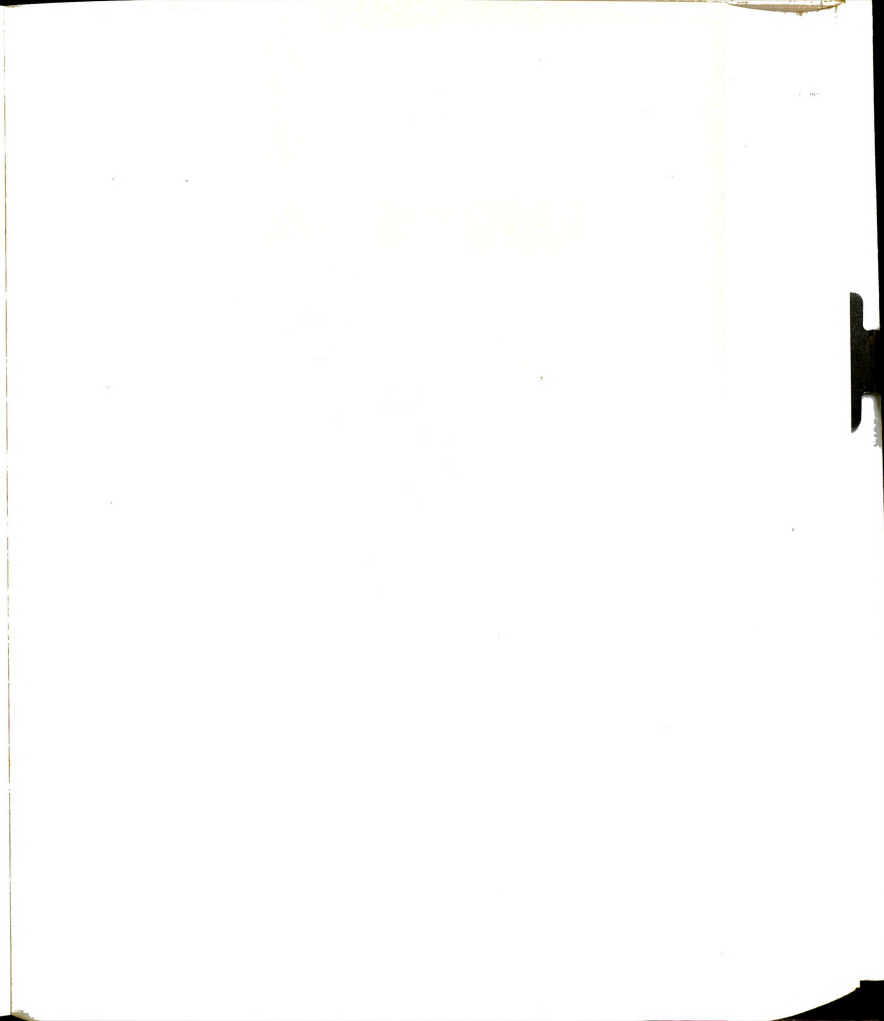
ABSTRACT

A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE MUSIC
TEACHER'S SELF-CONCEPT TO THE STUDENT'S
ATTITUDE TOWARD MUSIC LEARNING

By

James R. Hughes

## Purpose of the Study

This study investigated the relationship between
seventh grade general music teachers' self-concept and
three other classroom variables. The classroom variables
were: (1) student attitude toward the general music class
and teacher; (2) teacher attitude toward the general music
class and the students; and (3) the type of verbal inter-
action occurring in the general music classroom. Other
concerns of the study were the relationships between the
observed variables and the teacher's race and years of
teaching experience.

## Procedure

The present study included a sample of 32 general
music teachers and 739 seventh grade general music stu-
dents from junior high schools and middle schools located
in southern Michigan. The teachers and students comprised
classrooms in which general music was a required subject

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in the seventh grade. The sample was drawn from various socio-economic settings and from both rural, suburban, and urban school systems. The teachers voluntarily participated in the study without pressure from administrators or supervisors.

Self-concept data were obtained from the teachers' scores on the <u>Tennessee Self Concept Scale</u>. Teacher attitudes were determined from scores achieved on the <u>Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory</u>. Student attitudes were derived from totals expressed on the <u>Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory</u>. Verbal interaction data were compiled from one hundred minutes of interaction analysis in each class using the <u>Flanders System of Interaction Analysis</u>.

## Conclusions

Spearman rank-correlation coefficients computed for the study variables supported the following conclusions:

1. Teachers perceiving themselves as adequate and successful in their interpersonal relationships tend to have students who express positive attitudes toward their teachers.

2. Teachers who have integrated self-concepts and a high degree of self-acceptance will tend to have students who express positive attitudes toward that teacher and his class.

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3. Teachers who maintain negative concepts of their body, state of health, physical appearance, skills, and sexuality tend to use questions and student ideas in their verbal interaction to a greater extent than those teachers who hold positive concepts of the same areas.

4. Teachers with a positive self-concept and a low degree of conflict in their personalities will tend to be more empathic, encouraging and praising in their verbal interaction than other teachers.

5. Teachers with a high sense of personal worth and adequacy also lessen their use of direct verbal interaction.

6. Teachers who are very definite and certain in what they say about themselves will tend to criticize and give orders and commands more than less definite teachers.

7. Teachers who criticize themselves severely will tend to criticize others to the same degree.

8. Teachers who tend to perceive themselves positively also achieve a high degree of teacher-initiated student verbal interaction.

9. Teachers with a high degree of self-satisfaction or self-acceptance also experience a decreased use of student-initiated verbal interaction in their classes.

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10. Teachers with more positive attitudes toward students also tend to give more verbal commands and instructions.

11. Teachers whose classes possess positive attitudes exhibit a greater use of verbal empathy and praise, and also use student ideas increasingly. When student attitudes are negative, the teacher tends to employ a high degree of direct verbal interaction.

12. Classes in which students' attitudes are positive also express a high degree of teacher-initiated student verbal interaction.

13. Classes in which student attitudes are negative experience a higher degree of confusion, extraneous conversation, and disorganization.

14. When boys express a negative attitude toward the class and its teacher, the teacher tends to express positive attitudes toward the student.

15. Black teachers express a higher degree of self-satisfaction or self-acceptance than white teachers.

16. White teachers use more indirect verbal interaction than black teachers.

17. Teachers with a greater amount of teaching experience lessen their use of self-criticism.

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18. Teachers with a greater amount of teaching experience tend to have students whose attitudes toward them are more positive.

19. Teachers with a greater amount of teaching experience tend to decrease their use of verbal interaction encompassing orders, directions, and criticism.  Their classes also experience less confusion and disorganization.

20. Teachers with greater amounts of teaching experience also increase the incidence of teacher-initiated student verbal interaction.

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and to my wife, Barbara, whose assistance and forbearance
were indispensible.

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# CHAPTER I

## OVERVIEW OF THE PROBLEM

### Introduction

Two music teachers of equal intelligence, training, and grasp of subject matter may differ in their ability to encourage student motivation and learning; to achieve a democratic classroom atmosphere; and to engender positive student attitudes toward music learning. Part of the difference may be accounted for by the effect the teacher's self-concept has on his students. Does the music teacher's self-concept influence, not only his classroom behavior, but the behavior of his students as well? Does the phenomenon of self-concept effect the teacher's interpersonal relationships, his classroom conduct, his goals, his accomplishments? Is the teacher's self-concept a viable concern of the music educator—or any educator? The teacher's self-concept should be a concern of any teacher training program because of its potential effects upon other classroom variables. These relationships are the major focus of this study.

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## The Problem

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between the music teacher's self-concept and (1) the students' attitude toward music learning, (2) teacher attitude, and (3) the verbal interaction pattern which occurs in the general music classroom.

## Need for Study

After teaching for many years in the public schools, the writer observed that some beginning teachers appeared to be successful in their teaching experiences and others were not; even though they had received similar teacher training. While such unproductive results were defeating for the unsuccessful teacher, they were even more devastating for the students who found themselves in a situation where academic motivation was difficult, and in some cases impossible.

While the students were being cheated in their academic work, the unsuccessful teachers experienced frustration and self-doubt. After investing heavily in teacher training, these unsuccessful teachers were, indeed, discouraged. The course of action for the unsuccessful teachers was either to remain in education as a marginal teacher or to give up, seeking employment in other fields. Either choice could result in a loss of self-esteem for the teacher. The outcome of such a

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[1]Frank
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teacher dilemma would result in a loss for both the students and the teacher.

In time it became obvious that the students' self-concept, as well as the teacher self-concept, was an important classroom variable. Student self-concept was important as it related to academic achievement, to attitude, and to inter-personal relationships. The conviction of the self-concept's importance prompted the author to become involved in several studies in hyponosis which were designed to improve student attitude and self-concept. These activities produced extremely encouraging results which reinforced the confidence in the potential of a positive self-concept as it related to academic achievement, attitude toward learning, and interaction.

Exploiting the psychological possibilities of a learning situation presents exciting new techniques for enhancing motivation toward music learning. Utilizing psychological techniques does not minimize the importance of content; even though, some early research indicates it is overemphasized.[1] In fact, concern for motivation might be less of a problem if content could be taught

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[1]Frank W. Hart, Teachers and Teaching (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1934), pp. 131-32, 250-51; Paul Witty, "An Analysis of the Personality Traits of the Effective Teacher," Journal of Educational Research 40 (May 1947): 662-71; Arthur T. Jersild, "Characteristics of Teachers Who Are 'Liked Best' and 'Disliked Most'," Journal of Experimental Education 9 (December 1940): 139-51.

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in a more self-related manner. No one is highly motivated
to learn about those things which appear to be unrelated
to his personal life.

Students are always motivated, but they may be
motivated toward different ends. Some students are
motivated to disrupt music classes, some miss school,
and some even drop out. Other students are motivated to
listen intently, set music goals, and study diligently
to achieve them. With this apparent diversity in student
motivation, a music teacher's task may appear hopeless.
However, diverse motivational attitudes toward learning
should be a signal to the teacher that he must be con-
stantly aware of himself and his students as unique
individuals who respond to and interpret the world of
music differently.

Research literature is adequately supplied with
studies confirming the dynamic quality of the self-
concept's role in motivation. Combs and Snygg, and
Rogers propose that the maintenance and enhancement of
the self-concept is a primary motive behind all behavior.[2]
If this premise is accepted, there appears, then, to be
only one kind of motivation--a kind which is both personal
and internal, a kind which is present at all times, no

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[2]Arthur W. Combs and D. Snygg, _Individual
Behavior_, 2nd ed. (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers,
1959), chaps. 17, 18; Carl R. Rogers, _Client-centered
Therapy_ (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1965), pp. 483-
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matter the activity. Combs believes "People are always motivated; in fact, they are never unmotivated. They may not be motivated to do what we would prefer they do, but it can never be truly stated that they are unmotivated."[3] Quoting Combs further, he described the nature of motivation as "An insatiable need for the maintenance and enhancement of the self; not the physical self--but the phenomenal self, of which the individual is aware, his self-concept."[4] The teacher may interpret this phenomenon as a basic internal drive toward self-fulfillment. Such a self-fulfilling drive is usually established before the student arrives at school and should be considered an advantage by the teacher.[5]

Individuals are internally motivated to behave in a manner which is consistent with the way they perceive themselves. Festinger proposes in several sources that dissonance occurs when we act in ways that are inconsistent

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[3]Arthur W. Combs, _Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming_, Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1962), p. 85f.

[4]Arthur W. Combs, "Some Basic Concepts in Perceptual Psychology," paper presented at the American Personnel and Guidance Association Convention, Minneapolis, Minn., April 1965, p. 8.

[5]Donald L. Avila and William W. Purkey, "Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation: A Regrettable Distinction," _Psychology in the Schools_ 3 (July 1966): 206-08.

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with the belief we hold about ourselves.[6]  The manner in which we respond to people, tasks, roles, and environment, then, is consistent with what seems to be consistent with our self-image.  Our self-concept is expressed through our behavior.

When the multiplicity of teacher, student, and self-concept variables are considered, it becomes apparent that there might be no best way of responding to students' music learning needs any more than there is a best way of their achieving those learning needs.  Instead of one single method of teaching and learning, there seem to be many appropriate ways of teaching and learning.  Whatever the appropriate method may be, it would seem to depend on the teacher, the student, and especially the current environment.  Research suggests that a specific methodology will not always be successful.  Existing data[7] confirm that methods which are more democratic than authoritarian; which provide for adaptation to individual differences; encourage student initiative; urge individual and group participation; and stimulate "self" involvement

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[6]Leon Festinger, A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance (New York:  Harper & Row, Publishers, 1962), pp. 3-31; Festinger, "Cognitive Dissonance," Scientific American 207 (October 1962):  93-107.

[7]Ned A. Flanders, Teacher Influence, Pupil Attitudes and Achievement:  Studies in Interaction Analysis, Final Report, Cooperative Research Project No. 397 (Minneapolis, Minn.:  University of Minnesota Press, 1960).

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will probably achieve positive results in both student attitude and achievement. In order to encourage methods of this type, a flexible, totally dedicated teacher with a capability of planning around people as well as ideas is needed.

Flexible, total music teaching is ultimately an existential process. A process which reflects the personality, outlook, ideals, and background of the teacher, who may claim objectivity, but in reality exhibits the subjectivity of his work and thinking. A good music teacher not only knows his subject, he radiates and communicates a zest which goes far beyond the content. The teacher possessing the most knowledge is not necessarily the most successful with students in terms of motivation and music learning. Instead, it may be found to be the teacher who is so involved with his work that he fills students with the kind of zest for music learning that travels far beyond the classroom and enables students to become their own best teachers.

Assuming that the teacher variables just mentioned have a determining influence on the effectiveness of any music teacher, it would seem that teacher training programs might well reexamine the direction of their curricula. Should the music teacher's training be aimed at content and performance alone? The teacher training programs at most institutions emphasize academic areas

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and neglect the teacher/student interpersonal relation-
ships which research indicates may be of greater or equal
importance in student attitude and achievement.

Critics of personality training suggest that this
is an area that cannot be altered successfully or that it
is not the domain of the training institution. Remarks
such as these completely disregard the work of Carl
Rogers and others who are deeply committed to personality
and self-concept modification. Other critics believe
that changes in teacher personality will occur only after
the person assumes his classroom duties. This type of
rationale supports an on-the-job training program in
interpersonal relationships, a rationale which might be
applied to other aspects of teacher training. Experience,
however, has shown this concept to be inefficient; might
it not also be inefficient when considering personality
training? A recent study indicated that most teachers
and student teachers were well prepared academically,
but poorly trained in the effective use of teacher-student
interactions.[8] The study further stated that half the
teacher trainees possessed personalities ill-suited for
teaching. When consideration is given to the effect
this would have on student approach-avoidance behaviors

[8]Louis M. Heil, Modifying Behaviors (Self-Concept)
of Certain Prospective Teachers (Brooklyn, N.Y.: Brooklyn
College, 1962).

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toward music learning and the effect teacher personality
would have on student personality, self-concept, attitude
or achievement, it presents a rather bleak picture of
general music classrooms.

Recognizing the less than adequate interpersonal
relationships that now appear in most classrooms, this
study is addressing itself to a specific aspect of this
situation. Scientific studies have explored the relation-
ships between student self-concept and achievement;
attitude and achievement; teacher attitude and achievement
in academic classrooms. This research will determine the
correlation between these variables in classrooms dedi-
cated to aesthetic education--music classrooms. At this
writing, no correlational studies in music classrooms
involving the variables of teacher self-concept, teacher
attitude, student attitude, and verbal interaction have
been found. The results from this study, then, will be
unique in the literature of music education. These data
will, hopefully, serve as a guide for future studies and
also as a basis for restructuring teacher training for
future music teachers and for in-service programs.

### Questions To Be Answered

What relationship exists between the teacher's
self-concept and the teacher's success in terms of stu-
dent attitude? There may be a significant relationship
between the teacher's success and the phenomenon of

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self-concept.  This study will show the degree of that relationship, but will not attempt to predict or infer single causal relationships.

The writer believes that individuals possessing a negative self-concept perform in a manner which is consistent with their negative and defeating beliefs about themselves.  As a result of this consistency, success or full realization of the human potential is hampered.[9] Such success may be measured in terms of achieving a positive student attitude toward music learning, establishing a democratic classroom atmosphere which stimulates the student mind, or achieving an indirect verbal interaction pattern in the classroom.  A fear of success, then, would be consistent with a negative self-concept.

Some individuals avoid finding out more about themselves for fear of having to give up a self-concept with which they have grown comfortable.  Success may demand a more thorough knowledge of self which may result in personality changes.  Most people have an inclination to resist personal change, but the resistance is even stronger for an individual who cannot visualize a changed behavior with his current concept of self.  Individuals with a negative self-image are hesitant to find out more

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[9]Prescott Lecky, Self-Consistency:  A Theory of Personality (New York:  Island Press, 1945).

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Maturity implies many things. It may indicate a certain degree of independence, a capacity for self-discipline, a certainty about goals and values, and a motivation toward some level of achievement. Greater maturity means greater responsibility and for people with a negative self-concept this is frightening.

Fear of success, fear of moving on to higher levels of personal realization are maintained primarily because the fearful doubt their ability to sustain a high level of performance if it is achieved. Fear of success, fear of greater maturity, and fear of failure are very much related. The more successful the individual, the more people expect of him. Consequently, the greater the expectancy, the greater the chance of failure. For many there is just too great a risk in becoming competent, for then, much is expected. This writer believes many music teachers possess this sense of fear due to their poor self-image, and that they find refuge in being neither too far ahead nor too far behind their peers.

Maslow suggests that although we all have an impulse to improve ourselves, to actualize more of our potentialities, and proceed toward fulfillment, many stop short of developing their fullest potential because

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of what he calls a "fear of one's own greatness" or the
"evasion of one's destiny" or the "running away from
one's best talents."[10]    He states further that:

> Not only are we ambivalent about our own highest
> possibilities, we are also in perpetual . . . con-
> flict and ambivalence over these same possibilities
> in other people, and in human nature in general.
> Certainly we love and admire good men, saints--
> honest, virtuous, clean men.  But could anybody who
> has looked into the depths of human nature fail
> to be aware of our mixed and often hostile feelings
> toward saintly men?  Or toward very beautiful women
> or men?  Or toward great creators?  Or toward our
> intellectual geniuses? . . . We surely love and
> admire all the persons who have incarnated the
> true, the good, the beautiful, the just, the per-
> fect, the ultimately successful.  And yet they also
> make us uneasy, anxious, confused, perhaps a little
> jealous or envious, a little inferior, clumsy.  They
> usually make us lose our aplomb, our self-possession
> and self-regard.[11]

Fear of maturity, fear of success, and fear of self-
actualization resulting from self-doubts are under-
standable feelings, but these same feelings are the ones
that eventually lead to self-defeat.

        Once our feelings have imprinted the blueprint
of our capabilities on our mind it is difficult to change
that image.  This writer believes that a consistent nega-
tive self-image guides many music educators into a pat-
tern of unrealized potential which results in uninspiring
classroom performance and in music students that are

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[10]Abraham H. Maslow, "Neurosis as a Failure of
Personal Growth," _Humanitas_ 3 (Fall 1967):  153-69.

[11]Ibid., p. 164.

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bored at an early age. This rationale, then, is the basis for the questions to be answered in this research.

Other questions to be answered and relationships to be analyzed: What relationship exists between the teacher's self-concept and the teacher's success in terms of verbal interaction? What relationship exists between the teacher's self-concept and the teacher's success in terms of verbal interaction? What relationship exists between the teacher's self-concept and the teacher's attitude toward his class? What relationship exists between the teacher's self-concept and his length of teaching experience? What relationship exists between the teacher's self-concept and his race?

## Hypotheses

The study was designed to test twenty-one hypotheses. These are:

Hypothesis I:

There will be a significant correlation between the teacher's total self-image score (P+N Score) as measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and the students' positive attitude score as measured by the Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory.

Hypothesis II:

There will be a significant correlation between the teachers' total self-image score (P+N Score) as measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and the teacher's total indirect verbal interaction as determined by the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis.

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Hypothesis III:

There will be a significant correlation between the
teacher's total self-image score (P+N Score) as
measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and
the teacher's total direct verbal interaction as
determined by the Flanders System of Interaction
Analysis.

Hypothesis IV:

There will be a significant correlation between the
teacher's total self-image score (P+N Score) as
measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and
the total student verbal interaction as determined
by the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis.

Hypothesis V:

There will be a significant correlation between the
teacher's total self-image score (P+N Score) as
measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and
Category 10 of the Flanders System of Interaction
Analysis.

Hypothesis VI:

There will be a significant correlation between the
teacher's total self-image score (P+N Score) as
measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and the
teacher's attitude score of the Minnesota Teacher
Attitude Inventory.

Hypothesis VII:

There will be a significant correlation between the
teacher's Subscale scores of the Tennessee Self Con-
cept Scale and the students' attitude score as
measured by the Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory.

Hypothesis VIII:

There will be a significant correlation between the
teacher's Subscale scores of the Tennessee Self
Concept Scale and the teacher's attitude score of
the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

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Hypothesis IX:

There will be a significant correlation between the
teacher's Subscale scores of the Tennessee Self Con-
cept Scale and the teacher's total indirect verbal
interaction as determined by the Flanders System of
Interaction Analysis.


Hypothesis X:

There will be a significant correlation between the
teacher's Subscale scores of the Tennessee Self Con-
cept Scale and the teacher's total direct verbal
interaction as determined by the Flanders System of
Interaction Analysis.


Hypothesis XI:

There will be a significant correlation between the
teacher's Subscale scores of the Tennessee Self Con-
cept Scale and the total student verbal interaction
as determined by the Flanders System of Interaction
Analysis.


Hypothesis XII:

There will be a significant correlation between the
teacher's Subscale scores of the Tennessee Self Con-
cept Scale and Category 10 of the Flanders System of
Interaction Analysis.


Hypothesis XIII:

There will be a significant correlation between the
teacher's total positive score of the Minnesota
Teacher Attitude Inventory and the students' total
positive score of the Minnesota Student Attitude
Inventory.


Hypothesis XIV:

There will be a significant correlation between the
teacher's total positive attitude score of the
Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory and the teacher's
total indirect verbal interaction as determined by
the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis.

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Hypothesis XV:

There will be a significant correlation between the
teacher's total positive attitude score of the
Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory and the teacher's
total direct verbal interaction as determined by the
Flanders System of Interaction Analysis.

Hypothesis XVI:

There will be a significant correlation between the
teacher's total positive attitude score of the
Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory and the total
student verbal interaction as determined by the
Flanders System of Interaction Analysis.

Hypothesis XVII:

There will be a significant correlation between the
teacher's total positive attitude score of the
Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory and the Category
10 total of the Flanders System of Interaction
Analysis.

Hypothesis XVIII:

There will be a significant correlation between the
students' total positive attitude score of the
Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory and the
teacher's total indirect verbal interaction as
determined by the Flanders System of Interaction
Analysis.

Hypothesis XIX:

There will be a significant correlation between the
students' total positive attitude score of the
Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory and the teacher's
total direct verbal interaction as determined by the
Flanders System of Interaction Analysis.

Hypothesis XX:

There will be a significant correlation between the
students' total positive attitude score of the
Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory and the total
student verbal interaction as determined by the
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Hypothesis XXI:

There will be a significant correlation between the students' total positive attitude score of the <u>Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory</u> and the Category 10 total of the <u>Flanders System of Interaction Analysis</u>.

<div align="center">Definition of Terms</div>

Terms used in the <u>Tennessee Self Concept Scale</u> need to be clearly defined as they are used in that instrument and in the present study.

<u>Identity</u>.--The individual describes what he is as he sees himself.

<u>Self-Satisfaction</u>.--An individual describes how he feels about the self he sees.

<u>Physical Self</u>.--The individual presents his view of his body, his state of health, his physical appearance.

<u>Moral-Ethical Self</u>.--The individual describes the self from a moral-ethical frame of reference--moral worth, relationship to God, feelings of being a "good" or "bad" person, and satisfaction with one's religion or lack of it.

<u>Personal Self</u>.--The variable reflects the individual's sense of personal worth, his feeling of adequacy as a person and his evaluation of his personality apart from his body or his relationships to others.

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<u>Family Self</u>.--This factor reflects one's feelings of adequacy, worth, and value as a family member. It refers to the individual's perception of self in reference to his closest and most immediate circle of associates.

<u>Social Self</u>.--This is another "self as perceived in relation to others" category but pertains to "others" in a more general way. It reflects the person's sense of adequacy and worth in his social interaction with other people in general.

<u>Variability</u>.--This factor provides a simple measure of the amount of variability, or inconsistency, from one area of self-perception to another.

<u>Distribution</u>.--This variable is a summary score of the way one distributes his answers across the five available choices in responding to the items of the Scale. It is also interpreted as a measure of still another aspect of self-perception: certainty about the way one sees himself. High scores indicate that the subject is very definite and certain in what he says about himself while low scores mean just the opposite.

<u>True False Ratio</u>.--This is a measure of response set or response bias, an indication of whether the subject's approach to the task involves any strong tendency to agree or disagree regardless of item content. It can

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also be considered from the framework of self-theory. From this approach high True False Scores indicate the individual is achieving self-definition or self-description by focusing on what he _is_ and is relatively unable to accomplish the same thing by eliminating or rejecting what he is _not_. Scores in the middle ranges would indicate that the subject achieves self-definition by a more balanced employment of both tendencies--affirming what is self and eliminating what is not self.

Net Conflict Scores.--These scores are highly correlated with the True False Score. More directly, however, they measure the extent to which an individual's responses to positive items differ from, or conflict with, his responses to negative items in the same area of self-perception.

Total Conflict Scores.--This factor reflects the total amount of conflict in a subject's self-concept. High scores indicate confusion, contradiction, and general conflict in self-perception. Low scores have the opposite interpretation. The conflict scores are reflections of conflicting responses to positive and negative items within the same area of self-perception. These scores are not to be confused with the variability scores, which reflect fluctuations from one area of self-perception to another.

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## Major Assumptions

This study assumed the following:

1. The instruments and methods employed in this study are adequate and suitable to the purposes of the study. (See Chapter III for information relative to the criterion instruments.)

2. The sample of the study is typical of a group of seventh grade general music students and teachers in public schools in Michigan.

## Limitations

The study examined the different classrooms at progressive periods in time. Some classrooms were visited during the fourth week of school and others all the way through their twelfth week of school. With this number of classrooms and the resulting commuting distances, it was impossible to control this variable within the time span allowed for the study.

Scheduling in some schools prevented a comparable visiting plan in each classroom. Classes in some schools met every day, some met every other day. This could well have influenced student attitude and teacher attitude.

Subject matter being studied in the classrooms, of course, varied from teacher to teacher. This variable could not be controlled in this study. Of related concern was the differing philosophies and objectives reflected by the teachers.

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Student background in music differed considerably in the various schools. This variable could also effect the study.

Physical facilities were extremely varied from the old inner-city schools to modern suburban schools--a condition which may have influenced the results of the study.

Student socio-economic factors, of course, could not be controlled in this study. Integration, busing, and neighborhood schools may well have influenced the study. Studies reviewed in Chapter II expand upon this possibility.

The inventories used in the study obtained data through self-reporting--a technique some researchers question. Through his observations, the writer believed the results were valid and the reliability level was found to be quite high.

A limitation of the interaction analysis was the use of only one observer even though the reliability of the observer was found to be acceptable. Within the confines of the study and the resources of the researcher, the use of a team of observers was not feasible. Even though an observer will generally fluctuate within a small range of reliability, the use of one observer is a limitation. An observational situation has the potential for limitation. Efforts were taken to avoid such limitations, but not all subjects react equally under observation. An observer would have difficulty predicting normal

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classroom behavior, however, the student-subjects seemed to react less than their teachers to this observer's presence.

## Procedure

1. A review of the literature was conducted in the areas of self-concept and specifically teacher self-concept, teacher attitude as well as student attitude, and verbal interaction and its analysis.

2. Standardized instruments for measuring the variables were examined, and two were selected-- one to measure the teacher's attitude toward teaching, and the other to measure the teacher's self-concept.

3. Specialized instruments were selected to measure the student's attitude toward the class and verbal interaction occurring within the class.

4. Following training and field experience in the use of interaction analysis, the researcher was checked for reliability until an acceptable level was reached.

5. The teacher population was selected in the following manner: A random telephone canvas was made of the junior high schools and middle

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schools in the Southern half of lower Michigan to determine if the school offered a required course in seventh grade general music. If the school required music in the seventh grade, the teacher was contacted by telephone during which time the study was briefly discussed and an appointment for a personal visit was arranged. During the personal visit, the study was discussed in greater detail and the teacher was invited to participate. All the teachers visited agreed to participate except one. The lone dissenter was advised to decline because the building principal feared parent repercussions as a result of the study. Visiting dates and times were scheduled during the personal visit.

6.  The researcher discussed the study in detail with each building principal assuring that the purposes of the study were completely understood. During this visit, permission was obtained from the principal before proceeding with the study in his building.

7.  The finalized battery of inventories was administered to the study sample in cooperating seventh grade general music classes of thirty-two public schools. During the data-gathering period

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which began the first week in October 1973 and concluded with the mid-winter break in December 1973, the writer visited each classroom during four consecutive class periods. The researcher conducted a verbal interaction analysis for twenty-five minutes during each class period which resulted in two thousand analyses for each classroom. The teacher inventories-- Tennessee Self Concept Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory--were presented to the thirty-two teachers during the first visit so they would have adequate release time to complete the instruments. The Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory was administered to the 739 students by the writer during a portion of the final class visit.

8. The resulting data were tabulated, analyzed, and interpreted.

9. Detailed results of each inventory and the verbal interaction analysis were returned to each teacher participating in the study.

10. Conclusions and recommendations were drawn.

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

## Introduction

There is a probability that some of our more
introspective ancestors, while circled around a campfire
in a remote cave, devoted a portion of their time thinking
about their fears, their desires, and how they perceived
themselves. During this early period it is conceivable
that man became interested in his nonphysical, psycho-
logical self. With the coming of written history, early
scribes recorded their awareness of self in terms such
as spirit, psyche, and soul. Theologians and philosophers
of the Middle Ages developed further the concept of soul
by stressing its immortality and superiority to the body
in which it dwelled.

A highlight in man's concern with his nonphysical
being came in 1644, when the French mathematician and
philosopher René Descartes produced his Principles of
Philosophy.[1] Descartes theorized that doubt was the

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[1]René Descartes, Principles of Philosophy: A
Discourse on Method (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.,
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main tool of disciplined inquiry, and yet he was unable to doubt that he doubted. He maintained that if he doubted, he was thinking, and consequently, he must exist. Other seventeenth century philosophers such as Spinoza, Locke, Hume, Berkeley, and Leibnitz contributed their ideas about man's nonphysical dimensions. Writers of the period used terms such as mind, soul, psyche, and self interchangeably with little concern for differential meanings or related scientific study. Uncertainty and confusion with regard to the concept of self extended into the present century. Even today, as this review of literature will show, unanimity of thinking is not prevalent in the area of self-concept. At the present time, however, scientific studies are addressing themselves to the problems and potential of the concept of self.

Regardless of their position concerning the concept of self, most scientific writers today recognize the outstanding achievements of Sigmund Freud in his prolific writings explaining the internal processes and organization of the mind.[2] Freud studied the self through his concept of ego development and functioning. His daughter Anna

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[2]Sigmund Freud, Complete Psychological Works of Sigmund Freud, st. ed., vol. 5: "The Interpretation of Dreams"; vol. 7: "The Handling of Dream Interpretation"; vol. 19: "The Ego and the Id" (London: The Hogarth Press and Institute of Psychoanalysis, 1962); Freud, New Introductory Lectures on Psychoanalysis (New York: W. W. Norton & Company, Inc., 1933); Freud (1938), An Outline of Psychoanalysis (New York: W. W. Norton & Company, Inc., 1949).

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furthered this concept of ego with increasing attention given to its use in therapy.[3] Munroe has pointed out that the Freudians and neo-Freudians were reluctant to make the self an important entity or to give it importance in their doctrine of psychoanalytic psychology.[4]

In spite of the impact of Freudian theories, the turn of the century revealed much interest in the unscientific concept of self, this at a time when American psychology was finally being accepted by the other academic disciplines. An indication of the interest in the self may be found in William James' _Principles of Psychology_ published in 1890 in which his chapter on "The Consciousness of Self" was the longest in the two-volume work.[5] The concept of self and other psychological theories arising from this period had arrived at a crucial point in time. A confrontation among them was unavoidable; one of the theories would predominate in American psychology.

In such a polarizing atmosphere, most psychologists selected a certain system, organizing "schools"

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[3]Anna Freud, _The Ego and the Mechanisms of Defense_ (New York: International Universities Press, Inc., 1946).

[4]Ruth L. Munroe, _Schools of Psychoanalytic Thought_ (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1955).

[5]William James, _Principles of Psychology_, 2 vols. (Magnolia, Mass.: Peter Smith, 1890).

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based upon that selection. These "schools" tended to be militant in their partisan support demonstrating unrestrained hostility to opposing ones. The Freudians emphasized unconscious motivation, introspectionists envisioned the process of introspection as a technique of exploring consciousness, gestaltists valued insight and stressed the selective perceiver, and the behaviorists claimed that all other schools studied consciousness while only observable behavior was suited for scientific study.

The behaviorism of J. B. Watson and others emerged victorious in the psychological conflict.[6] As a result American psychology was given a new direction--a direction which turned to observable stimuli and response, a direction which classed the self as beyond the scope of psychology. Internal constructs such as self, mind, consciousness, and awareness were thrust into obscurity, but fortunately, not oblivion. Wylie reminds us that the advocates of behavioral psychology paid little attention to the concept of self during their supremacy of the 1920's through the 1940's.[7]

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[6]John B. Watson, Behaviorism (New York: People's Institute Publishing Co., 1925).

[7]Ruth C. Wylie, The Self Concept: A Critical Survey of Pertinent Research Literature (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1961), pp. 1-2.

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Education in America has always been influenced by prevailing psychological theories. When new theories assume dominance on the psychological horizon, educational theorists revise their positions. Educators have advocated in turn William James with his emphasis on self, Sigmund Freud with his belief in unconscious motivation, and J. B. Watson with his concerns for observable and measurable behavior. When American psychology lost interest in the self, so did education.

The demise of self-theories cannot be attributed entirely to the efforts of behaviorists. In his review of theories about the self, Diggory has pointed out that self-literature rarely described scientific experiments or even referred to experimental activity.[8] The small group that continued to espouse self-theories were, in part, responsible for their limited influence, because they failed to actively support experimentation. Nonetheless, the concept was supported during the early part of the twentieth century, by such men as Cooley, Mead, Dewey, and James.[9]

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[8]James C. Diggory, Self-Evaluation: Concepts and Studies (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1966), pp. 1-10.

[9]Charles H. Cooley, Human Nature and Social Order (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1902); George H. Mead, Mind, Self, and Society (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934); John Dewey, Democracy and Education (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1916); William James, Principles of Psychology (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1890).

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The concept of self became a major part of George H. Mead's philosophy of society, for he conceived of the self as developing through interaction with the environment. Personality was determined by forces of social psychology rather than biological or behavioral variables.[10]  Lewin conceived of the self as the central point of personality which provided consistency for the entire structure.[11]  Goldstein[12] visualized a process of self-actualization becoming the forerunner of the works of Maslow who pursued the concept of self-actualization more extensively.[13]  Prescott Lecky developed the concept of self-consistency through investigations with many of his own students.[14]  Bertocci proposed two aspects of the self--the self as object, "me," and the self as

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[10]Mead, op. cit., pp. 1-8, 253-73.

[11]Kurt Lewin, A Dynamic Theory of Personality (New York:  McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1935), pp. 107-13.

[12]Kurt Goldstein, The Organism (New York:  American Book Company, 1939), pp. 5-30.

[13]Abraham H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality (New York:  Harper & Row, Publishers, 1954), pp. 35-58; Maslow, "Personality Problems and Personality Growth," in The Self:  Explorations in Personal Growth, ed:  C. Moustakas (New York:  Harper & Row, Publishers, 1956), pp. 232-56.

[14]Prescott Lecky, Self-Consistency (New York:  Island Press, 1945).

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subject, "I."[15]  Murphy studied the sources and types

of self-enhancement and their relationship to society.[16]

Using theories of the self in counseling, Raimy considered

psychotherapy a means of altering the self-concept.[17]

Hilgard, addressing the American Psychological Association,

supported the concept that all defense mechanisms suggest

a self-reference, and stated further that the self may be

a cohesive force in problems of motivation.[18]  Gordon

Allport was an ardent advocate of the self in psychology

and conceived of man as both rational and purposeful,

thus, controlling his life through his aspirations.[19]

Diggory observed "The fact that the new psychologists

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[15]P. A. Bertocci, "The Psychological Self, The Ego and Personality," Psychological Review 52 (Jan 1945): 91-99.

[16]Gardner Murphy, Personality (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1947).

[17]Victor C. Raimy, "Self-Reference in Counseling Interviews," Journal of Consulting Psychology 12 (May-June 1948): 153-63.

[18]Ernest R. Hilgard, "Human Motives and the Concept of Self," American Psychologist 4 (Sept. 1949): 374-82.

[19]Gordon W. Allport, Personality: A Psychological Interpretation (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1966); Allport, "The Ego in Contemporary Psychology," Psychological Review 50 (July 1943): 451-68; Allport, Becoming (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1955); Allport, Pattern and Growth in Personality (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1966).

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were able to argue substantive matters of learning theory and motivation with the heirs of the behaviorists made the latter pay attention, and finally to agree that there might be something to the idea of self after all."[20]

Clinical psychologists eventually objected to the concepts of behaviorism, discovering that its theories were too restrictive to explain most human behavior. The outstanding voice in this group was Carl Rogers. In his written works, Rogers formulated a system of psychotherapy known as "nondirective," which was based on the centrality of the self.[21] He described the phenomenological self as a social product which resulted from

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[20]James C. Diggory, <u>Self-Evaluation: Concepts and Studies</u> (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1966), p. 56.

[21]Carl R. Rogers, "The Use of Electrically Recorded Interviews in Improving Psychotherapeutic Techniques," <u>American Journal of Orthopsychiatry</u> 12 (July 1942): 429-39; Rogers, "Some Observations on the Organization of Personality," <u>American Psychologist</u> 2 (Sept. 1947): 358068; Rogers, <u>Client-Centered Therapy</u> (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1951); Rogers, "The Characteristics of a Helping Relationship," <u>Personnel and Guidance Journal</u> 7 (Sept. 1958): 6-16; Rogers, <u>Counseling and Psychotherapy: Theory and Practice</u> (New York: Harper & Row, 1959); Rogers, "A Theory of Therapy, Personality, and Interpersonal Relationships, as Developed in the Client-Centered Framework," in <u>Psychology: The Study of a Science</u>, ed: S. Kock, vol. 3 (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1959), pp. 184-256; Rogers, "The Therapeutic Relationship: Recent Theory and Research," in <u>The Shaping of Personality</u>, ed: G. Babladelis and S. Adams (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967); Rogers and Robert F. Dymond, <u>Psychotherapy and Personality Change</u> (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954); Rogers, <u>Freedom to Learn</u> (Columbus, Ohio: Merrill Publishing Co., 1969); Rogers, <u>On Becoming a Person</u> (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1961).

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interpersonal relationships. Rogers recognized the need for positive regard from both oneself and others, and the need for self-actualization. Because of his cohesive influence on earlier self theories, Roger's approach has been labelled "self theory."

Other notable personalities have been influential in reintroducing the concept of self into psychology and education. The works of Combs and Snygg, Brookover, Heider, Patterson, Diggory, and Coopersmith have given a clearer perspective of the dynamics of the self in our interpersonal relationships.

Since World War II, the concept of self has reappeared with new vigor influencing all facets of society. Allport assessed the situation accurately when he stated that:

> In very recent years the tide has turned. Perhaps without being fully aware of the historical situation, many psychologists have commenced to embrace what two decades ago would have been considered heresy. They have reintroduced self and ego unashamedly and, as if to make up for lost time, have employed ancillary concepts such as self-image, self-actualization, self-affirmation, phenomenal ego, ego-involvement, ego-striving, and many other hyphenated elaborations which to experimental positivism still have a slight flavor of scientific obscenity.[22]

### Self-Concept

Many writers supporting the self theory of psychology have formulated a definition of the self which

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[22]Allport, op. cit., pp. 104-05.

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is compatible with their views and background. Purkey developed a composite definition of the self when he conceived of it " . . . as a complex and dynamic system of beliefs which an individual holds true about himself, each belief with a corresponding value."[23] Two important points are projected by this definition: it is organized and dynamic. Jersild portrays the self clearly when he says:

> A person's self is the sum total of all he can call his. The self includes, among other things, a system of ideas, attitudes, values, and commitments. The self is a person's total subjective environment; it is the distinctive center of experience and significance. The self constitutes a person's inner world as distinguished from the outer world consisting of all other people and things.[24]

Some psychologists propose two distinct meanings of the self. One meaning defines a person's attitudes and feelings about himself; the second regards the self as a group of psychological processes which influence behavior. Hamachek explains that:

> The first meaning can be looked at as a self-as-object definition, as it conveys a person's attitudes, feelings, and perceptions of himself as an object. That is, it is as if one could stand outside of himself and evaluate what he sees from a more or less detached point of view. In this

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[23] William W. Perkey, Self Concept and School Achievement (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970), p. 7.

[24] Arthur T. Jersild, In Search of Self (New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1952), p. 9.

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sense, the self is what a person thinks of himself.
The second meaning may be called the <u>self-as-process</u>
definition. In other words, the self is a doer,
in the sense that it includes an active group of
processes such as thinking, remembering, and per-
ceiving.[25]

Expressing the self is a complex phenomenon. Beliefs of

relative value and ultimate worth are maintained by every

individual. These beliefs cause feelings of superiority

toward selected peers and feelings of inferiority toward

others. Considerable energy is devoted to maintaining

or modifying our beliefs of self-adequacy. William James

concluded that how a person feels about himself rests

entirely on what he backs himself to be or do. James

alludes to this concept in the following passage:

> I am not confronted by the necessity of standing
> by one of my empirical selves and relinquishing the
> rest. Not that I would not, if I could, be both
> handsome and fat and well-dressed, and a great ath-
> lete, and make a million a year, be a wit, a bon-
> vivant, and lady-killer, as well as philosopher, a
> philanthropist, a stateman, warrior, and African
> explorer, as well as a "Tone-poet" and saint. But
> the thing is simply impossible. The millionaire's
> work would run counter to the saint's; The philosopher
> and lady-killer could not keep house in the same tene-
> ment of clay . . . to make any one of them actual, the
> rest must more or less be suppressed. . . . So the
> seeker of his truest, strongest, deepest self must
> review the list carefully, and pick out the one on
> which to stake his salvation. All other selves
> thereupon become unreal, its triumphs real triumphs,
> carrying shame and gladness with them . . .
> I, who for the time have staked my all on being
> a psychologist, am mortified if others know more

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[25]Don E. Hamachek, <u>Encounters with the Self</u> (New
York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1971), p. 8.

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> psychology than I.  But I am contented to wallow in
> the grossest of Greek.  My deficiencies there give
> me no sense of personal humiliation at all.[26]

How James felt depended in large measure on how he com-

pared himself to others.  Feelings of self-worth and self-

esteem grow in part from our perceptions of where we see

ourselves standing when compared to our peers.

The self-concept is a very personal possession.

How we feel about ourselves is dependent upon how we

perceive ourselves as really being, how we picture our-

selves as ideally wanting to be, and how we view the

expectations others have for us.  These processes are

interrelated and complex, no one of which is more impor-

tant than the other.  The direction of one's life, how-

ever, depends upon the emphasis placed on any one of the

three phenomena.  Some achieve inner harmony by expressing

their real self, others seek the ideal self, and still

some strive to express themselves by achieving the expec-

tations of their peers.  The extent to which we fulfill

our chosen expectations will, in large part, determine

our conception of personal success or failure.  The

self-concept is a dynamic and organized construct which

possesses great potential not only for teachers and stu-

dents, but for all people.

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[26]William James, _Principles of Psychology_, vol. 1
(New York:  Henry Holt & Co., 1890), p. 91.

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## Teacher Variables Pertaining to
## Self-Concept

Music teachers exert a tremendous influence on a student's self-concept, especially as they pertain to the student's ability to think about and to solve musical problems. Music teachers become significant-others in the lives of their students for a variety of reasons. A music teacher may be the only person who makes the student feel of value and worth. Other teachers may be significant because it is their responsibility to evaluate a student's ability and to record that evaluation. Music teachers can assist students to recognize musical strengths and abilities or he can emphasize their shortcomings. A student coming from a positive home atmosphere may be dealt a crippling blow if he is subjected to a harsh and rejecting teacher. This kind of music teacher prevents the student from developing in an inquisitive and developmental atmosphere.

The research literature revealed several teacher self-concept and personality variables which relate to student academic performance and self-concept. Jersild in an early study discovered that elementary school children when describing teachers liked best mentioned the following teacher personality characteristics: human qualities as a person--sympathetic, cheerful, good tempered; physical appearance, grooming, voice--attractive neat, pleasant manner of talking; traits as

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a disciplinarian or director of the class--fair, consistent, did not scold or shout; participation in activities--joined in or permitted games or play; performance as a teacher--enthusiastic, resourceful, explained well, permitted expression of opinion.[27] High school students tended to pick characteristics which had a bearing on teaching ability; younger students valued interesting projects introduced by the teacher. Teachers who were enthusiastic, sensitive, and understanding were the favorites of pupils of all ages.[28] Freese and West

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[27]Arthur T. Jersild, "Characteristics of Teachers Who Are 'Like Best' and 'Disliked Most,'" Journal of Experimental Education 9 (December 1940): 139-51.

[28]Evelyn Jean Shoemaker, "Satisfaction of Student Needs Through Humanistic Attributes of Personality in Teachers" (Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Wisconsin, 1971); Charles T. McDonald, "The Influence of Pupil Liking of Teachers, Pupil Perception of Being Liked, and Perceived Pupil Socio-Economic-Status on Classroom Behavior" (Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Texas at Austin, 1972); Gordon Ascher, "Teacher Job Satisfaction: The Effects of Teacher Personality and the Educational Environment of the School" (Ed.D. dissertation, The State University of New Jersey, 1971); Florence Richter Barton, "Do Teachers Cause Dropouts? A Study to Determine Attitudes, Personality Characteristics, and Teaching Behaviors of Teachers Who Are Effective With Dropout Students" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Utah, 1972); Harvey M. Hummel, "The Relationship Between Success in Teaching and Certain Personality Factors, Persistance in Teaching and Educational Attainment of Experienced Secondary Teachers" (Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Minnesota, 1972); Frank C. Emmerling, Jr., "A Study of the Relationships Between Personality Characteristics of Classroom Teachers and Pupil Perceptions of These Teachers" (Ed.D. dissertation, Auburn University, 1961); Alf I. Eikaas, "A Study of Personality Dimensions Related to Teacher-Pupil Rapport" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1957).

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discovered similar attitudes among rural high school students.[29] A popular belief today is that younger teachers more fully understand and appreciate the problems of the adolescent. There is a common conception that students dislike teachers who give low grades. This study indicated that students were able to consider the teacher's personality and interactions apart from age of the teacher, the sex of the teacher, grades assigned by the teacher, and years of teaching experience. These results coincided with Jersild's reminder that a positive teacher personality was of vital concern to most students.

Violette found that art students gave high ratings to positive teachers in affiliation, nurturance, intraception, and rated them low in aggression.[30] The positive teachers' ratings of themselves revealed nurturance as one of their highest traits and aggression as one of their lowest. Judges involved in the study also rated the positive teachers low in aggression, and it appeared to be the most significant trait in the study. Violette's findings also revealed significant relationships between

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[29]George T. Freese and Charles K. West, "Congruence, Empathy and Regard: A Comparison of Adolescent Ratings With Teacher Self-Rating," Adolescence 7 (Winter 1972): 525-29.

[30]Margaret G. Violette, "A Description of the Personality Structure of Six Art Teachers in Relationship to Verbal Behavior, Teaching Technique, and Instructional Content" (Ph.D. dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University, 1972).

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personality and teaching behavior. The study further exhibited a significant correlation between teachers' self-concepts and those held of them by others.

College students also seemed to prefer encountering teachers with positive and enthusiastic personalities. Some evidence suggested that students rank a professor's interest in his students and their concerns and his willingness to give them attention as one important criteria for evaluating an instructor.[31]

The studies reviewed thus far have been examining personal characteristics of teachers that students have identified as desirable. These characteristics seemed to fall into four categories--warmth, patience, tolerance, and interest in students. Did these personal qualities make a difference in the actual performance of the students?

Sears discovered positive relationships between a teacher's personal interest in and a willingness to listen to student ideas and the creativity shown by the students.[32]

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[31]W. A. Bousfield, "Student's Ratings on Qualities Considered Desirable in College Professors," School and Society 51 (February 1940): 253-56.

[32]Pauline S. Sears and Ernest R. Hilgard, "The Effect of Classroom Conditions on Strength of Achievement Motive and Work Output of Elementary School Children," in Theories of Learning and Instruction, ed: Ernest Hilgard, Sixty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, 1964), p. 195.

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Cogan found that warm and considerate teachers received an unusual amount of original poetry and art from high school students.[33] In another study, Reed observed that teachers higher in their capacity for warmth significantly affected their pupil's interests in science.[34] These studies would indicate a relationship between teacher personality and student behavior.

Student achievement has been related positively to interaction between different teacher and student personalities by Heil, Powell and Feifer.[35] Using scores from achievement tests as their criterion, they found that the well-integrated teachers were most effective with all types of students. Teacher personality types that were fearful and turbulent were successful only with certain types of students.

Vonk clarified the teacher-pupil relationship further by determining certain internal or perceptual

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[33]Morris L. Cogan, "The Behavior of Teachers and the Productive Behaviors of Their Pupils," Journal of Experimental Education 27 (December 1958): 89-124.

[34]Horace B. Reed, "Implications for Science Education of a Teacher Competence Research," Science Education 46 (December 1962): 473-86.

[35]Louis M. Heil, M. Powell, and I. Feifer, Characteristics of Teacher Behavior Related to the Achievement of Different Kinds of Children in Several Elementary Grades, U.S. Office of Education Cooperative Research Project No. 352 (New York: Brooklyn College, 1960).

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frames of reference which related to teacher effective-
ness.[36]  It was found that teacher effectiveness was
correlated with a positive rather than a negative view
of self.  The study also discovered that teacher effec-
tiveness was correlated with a positive rather than a
negative view of self.  The study revealed that teacher
effectiveness was positively related to identification
rather than alienation, and openness rather than closed-
ness to experience.  Effective teachers were identified
with having broad rather than narrow purposes, discover-
ing meaning rather than giving information, expanding
uniqueness rather than seeking conformity, disclosing
self rather than concealing self, and seeking student
ends rather than seeking their own ends.  These dimensions
of the teacher's internal or perceptual organization
appeared to be necessary correlates of classroom effec-
tiveness.

Norris, Passmore and others in separate studies
concluded that teacher success was significantly related
to the teacher's self-concept.[37]  Norris found in addition

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[36]Herman G. Vonk, "The Relationship of Teacher
Effectiveness to Perception of Self and Teaching Purposes"
(Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Florida, 1970).

[37]Billy E. Norris, "A Study of the Self-Concept of
Secondary Biology Teachers and The Relationship to Student
Achievement and Other Teacher Characteristics" (Ph.D.
dissertation, Ball State University, 1970); Wynoka S. J.
Passmore, "An Investigation of the Relationship of Self-
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to its relationship to teaching success that a significant correlation existed between teacher self-concept and semester hours of psychology, education, and to student teaching course work.  The number of years teaching experience and the number of dependents also appeared to be closely associated with self-concept.  Passmore discovered other factors related positively to self-concept. A high grade point average was found to relate closely to self-concept while age seemingly had no correlation.

In an Iowa-based study using 137 teachers and 104 school administrators, Ramsey compared the self-concept of the school personnel and the general population.[38] The total self-concept score and twelve Subscales of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale provided the data for that study.  The Subscales of Self Criticism, Identity Self, Feeling Self, Physical Self, Moral Ethical Self, Personal Self, Family Self, Social Self, Variability, and Definiteness about self were all used.  The teachers and

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Teachers to Success in Student Teaching" (Ph.D. dissertation, North Texas State University, 1970); Warren G. Bennis, "The Process of Understanding People," in Interpersonal Dynamics:  Essays and Readings of Human Interactions, ed: Warren G. Bennis (Homewood, Ill.:  The Dorsey Press, 1968), p. 732; Anthony S. Mixer and James L. Milson, "Teaching and the Self," The Clearing House 47 (February 1973):  346-50.

[38]Marl E. Ramsey, "Self-Concept Among Selected Iowa School Teachers and Administrators as Measured by a Self Report" (Ph.D. dissertation, Iowa State University, 1971).

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administrators were found to be significantly higher in self-concept than the general population. The administrators, and particularly the superintendents, were found to be significantly higher in self-concept than the teachers.

Not all studies reflected positive correlations between teaching success and personality variables.[39] Cropper reported that there was no relationship between self-concept of teachers and either the percentages of democratic procedures or affective content exhibited in their classroom behavior.[40] The study used a global concept of the self which may have accounted for the lack of relationship. Specific components of the self may have correlated with the selected variables more significantly than the global treatment of the self. Thompson indicated that self-concept did not appreciably affect the supervisory performance of Fayette County, Kentucky teachers who were supervising student teachers.[41]

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[39]Vincent J. Melograno, "Effects of Teacher Personality, Teacher Choice of Educational Objectives, and Teacher Behavior on Student Achievement" (Ph.D. dissertation, Temple University, 1971).

[40]Ardeth P. Cropper, "Categories of Observed Teacher Behavior as Related to Reported Self-Concept" (Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Arizona, 1971).

[41]Howard A. Thompson, Sr., "A Study of the Relationship Between the Self-Concept of Secondary Supervising Teachers and Their Supervisory Performance as Measured by Student Teachers" (Ph.D. dissertation, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1972).

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The total self-concept score of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale was used in the correlation. Possibly, the Tennessee Self Concept Scale Subscale scores would have indicated more meaningful relationships. Koger comparing music teachers and nonmusic teachers found little relationships between self-concept and the teacher-student relationships rated "I-Thou."[42] The study relied upon the total self-concept score of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. As suggested before, the Subscale scores may have indicated more positive relationships.

Schultz and Wolf in a study of the relationship between teacher, behavior, self-concept, and the helping process made three conclusions:

1. Teacher facilitative behavior as represented by the sample was viewed as minimally integrated.
2. Teacher self-concept as measured did not yield evidence indicative of positive feelings toward self in the area of promoting constructive interpersonal relationships with children.
3. No relationship was found between teacher facilitative behavior and perceived self-concept.[43]

The subjects indicated that they felt quite unsure of their abilities in facilitative behavior; therefore,

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[42]Mildred N. Koger, "Best Teacher-Student Inter-personal Relationships: Their Relationship to Self-Esteem and the Frequency of the Dialogical Relation Among Music Teachers" (Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Florida, 1970).

[43]Edward W. Schultz and Judith Wolf, "Teacher Behavior, Self-Concept and The Helping Process," Psychology in the Schools 10 (January 1973): 75-78.

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. . . "it seems reasonable to assume that teachers who are functioning at lower facilitative levels are less able to discriminate a relationship posture consistent with theoretical expectations."[44]  This study suggested that teachers would profit from " . . . didactic and experiential training to increase the probability of success along the critical dimensions of affective education as it relates to the relationship process."[45] The results of this study indicating accountability to be lacking in teacher facilitative behavior would lend support to the proposition that teachers receive training to increase their capabilities in facilitative interaction.  The self-concept instrument used in the study was in the experimental stages.  The experimental nature of the instrument may have influenced the data.  A self-concept instrument of recognized validity may well have shown a significant relationship between self-concept and facilitative behavior.

These studies indicated that teacher personality and behavior did have a dynamic potential in terms of influencing students for better or for worse.  In a related study, Sears found that teachers who liked pupils tended to have pupils who liked each other.[46]  Ravitz

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[44]Ibid.                          [45]Ibid.

[46]Sears and Hilgard, op. cit., pp. 182-209.

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discovered that a positive relationship existed between

teacher self-acceptance and his acceptance of pupils in

the classroom.[47]   Spaulding found that in classrooms

where the teacher was "socially integrative" and "learner

supportive" the students tended to be more positive and

have higher self-concepts.[48]   This and other research

cited seems to indicate that through imitation and

identification the teacher becomes a model for appropriate

behavior and the students reflect those personal charac-

teristics most dominant in the teacher.[49]

In spite of the negative in-put, the evidence

seems clear when it comes to describing good or effective

teachers on the basis of personal characteristics.  Effec-

tive teachers seem to reflect a sense of humanness.  They

have a sense of humor, are fair, empathic, more democratic

than autocratic, and seemingly relate easily and naturally

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[47]Leonard A. Ravitz, "Teacher Self-Acceptance
Related to Acceptance of Pupils in the Classroom" (Ph.D.
dissertation, University of Maryland, 1957).

[48]Robert L. Spaulding, Achievement, Creativity,
and Self-Concept Correlates of Teacher-Pupil Transactions
in Elementary Schools, U.S. Office of Education Cooperative
Research Project No. 1352 (Urbana, Ill.:  University of
Illinois, 1963).

[49]Ervin F. Holle, "Teacher Effectiveness:  A
Study of the Relationship Between Teacher Personality
Characteristics and Anxiety in Elementary Pupils" (Ed.D.
dissertation, The University of New Mexico, 1971).

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to students either individually or in a group. Effective teachers seem to create an environment which is open, spontaneous, and adaptable to change.

## Teacher Perceptions of Self

Having cited research regarding teacher self-concept and personality characteristics as perceived by students and as they affect students, the review now turns toward teacher perceptions of their own personality and self-concept. Ryans' study involved 6,000 teachers who related their perceptions of teacher characteristics.[50] The study detected a difference between self-related expressions of high emotional stability teachers and low emotional stability teachers. The more emotionally stable teachers were more apt to report the following characteristics: (1) frequently named self-confidence and cheerfulness as dominant traits in themselves; (2) said they liked active contact with other people; (3) expressed interest in hobbies and handicrafts; and (4) reported their childhoods to be happy experiences. As might be expected, teachers with lower emotional stability scores (1) had unhappy memories of childhood; (2) seemed

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[50]David G. Ryans, "Research on Teacher Behavior in the Context of the Teacher Characteristics Study," in Contemporary Research on Teacher Effectiveness, ed: B. J. Biddle and W. J. Ellena (New York: Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964), pp. 67-101.

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not to prefer contact with others; (3) were more directive
and authoritarian; and (4) expressed less self-confidence.

Combs in his book, The Professional Education of
Teachers, referred to several studies which addressed
themselves to the way good teachers see themselves.

1. Good teachers see themselves as identified with
   people rather than withdrawn, removed, apart from,
   or alienated from others.
2. Good teachers feel basically adequate rather than
   inadequate.  They do not see themselves as gen-
   erally unable to cope with problems.
3. Good teachers feel trustworthy rather than
   untrustworthy.  They see themselves as reliable,
   dependable individuals with the potential for
   coping with events as they happen.
4. Good teachers see themselves as wanted rather
   than unwanted.  They see themselves as likable
   and attractive as opposed to feeling ignored
   and rejected.
5. Good teachers see themselves as worthy rather
   than unworthy.  They see themselves as people
   of consequence, dignity, and integrity as opposed
   to feeling they matter little, can be overlooked
   and discounted.[51]

From these findings it may be implied that good
teachers saw themselves as good, adequate people.  Their
self-concepts were positive, optimistic, and self-accept-
ing.  The self-perceptions of a good teacher would be
the same as a good person in any vocation.  Much evidence

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[51]Arthur W. Combs, The Professional Education of
Teachers (Boston:  Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1965), pp. 70-71.

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has reported that any person was apt to be happier, more productive, and much more effective when he saw himself as adequate.[52]

King investigated the self-reported personality traits of university instructors and found that there was no difference in how good and poor instructors accepted themselves and how they viewed their real self in relation to their ideal self.[53] Both showed congruency and a positive view of self. No difference in means appeared between good and poor instructors in self-actualization. Also, good instructors were self-willed, self-expressive, self-assertive, open, honest, and cognizant of their strengths and capabilities. Generally poor instructors were just as self-actualizing (releasing full capabilities and potentialities) as good instructors. College affiliation and number of years of teaching seemed unrelated to teacher effectiveness.

Sex, age, highest degree earned, rank, and years of formal education did make a difference in the King

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[52]Mixer and Milson, op. cit., p. 350; Bennis, op. cit., p. 732.

[53]Alma P. King, "The Self-Concept and Self-Actualization of University Faculty in Relation to Student Perceptions of Effective Teaching" (Ph.D. dissertation, Utah State University, 1971).

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study and also in an investigation by Wurtz.[54] Those

instructors rated high by students were those who were

mostly female in sex, younger in age (average 39), who

had received a masters degree with an average of seven

years of university education and a professional rank

lower than a professor. Those rated low by students were

those who were mostly male, older in age (average 47),

who had a doctorate degree, eight years of university

education, and a professional rank of professor.

Anderson probed the self-perceived personality

traits of teachers in a cross-sectional study based on

age, sex, and teaching level.[55] Her samples consisted

of 333 education undergraduates, 94 dismissed under-

graduates because of academic failure, 198 student

teachers, and 175 experienced teachers. The self-

reported characteristics were that male teachers appeared

to be less outgoing and abstract, more dominant and self-

reliant, more self-opinionated and practical, more exper-

imenting and less tense than female teachers. Differences

attributable to sex were more crystallized for teachers

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[54]Philip J. Wurtz, "An Investigation of the Mul-
tiple Effects of Self-Concept and Other Independent
Variables in the Prediction of Teacher Job Satisfaction"
(Ph.D. dissertation, University of Kansas, 1973).

[55]Gladys M. Anderson, "Personality Characteristics
of Aspiring Teachers and Experience Teachers: A Discrimi-
nant Analysis" (Ph.D. dissertation, The Ohio State Uni-
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than for student teachers and undergraduates. Contrasting the youngest and oldest female groups, the study indicated that the younger females were less abstract, more submissive and serious, more spontaneous, sensitive, and self-opinionated, more imaginative, self-integrated, and less tense. The group of teachers ages 30-39 were more emotional, the most dominant, adaptable, shrewd, conservative, group-dependent, and the most tense. Discriminating between female teachers and female student teachers, it was found the undergraduates were more reserved, naive, conservative, had lower ego strength, and lower self-integration, and were less tense. Tenseness which was expected to decrease with age did not do so. In comparing female secondary and female elementary teachers, evidence pointed to the fact that secondary teachers were more reserved and dominant, more serious and spontaneous, and more self-reliant. Comparing male undergraduates and male student teachers with female undergraduates and female student teachers, the study indicated that the females were more outgoing, abstract, submissive, sensitive, trusting, and had lower ego strength. Student teachers had higher ego strength, were more serious, venturesome, self-assured, integrated, and more tense than were undergraduate students. From these self-reports it becomes evident that teachers' self-perceptions

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are as varied as student self-conceptions. Kozlowski,
studying student and experienced teachers, reported
similar findings.[56]

As a result of diverse teacher personalities,
Safran concluded from a related study of counselors that
there was a need for training in self-awareness of needs
using practicums, small groups and role playing; and that
the training program must be flexible and geared to the
trainee's growth needs as they related to self-concept.[57]
Hungerman concurred with these findings and concluded
further that the ability to be empathic may not be related
to any set of personality dynamics. Empathy may be a
skill that has been learned.[58]

Using YWCA group leaders, Bean discovered that
the more positive the self-concept the higher the leader
would evaluate his own total performance.[59]  The study

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[56]David K. Kozlowski, "A Comparison of the Author-
itarian and Child Centered Responses of Teachers, Teacher
Trainees, and Non-Teachers to Simulated Classroom Problems"
(Ed.D. dissertation, Wayne State University, 1972).

[57]John S. Safran, "A Comparison of the Personal
Preferences and Self-Concept of Empathic and Non-Empathic
Counselor Education Students" (Ph.D. dissertation, Wayne
State University, 1972).

[58]J. Michael Hungerman, "The Relationship of Sen-
sitivity to Others to Certain Selected Personality Char-
acteristics" (Ph.D. dissertation, Kent State University,
1970).

[59]Mabel G. Bean, "Self-Concept and Group Leader-
ship Performance" (Ph.D. dissertation, The University of
Michigan, 1970).

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also revealed that the less differential between per-
ceived self-concept and ideal self-concept, the higher
the leader would evaluate himself on his performance.
A leader who had leadership training would evaluate less
positively his competency for group leadership than one
who had no training. A leader's perception of his per-
formance in a group was found not to be related to the
group's perception. Therefore, the necessity for the
leader to know how to get feed-back from the group was
very evident. Such feed-back would allow his perceptions
to become more realistic and would assist the individual
in becoming a more effective leader.

The research literature revealed that a teacher's
perception of self is as diverse as any other segment of
society. Those individuals judged to be good teachers
perceived themselves as positive, self-accepting, and
optimistic. Good teachers viewed themselves as adequate
in their social interaction and professional behavior.
University instructors, whether good or poor, maintained
a positive, congruent view of self--a self that appeared
to be highly actualized. Individuals with little dif-
ferential between their real and ideal self evaluated
their behaviors most highly. The research data suggest
that those teachers with high self-concepts will also
tend to judge their performance higher than individuals
with low self-concepts. Teacher evaluations of their

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performance do not necessarily reflect the same per-
ceptions as student evaluations of the teacher's
behavior. The literature suggests that such diversity
of perceived self-concept indicates a need for training
in self-awareness.

### Training and Self-Concept

Hughes found that leadership training influenced
the self in several ways.[60] Experimenting with a high
school group of Naval Junior ROTC cadets, he reported
that a leadership role was found to have a significant
effect upon growth in positive self-concept and upon
academic achievement. Chronological age, class in
school, sex and ethnic background failed to show any
significant effects. The program provided greater sta-
bility for noncollege bound students, and it demonstrated
accelerated growth in personality traits, particularly
responsibility. Recognizing the influence of a leader-
ship role in the growth of positive self-concept and in
academic achievement, it may be suggested that a class-
room which optimizes leadership opportunity is superior
to the traditional classroom.

Leadership involvement seemed correlated highly
with increased perception of self-esteem as evidenced by

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[60] Orval D. Hughes, "The Influence of Leadership in
the Growth of Positive Self-Concept" (Ph.D. dissertation,
The University of New Mexico, 1970).

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the studies cited. Leventer, in a study to explore the relationship of attitude change to emotional and behavioral change that occurred in participants of a Human Relations Training Course at the University of California, Los Angeles, discovered a significant relationship between participation and self-concept.[61] This work produced evidence that suggested not only a relationship between participation and self-concept, but also a relationship between participation and the reduction of fear and the reduction in the expressions of anger. Evidence cited indicated that participatory training positively influenced the perceived self-concept.[62] Tuttle expanded upon this concept in his study.[63] The subjects participated in a training program using video tape analysis sessions with the following effects upon the self-concept: (1) the more effective teachers became more positive in their perceptions of

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[61]Esther A. Leventer, "The Interrelationship of Self-Esteem, Fear, Emotionality, and Behavior in Training Laboratories" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles, 1969).

[62]Passmore, op. cit.; Bean, op. cit.; Leventer, op. cit.; Hughes, op. cit.

[63]Roland L. Tuttle, Jr., "The Effect of Video Tape Self-Analysis on Teacher Self-Concept, Effectiveness, and Perceptions of Students" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, 1972).

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their own identity; (2) both the effective and ineffective interns decreased in their physical self-concepts; (3) perceptions of the personal self became significantly more positive for the more effective teachers; (4) the effective interns became significantly stronger in their certainty about their perceptions of themselves; (5) the less effective interns became significantly more subtly defensive. Burgy reported that 133 elementary education majors participating in a student teaching program at The University of Iowa experienced perceived increases in self-concept.[64] The increase occurred only if the supervising teacher had six or more years teaching experience, however. Scheduled observations by the supervisor also reflected an increase in self-concept. Cain also cited increased self-concept through a participatory program.[65] Education students participating in a "training-on-the-job" program, experienced higher ideal self-concept at the conclusion of the study; however, no increase was present in the perceived real self-concept. Cain concluded that direct, personal

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[64]Dianne R. Burgy, "A Study of the Effects of Selected Situational Components on the Self-Concept of Student Teachers" (Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Iowa, 1972).

[65]Robert B. Cain, "An Investigation of Changes in Self-Concepts, Role Concepts, and Self-Actualizing Values of Interns Participating in an Innovative Internship Program" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Miami, 1972).

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experience with children and teachers should be a vital part of teacher training, although the necessary length of time was unclear. Bostwick stated that teacher training students who participated in an interaction communication training-learning program also experienced significant effects on the perceived self-concept.[66] Results showed that as two-way talking decreased, expressed self-concept also decreased. As two-way talking decreased, candidates were less inclined toward self-other interpersonal relationships. In other words, expressed self-concept decreased as participation decreased.

The research literature showed that participatory training had a significant positive effect on the self-concept. Participatory training also reduced trainee fears and expressions of anger. Special teacher training courses clarified the student's perception of his identity and personal self. Leadership training tended to accelerate growth in personality and increased the perception of self-concept. Observing the positive influence of participatory training upon the self-concept, several researchers proposed that teacher training should include personal experience with students and teachers over an extended period of time.

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[66]Janis L. Bostwick, "An Interaction Approach to Self-Concepts of Candidates in Teacher Education Programs at the University of California, Berkeley" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of California, Berkeley, 1966).

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## Personality Traits and Evaluation
## of Others

Not only do effective and ineffective teachers perceive themselves differently, but they also reflect personality traits differently in the way they evaluate others. Richmond, Mason, and Padget discovered a significant relationship between one's self-concept and how others are perceived.[67] When they viewed others positively, they also considered themselves to have a positive identity, desirable behavior, and an acceptance of self as a person and as a member of a group. In their study, it was also reported that males and females differ in their perceptions of themselves and others. Females were more trusting than males. Ryans noted that "good" teachers rated higher than "poor" teachers in at least five different ways with respect to how they viewed others.[68] The good teachers had (1) more favorable opinions; (2) more favorable opinions of democratic classroom behavior; (3) more favorable opinions of administrators and colleagues; (4) a greater expressed liking for personal contacts with other people; and (5) more favorable estimates of other people. Good teachers

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[67]Bert O. Richmond, Robert L. Mason, Jr., Harry G. Padgett, "Self-Concept and Perception of Others," Journal of Humanistic Psychology 12 (Fall 1972): 103-11.

[68]Ryans, op. cit., p. 88.

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also expressed the opinion that there were very few

students who were difficult behavior problems, that very

few people are influenced in their opinions and attitudes

toward others by feelings of jealousy, and that most

teachers are willing to assume their full share of extra

duties outside of school.

The characteristics that distinguished the

ineffective teacher group suggested that they were self-

centered, anxious, and restricted.  The poor teachers

believed that most parents' visits to school were made

to criticize the teacher and that a large proportion of

people were influenced in their opinions and attitudes

toward others by feelings of jealousy.  Ryans cautioned

that:

> Certainly the research has not settled the question,
> who is the good teacher?  However, there are some
> interesting suggestions here--some clues that may
> help to identify "good" and "poor" teachers if one
> is willing to accept the kind of definition employed
> in this research.  Such a definition indicates that
> teachers are "good" if they rank very high among
> their colleagues with respect to such observable
> classroom behaviors as warmth and kindliness, sys-
> tematic and business-like manner, and stimulating
> and original teacher behavior.[69]

Combs, investigating the perceptual differences between

good and poor teachers, suggested that good teachers

could be distinguished from poor ones with respect to

the following perceptions of others:

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[69]Ibid., p. 90.

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1. The good teacher is more likely to have an internal rather than external frame of reference. He seeks to understand how things seem to others and then uses this as a guide for his own behavior.
2. The good teacher is more concerned with people and their reactions than with things and events.
3. The good teacher is more concerned with the subjective-perceptual experience of people than with objective events. He is more concerned with how things seem to people than just the so-called or alleged facts.
4. The good teacher seeks to understand the cause of people's behavior in terms of current thinking, feeling, beliefs, and understandings than in terms of forces exerted on them now or in the past.
5. The good teacher generally trusts other people and perceives them as having the capacity to solve their own problems.
6. The good teacher sees others as being friendly and enhancing rather than hostile or threatening.
7. The good teacher tends to see other people as being of worth rather than unworthy. He sees all people as possessing a certain dignity and integrity.
8. The good teacher sees people and their behavior as essentially developing from within rather than as a product of external events to be molded or directed. He sees people as creative and dynamic rather than passive or hurt.[70]

How we perceive others has been shown to be highly dependent upon how we perceive ourselves. If a potential teacher liked himself, trusted himself, and had confidence in himself, he would likely see others in the same light. Research has told us what common sense has always told us, that students grew and developed more easily when the teacher projected a trust and belief in their capacity to develop their potential.

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[70]Combs, op. cit., p. 55.

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Does a positive view of others influence student achievement and behavior? Davidson and Lang found that among boys and girls in grades four through six, those children with positive self-images were more likely to be among those who perceived their teachers as having positive feelings toward them.[71] They also found that the more positive the perception of their teacher's feelings, the better was their academic achievement.

Five interrelated behaviors were detected from research about how effective teachers differed from less effective teachers when perceiving others. In this regard, effective teachers were pictured in the following ways:

1. They seemed to have a more positive view of others.

2. They were apt to view others as critical, unfriendly people but they preferred to see them as friendly and worthy.

3. They were able to see things as they seemed to others.

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[71]Helen H. Davidson and Gerhard Lang, "Children's Perceptions of Their Teacher's Feelings Toward Them Related to Self-Perception, School Achievement and Behavior," Journal of Experimental Education 29 (December 1960): 107-18.

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4. They saw students as individuals capable of
   doing for themselves when they felt trusted,
   respected and valued.

The literature reviewed for this section indi-
cated that the self-concept is interrelated with all
aspects of personality. Teacher personality, especially
the self-concept, seems to be reflected in teacher
behavior. The apparent relationship between self-
concept and behavior would tend to support the hypotheses
of this study.

## Interaction

The personality of the teacher through daily
interaction can be either a positive or negative influence
on students. The personality of the teacher is responsible
for setting the emotional climate of the classroom through
his verbal and nonverbal interaction with the students
although not all would concur.[72] Segal in a philosophical
study expressed the belief that teacher-student interaction
assumed greater significance in modern technological
society which has increased the individual's sense of

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[72]Mogens Jansen, Paul Erik Jensen, and Peer Mylov,
"Teacher Characteristics and Other Factors Affecting
Classroom Interaction and Teaching Behavior," _International
Review of Education_ 18 (March 1972): 529-38.

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estrangement and alienation.[73]  Human interaction, then,

assumes a therapeutic power.  Therefore, teaching and

learning must be connected to "becoming"--the adjustment

and readjustment of personality.  Segal asserts that

the conditions of significant interaction are:  (1) There

must be real interest in interaction; real life problems

must be prevalent for teacher and student within inter-

action, (2) Teacher and student must be really themselves,

acting according to their real authentic feelings, (3)

Teacher and student must possess empathic understanding

towards one another, (4) Teacher and student must possess

a positive regard towards one another, like trusting.

A review of recent interaction research by Jansen, Jensen,

and Mylov seems to support these four hypotheses.[74]

Segal contends that the most important condition,

however, is that interaction between teacher and student

must pass through the medium of transaction which itself

can be divided into subject matter, cultural content, and

school setting.[75]  Hence, interaction is a three-way

process--teacher, transaction, student.  Interaction

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[73]Baruch B. Segal, "A Philosophical Analysis and
Construction of an Ideal Model of Teacher Student Inter-
action in Present Mass Society" (Ph.D. dissertation,
State University of New York at Buffalo, 1970).

[74]Jansen, Jensen, and Mylov, op. cit., p. 537.

[75]Segal, op. cit.

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between teacher and student which passes only through the medium of feelings is incorrect with respect to realness of school environment, nor can it be that the teacher and student create first a psychological, emotional climate. Interaction, then, must be performed to its fullest through total transaction. If interaction is performed also through feelings, they must be pervasive in total transaction.

The types of knowledge involved in the transaction must be not only of the information but also of the self-implication type of knowledge. The latter includes the former but goes beyond it, because it attaches the personalities involved emotionally as well as intellectually, beside, information type of knowledge is not completely objective. The transaction, then, must involve both a system of beliefs as a noun, and believing as a verb, a functional involvement. Both properties of belief and believing mean also value and valuing, appreciating and assessing. It requires the medium of transaction be based upon, and completely involved in, an organized philosophical system of evidential values and beliefs which bear scientific and, or logical validity, constantly tested and retested in real experience constantly criticized and revised.

Teacher-student interaction through the medium of transaction can be performed only by an ideal teacher who

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possesses sensitive awareness, as sense saturated with insight and intuition, where the latters are analyzed scientifically, in the naturalistic-pragmatistic sense, not possessing a supernatural or ontological grounding. The roles and individuality of teacher and student must be recognized by all interacting personalities. This places a great responsibility of humanness upon the teacher and student.

Undoubtedly there is not one best way to interact with students due to their varied personalities and diverse learning styles. However, research has exhibited evidence that there are some interaction techniques that are better than others. Studies have shown that there are specific things a teacher may do to increase both achievement and self-concept.

Staines, in a study exploring the self in the classroom, asked the following questions:

1. What part do teachers play in the development of the child's self?
2. Can teachers change a student's self-concept if they try to do so?
3. If they can, what methods of teaching produce what kinds of self-picture?
4. Is it possible to distinguish between teachers in the frequency and kind of comments which they make about a student's self?[76]

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[76]J. W. Staines, "The Self-Picture as a Factor in the Classroom," British Journal of Educational Psychology 28 (June 1958): 97-111.

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The basic assumption of the study was that teachers have an effect on the child's emerging self through their interaction styles, since the teacher is an important aspect of the learning environment.

To test his assumption, Staines paired two elementary classes for age, intelligence, and socio-economic class. Teacher A assisted students to perceive themselves as choosing individuals responsible and accountable for their choices. It was intended that the students see themselves as adequate and responsible, and still be able to recognize their strengths and weaknesses. In order to create this image, Teacher A became acquainted with each student and assessed his self-image and its relation to behavior. In order to help the students achieve a positive and realistic self-picture, the teacher apparently used such comments as the following: (1) "Jack, you're tall, help me with this."; (2) "Mary, you're very good at solving addition problems."; (3) "Good boy! Look at this everyone!"; (4) "You're better at English than arithmetic."; (5) "You're a fine one, you are." These statements pointed to specific strengths, assets, and skills.

Teacher B was an equally effective teacher, but his methods did not incorporate the variables of self-concept. At the conclusion of the twelve-week experimental period, Teacher B's students showed greater signs

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of insecurity, while Teacher A's class showed greater improvement in standardized reading and number tests. The study reveals that equally good academic achievement may be obtained even when the teacher devotes extra class time toward enhancement of the self-concept.

Probably the most familiar investigation related to classroom interaction was done by Flanders.[77] His study investigated teacher influence styles, pupil attitudes, and resulting achievement in seventh-grade social studies and eighth-grade mathematics. The study discovered four noticeable teacher behaviors in the more productive classrooms. (1) The teacher was able to provide spontaneously a range of roles that varied from the fairly active, dominative supervision to a more reflective, supportive role. (2) The teacher was able to switch roles at will rather than pursue a single interaction style to the exclusion of other possibilities. (3) The teacher was able to bridge the gap between diagnosis of a given situation and the course of action he should take. (4) The teacher was able to combine sensitivity and critical analysis so that he was able to make reasonable diagnoses of the current conditions. The Flanders study suggested that teachers who were

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[77]Ned A. Flanders, Teacher Influence, Pupil Attitudes and Achievement: Studies in Interaction Analysis, Final Report, Cooperative Research Project No. 397 (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1960).

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able to provide _flexible_ interaction styles, by shifting

from the direct to the indirect depending on the situation

were better able to create climates in which students

learned more.  The students of teachers who were unable

to do this learned less, a result confirmed by many

studies, including Anderson and Ishler.[78]  While Flanders'

works in interaction analysis have been influential and

have resulted in many studies, he should not be con-

sidered the first educator to study the possibilities

of interaction.  A study by Barr in 1929 was probably

one of the earliest.[79]  His techniques were not too

unlike present-day investigation in the area.  In his

study, detailed stenographic records, observation charts,

and various time charts were kept on forty-seven superior

teachers of social studies in high school and forty-seven

who were ranked below average in teaching skills.  A

comprehensive list of thirty-seven teacher and pupil

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[78]John R. Anderson, "Classroom Interaction, Aca-
demic Achievement, and Creative Performance in 6th Grade
Classrooms" (Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University,
1972); Margaret F. Ishler, "A Study of the Verbal Behavior
of Creative and Less Creative English and Social Studies
Student Teachers" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of
Toledo, 1972).

[79]Arvil S. Barr, Characteristic Differences in
the Teaching Performance of Good and Poor Teachers of
the Social Studies (Bloomington, Ill.:  Public School
Publishing Co., 1929).

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interaction behaviors were considered. The following is
a partial list of interaction expressions which distin-
guished good from poor teachers:

> Are you working hard? . . . Aren't you ever going
> to learn that word? . . . Everyone sit up straight,
> please. . . . I'm afraid you're confused. . . .
> No, that's wrong. . . . Oh dear, don't you know
> that? . . . Oh, sit down, . . . Say something.[80]

This list continued through almost one hundred different

statements attributed to poor teachers. The feelings

of frustration, fear, and exasperation are apparent

especially when they are matched with appropriate voice

inflections. The characteristic comments made by the

good teachers revealed a different emotional quality.

> Aha, that's a new idea. . . . Are you going to
> accept that as an answer? . . . I should like
> more proof. . . . Do you suppose you could supply
> a better word? . . . Can you prove your statement?
> . . . Don't you really think you could? . . .
> I'm not quite clear on that--think a minute.
> . . . Let's stick to the question. . . . Probably
> my last question wasn't a good one.[81]

The emphasis here is on challenge and encouragement,

qualities which are positive and reflect the thinking

of a good teacher.

The above research cited the importance of voice

inflection and their effect upon teacher responses.

Henderer confirms the significance of voice inflection

in a study of 150 fourth grade students and their white,

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[80]Ibid., p. 31.          [81]Ibid., p. 33.

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middle class, female teachers.[82] The author contended that how something was said should share importance with what is said. The study sought to expand the known effects of voice tone, the feeling expressed in the voice to the students.

Study results supported the hypothesis that those teachers whose voice tone is judged warmer, less angry, and anxious will offer higher levels of facilitative conditions to their students than will teachers whose voice tone is judged cooler, angrier, and more anxious. Henderer proposed that the relating of tonal qualities to dimensions of interpersonal functioning posits one possible direction in teacher training that could help produce more effective teachers.

Some research shows that a teacher who personalizes his teaching is apt to be more successful in motivating students. In a study done by Page,[83] junior and senior high school teachers returned graded objective tests in one of three ways. The first group received only their grade on the paper; the second group received their grade plus a stereotyped comment such as excellent

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[82] James M. Henderer, "Teacher Voice Tone and Student Academic Achievement" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Massachusetts, 1971).

[83] E. P. Page, "Teacher Comments and Student Performance," Journal of Educational Psychology 46 (March 1958): 173-81.

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or let's raise this grade; the third group were given their grade and a personalized comment to encourage the student. Test grades on the next objective test indicated that group one made the poorest showing while group three received the highest grades. The results suggest that teachers who show an active personal interest in their students' achievement are more likely to be successful than those teachers who are more impersonal.

Teacher interaction styles are being viewed increasingly as a causal factor in students' attitudes toward learning. Studying the effects of interaction styles, Flanders simulated classrooms using both a learner-centered and a teacher-centered approach.[84] Teachers in the learner-centered classrooms were accepting and supportive in their approach to the students. Teachers in the teacher-centered classrooms were impersonal, directive, and demanding. Flanders concluded that (1) The teacher-centered behavior of directing, demanding, and using private criteria in deprecating a student leads to hostility to the self or teacher, aggressiveness, or sometimes withdrawal, apathy, and even emotional disintegration; (2) The learner-centered behavior of accepting the student, being evaluative or critical only by public criteria,

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[84]Ned A. Flanders, "Personal-Social Anxiety as a Factor in Experimental Learning Situation," Journal of Educational Research 45 (October 1951): 100-10.

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and being usually supportive, elicited problem-orien-

tation, decreased personal anxiety, and led to emotionally

healthy and integrative behavior.[85]

In a review of thirty-four studies comparing non-

directive and directive interaction, Stern compared the

influence the two styles had on learning outcomes.[86]

The learning outcomes studied were the gains in cognitive

knowledge and understanding, and attitude change toward

self and others.  Stern concluded that "In general, it

would appear that the amount of cognitive gain is largely

unaffected by the autocratic or democratic tendencies

of the instructor."[87]  In summarizing the attitude change

toward self and others, he stated that . . . "regardless

of whether the investigator was concerned with attitudes

toward the cultural outgroup, toward other participants

in the class, or toward the self, . . . the results gen-

erally have indicated that nondirective instruction

facilitates a shift in a more favorable, acceptant

direction."[88]  This reinforces the theory that as far

as affective or self-concept variables are concerned, a

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[85]Ibid., p. 109.

[86]George C. Stern, "Measuring Non-Cognitive
Variables in Research on Teaching," in Handbook of Research
on Teaching, ed: N. L. Gage (Skokie, Ill.:  Rand McNally
& Company, 1963), p. 427.

[87]Ibid.                          [88]Ibid.

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more nondirective, democratic teaching style tends to be associated with positive changes in student behavior. Corroborating these findings, Tiedeman and others discovered that the teacher who was disliked most by students was a domineering, authoritarian person.[89]  Further, he found that the older the student, the more the dislike.

Not all literature reviewed for this study would concur with the conclusions reached by Stern in his review of studies pertaining to interaction and achievement. Most studies differ in their control of variables, and predictors and criteria employed are diverse.  Hastings in a study of verbal interaction in elementary school science concluded that indirect teachers' classes did not achieve significantly different from classes taught by direct teachers.[90]  Regardless of teachers' behavioral style, girls made greater achievement gains than boys.

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[89]Stuart C. Tiedeman, "A Study of Pupil-Teacher Relationships," Journal of Educational Research 35 (May 1942):  657-64; Christian James Buys, "Effects of Teacher Reinforcement on Classroom Behaviors and Attitudes" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Colorado, 1970); Charles T. McDonald, "The Influence of Pupil Liking of Teacher, Pupil Perception of Being Liked, and Perceived Pupil Socio-Economic-Status on Classroom Behavior" (Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Texas at Austin, 1972); George S. Ticknor, "The Effects of Positive and Negative Teacher Behavior on Student Rating of Teachers" (Ed.D. dissertation, Western Michigan University, 1972).

[90]Hiram I. Hastings, "A Study of the Relationship Between Teacher-Pupil Interaction and Pupil Achievement in Elementary School Science" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Oregon, 1970).

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Boys, on the other hand, were more successful with indirect teachers. Anderson, studying sixth grade classrooms, concluded that creative performance of pupils can be facilitated by the quality of the verbal classroom interaction.[91] The promotion of creative performance did not seem to detract from a support of academic achievement. It was further determined that classrooms exhibiting flexibility facilitated both academic and creative performance. In a study using seventh grade students, Hughes revealed that positive teacher reactions facilitate pupil achievement more than minimal teacher reactions.[92] He concluded that teachers should increase their use of appropriate positive reactions and decrease their use of minimal reactions which they commonly employ. Investigating student success, Aspy discovered teacher behavior patterns which promoted student goals: (1) using praise; (2) avoiding the use of criticism; (3) using student-initiated ideas; (4) being aware of meanings a situation has for a student; (5) being genuine in his responses; and (6) showing positive regard for the

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[91]Anderson, op. cit.

[92]David C. Hughes, "An Experimental Investigation of the Effects of Pupil Responding and Teacher Reacting on Pupil Achievement," American Educational Research Journal 10 (Winter 1973): 33-37.

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student as a person.[93]  Williams showed that achievement
in high school geometry classes was positively affected
as the teachers increased their use of indirect inter-
action.[94]  Stamboolian, working with industrial arts
classes in Dallas, Texas, junior high schools, discovered
no relationship between student achievement and the
teacher's use of indirect or direct interaction.[95]

Going a step further Neuberger revealed that
teacher-student personality needs determined the type
of interaction that occurred.[96]  The study revealed that
the more closely the personality needs coincided, the
better the teacher-student interpersonal relationship.
Neuberger stated that achievement reflected, in a posi-
tive way, the quality of the interpersonal relationship.
Alalouf probed teacher-student personality characteristics

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[93]David N. Aspy and Barbara Hutson, "Promotion
of Student Success," The Journal of Educational Research
10 (Winter 1973): 33-37.

[94]Willie E. Williams, "A Study of a Process to
Modify Verbal Interaction Patterns of High School Geometry
Classes" (Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University,
1972).

[95]John K. Stamboolian, Jr., "The Effect of Positive
Verbal Reinforcement Upon Achievement and Attitudes of
Selected Industrial Arts Classes" (Ph.D. dissertation,
Texas Agricultural and Mechanical University, 1972).

[96]Wayne F. Neuberger, "Student Perception of
Teacher Behaviors as a Function of Teacher Abstractions
and Student Interpersonal Needs" (Ph.D. dissertation, New
Mexico State University, 1972).

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to determine student placement in the first grade.[97]
Students were classed by teacher specialists as strivers,
conformers, or opposers.  Based on results of Edwards
Personal Preference Schedule, teachers were classed as
spontaneous, systematic, or dependent.  The study revealed
that teacher-student personality variables and teacher-
student interaction were important factors in determining
teacher effectiveness.  It was determined that students
classed as strivers attained more academic achievement
with spontaneous teachers and more social progress with
systematic teachers.  Conforming students had the least
need for external structure and order.  Alalouf pointed
out that the opposers' impressive gains with systematic
teachers point to the opposer students' need for order
which was being met by these teachers.  The study showed
that striving and conforming children can more easily
adjust to various teacher personalities, and they can
be placed with either the spontaneous, systematic, or
dependent type of teacher.  The results of these studies
indicate that many variables are involved in the creation
of a positive, supportive, and democratic classroom
environment.  Creative and academic achievement are

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[97]Albert A. Alalouf, "The Placement of First
Grade Children with Special Attention Toward Teacher and
Pupil Characteristics" (Ph.D. dissertation, University
of Southern California, 1972).

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dependent upon positive interpersonal relationships which can be achieved mainly through the efforts of the teacher.

Recognizing the interpersonal relationships which occur in the classroom, several studies have probed the relationship between interaction and the self-concept. Palfrey through a survey of headteachers discovered self-reported relationships between self-concept and interaction.[98] These teachers, through continuous communication with the pupils and the staff, not only served to enhance or diminish the child's evaluation of himself but would also impart to the pupils in their charge a self-image which reflected the headteacher's highly subjective evaluation of the pupils as "clients" and also as human beings. Borden, Gregg, and Grove found that student behavior would consistently strive to maintain the self-concept.[99] For the students in their study, keeping the self-image intact during interaction was basic to the individual's ability to communicate effectively in a given situation. In a study relating self-concept, verbal interaction, and achievement, Mancini

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[98] C. F. Palfrey, "Headteachers' Expectations and Their Pupils' Self-Concepts," Educational Research 15 (February 1973):  123-27.

[99] George A. Borden, Richard B. Gregg, and Theodore G. Grove, Speech Behavior and Human Interaction (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.:  Prentice Hall, Inc., 1969), p. 201.

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revealed several significant relationships.[100]  In

seventh grade biological science classes, the females

correlated more strongly than the males between self-

concept and verbal behavior.  It was also found that

regardless of achievement level, males tended to cor-

relate higher between science self-concept and verbal

behavior.  This study adds credence to the belief that

global self-concept is not always a dependable variable

when seeking relationships.  Doyle, in a study at Ply-

mouth, Michigan, High School, determined that indirect

teachers appeared to perceive their students not in

relation to what their personality characteristics were,

but in relation to what personality characteristics they

would like them to have.[101]  Indirect teachers did not

tend to fragment human beings into isolated personality

characteristics.  Indirect teachers, or those who lean

toward a democratic frame of reference, perceived an

individual as a totality; a totality that was responsible,

sociable, ascendent, emotionally stable, and capable of

vigorous energetic action.  On the other hand, direct

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[100]Dino Mancini, "An Investigation of the Relation-
ships Between Self-Concept of Ability, Classroom Verbal
Interaction, and Achievement of Seventh Grade Pupils in
Biological Science" (Ph.D. dissertation, New York Uni-
versity, 1972).

[101]James R. Doyle, "The Relationship of Direct and
Indirect Teaching to Accurate Perceptions of Student Per-
sonality and Temperament Characteristics" (Ph.D. disser-
tation, Wayne State University, 1969).

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teachers, or those who lean toward an autocratic frame of reference, perceived students as being more passive, less sociable, more irresponsible, and lacking emotional stability. This response would support Neuberger's finding that students in elementary school prefer an adult-child relationship where the adult assumed control, which allowed the student to come to the teacher for advice.[102] Schultz and Wolf correlated the teacher's self-concept and classroom interaction with interesting results.[103] Their data indicated that teacher self-concept as measured did not reveal positive feelings toward self in the area of promoting constructive inter-personal relationships with children. These teachers seemed to report that they felt quite unsure of their abilities in this area. It might be suggested that the instrument used to measure self-concept in this investigation be utilized in other studies to assess further its ability to estimate this variable. At the time of testing, the instrument was still in an experimental stage. The findings of this study would lead one to conclude that teachers are in need of didactic and experiential training to increase the probability of

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[102]Neuberger, op. cit.

[103]Edward W. Schultz and Judith Wolf, "Teacher Behavior, Self-Concept and the Helping Process," Psychology in the Schools 10 (January 1973): 75-78.

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success along the dimensions of affective education as it relates to the relationship process.

Interaction seemingly has a relationship with achievement and the self-concept both of the teacher and the student; although there may be disagreement about the degree of that relationship. Several studies pursued the relationship between interaction and various other behaviors that occur in the classroom. It appears that all too often immediate didactic purposes are of greater importance to teachers than the student behaviors they foster by their actions. Torrence asserted that technology and society are advanced more by the flexible, nonconforming, and untidy groups as well as by the independent, active, and assertive groups:

> It takes little imagination to recognize that the future of our civilization--our very survival-- depends upon the quality of the creative imagination of our next generation.
> Democracies collapse only when they fail to use intelligent, imaginative methods for solving their problems. Greece failed to heed such a warning by Socrates and gradually collapsed. . . . Instead of trying to cram a lot of facts into the minds of children and make them scientific encyclopedias, we must ask what kind of children are they becoming. What kind of thinking do they do? . . . Do they do some thinking for themselves?[104]

Investigating teacher perception and classroom verbal interaction, Pellegreno and Williams uncovered

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[104]E. Paul Torrance, _Guiding Creative Talent_ (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1962), p. 6.

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data pertaining to classroom behavior.[105]  The first major finding that emerged from this study was the significantly greater use of praise and encouragement by teachers following verbalization of girls perceived as being rigid, conforming, and orderly.  The passive, dependent, acquiescent girls also received more praise and encouragement.  These two findings imply that teachers have a bias as to the type of female student behavior they see as being acceptable.  Teachers praise and encourage those girls who do not rock the boat.  They are, in a sense, rewarding with attention those who exemplify the "typical" female in our culture.

With the active, assertive, and independent group of males, (1) significantly more teacher questions preceded their verbalization, (2) significantly more teacher questions followed their verbalizations, and (3) significantly more student-initiated responses occurred.  The active, independent, and assertive males appeared to be inclined to respond to the teacher's questions regardless of whether or not the teachers intended for them to respond.  Even when the teachers withheld acceptance of the active boys' verbalization, it did not tend to extinguish the boys' aggressiveness.  The assertive boys

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[105]Dominick D. Pellegreno and Wendell C. Williams, "Teacher Perception and Classroom Verbal Interaction," Elementary School Guidance and Counseling 7 (May 1973): 270-75.

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seemingly responded by making an even greater effort to gain acceptance of themselves and their contributions. A significant number of teacher questions was necessary to draw verbalization from the passive, acquiescent, and dependent boys. Little risk was involved in eliciting talk from the passive boys. They did not threaten their teachers with too much talk. The teachers' attention was reinforcing for the dependent youths; it seems logical that it could also become rewarding. But is this the desired behavior for young men or young women?

The authors concluded that it would be well if teachers would ponder the way in which their preferences and nonpreferences in behavior are expressed to students. Teachers may well go beyond simple verbalization and convey expectation. Classroom stability is founded on the expected. However, academic and affective change are factors in learning. Therefore, learning and stability may not be entirely compatible. While teacher praise or the lack of it may be intended to enhance the orderliness of the classroom environment, it may inadvertently restrict the student's achieving didactic goals.

Buys, studying the effect of behavioral manipulations on problem children, discovered that teacher praise had a powerful effect on classroom behavior.[106]

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[106]Buys, op. cit.

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he results also suggested that the presence of teacher
raise was also reflected in the problem children's
ttitude change. The author concluded that deviant
ehavior was partially a function of misplaced teacher
ttention, and that by redirecting this attention, sub-
tantial behavior change could be produced.

While behavior problems plague many classrooms,
study by Ishler revealed that creative student teachers
ad fewer discipline problems than the less creative
eacher.[107] Her study also revealed that creative stu-
ent teachers exhibited more verbal behaviors considered
onducive to a creative climate such as more indirect
ehavior and more divergent questions. The author also
oncluded that the creativity potential score was a more
ccurate indicator of success in student teaching than
as grade-point average. Douglas, observing elementary
lassrooms, discovered that there was a higher distri-
ution of approach behaviors in classrooms where teachers
xhibited higher frequencies of indirect behavior.[108] In
nother study exploring classroom behavior, Marks observed
hat kindergarten teachers in his study had significantly

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[107]Ishler, op. cit.

[108]Earl M. Douglas, "A Study of Relationships
etween Teacher Classroom Behavior and Concurrent Student
nterest in Classroom Activities" (Ph.D. dissertation,
niversity of New Mexico, 1972).

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different classroom interactions with their students.[109]

He found that the students' self-concept had no signifi-

cant bearing on their classroom behavior, but that

family economic level affected the students' classroom

behavior.  Tyo suggested that migrant pupils in the

classroom also influence interaction.[110]  Her study

revealed that when migrant and nonmigrant students were

in the same classroom, the migrant pupils received rela-

tively fewer positive verbal interactions, relatively

fewer neutral interactions, and approximately equal

negative teacher interactions.  From studies reviewed

thus far, this type of unfortunate teacher behavior might

be expected.  Teachers do prefer certain personality

types in students.[111]  Teacher personalities seem to

elicit classroom behaviors and interactions.  Motto,

observing twenty college teachers at a small, private

liberal arts college, concluded that the behavior of those

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[109]William J. Marks, "Assessment of Self-Concept
and Classroom Behavior of Kindergarten Children as
Affected by School Environment, Selected Socio-Economic
Variables, and Ethnic Group" (Ph.D. dissertation, East
Texas State University, 1972).

[110]Alexina M. Tyo, "A Comparison of the Verbal
Behavior of Teachers in Interaction with Students They
Perceived as Migrant and Nonmigrant" (Ph.D. dissertation,
Syracuse University, 1972).

[111]Pellegreno and W. C. Williams, op. cit.;
Doyle, op. cit.; Schultz and Wolf, op. cit.

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with a high degree of empathy toward students was not

influenced as extensively by socially unacceptable

behavior.[112]

Most research reviewed in this chapter indicates

that the authors recognize the importance of being selec-

tive in the use of indirect and direct verbal interaction

in the classroom. A few writers, while aware of this

importance, stress that being direct or indirect does not

resolve the problems inherent in interaction. Being

indirect in terms of teaching behavior is not a guarantee

of creative teaching. In fact, it is the quality of the

indirectness that determines whether the teacher behavior

is simple laissez-faire or a planned creative effort.[113]

The classroom interaction analysis instruments have not

asked this important question of quality. As Soar,

Torrence, Myers, and Yamamoto suggested, intended

indirect teacher behavior such as stimulating discussion,

independent thinking, and problem-solving activities are

descriptive of the more creative teacher in the language

arts.[114] These writers suggest that future education

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[112] Joseph Motto, "An Investigation of Some Per-
sonality Correlates of Empathy in College Teachers" (Ph.D.
dissertation, The University of Michigan, 1958).

[113] Barbara Haskin and Kevin Swick, "Indirect
Teacher Behaviors and the Creative Teacher," Elementary
English 50 (April 1973): 544-45; Anderson, op. cit.

[114] Robert S. Soar, "Teacher-Pupil Interaction, A
New Look at Progressive Education," in Curriculum

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would do well to give more attention to the quality of teaching behaviors in assessing the creative level of teachers.

Many studies have produced evidence that suggests the emotional climate of the classroom will influence the behavior of the students either positively or negatively. The type of climate maintained in the classroom will rely primarily on one variable--the teacher. The teacher will determine whether the climate is supportive for the various personality types in his classroom. Will that climate be one of high anxiety or one of low anxiety? Will that teacher be primarily indirect or direct in his interaction, or will he be flexible in his techniques letting the situation and the personalities determine the approach?

Flanders investigated the effects of direct and indirect teacher influence and student intelligence, dependence-proneness, sex and perception of clarity of

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Development, ed: James R. Squire (February 1972), Year-book of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (Washington, D.C.: Association for Super-vision and Curriculum Development, 1972), p. 102; E. Paul Torrance and R. E. Myers, Creative Learning and Teaching (New York: Dodd, Mean & Co., 1970); Kaoru Yamamoto, "Does Teacher Creativity Make a Difference in Pupil Learning?" The Elementary School Journal 67 (February 1967): 265-70.

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instructional goals on several dependent measures.[115]
He found no interaction between classroom climate and
intelligence or dependence-proneness, but did find sig-
nificant interactive effects for classroom climate and
sex on student attitude toward school and for student
perception of clarity of goals of instruction on achieve-
ment.

In the same vein, Duffey and Martin investigated
the interactive effects of direct and indirect teaching
and student anxiety on performance on an academic learning
task.[116] The most important result of the study was the
significant interaction found between trait anxiety and
teaching style. The high trait-anxiety subject who was
sensitive to threat and criticism will function better in
a fairly indirect classroom than will a low trait-anxious
student. The authors indicated that mental health per-
sonnel in schools should be able to improve performance
by appropriate matching of student and teacher character-
istics. A matching of student and teacher personalities

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[115]Ned A. Flanders, "Teacher Influence, Pupil
Attitudes and Achievement," in Teaching, ed: R. T. Hyman
(New York: Lippincott, 1968), pp. 251-65.

[116]James B. Duffey and Roy P. Martin, "The
Effects of Direct and Indirect Teacher Influence and
Student Trait Anxiety on the Immediate Recall of Academic
Material, Psychology in the Schools 10 (April 1973):
233-37.

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is receiving more professional support as Munson, Pelle-
greno and Williams have indicated.[117]

Similar conclusions were reached from the results
of a study by Soar.[118] The study tried to determine if
different levels of teacher indirectness would be found
to be optimal for pupil growth in reading, vocabulary,
and creativity. It was also predicted that decreasing
levels of teacher criticism would be optimal for pupil
growth in reading, vocabulary, and creativity, in the
order stated. Soar also hypothesized that the optimal
level of indirectness for pupil growth in creativity
would be higher for low anxious pupils than for high
anxious pupils. The results indicated that the order
of optimal levels for vocabulary and reading was as pre-
dicted, but creativity failed to require a less critical
optimal level. Both high and low anxious subgroups of
students grew more under indirect teachers. High anxious
pupils showed a smaller increase of growth under rela-
tively direct teachers, and low anxious pupils appeared
to grow slightly more under more direct teachers. These
data suggest that teacher behavior should shift in

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[117]Harold L. Munson, Elementary Schools Guidance,
Concepts, Dimensions, and Practices (Boston: Allyn &
Bacon, 1970), p. 38; Pellegreno and W. C. Williams, op.
cit., pp. 270-75.

[118]Robert S. Soar, "Optimum Teacher-Pupil Inter-
action for Pupil Growth," Educational Leadership 26 (Decem-
ber 1968): 275-80.

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ndirectness from concrete to abstract subject matter,
nd that all teaching should proceed under a relatively
upportive emotional climate. Although there was some
endency for all pupils to grow more in creativity with
ncreased teacher indirectness, anxious pupils differed
ignificantly in their response to differing levels of
ndirectness. Low anxious pupils seemed to grow under
ndirect teaching more effectively. What appeared to be
vident was that when the objective was the learning of
oncrete material such as spelling, the multiplication
able, or foreign language vocabulary, the teacher should
e quite direct and highly structured in his presentation;
ut when the objective was an abstract one, such as the
oncept of conservation, or new math, or creative writing,
he teacher should be highly indirect. The effective
eacher, then, would need to be able to shift style as
e shifts objectives.

If, as Taba and others suggest, thinking skills
f pupils are developed by gathering extensive, relevant,
oncrete information from which abstractions and generali-
ations are drawn, the teacher may be rather direct in
he information-gathering stage but indirect in the
igher level stages.[119] The more concrete or convergent

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[119]Hilda Taba, Samuel Levine, and Freeman F.
zey, Thinking in Elementary School Children, Cooperative
search Project No. 1574, Office of Education, U.S.
partment of Health, Education, and Welfare (San Fran-
sco: San Francisco State College, 1964).

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he learning objective, the more direct the teacher

ehavior; the more divergent the objective, the more

ndirect the teacher behavior.

Soar's study also suggests that students differing

n anxiety level will differ in the teaching style most

seful for them.[120] Since grouping by ability level has

een less than effective, grouping by personality might

e more influential.

Two studies related anxiety to the teacher and

ts effect upon his behavior. Motto, investigating

orrelates of empathy in college teachers, found that

igh empathy teachers tended to exhibit more concern

bout feelings of student hostility and showed less

nxiety during interpersonal relations.[121] Henderer,

elating voice tone to teacher influence, discovered

hat the less anxious the voice tone, the more facili-

ative the classroom conditions would become.[122]

This review has been primarily concerned with

eacher-student interaction presenting studies relevant

o various aspects of that relationship. Increasingly,

tudies are appearing which focus on other areas per-

aining to interaction. One of these areas is the

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[120]Soar, op. cit.

[121]Motto, op. cit.

[122]Henderer, op. cit.

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lassroom environment, which, of course, involves many

actors including the teacher.  In recent years, edu-

ators have been weighing the advantages of the open

lassroom as compared to the self-contained unit.  Dis-

enziere investigated the relationship between instruc-

ional organization patterns and the supportive behavior

f teachers.[123]  Data revealed no difference in the

egree of supportive behavior in open or self-contained

lassrooms.  The study also revealed no significant

nteraction between the instructional organization

attern and years of teaching experience in relation to

upportive behavior.  In a related study, Summers, using

ix organizational climates ranging from open to closed,

iscovered that teachers in closed classrooms become more

irective.[124]  As the climate became more closed, teachers

l) ordered and gave more verbal commands to their stu-

ents, (2) criticized student behavior more frequently,

3) had more silence and/or confusion occurring in the

lassroom, (4) relied more and more on authority rather

han on logic to maintain classroom control, and (5)

pent less time using and expanding the ideas that were

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[123]Joseph J. Dispenziere, "The Relationship of
he Supportive Behavior of Teachers and Their Instructional
rganization Patterns and Years of Experience" (Ed.D.
issertation, Lehigh University, 1972).

[124]Jerry A. Summers, "School Climate and Classroom
eacher Behavior," Contemporary Education 44 (January
973):  171-75.

esented by students. The authors concluded that
. . . as the climate of a school changes from open to
losed, a significant deterioration of teacher performance
akes place."[125] Similar findings have also been reported
Campbell.[126] Scott, relating class size to the class-
oom environment, found that there was no significant
ifference between large and small groups when measure-
ent was done in terms of verbal interaction.[127] Rather
han group size, the most important variable affecting
tudent verbal interaction was the discussion style of
he teacher. This study investigated not only teacher-
tudent interaction, but also student-student interaction.
t was found that during discussion periods, opportunity
or student-student interaction did not necessarily pro-
ote it. The authors proposed that teachers need to be
nformed of techniques for training students to generate
tudent-student interaction.

Teacher facilitating and interacting behaviors as
epresented by the research of Schultz and Wolf and others

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[125]Ibid., p. 173.

[126]E. M. Campbell, "The Evaluation of Learning
rinciples by Some Superior Classroom Teachers," _Aus-
ralian Journal of Education_ 15 (January 1971): 58-72.

[127]James L. Scott, "The Effect of Class Size on
tudent Verbal Interaction in Five English Classes"
Ed.D. dissertation, The State University of New Jersey,
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was only minimally integrated.[128] Lack of integration
in this behavior suggests that if teachers are to be
directly responsible for the implementation of affective
encounters with children, training would be necessary
to increase their functional capacity in facilitating
communication. Studies included in this review have
initiated experimental training in interaction with vary-
ing degrees of success. Some research indicated little
if any change in teacher behaviors as a result of train-
ing.[129] Bowman found that student teachers who attended
seminar session in interpersonal relationships did not
exhibit behavior changes in any significant way when
compared to student teachers trained in the "traditional"
manner.[130] Sheppard concluded after examining interaction

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[128]Schultz and Wolf, op. cit., p. 77.

[129]Harold E. Bowman, "The Effect of Alternative
Techniques for Modifying Student Teacher Behavior During
the Field Experience" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of
Pittsburgh, 1972); Edward L. Thomas, "The Effect of Train-
ing in Flanders' Interaction Analysis on the Teaching
Patterns of Student Teachers in Social Studies at
Mississippi State University" (Ph.D. dissertation,
Mississippi State University, 1972); Lillian V. Sheppard,
"An Analysis of Classroom Interaction in Elementary
Social Studies Classes When Either the Student Teacher
of the Cooperating Teacher or Both are Trained in Inter-
action Analysis" (Ed.D. dissertation, Northeast Louisiana
University, 1972); John W. Buckner, Jr., "The Effects of
Training in Interaction Analysis on Teachers' Inter-
personal Behavior" (Ed.D. dissertation, North Texas
State University, 1970).

[130]Bowman, op. cit.

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matrices that untrained student teachers with untrained cooperating teachers tended to develop as many indirect characteristics as those student teachers who were trained in interaction analysis.[131] He also indicated that all student teachers change their interaction patterns significantly during their student teaching assignment. A regressive trend was discovered by Thomas in an experimental group of student teachers.[132] After a four-hour training session, the student teachers (1) talked more in the classroom than the control group; (2) elicited less student talk than the control group; and (3) made fewer indirect statements than the control group. Thomas concluded that the experimental group seemed to revert to a teaching style with which they felt more secure-- lectures, directions, criticism.

In a related study, Buckner tried to determine if training in interaction analysis would have any effect on three interpersonal behaviors of accurate empathy, genuineness, and nonpossessive warmth.[133] Results indicated that teachers receiving training in interaction analysis did not differ from teachers who did not receive

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[131]Sheppard, op. cit.

[132]Thomas, op. cit.

[133]Buckner, op. cit.

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he training on the three interpersonal behaviors. It

ould seem that interaction analysis should be used to

easure teachers' skill in verbal interaction instead of

easuring change in empathy, warmth, and genuineness.

Other studies observing the effect of interaction

raining on teacher behavior, reported positive changes.[134]

illiams trained high school geometry teachers in inter-

ction analysis which resulted in significant changes

oward indirect behavior.[135] It was also his observation

hat the subjects became more indirect if an observer

as present in the classroom. Murray and Fitzgerald

nstructed student teachers in the Flanders' System

hrough perceptual modeling instead of symbolic model-

ng.[136] A single brief exposure to a model demonstrating

specific set of behaviors was sufficient to bring about

ignificant, desired behavioral change in student teachers.

he study also supported the use of video tape recorders

s an effective means to present modeling behavior to

tudent teachers. Although Stamboolian did not report

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[134]W. E. Williams, op. cit.; C. Kenneth Murray
nd Russell Fitzgerald, "Interaction Analysis, Modeling
nd Student Verbal Behavior," Contemporary Education 44
January, 1973): 174-78; Stamboolian, op. cit.

[135]W. E. Williams, op. cit.

[136]Murray and Fitzgerald, op. cit.

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s significant results, he found that training in positive
erbal reinforcement resulted in an increasing trend away
rom criticism of students.[137]

Ned Flanders, a pioneer in classroom interaction,
as proposed that training in interaction should include
ot only verbal skills, but should also explore listening
kills.[138] Flanders believed that "The conceptualization
f teacher listening skills has been ignored too long
n the field of teacher education. These skills are
asic to all teacher-pupil encounters."[139] He supports
his belief by proposing that:

> The central challenge to those of us who seek to
> identify basic teaching skills is to select for
> the first round of teacher education those skills
> of speaking and listening which have the greatest
> potential for subsequent professional development.
> These would be basic skills because they are per-
> vasive whenever teachers and pupils interact and
> because they provide heuristic experiences that
> facilitate continuing education for teachers.[140]

Only two studies reviewed for this chapter dealt
pecifically with interaction in the music classroom,
ne at the elementary level and the other at college level.
agano recorded by audio tape 107 music class sessions
t the first and sixth grade levels to determine the

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[137]Stamboolian, op. cit.

[138]Ned A. Flanders, "Basic Teaching Skills
erived from a Model of Speaking and Listening," Journal
f Teacher Education 24 (Spring 1973): 24-37.

[139]Ibid., p. 37.          [140]Ibid., p. 25.

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redominant type of verbal interaction being experienced.[141]

eachers in these observations tended to be direct in

heir influence patterns. Musical behaviors were used

xtensively, but teacher talk dominated classroom behavior

n both grades. Other results indicated that teachers

ho were direct or indirect tended to remain so in both

rades. The teachers used lecturing significantly more

n sixth grade than in first; teachers spent more time

ccepting and using students' ideas in sixth grade;

eachers spent more time listening to music in sixth

rade; and teachers spent more time praising and encour-

ging students in the first grade and in giving directions.

t the college level, McAdams found some similarities

o the interaction encountered at the elementary level.[142]

ollege teachers tended to be more direct than indirect

n establishing classroom climate. There appeared to be

o discernible relationship between the teachers' verbal

ehavior and their various academic ranks. The greater

he age of teachers, the more they tended to change their

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[141]Alicia L. Pagano, "A Study of the Classroom-
nteraction Patterns of Selected Music Teachers in First-
rade and Sixth-Grade General Music Classes" (Ph.D. dis-
ertation, American University, 1972).

[142]Charles D. McAdams, "A Comparison of Behavior
atterns of Music Teachers in Selected Universities
tilizing Interaction Analysis and the Fundamental Inter-
ersonal Relations Orientation--Behavior Scale" (Ph.D.
issertation, East Texas State University, 1970).

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ethods of teaching somewhat in that they utilized more
tudent initiated response. The more teaching experience
 faculty member had, the more he utilized indirect
eaching methods. As the size of classes increased,
eachers became more direct in establishing classroom
limate, a finding which would disagree with Scott's
esearch.[143] Instructors who had previous experience
eaching in public schools were more indirect in their
eaching methods than were teachers who had not had such
xperience. Finally, the teachers' perceived concepts
f themselves and their behavior with others was incon-
istent with their actual behavior in the classroom.
hese data would indicate that music classrooms exhibit
he same interaction characteristics as classrooms in
ther content areas. Possibly the necessity to digest
actual information in a relatively short span of time
ay account for the general predominance of direct inter-
ction behaviors as suggested by Soar.[144]

From the evidence accumulated in this review, it
ecomes apparent that interaction or interpersonal
elationships are composed of many interrelated factors.
ather than being a simplistic phenomenon, it is a com-
lex process. The complexity of the behavior makes an

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[143]Scott, op. cit.

[144]Soar, op. cit.

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ccurate appraisal extremely difficult. The difficulty
esides in the selection of appropriate responses which
ay be evaluated. In a study involving teachers of
ustralia, New Zealand, England, and the United States,
ampbell concluded " . . . that none of the systems of
lassroom analysis that are widely used does complete
ustice to the teaching style of outstanding teachers."[145]
e suggested that "The Flanders scheme, with its concepts
f indirectness and directness, comes close, but its
nappropriateness is revealed in the frequent warning
y teachers that if they were to teacher "naturally,"
here could be no coherent lesson to analyze."[146]

Of the many analysis systems available today,
ampbell believed the system developed by Gump held the
reatest promise in the analysis of classroom behavior.[147]
ampbell explained that the system:

> . . . employs a "non-interfering" approach aimed at
> discovering the naturally-occurring units of the
> classroom, and the continuous interdependent flow
> of the "stream of behavior." The result is the
> identification of a learning segment, which incor-
> porates in a single meaningful form, data and events
> ranging from the physical (books, size of corner,

[145]William J. Campbell, "The Teachers' View of
eaching Behavior," International Review of Education 18
March 1972): 545.

[146]Ibid.

[147]Paul V. Gump, The Classroom Behavior Setting:
he Relation to Student Behavior (Lawrence: University
f Kansas, 1967).

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etc.) to the psychological. One of the important elements of the segment is the set of learning formal specifications which can relate to any or all of the following activity issues: who will do what, with which objects, when, where, and with whom. The format is reflected in behavior, but it is located in the conceptions of the classroom participants and is responsible for the segment functioning in a stable and effective manner.[148]

Whether Gump's system proves to be adequate or not remains to be seen. The problem still remains that interaction is a complex process which may not be adequately measured at this time.

## Attitudes

As Allport has indicated, the concept of attitude "is probably the most distinctive and indispensible concept in contemporary American social psychology."[149] Although definitions vary considerably, there is general agreement that a person's attitude toward some object will influence his behavior toward that object either in a favorable or unfavorable manner. Social psychologists have used attitude as an explanatory device to account for observed consistent, overt behavior toward

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[148]Campbell, op. cit., p. 546.

[149]Gordon W. Allport, "The Historical Background of Modern Social Psychology," in Handbook of Social Psychology, ed: G. Lindzey and E. Aronson (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1968), p. 59.

an object.[150]  It is hardly surprising that attitude and behavior have been assumed to be closely related.

In recent years, the assumption of a strong relationship between attitude and behavior has been questioned by an increasing number of investigators.[151] Most of these studies obtained a general measure of attitude toward an object and then observed the relation between a subject's score on an attitudinal scale and some specific behavior toward the object.

Many attempts to account for the low attitude-behavior relationship have been made.  It has been

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[150]Donald T. Campbell, "Social Attitudes and Other Acquired Behavioral Dispositions," in Psychology: A Study of Science, 6, ed: S. Koch (New York:  McGraw Hill, 1963), p. 21.

[151]Melvin L. DeFleur and Frank R. Westie, "Verbal Attitudes and Overt Acts:  An Experiment on the Salience of Attitudes," American Sociological Review 23 (December 1958):  667-73; Leon Festinger, "Behavioral Support for Opinion Change," Public Opinion Quarterly 28 (Fall 1964): 404-17; Lawrence S. Linn, "Verbal Attitudes and Overt Behavior:  A Study of Racial Discrimination," Social Forces 43 (March 1965):  353-64; W. J. McGuire, "The Nature of Attitudes and Attitude Change," in The Handbook of Social Psychology 3, 2nd ed., ed: G. Lindsey and E. Aronson (Reading, Mass.:  Addison Wesley, 1969); Lyle G. Warner and Melvin L. De Fleur, "Attitude as an Interactional Concept:  Social Constraint and Social Distance and Intervening Variables Between Attitude and Action," American Sociological Review 34 (April 1969):  153-69; Allan W. Wicker, "Attitudes vs. Actions:  The Relationship of Verbal and Overt Behavioral Responses to Attitude Objects," Journal of Social Issues 25 (Autumn 1969): 41-78.

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suggested that attitudes are multidimensional.[152] Wehling

and Charters, in their research, discovered that an

analysis of attitudes did reveal multidimensional phe-

nomenon.[153] It was found that attitudinal " . . . sys-

tems are complex organizations of beliefs, consisting

of several discrete sets of interrelated concepts."[154]

If attitudes do possess a multidimensional char-

acteristic, then it follows that single attitude scores

cannot adequately represent all attitudinal factors.

With this limitation, global concepts of attitude could

not predict behavior accurately. Ehrlich and others[155]

propose that attitude is but one variable that influences

behavior. Other factors such as social customs, habits,

and personality characteristics also influence behavior

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[152]Milton J. Rosenberg and Carl I. Howland, "Cog-
nitive Affective, and Behavioral Components of Attitudes,"
in Attitude Organization and Change, ed: M. J. Rosenberg,
C. I. Howland, William J. McGuire, Robert P. Abelson, and
Jack W. Brehm (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press,
1960).

[153]Leslie J. Wehling and W. W. Charters, Jr.,
"Dimensions of Teacher Beliefs About the Teaching Pro-
cess," American Educational Research Journal 6 (January
1969): 7-30.

[154]Ibid., p. 17.

[155]Howard J. Erhlich, "Attitudes, Behavior, and
the Intervening Variables," American Sociologist 4
(February 1969): 29-34; H. C. Triandis, "Toward an
Analysis of the Components of Interpersonal Attitudes,"
in Attitude, Ego-Involvement, and Change, ed.: C. W.
Sherif and M. Sherif (New York: Wiley, 1967); Wicker,
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and must be taken into consideration. Discussions of
these and other suggestions may be found in Ehrlich,
Wicker, and Fishbein.[156]

Most explanations imply that traditional measures
of attitude, while relevant to the prediction of behavior,
have not been adequate. A systematic treatment of atti-
tudinal variables has not been evident in most educational
research reviewed for this study. It appears that for
the prediction of a given act, attitudinal variables
more specific to the act would have to be considered.

As one possible approach, Ajzen and Fishbein
theorized that the most immediately relevant predictor
of a specific action is the person's behavioral inten-
tion.[157] The study also revealed that behavioral
intentions are predictable by the theory's two compo-
nents: attitude toward the specific act and normative
beliefs multiplied by the subject's motivation to comply
with the norms. Other variables affected behavioral
intentions and overt behaviors only indirectly.

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[156]Ehrlich, op. cit.; Wicker, op. cit.; M. Fish-
bein, "The Prediction of Behaviors from Attitudinal
Variables," in Advances in Communication Research, ed.:
C. D. Mortensen and K. K. Sereno (New York: Harper &
Row, 1973).

[157]Icek Ajzen and Martin Fishbein, "Attitudinal
and Normative Variables as Predictors of Specific
Behaviors," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology
27 (July 1973): 41-57.

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Even though much is known about the psychological

effects of teachers' perceptions and appraisals of their

students, the exact behaviors through which these views

are expressed have been relatively untouched by research.

Silberman studied this deficiency by examining to what

extent, and in what ways, teachers' attitudes toward their

students are revealed in the teachers' classroom

behavior.[158]

Four attitudes held by teachers toward students

were identified by Silberman from an analysis of

teachers' descriptions of their students.  They were:

attachment, concern, indifference, and rejection.[159]

Despite constraints on attitude expression operating

in the classroom, teachers responded to different stu-

dents with three categories of teacher behaviors.

Serving as a means of communicating attitudes, these

three behaviors are:  (1) contact; (2) positive and

negative evaluation; and (3) acquiescence.  Contact

referred to teacher-initiated behavior.  Positive and

negative evaluation referred to expressions of pleasure

and annoyance concerning the adequacy or correctness of

student behavior.  Acquiescence indicated the extent to

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[158]Melvin L. Silberman, "Behavioral Expression
of Teachers' Attitudes Toward Elementary School Students,"
Journal of Educational Psychology 60 (October 1969):
402-07.

[159]Ibid., p. 402.

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permission, guidance, information, and other such

tiations. A teacher allocates reward and punishment

ough evaluation and acquiescence.

Silberman reached three conclusions.[160] The

st was that teachers' attitudes are generally revealed

their actions, in spite of many forces operating to

tain them. The second finding was that different

itudes are translated into action in different ways.

chers felt less constrained to express concern and

ifference than they did rejection and attachment.

third finding was that the students who received

m were aware of most behavioral expressions of their

chers' attitudes. It was proposed that the students'

ly classroom experience was significantly altered

the teacher's behavioral expressions of attitude.

Good and Brophy replicated the Silberman study

h similar results.[161] The data support Silberman's

clusions that teachers' attitudes toward children

correlate with teacher behavior; however, the data

o suggested that all four teacher attitudes lead to

ferential teacher behavior. Teachers in this study

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[160]Ibid., p. 406.

[161]Thomas L. Bood and Jere E. Brophy, "Behavioral
ression of Teacher Attitudes," Journal of Education
chology 63 (December 1972): 617-24.

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racted in distinct ways with their attachment stu-

s. Although no exaggerated favoritism was shown,

teachers provided attachment students with additional

port in subtle ways. Both studies found that indif-

ent students do not approach the teacher, nor does

teacher approach them. In this study the children

e seldom praised or criticized in work situations,

en though their performance was similar to other stu-

nts. Silberman reported that teachers had similar

ntact frequencies with rejected students as with

hers, but that they both praised and criticized them

re frequently, a result not substantiated by Kester

nd Letchworth.[162] In this study, teachers avoided

ublic contacts with rejected children providing them

ittle feedback. Occasional feedback was much more

ikely to involve criticism than feedback given to other

hildren. The data also indicated that school environ-

ent had little effect upon how the different attitude

roups were treated in the classroom.

In somewhat related studies, Gansneder as well

s Fowler and Ross found that school environment did,

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[162]Scott W. Kester and George A. Letchworth,
Communication of Teacher Expectations and Their Effects
n Achievement and Attitudes of Secondary School Stu-
ents," The Journal of Educational Research 66 (October
972): 51-55.

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ed, influence attitudes.[163]  Gansneder's data seemed

indicate that teacher attitudes make a difference on

dents' achievement in "poor black" schools but not in

or white" or "middle class white" schools.  Students

"white" schools felt more positively than students

"black" schools about school plant, community support,

il relations, teacher-student relationships, and

eral feelings about school; and their total attitude

ore was higher.  Students in the "white" schools

ored higher than students in "black" schools on

hievement tests and on academic ability tests.

Strang reported that school environment not only

nfluenced student attitudes but also student self-concept.

e found that:

1.  Children in racially balanced schools seemed
    to have more positive self-concepts than did
    children in racially unbalanced schools.
2.  Children in majority racial groups seemed to
    have more positive self-concepts.
3.  Children in racially balanced schools seemed
    to show no significant difference in their
    self-concepts when compared by race.
4.  Negro children as a total group tended to have
    more positive self-concepts than did white
    children.

[163]Bruce M. Gansneder, "Relationships Among
eachers' Attitudes, Students' Attitudes, and Students'
chievement" (Ph.D. dissertation, The Ohio State Uni-
ersity, 1970); Beverly D. Fowler, "Relation of Teacher
ersonality Characteristics and Attitudes to Teacher-
upil Rapport and Emotional Climate in the Elementary
lassroom" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of South
arolina, 1962); John D. Ross, "A Study of the Effect of
he Learning Environment of Selected Factors Related to
he Self-Concept of School Children" (Ed.D. dissertation,
niversity of Massachusetts, 1973).

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5. Negro children in predominantly Negro schools
   tended to report more positive self-concepts
   than did white children in predominantly white
   schools.
6. Negro children tended to be more defensive in
   reporting their self-perceptions.
7. Boys reported more positive self-concepts than
   did the girls.
8. Children at the eighth grade level reported more
   positive self-concepts than were reported by
   fourth graders.
9. School setting as determined by racial balance
   seemed to be more related to self-concept than
   was race or sex.[164]

Some research indicated that the teachers' expec-

ations influenced student as well as teacher attitudes.

wick, in reviewing research of teacher attitudes, con-

cluded that:

> . . . research findings on teacher expectations,
> attitudes, and behaviors toward the child similarly
> point to the close relationship between these affec-
> tive factors of the teacher (as they impinge on the
> child) and the child's success. The focus on the
> teacher's affective stance toward children evolved
> as a major concern. . . . [165]

Other studies concerned with teacher attitude

indicated that (1) children seemed to find the warm

and democratic teacher as more effective than the aloof,

autocratic teacher; and (2) children appeared to fulfill

the prophecy of the teacher in terms of that teacher's

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[164]William J. Strang, Jr., "The Self-Concepts of
Children in Elementary Schools With Differing Proportions
of Negro and White Students" (Ph.D. dissertation, Uni-
versity of Alabama, 1972).

[165]Kevin Swick, "The Need for Creating Productive
Attitude Climate for Learning," Education 93 (March 1973):
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arning expectations for the child.[166]  The positive

fects of teacher expectation has been well substantiated

Rosenthal and others.[167]

Since teacher attitudes and expectations have

en correlated with several classroom variables,

occhio and Kearney suspected a relationship between

eacher attitude and the nonpromotion of secondary

chool students.[168]  In a study designed to seek

relationships between several variables, the investi-

gators found a significant correlation between teacher

attitude as measured and failure rates.  The investi-

gators concluded that "The high school teacher with

undesirable teacher-pupil relations, who creates an

atmosphere of fear and tension, and thinks in terms of

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[166]R. Rosenthal and L. Jacobson, Pygmalion in
the Classroom (New York:  Holt, Rinehart and Winston,
1968).

[167]C. E. Flowers, "Effects of an Arbitrary
Accelerated Group Placement on the Tested Academic
Achievement of Educationally Disadvantaged Students"
(Ph.D. dissertation, Columbia University, 1966); C. C.
V. Pitt, "An Experimental Study of the Effects of Teachers'
Knowledge or Incorrect Knowledge of Pupils' IQ's on
Teachers' Attitudes and Practices and Pupils' Attitudes
and Achievement" (Ph.D. dissertation, Columbia University,
1956); R. Rosenthal, "Another View of Pygmalion," Con-
temporary Psychology 15 (August 1970):  524.

[168]Patrick D. Rocchio and Nolan C. Kearney,
"Teacher-Pupil Attitudes as Related to Nonpromotion of
Secondary School Pupils," Educational and Psychological
Measurement 16 (Summer 1965):  244-52.

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the subject matter to be covered rather than in terms of
what the pupils need, feel, know, and can do is more
likely to fail pupils than a teacher who is able to
maintain harmonious relations with pupils and who is
interested in pupils."[169] It was also found that failure
rate could not be interpreted in terms of the sex or age
of the teacher or the subject which he taught.

Other investigations have related teacher attitude
to different variables. Dillingham reported that inner
city teachers fell below the national norms of the Minne-
sota Teacher Attitude Inventory in their attitude toward
students and their job.[170] His study indicated that there
was no significant difference between the attitude of
teachers based on years of teaching experience. Knapp
revealed that teacher attitudes were less important in
determining effectiveness as a teacher than was simply
the number of years teaching experience.[171] Knapp's
research also reported that the attitudes of teachers

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[169]Ibid., p. 251.

[170]McKinley Dillingham, "A Study of Teacher Atti-
tude and Self-Concept of Students as Factors Related to
Academic Success of Inner City Pupils in a Selected Upper
Grade Center" (Ph.D. dissertation, Northwestern University,
1972).

[171]William M. Knapp, "A Study of Teacher Per-
sonality Characteristics and Rated Effectiveness" (Ph.D.
dissertation, University of Southern Mississippi, 1970).

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ho are rated highly effective by their respective princi-

als do not differ significantly from those rated highly

neffective. The attitudes of teachers whether rated

ffective or ineffective differed significantly from the

ttitudes of the rating principals. Rippy investigated

eacher attitudes and the prediction of teacher and pupil

lassroom behavior.[172] His data indicated that personality

haracteristics seemed to serve as a better predictor of

ehavior than did teacher attitude.

Successes and failures of teachers have frequently

een reported in terms of pupil control. The maintaining

f order and discipline is rated at the top of problems

eachers considered as their major difficulties.[173]

eacher attitude toward pupil control may vary from cus-

odial to humanistic as discussed by Willower, Eidell,

nd Hay who stated:

> Teachers may emphasize punitive sanctions, coercion
> and ridicule as well as withholding rewards to gain
> compliance to arbitrary standards set by the teacher
> or organization. Or sensitive teachers may appeal

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[172]Mark L. Rippy, "Certain Relationships Between
lassroom Behavior and Attitude and Personality Charac-
eristics of Selected Elementary Teachers" (Ed.D. disser-
ation, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1960).

[173]Lois N. Nelson, "Teacher Leadership: An
mpirical Approach to Analyzing Teacher Behavior in the
lassroom," Journal of Teacher Education 17 (Winter
966): 417-25.

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to the individual's sense of right and wrong, his
self-discipline in a non-punitive, understanding,
and supportive manner to achieve behavior norms
and role expectation.[174]

Dobson, Goldenberg, and Elsom investigated teacher atti-

tude toward pupil control and discovered no significant

difference between the proportion of indirect verbal

behavior for the humanistic and custodial teachers.[175]

Teachers with a humanistic attitude utilized a signifi-

cantly greater number of verbal behaviors categorized as

accepting and developing student ideas. There was no

significant difference between the proportion of direct

verbal behavior for humanistic and custodial teachers,

however, custodial teachers utilized a significantly

greater number of verbal behaviors categorized as lecture

and giving facts or opinions about content or procedure.

The proportion of student talk was not significantly

different for the humanistic and custodial teachers.

The incidence of pupil-initiated talk was significantly

greater for the humanistic teacher group.

Student teachers frequently are the subject of

research. Several investigations involving student

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[174]Donald L. Willower, Terry L. Eidell, and Wayne
K. Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology (University
Park: The Pennsylvania State University, 1967), p. 1.

[175]Russell Dobson, Ron Goldenberg, and Bell
Elson, "Pupil Control Ideology and Teacher Influence in
the Classroom," The Journal of Educational Research 66
(October 1972): 76-80.

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teachers have been reviewed for this study, a few of which gave some insight into attitudes exhibited by student teachers. Rothwell studied characteristics of student teachers both before and after internship reaching two conclusions pertaining to attitude.[176] Data revealed that (1) a favorable teacher attitude was significantly related to high ratings of interns, and (2) there was no significant difference in attitude scores before and after internship. Huber, using simulated classroom training techniques with an experimental group of student teachers, discovered that in spite of the special training no significant differences in attitude were detected between the experimental and control group.[177] Firestone, investigating attitudes of student teachers in an early childhood program, learned that effective student teachers were significantly different in a positive way from noneffective student teachers in their attitude as measured by the Minnesota Teacher

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[176]Ann Rothwell, "The Relationship of Personality Traits, Teacher Attitude, Anxiety Level, and Academic Achievement to Ratings of Teacher Interns" (Ed.D. dissertation, Auburn University, 1970).

[177]Harold W. Huber, "An Investigation of the Effects of Selected Simulated Classroom Situations on Student Teacher Attitude and Empathy" (Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1972).

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Attitude Inventory.[178]  The investigator concluded that

a positive attitude toward others was an important aspect

of a teacher training program and, therefore, the training

programs should emphasize more than an objective view of

the child's experience.  One study reviewed explored the

possibility that student teachers would prefer certain

pupil personality types.[179]  Results confirmed the

hypothesis.  In general it appeared that student teachers

perceived most positively the rigid, conforming girl

and secondly, the rigid, conforming boy.  The third

position in the preference order was occupied by the

dependent, passive girl who was closely followed by her

male counterpart.  The flexible boy is fifth in the

ordering while the flexible girl and the independent boy

vied for sixth and seventh positions.  The lowest ratings

were given to the independent assertive girl.  These

findings were confirmed by Pellegreno in a study reviewed

earlier.[180]  Implications of these results should remind

educators responsible for teacher training to attempt to

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[178]Erika I. Firestone, "The Relationship of Stu-
dent Teaching Effectiveness to Self Concept and Attitude
Toward Others" (Ed.D. dissertation, University of Massa-
chusetts, 1973).

[179]Norma D. Feshbach, "Student Teacher Preference
for Elementary School Pupils Varying in Personality Char-
acteristics," Journal of Educational Psychology 60 (April
1969):  126-32.

[180]B. Pellegreno and W. C. Williams, op. cit.

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increase student teachers' awareness of their particular

preferences and the possible effects of these preferences

upon their evaluation of, and behavior toward, varying

kinds of pupils.

Moving from student teacher to in-service training,

investigators revealed conflicting results when comparing

the attitudes of in-service teachers. Putz conducted a

ten-week in-service science workshop designed to change

teachers' attitudes and behaviors toward becoming facili-

tators of learning and creating an open learning environ-

ment.[181] One instrument revealed significant changes

in teachers' attitudes before and after the workshop.

The second instrument indicated the attitudes before and

after the workshop did not change significantly. It was

noted that all the attitude statements which changed sig-

nificantly were considered indirect behavior attitudes.

Briscoe conducted a study to determine if training

received by elementary supervising teachers in the use

of interaction analysis as an observational technique

affected teacher attitudes toward teaching.[182] Results

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[181]Gerard J. Putz, "An Analysis of the Effects of an Open (Student Centered) In-Service Education Workshop on Teachers' Attitudes" (Ed.D. dissertation, Wayne State University, 1972).

[182]Ida C. Briscoe, "A Study of the Effects of In-Service Training in Interaction Analysis on Teacher Atti-tudes, Teacher-Pupil Interaction Patterns, and Pupil Achievement in Reading" (Ed.D. dissertation, University of Georgia, 1970).

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indicated that a change in attitude toward teaching is not significantly affected by the training of elementary supervising teachers in the use of interaction analysis. Callison revealed that teacher attitudes could be influenced by the attitudes of teaching assistants.[183] The hypothesis that authoritarian teacher attitudes would be less authoritarian after contact with nonauthoritarian teaching assistants was confirmed in the negative sense that experimental teachers showed relatively less increase in authoritarianism than did control teachers. Rule has shown that teachers' behaviors could most effectively be changed by direct intervention by the supervising teacher.[184] Direct intervention seemingly was more effective than conferences or video feedback, a finding that contradicts findings of other studies reviewed using video feedback.

Many studies have explored various aspects of teacher-student rapport and attitude, and a lesser number have investigated the relationship between teacher survival and attitudes toward teaching. Krasno, in a comprehensive study at the Stanford Center for Research and

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[183]William L. Callison, "Teacher Perceptions of Autonomy and Authoritarian Teacher Attitudes in Rural Schools" (Ph.D. dissertation, Stanford University, 1970).

[184]Sarah E. Rule, "A Comparison of Three Different Types of Feedback of Teachers' Performance" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Kansas, 1972).

Development in Teaching, examined initial teacher-student

rapport and survival in teaching as a function of atti-

tudes about education held by potential teachers upon

entering a teacher education program.[185] Data indicated

that high-rapport subjects differed from low-rapport

subjects in their greater flexibility, higher sensitivity

to needs of individual students, and generally more pro-

gressive educational philosophy. Between 18 and 21 months

after completion of their education program, 84 of the

original 154 subjects were teaching. A review of data

revealed that the survivors entered teacher training

with attitudes generally more progressive than those of

nonsurvivors and with greater respect for the value of

teaching and for the amount of work involved in teaching.

Krasno concluded from these data that potential teachers

bring educational attitudes to teacher training which

markedly affects their relationships with students and

their probability of remaining in teaching. In addition,

students were able to infer a rapport from these attitudes

from their very first impression of the teacher with no

knowledge of the teacher's behaviors or beliefs. Symonds

reported similar findings in his study and concluded that:

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[185]Richard M. Krasno, Teachers' Attitudes: Their
Empirical Relationship to Rapport with Students and Sur-
vival in the Profession, Stanford Center for Research and
Development in Teaching Technical Report No. 28 (Stanford,
Calif.: Stanford University, 1972), pp. 90-92.

> . . . teaching is essentially an expression of per-
> sonality.  The teacher adapts himself to teaching in
> a manner that is harmonious with his expressions
> toward life situations in general.  Methods and
> procedures learned during college preparations may
> influence teaching superficially but they do not
> determine the nature of the relation of a teacher
> to his pupils or the teacher's basic attitude toward
> teaching.[186]

The results of the Krasno and Symonds studies possess

great potential for future research and for possible new

directions in teacher education.

The final study in this review examined college

freshmen attitudes toward public school music.  Hulbert,

using nine hundred college freshmen and a Likert-type

rating scale, achieved the following interesting

results.[187]  Singing activities were preferred over

other types of activities.  Singing activities preferred

most were the least common.  Rhythmic activities were

not well liked and were less common in junior high

school than in intermediate grades.  Girls' preference

for general music was greater than the boys'.  Girls'

preference for singing at both levels was greater than

boys'.  Favorable attitude declined as the age of the

teacher increased with the exception of theory and

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[186]Percival M. Symonds, "Teaching as a Function of
the Teacher's Personality," Journal of Teacher Education
5 (March 1954):  79-83.

[187]Howard E. Hulbert, "College Freshman Attitudes
Toward Public School Music" (Ph.D. dissertation, West
Virginia University, 1972).

appreciation activities.  Preferences for singing show
songs, learning about instruments, and music history
were greater when the teacher was a man.  Toward activi-
ties which were not well liked, attitudes were more
favorable when the teacher was an older man than for
any other teacher sex-age combination.

## Summary

The review of literature indicated a significant
positive relationship between the teacher's personality
and his behavior.  Teacher personality seemed to determine
whether student classroom experiences would be successful
or harmful.  Most studies supported the view that effec-
tiveness in the classroom is closely related to a positive
teacher self-concept.  An integrated self-concept is not
only reflected in the teacher personality, but also
manifests itself in student identification.  While the
teacher's perceived self-concept influences student
behavior, it also conditions his perception of others.
This review of literature has revealed that the self-
concept is one of the most important variables in inter-
personal relationships, especially those experienced in
the classroom.

Teacher effectiveness in the classroom is based
upon interaction of personalities--both the student's
and the teacher's.  Meaningful interaction is based upon

a teacher-student relationship characterized by genuine-
ness, humanness, and positive mutual regard. The inter-
action will be tempered by both teacher and student
personality needs. Effective interaction reveals flexi-
bility. The teacher should determine whether the class-
room situation requires a direct or an indirect style of
interaction. The level of indirectness should be deter-
mined by the type of learning activity. Generally,
indirect interaction elicits the most favorable student
responses and attracts the most student approach behaviors.
Differing student personalities should be considered when
appropriate levels of indirectness are being selected.
Inappropriate levels of indirectness or misplaced teacher
attention may be reflected in student behavior. The
interaction style of the teacher, and not class size,
is a determining factor in classroom interaction. Inter-
action style remained relatively unchanged when subjected
to short, concentrated periods of training suggesting
faulty procedures or inadequate evaluation. Successful
interaction may be dependent upon more than learned
techniques. Effective interaction may be the result of
certain teacher personality variables—a positive self-
concept and attitude.

Most studies reviewed for the present research
supported the view that teacher attitudes are apparent
in their behaviors. It was further proposed that teacher

attitudes were translated into action in different, subtle ways. In spite of subtle teacher behaviors, students could perceive teacher attitudes rather accurately even after their first meeting. Effective teachers exhibited more positive attitudes toward students. Teachers possessing more humanistic attitudes also tended to elicit more student-initiated verbal interaction in their classrooms. Teachers who achieved a high degree of rapport with students also revealed sensitivity to student needs, showed greater flexibility and professed more humanistic philosophies. Teacher attitude seemed to react to school environment and to influence the number of student failures. Some literature proposed that teachers who survived in the profession entered teacher training with different attitudes toward teaching--attitudes which were only superficially influenced by teacher training. Several writers suggested that attitude data should be considered cautiously. It was their belief that most measurement of attitude was inadequate in its depth of consideration. In spite of proposed inadequacies of measurement, teacher attitude is assigned an important role in any evaluation of classroom interaction. Teaching is an expression of personality.

This review of literature lends support to the positions presented in the present study. Teacher personality factors--self-concept and attitude--do affect

behavior. The apparent relationship between the per-
sonality and behavior would suggest that interaction
behavior is also influenced by personality factors.
Assuming such a relationship, the problem, then, is to
determine the degree of relationship between the study
variables.

# CHAPTER III

## CRITERION INSTRUMENTS

### Variables To Be Measured

In the context of this study, four variables needed to be measured: teacher self-concept; teacher attitude toward teaching and students; student attitude toward music learning and the music teacher; and the verbal interaction behaviors occurring in the music classroom.

The <u>Tennessee Self-Concept Scale</u> was selected to measure the music teacher's global self-concept as well as various components of self-concept. The <u>Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory</u> measured the teacher's attitude toward teaching and students; the <u>Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory</u> measured the students' attitude toward the music class and the music teacher. The <u>Flanders System of Interaction Analysis</u> was used to measure the verbal interaction occurring in the music classroom. Verbal interaction was observed for twenty-five minutes during each of four classroom visits producing two thousand Flanders recordings.

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### Tennessee Self-Concept Scale[1]

After having used many instruments to measure the
self-concept, Dr. William H. Fitts, formulator of the
Tennessee Self Concept Scale, felt a need for a self-
concept scale which was simple for the subject, applicable
in many situations, well standardized, and multi-
dimensional in its description of the self-concept.
The author began the developmental work on the Scale
with the Tennessee Department of Mental Health in 1955.
In the original development of the Scale, the first step
was to compile a large number of self-description items.
The original items were derived from a number of other
self-concept measures.  Items were also obtained from
written self-descriptions of patients and nonpatients.
After considerable study a system was developed for
classifying items on the basis of what respondents were
saying.  This evolved into the two-dimensional 3X5 scheme
employed on the Score Sheet.  This part of the Scale con-
tains ninety items, equally divided as to positive and
negative items.  The remaining ten items are the Self-
Criticism Scale.

After the items were edited, seven clinical psy-
chologists were employed as judges to classify the items

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[1]William H. Fitts, Tennessee Self Concept Scale
(Nashville, Tenn.:  Counselor Recordings and Tests, 1951).

according to the 3X5 scheme. They also evaluated each item as to whether it was positive or negative in content. The final ninety items used in the Scale were those where there was perfect agreement by the judges.

The subject uses the Scale's one hundred self-descriptive statements to portray his own picture of himself. The Scale is self-administering for either individuals or groups. It can be used with subjects age twelve or higher and having at least a sixth grade reading level. The instrument is also applicable to the whole gamut of psychological adjustment from healthy, well-adjusted people to psychotic patients.

The Scale is available in two forms, a Counseling Form and a Clinical and Research Form. Both forms use the same test booklet and test items; the forms are different in their scoring system. The Clinical and Research Form used in this study is the most complex in terms of scoring, analysis, and interpretation. Scoring for both forms can be done either by hand or by machine through the test publisher. Most subjects complete the Scale in about twenty to thirty minutes. Hand scoring requires about twenty minutes for the Clinical and Research Form.

A broad sample of 626 subjects were used in the standardization process. The sample included people from various parts of the United States, and age ranges from 12 to 68. There were approximately equal numbers

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of both sexes, both black and white subjects, representatives of all social, economic, and intellectual levels and educational levels from sixth grade through the Ph.D. degree. Subjects were obtained from high school and college classes, employers at state institutions and various other sources.

Reliability data were based on test-retest with sixty college students over a two-week period. The test-retest reliability coefficients of all major scores, on both forms, are reported in Table 1. While Fitts reported a reliability of .92 on the total self-concept score, the writer, using a sample of thirty-two teacher subjects, obtained a reliability coefficient of .96. Fitts has also found consistency profile patterns through repeated measures on the same individuals over long periods of time. Through various types of profile analyses, Fitts demonstrated that the distinctive features of individual profiles are still present for most persons a year or more later.

Initially, the content validity of the instrument was determined by a panel of seven clinical psychologists who classified each item according to category and evaluated each item on its positiveness or negativeness. The items retained in the Scale produced perfect agreement among the judges. Concurrent validity was also achieved when data were compared between groups based

TABLE 1.--Flanders' Interaction Analysis Categories (FIAC)

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Teacher Talk** | Response | 1. Accepts feeling. Accepts and clarifies an attitude or the feeling tone of a pupil in a nonthreatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative. Predicting and recalling feelings are included. |
| | | 2. Praises or encourages. Praises or encourages pupil action or behavior. Jokes that release tension, but not at the expense of another individual; nodding head, or saying "Um hm?" or "go on" are included. |
| | | 3. Accepts or uses ideas of pupils. Clarifying, building or developing ideas suggested by a pupil. Teacher extensions of pupil ideas are included but as the teacher brings more of his own ideas into play, shift to category five. |
| | | 4. Asks questions. Asking a question about content or procedure, based on teacher ideas, with the intent that a pupil will answer. |
| | Initiation | 5. Lecturing. Giving facts or opinions about content or procedures; expressing his own ideas, giving his own explanation, citing an authority other than a pupil. Teacher musical performance or record playing in lieu of performance. |
| | | 6. Giving directions. Directions, commands, or orders to which a pupil is expected to comply. |
| | | 7. Criticizing or justifying authority. Statements intended to change pupil behavior from nonacceptable to acceptable patter; bawling someone out; stating why the teacher is doing what he is doing; extreme self-reference. |
| **Pupil Talk** | Response | 8. Pupil-talk--response. Talk by pupils in response to teacher. Teacher initiates the contact or solicits pupil statement or structures the situation. Freedom to express own ideas is limited; teacher initiated student performance. |
| | Initiation | 9. Pupil-talk--initiation. Talk by pupils which they initiate. Expressing own ideas; initiating a new topic; freedom to develop opinions and a line of thought, like asking thoughtful questions; going beyond the existing structure; student initiated performance. |
| **Silence** | | 10. Silence or confusion. Pauses, short periods of silence and periods of confusion in which communication cannot be understood by the observer. |

on the subject's psychological status, based on deviant scores and cutoff points, based on types of psychological disorders, and based on subjects displaying normal and deviant behaviors. Quinn discovered a significant relationship between the Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory indicating that people with positive self-concepts tend to have more desirable attitudes for teaching.[2] A significant correlation between these two instruments was not achieved in the present study. Predictive validity was also established for the Scale by its success in detecting predicted change in self-concept due to significant experiences in the lives of the subjects.

A copy of this instrument may be found in the Appendix.

### Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory[3]

The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory (MTAI) was chosen for this study on the basis of its popularity, its norms for nonacademic teachers, its reliability and

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[2]Mary C. Quinn, "A Study of the Relationship Between Attitudes Toward Teaching and Attitudes Toward the Self, of Forty-Eight Teacher-Trainees at Tennessee A. and I. State University, Nashville, Tennessee" (M.A. thesis, Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State University, 1957).

[3]Walter W. Cook, Carroll Leeds, and Robert Callis, Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory (New York: The Psychological Corporation, 1951).

validity, its ease of administration, and its method of scoring.[4]  This writer discovered in reviewing literature related to teacher attitude that after more than twenty years as a commercially published inventory, the MTAI was relied on for attitude appraisal in more studies than any other instrument.

At the time of publication the authors described some of the purposes and background of the instrument by stating that:

> Investigations carried on by the authors over the past ten years indicate that the attitudes of teachers toward children and school work can be measured with high reliability, and that they are significantly correlated with the teacher-pupil relations found in the teachers' classrooms.  The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory has emerged from these researches.  It is designed to measure those attitudes of a teacher which predict how well he will get along with pupils in interpersonal relationships, and indirectly how well satisfied he will be with teaching as a vocation.  The most direct use to which the MTAI can be put is the selection of students for teacher preparation and the selection of teachers for teaching positions.[5]

The Inventory contained 150 items whose response categories included strongly agree (SA), agree (A), undecided (U), disagree (DA), and strongly disagree (SD).

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[4]J. W. Getzels and P. W. Jackson, "The Teacher's Personality and Characteristics," in Handbook of Research on Teaching, ed.:  Nathaniel L. Gage (Chicago:  Rand McNally and Co., 1965), pp. 506-82; Carroll H. Leeds, "The Predictive Validity of the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory," Final Report Project No. 1-D-019, Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (Greenville, S.C.:  Furman University, 1972).

[5]Cook et al., op. cit., p. 3.

There is no time limit; however, it usually took twenty
to thirty minutes to complete the instrument.  The possible
range of scores on the MTAI was from plus 150 to minus 150.
The scores were then given a percentile rating according
to the various norm groups.

In the selection of the 150 items for Form A,
the published form, six factors were considered:  (1) the
discriminating power of the item, (2) the extent to which
item responses were influenced by professional education
courses, (3) the extent to which item responses were
influenced by teaching experience, (4) the extent to
which the content of the item duplicated that of another
item, (5) the clearness of the statement, and (6) the
consistency of the response patterns of predetermined
superior and inferior teachers.

The concurrent validity of the original instrument
was established by correlating the Inventory responses
of a random sample of 100 teachers in grades four through
six and three rating criteria.  Later validations have
included other grade level teachers both academic and
nonacademic.  Response data were correlated with the
following criteria:  pupil ratings, principal ratings,
and ratings by an expert in teacher effectiveness.  The
reliability of the pupil, principal, and expert's
ratings were .93, .87, and .92 respectively.  The cor-
relations between the pupil, principal, and expert ratings

and the scores achieved on the MTAI were .46, .45, and .49 respectively. The Inventory scores and the combined scores of the three criteria ratings achieved a validity correlation of .60. The reliability of the original instrument using the Spearman-Brown slit-half procedure was .89.[6] This writer achieved a reliability of .8913 on the instrument using the Hoyt formula. Other psychometric data may be found in the test manual.

Studies reviewed for Chapter II would indicate acceptance of the Inventory as a valid predictor of teacher attitudes. One of the original authors of the MTAI, Carroll H. Leeds, recently completed a study devoted to reaffirming the predictive validity of the instrument.[7] Leeds discovered correlations of the combined criteria to be in the fifties, slightly higher than the correlations on the original study. Of the three criteria, the ratings by the observers remained in highest agreement with the MTAI score, while the lowest agreement was found in pupil ratings. An observation of interest to this dissertation was that nonacademic teachers usually scored lower on the Inventory than academic teachers. Using the Spearman-Brown formula, a reliability coefficient from .88 to .95 was established.

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[6] Ibid., pp. 11-12.

[7] Leeds, op. cit.

Evidence would indicate that the predictive validity of the MTAI is sufficiently high to support its use in predicting teacher behavior. Leeds cautioned that:

> It should, of course, be used in conjunction with other aptitude measures for the most efficient prediction of total teaching competence. Teaching is a many-sided and complex art, and its assessment should include both cognitive and non-cignitive measures. As one relatively non-intellective measure of teacher acceptance of pupils and children, the MTAI would seem to perform an important function in the prediction of teacher behavior.[8]

## Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory[9]

The Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory was an outgrowth of a study conducted by Ned A. Flanders in the Minneapolis Public Schools during the 1958-60 school years. The instrument was further developed during subsequent field studies.

The first attitude inventory used in the Flander's study was five scales of the Hoyt-Grim Student Attitude

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[8]Ibid.

[9]Ned A. Flanders, Teacher Influence, Pupil Attitudes, and Achievement, Final Report Cooperative Research Project No. 397 (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, 1960).

Inventory.[10]   The scales were subjected to an item
analysis after being used in thirty-four classes, and
sixty-two items were selected as the most discriminating.
The scales were highly intercorrelated, with a range of
.66 to .88 and a median correlation of .81.   It was
determined that the high positive intercorrelations
supported the use of a single total score for each stu-
dent and the use of class means to establish rank order.
A year later the instrument was used in a parallel study
in thirty-three New Zealand classrooms.   The attitude
inventory was used to identify contrasting situations.
Contrasting teacher behavior was quite apparent in the
five highest and lowest classes.   Teachers in the lowest-
scoring classes were stricter, harsher, often louder, and
less flexible in their reactions to students.   The stu-
dents were consistently ready to take advantages of any
lapse in teacher control.

Characterization of the teachers in the five
highest-scoring classes was more difficult because they
were less alike.   The pupils, however, in the five
highest-scoring classes generally seemed busy at work
and did not appear to be apprehensive or overly concerned
about the teacher.

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[10]Paul R. Grim, Cyril J. Hoyt, and Dana N.
Peitiersen, "An Appraisal of Student Teacher Competen-
cies," Journal of Teacher Education 5 (June 1954):  129-
33.

The studies established significant relationships among teacher statements, pupil attitudes toward the teacher and classroom learning activities. When a class scored higher on scales of teacher attractiveness, motivation for schoolwork, fair rewards and punishments, independence, and lack of disabling anxiety, its teacher showed more acceptance of, interest in, and constructive use of the students' ideas expressed in classroom discussion. In New Zealand, the teachers of higher-scoring classes also gave fewer directions and made few criticisms.

The form of the inventory which resulted from these studies is the form used in the present study. The inventory contained eighty-nine items whose answers were chosen from a four-point continuum from a completely positive to a completely negative response. Student responses ranged from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" or "every day" to "no days."

The MSAI included five reading questions which were designed to assess whether students were reading the items before answering. It was this writer's conclusion from observation that students were conscientious in their responses, reading the items before answering. Many times during the administration of the inventory, students raised questions about the reading items. The students in all cases read the statements, but did not have the factual knowledge to answer the item.

Statement 16, for instance, asked the student whether

Seattle, Washington was the capital of the United States.

Many respondents were unsure of the answer even though

they possessed the ability to read the statement. Two

students were able to respond to the items in the inventory

only after each item was read to them by the writer.

The reading level of one class was judged by the teacher

to fall below the reading skill required to read the

items. In this one case, the researcher read each item

to the class.

The class mean scores achieved on the MTAI

seemed to reflect the observed attitudes of the students,

however it must be recognized that the validity of self-

report measures have been subject to question. The 739

subjects achieved a reliability of .94 using the Hoyt

formula. This level of reliability was an indication

that the instrument was suitable for this research.

Flanders achieved reliabilities ranging from .68 to .93

with the median reliability at .85.[11]

### Flanders System of Interaction Analysis[12]

A teacher's behavior is so complex and variable

that it is extremely difficult to obtain an accurate

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[11]Ned A. Flanders, Teacher Influence, Pupil
Attitudes and Achievement, Cooperative Research Monograph
No. 12, U.S. Office of Education, 1965.

[12]Flanders, Project #397.

recording of behaviors. Quite often an observer's pre-
conceived notions of what ought to happen in interaction
prevent him from perceiving all behaviors. Interaction
analysis was designed to minimize the difficulties of
observer bias. Interaction analysis is a systematic
recording of each small bit of verbal interaction.

Interaction analysis is especially concerned
with the teacher's influence pattern and control of the
students' freedom. Analysis is designed to distinguish
teacher behaviors that increase students' freedom of
action. A system of behavior categories is used by the
observer to help him distinguish the various teacher
actions, and to prevent him from being diverted by
subject content.

The Flanders System of Interaction Analysis
involved only verbal behavior because at that time, non-
verbal behavior achieved lower levels of reliability.[13]
Flanders and others have assumed that the teacher's
verbal behavior is consistent with nonverbal actions,
and indicative of his total behavior.[14] As a result
of this study and other observations, this writer, how-
ever, does not wholeheartedly concur with Flander's
assumption.

To record the verbal interaction, an observer sits
in the classroom where he is able to see and hear both

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[13]Ibid.

[14]Ibid.

the teacher and the students. Every three seconds the observer determines which of the numbered categories described the completed interaction. This category number is recorded while at the same time observing the interaction of the next three-second time span. At this tempo, twenty to twenty-five recordings are made each minute. The original pattern of interaction is maintained by writing the category numbers in a sequence from the top to the bottom of the recording column. The observer may also record any written notes which will aid him in the recall of the recording session.

The Flanders System of Interaction Analysis contains ten categories. Seven represent various types of teacher talk; two describe student talk; and one indicates periods of silence or periods of confusion. Teacher talk which represents indirect influence is assigned to categories one through four, while direct verbal behavior is indicated by either category five, six, or seven.

Student talk is categorized by numbers eight and nine. Generally, direct teacher influence results in less student talk which is usually a response to teacher initiation. Indirect teacher influence generally produces more student talk and especially more student-initiated verbalizing. The Flanders System, by its use of only two student categories, does not precisely distinguish student verbal behaviors. The purpose

of the System is primarily intended to study teacher verbal behaviors, thus allowing for a more generalized appraisal of student verbal interaction.

Category ten indicates short periods of silences and those periods which are confused and nondirected. The category may represent silent productive periods as well as noisy nonproductive occasions. This dichotomy indicates the inadequacy of the System; but here again, as with categories eight and nine, the emphasis of the System is upon teacher behavior and not student inter- action or other activities.

The reliability of the instrument was, in reality, dependent upon the reliability of the observer. The observer's reliability must be acceptable before data achieved through observation may be seriously considered. Flanders stated the Scott coefficient of reliability was the most appropriate method of determining observer reliability for his study.[15]

Scott's method was chosen because it is unaffected by low frequencies. The method may be adapted to percent figures and is more sensitive to higher levels of relia- bility. By using the Scott method, reliability may be

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[15]Ned Flanders, "The Problem of Observer Training and Reliability," Interaction Analysis: Theory, Research, and Application, ed.: Edmund J. Amidon and John B. Hough (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1967), p. 161.

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estimated more rapidly in the field.  Scott's coefficient called "pi" is figured by the following formula:

$$\pi \quad = \frac{P_o - P_e}{1 - P_e}$$

$P_o$ states the proportion of agreement, and $P_e$ indicates the proportion of agreement expected by chance.  Chance agreement is found by squaring the proportion of tallies in each category and summing these over all categories. To obtain percent figures from the Scott method $P_o$ represented as (100-difference in percentages) and $1 - P_e$ as (100 - sum of differences squared).  The resulting coefficient indicates the amount that two observers exceed chance agreement divided by the amount that perfect agreement exceeds chance.[16]  Using the Scott method, the writer achieved a reliability level of 81.4 for the present study.  See Table 2.

As a result of the review of literature in Chapter II, this writer concluded that most research in verbal interaction relied upon the Flanders System or variations of the Flanders techniques.  The variations seemed to develop categories eight, nine, and ten more extensively or include some nonverbal behaviors.  By

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[16]William A. Scott, "Reliability of Content Analysis:  The Case of Nominal Coding," The Public Opinion Quarterly 19 (Fall 1955):  321-25.

TABLE 2.--Observer reliability coding data

| Category | Investigator % of Total | Observer % of Total | Difference | Average | (Average %)² |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 0.0 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 0.6 | 0.004 |
| 2 | 2.4 | 2.8 | 0.4 | 2.6 | 0.067 |
| 3 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 0.0 | 1.6 | 0.025 |
| 4 | 5.2 | 4.4 | 0.8 | 4.8 | 0.230 |
| 5 | 16.8 | 16.9 | 0.1 | 16.8 | 2.822 |
| 6 | 20.2 | 20.0 | 0.2 | 20.1 | 4.040 |
| 7 | 8.2 | 1.6 | 6.6 | 4.9 | 0.240 |
| 8 | 30.0 | 30.8 | 0.8 | 30.4 | 9.241 |
| 9 | 6.0 | 10.1 | 4.1 | 8.0 | 0.640 |
| 10 | 9.6 | 10.7 | 1.1 | 10.2 | 1.040 |
| Totals | 100.0 | 100.0 | 15.2 | | 18.3 |

$$\pi = \frac{(100-15.2) - 18.3}{100 - 18.3} = \frac{84.8 - 18.3}{81.7} = \frac{66.5}{81.7} = 81.4$$

including teacher and recorded musical performance in category five and student musical performance in categories eight and nine, the ten categories were adequate for this study.

# CHAPTER IV

## ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

### Review of Procedure

The purpose of this study was to determine the
relationship between the general music teacher's self-
concept and (1) the music teacher's attitude toward the
students and the teaching of general music, (2) the general
music students' attitude toward the music teacher and
music learning, and (3) the type of verbal interaction
occurring in the general music classroom.

Significance of the data gathered to assess these
relationships was determined by obtaining a Spearman rank
correlation coefficient ($r_s$, rho). It is a measure of
association which requires that both variables be measured
in at least an ordinal scale so that the objects or indi-
viduals under study may be ranked in two ordered series.
This statistic reveals a monotonic relationship which
was the primary concern in this study. Although there
is no good estimate of the standard error of rho,

there is reason to believe that it is almost as reliable as the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r).[1]

## Presentation of Data

Following a statement of the null hypothesis, data will be presented which will support acceptance or rejection of that hypothesis. Other questions to be answered in this study will be treated following the presentation of the null hypotheses.

### Hypothesis I:

There is no significant relationship between the teacher's total self-image score (P+N Score) as measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and the students' positive attitude score as measured by the Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory.

TABLE 3.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient between the variables of Hypothesis I

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|-----------|-------------|--------------|
| TSCS -- MSAI | .2111 | .12 |

The null hypothesis that there would be no significant relationship between teacher self-concept and student attitude was accepted. Even though the total self-concept score revealed no significant relationship,

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[1]Joy P. Guilford and Benjamin Fruchter, Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education, 5th ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1973), p. 285.

the subscale scores did indicate some significant relation-
ships. Subscale scores will be presented with another
hypothesis.

Hypothesis II:

There will be no significant correlation between the
teacher's total self-image score (P+N Score) as
measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and the
teacher's total indirect verbal interaction as
determined by the Flanders System of Interaction
Analysis.

TABLE 4.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficients between
the variables of Hypothesis II

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|---|---|---|
| TSCS -- FSIA 1234 | -.1554 | .20 |
| TSCS -- FSIA 123 | -.1869 | .15 |

The null hypothesis that there would be no sig-
nificant relationship between the variables was accepted.
Two aspects of the data were interesting. The correlation
was negative indicating that higher self-concepts were
associated with lower incidence of indirect verbal inter-
action. Secondly, there was higher correlation and
greater significance between the variables when Category
4, the subject matter in-put, was not included in the
data.

Hypothesis III:

There will be no significant correlation between the teacher's total self-image score (P+N Score) as measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and the teacher's total direct verbal interaction as measured by the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis.

TABLE 5.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficients between the variables of Hypothesis III

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|---|---|---|
| TSCS -- FSIA 567 | -.1586 | .19 |
| TSCS -- FSIA 67 | .1616 | .19 |

The null hypothesis that there would be no relationship between the variables was accepted. The negative correlation achieved when Category 5, the sub-ject matter in-put, was included proved to be interesting, especially when Categories 6 and 7 produced a positive correlation.

Hypothesis IV:

There will be no significant correlation between the teacher's total self-image score (P+N Score) as measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and the total student verbal interaction as determined by the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis.

TABLE 6.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficients between
the variables of Hypothesis IV

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|---|---|---|
| TSCA -- FSIA 8 | .2221 | .11 |
| TSCS -- FSIA 9 | -.3135 | .04 |

The null hypothesis that there would be no
relationship between the teacher's self-concept and
student verbal interaction was tested by correlating
the totals of FSIA Categories 8 and 9 with the teacher's
total self-concept score. The Category 8 correlation
accepted the hypothesis, while Category 9 rejected it.
The significant negative correlation between Category 9
and self-concept indicated that teachers with more posi-
tive self-concept also experienced lesser amounts of
student-initiated verbal interaction. The data suggested
that Category 8 while not significant did achieve a
positive correlation while Category 9 was negative, indi-
cating some relationship between the self-concept
variable and the source of student interaction.

Hypothesis V:

There will be no significant correlation between the
teacher's self-image score (P+N Score) as measured
by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and Category 10
of the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis.

TABLE 7.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient between
the variables of Hypothesis V

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|-----------|-------------|--------------|
| TSCS -- FSIA 10 | .0731 | .35 |

The null hypothesis that there would be no sig-
nificant correlation between the variables was accepted.
The amount of silent periods or confused, noisy times
in the classroom seemed to show no relationship to
teacher self-concept.

Hypothesis VI:

There will be no significant correlation between the
teacher's total self-image score (P+N Score) as
measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and
the teacher's attitude score of the Minnesota
Teacher Attitude Inventory.

TABLE 8.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient between
the variables of Hypothesis VI

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|-----------|-------------|--------------|
| TSCS -- MTAI | .1986 | .14 |

The null hypothesis that there would be no sig-
nificant correlation between teacher self-concept and
attitude was accepted.  Studies reviewed for this
research supported the assumption.  However, there are
two different aspects of the teacher's personality involved
which may have produced the low correlation.

Hypothesis VII:

There will be no significant correlation between the teacher's Subscale scores of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and the students' attitude score as measured by the Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory.

TABLE 9.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficients between the variables of Hypothesis VII

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|---|---|---|
| TSCS Self Crit. -- MSAI | -.2811 | .06 |
| TSCS Identity -- MSAI | .3867 | .01 |
| TSCS Self Satis. -- MSAI | .1969 | .14 |
| TSCS Behavior -- MSAI | .1866 | .15 |
| TSCS Phys Self -- MSAI | .1043 | .28 |
| TSCS Moral Eth -- MSAI | .1058 | .28 |
| TSCS Pers Self -- MSAI | .2358 | .10 |
| TSCS Family Self -- MSAI | .3837 | .02 |
| TSCS Soc Self -- MSAI | .2919 | .05 |
| TSCS Variability -- MSAI | -.1317 | .24 |
| TSCS Distribution -- MSAI | .2688 | .07 |
| TSCS True False -- MSAI | .0453 | .40 |
| TSCS Net Conflict -- MSAI | .0163 | .46 |
| TSCS Total Conflict -- MSAI | -.2629 | .07 |

The null hypothesis that there would be no significant relationship between self-concept variables and student attitude was rejected when the variables of Identity, Family Self, and Social Self were correlated with the MSAI mean score. All other variables of the TSCS accepted the null hypothesis. Significant positive correlations were found between the self-concept variables--Identity, Family Self, and Social Self-- and student attitude. Identity would reveal those teachers who are sure of their own identity or are clear

as to their own self-perception. Those teachers express-
ing high identity will probably have students who express
positive attitudes toward both the music teacher and the
music class. Family Self reflects one's feelings of
adequacy, worth, and value as a family member. Teachers
who had this self-perception would also tend to have
students who expressed positive attitudes. Social Self
reflects the person's sense of adequacy and worth in his
social interaction with other people. Teachers who
perceive themselves as adequate socially will tend to
have students who express positive attitudes toward the
music teacher and the music class. The negative cor-
relation achieved between Self Criticism and student
attitude, while only approaching significance (.06)
would indicate that teachers who expressed a lesser
degree of self-criticism would also have students who
revealed positive attitudes toward the class and the
teacher. The negative correlations between TSCS Sub-
scales of Variability and Total Conflict and student
attitude was also interesting.

Hypothesis VIII:

There will be no significant correlation between
the teacher's Subscale scores of the Tennessee Self
Concept Scale and the teacher's attitude score
of the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

TABLE 10.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficients between
the variables of Hypothesis VIII

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|---|---|---|
| TSCS Self Crit -- MTAI | .1284 | .24 |
| TSCS Identity -- MTAI | .0051 | .49 |
| TSCS Self Satis -- MTAI | .2005 | .14 |
| TSCS Behavior -- MTAI | .1878 | .15 |
| TSCS Phys Self -- MTAI | .2247 | .11 |
| TSCS Moral Eth -- MTAI | .1729 | .17 |
| TSCS Pers Self -- MTAI | .2152 | .12 |
| TSCS Family Self -- MTAI | .0695 | .35 |
| TSCS Social Self -- MTAI | .0410 | .41 |
| TSCS Variability -- MTAI | -.1031 | .29 |
| TSCS Distribution -- MTAI | .2697 | .07 |
| TSCS True False -- MTAI | .0552 | .38 |
| TSCS Net Conflict -- MTAI | -.4772 | .00 |
| TSCS Total Conflict -- MTAI | -.0108 | .48 |

The null hypothesis that there would be no sig-
nificant correlation between the TSCS Subscales and
teacher attitude was accepted, with but one exception.
Net Conflict revealed a highly significant negative cor-
relation with teacher attitude.  Net Conflict measures
the extent to which an individual's responses to posi-
tive items differ from, or conflict with, his responses
to negative items in the same area of self-perception.
In other words, it reflects inconsistencies in responding.
While Net Conflict is an operational score as far as
scoring is concerned, it does reveal uncertainties in
the self-concept.  The statistic indicates that as
uncertainties or inconsistencies decrease, the teacher's
attitude would likely increase.

Hypothesis IX:

There will be no significant correlation between the teacher's Subscale scores of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and the teacher's total indirect verbal interaction as determined by the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis.

The null hypothesis that there would be no significant correlation between the TSCS Subscales and teacher indirect verbal behavior was accepted with four exceptions. Significant negative correlations were discovered between Physical Self and indirect verbal behavior. This would suggest that teachers who express a negative self-concept of the body, the state of health, physical appearance, skills, and sexuality would also rely to a greater degree on indirect verbal behavior. Significant positive correlations were found between the True False Subscale and Flanders' Categories 1, 2, and 3. This Subscale reveals one's ability to achieve self-definition or self-description by focusing on what he is and is relatively unable to accomplish the same thing by eliminating what he is not. The more the teacher accentuates the positive aspects of his personality, the greater will be his tendency to use indirect verbal interaction. These correlations involving True False Subscales were also the only positive correlations found for the hypothesis. TSCS Net Conflict achieved significant negative correlation between Flanders' Categories 1, 2, and 3, but not when the subject content areas were present in Category 4.

TABLE 11.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficients between
the variables of Hypothesis IX

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|---|---|---|
| TSCS Self Crit -- FSIA 1234 | -.2617 | .07 |
| FSIA 123 | -.1783 | .16 |
| | | |
| TSCS Identity -- FSIA 1234 | -.0914 | .31 |
| FSIA 123 | -.0698 | .35 |
| | | |
| TSCS Self Satis -- FSIA 1234 | -.1397 | .22 |
| FSIA 123 | -.0826 | .33 |
| | | |
| TSCS Behavior -- FSIA 1234 | -.2346 | .10 |
| FSIA 123 | -.2236 | .11 |
| | | |
| TSCS Phys Self -- FSIA 1234 | -.3996 | .01 |
| FSIA 123 | -.3917 | .01 |
| | | |
| TSCS Moral Eth -- FSIA 1234 | -.1430 | .41 |
| FSIA 123 | -.0223 | .45 |
| | | |
| TSCS Pers Self -- FSIA 1234 | -.1780 | .16 |
| FSIA 123 | -.1239 | .25 |
| | | |
| TSCS Family Self -- FSIA 1234 | -.1360 | .42 |
| FSIA 123 | -.0215 | .45 |
| | | |
| TSCS Social Self -- FSIA 1234 | -.1651 | .36 |
| FSIA 123 | -.1250 | .45 |
| | | |
| TSCS Variability -- FSIA 1234 | -.0073 | .48 |
| FSIA 123 | -.1546 | .38 |
| | | |
| TSCS Distribution -- FSIA 1234 | -.2416 | .09 |
| FSIA 123 | -.1856 | .15 |
| | | |
| TSCS True False -- FSIA 1234 | .1754 | .17 |
| FSIA 123 | .2972 | .05 |
| | | |
| TSCS Net Conflict -- FSIA 1234 | -.2334 | .10 |
| FSIA 123 | -.3141 | .04 |
| | | |
| TSCS Total Conflict -- FSIA 1234 | -.2315 | .10 |
| FSIA 123 | -.2476 | .09 |

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Hypothesis X:

There will be no significant correlation between the teacher's Subscale scores of the *Tennessee Self Concept Scale* and the teacher's total direct verbal interaction as determined by the *Flanders System of Interaction Analysis*.

The null hypothesis that there would be no significant correlation between the TSCS Subscales and direct teacher verbal behavior was accepted with four exceptions. A significant negative correlation was found between Personal Self and Flanders' Categories 5, 6, and 7. This data would suggest that an individual who increases his sense of personal worth, his feelings of adequacy as a person and his evaluation of his personality apart from his body would also tend to use direct verbal behavior, which included subject content, to a lesser degree. A significant negative correlation also existed between TSCS Social Self and direct verbal behavior which included subject matter content. This would indicate that the teacher who becomes more positive in his self-perceptions socially would be prone to use direct verbal interaction, especially lecturing, decreasingly. The Distribution Subscale achieved both a negative and positive correlation. The negative correlation indicated that teachers who are uncertain and indefinite about what they say about themselves and who are defensive and guarded will tend to increase their use of lecturing or performance. The data would also indicate that the

TABLE 12.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficients between
the variables of Hypothesis X

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|---|---|---|
| TSCS Self Crit -- FSIA 567 | .0877 | .32 |
| FSIA 67 | .2760 | .06 |
| TSCS Identity -- FSIA 567 | -.1492 | .21 |
| FSIA 67 | .0531 | .39 |
| TSCS Self Satis -- FSIA 567 | -.2872 | .06 |
| FSIA 67 | .0710 | .35 |
| TSCS Behavior -- FSIA 567 | -.0778 | .34 |
| FSIA 67 | .0390 | .42 |
| TSCS Phys Self -- FSIA 567 | -.1599 | .37 |
| FSIA 67 | .0033 | .49 |
| TSCS Moral Eth -- FSIA 567 | -.3185 | .11 |
| FSIA 67 | .2267 | .11 |
| TSCS Pers Self -- FSIA 567 | -.2911 | .05 |
| FSIA 67 | .0492 | .39 |
| TSCS Family Self -- FSIA 567 | -.0949 | .30 |
| FSIA 67 | -.0001 | .50 |
| TSCS Social Self -- FSIA 567 | -.2934 | .05 |
| FSIA 67 | .0806 | .33 |
| TSCS Variability -- FSIA 567 | .2715 | .07 |
| FSIA 67 | .1468 | .21 |
| TSCS Distribution -- FSIA 567 | -.3977 | .01 |
| FSIA 67 | .3085 | .04 |
| TSCS True False -- FSIA 567 | -.0931 | .31 |
| FSIA 67 | -.0034 | .49 |
| TSCS Net Conflict -- FSIA 567 | .2185 | .11 |
| FSIA 67 | -.1229 | .25 |
| TSCS Total Conflict -- FSIA 567 | .1984 | .14 |
| FSIA 67 | .0521 | .39 |

teacher who becomes more definite and certain in his
remarks about himself, would also tend to increase his
use of direct verbal behaviors which did not contain
subject matter references.

### Hypothesis XI:

There will be no significant correlation between the
teacher's Subscale scores of the Tennessee Self
Concept Scale and the total student verbal inter-
action as determined by the Flanders System of
Interaction Analysis.

Of the twenty-eight correlations produced for
this hypothesis, eighteen indicated acceptance of the
null hypothesis. Significant negative correlations
were found between Flanders' Category 9 and TSCS Identity,
Self Satisfaction, Physical Self, Moral Ethical, and
Social Self. This finding would suggest that the teachers
with positive self-concepts in these areas would also
experience decreasing amounts of student-initiated verbal
interaction. The reverse would also be true. As the
teacher's self-concept lessens in these areas, student-
initiated verbal behavior would tend to increase. Sig-
nificant positive correlations appeared between Flanders'
Category 8 and TSCS Self Satisfaction, Physical Self,
Moral Ethical, and Distribution. Teachers who expressed
increased self-concept in these specific areas would also
have increased teacher-initiated student verbal inter-
action. The data may also be stated in a negative way.

TABLE 13.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficients between
the variables of Hypothesis XI

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|---|---|---|
| TSCS Self Crit -- FSIA 8 | .0158 | .47 |
| FSIA 9 | .2567 | .08 |
| TSCS Identity -- FSIA 8 | .1937 | .14 |
| FSIA 9 | -.4723 | .00 |
| TSCS Self Satis -- FSIA 8 | .3517 | .02 |
| FSIA 9 | -.3542 | .02 |
| TSCS Behavior -- FSIA 8 | .1574 | .19 |
| FSIA 9 | -.1577 | .19 |
| TSCS Phys Self -- FSIA 8 | .2883 | .05 |
| FSIA 9 | -.4961 | .00 |
| TSCS Moral Eth -- FSIA 8 | .3013 | .05 |
| FSIA 9 | -.3089 | .04 |
| TSCS Pers Self -- FSIA 8 | .2748 | .06 |
| FSIA 9 | -.2401 | .09 |
| TSCS Family Self -- FSIA 8 | .0740 | .34 |
| FSIA 9 | -.0836 | .32 |
| TSCS Social Self -- FSIA 8 | .2581 | .08 |
| FSIA 9 | -.3719 | .02 |
| TSCS Variability -- FSIA 8 | -.2201 | .11 |
| FSIA 9 | .2919 | .05 |
| TSCS Distribution -- FSIA 8 | .5143 | .00 |
| FSIA 9 | -.1302 | .24 |
| TSCS True False -- FSIA 8 | -.1003 | .29 |
| FSIA 9 | .1287 | .24 |
| TSCS Net Conflict -- FSIA 8 | -.0933 | .31 |
| FSIA 9 | -.1748 | .17 |
| TSCS Total Conflict -- FSIA 8 | -.1153 | .26 |
| FSIA 9 | .0570 | .38 |

Teachers with lesser degrees of self-concept tend to experience lesser amounts of teacher-initiated student verbal interaction. The comparison of Category 8's positive correlations and Category 9's negative correlations was especially significant. An exception to the negative correlations of Category 9 was found between Variability and Category 9. Variability indicates that the individual expresses variability in their self-perception from one area of the self to another. This correlation is misleading since high scores indicate much variability, while low scores show the teacher to be well-integrated in personality. The correlation would mean then that the more integrated the teacher personality, the lower would be the tendency toward student-initiated verbal interaction. Teachers with more inconsistency in self-perception would be prone to elicit more student initiations in verbal interaction.

Hypothesis XII:

There will be no significant correlation between the teacher's Subscale scores of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and Category 10 of the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis.

The data accepted the null hypothesis that there would be no significant correlation between TSCS Sub-scales and Flanders' Category 10. Category 10 indicates those times during a class period when there is confusion

or silence. Even though the correlations were not significant, it was interesting to note that the correlations were negative with the exception of two.

TABLE 14.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficients between the variables of Hypothesis XII

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|---|---|---|
| TSCS Self Crit -- FSIA 10 | -.0063 | .49 |
| TSCS Identity -- FSIA 10 | -.1200 | .26 |
| TSCS Self Satis -- FSIA 10 | -.0807 | .33 |
| TSCS Behavior -- FSIA 10 | -.1094 | .28 |
| TSCS Phys Self -- FSIA 10 | -.1531 | .39 |
| TSCS Moral Eth -- FSIA 10 | -.1334 | .23 |
| TSCS Pers Self -- FSIA 10 | .0615 | .37 |
| TSCS Family Self -- FSIA 10 | -.1769 | .17 |
| TSCS Social Self -- FSIA 10 | -.0631 | .37 |
| TSCS Variability -- FSIA 10 | -.0170 | .46 |
| TSCS Distribution -- FSIA 10 | -.2048 | .13 |
| TSCS True False -- FSIA 10 | .1881 | .15 |
| TSCS Net Conflict -- FSIA 10 | -.1397 | .41 |
| TSCS Total Conflict -- FSIA 10 | -.1512 | .39 |

Hypothesis XIII:

There will be no significant correlation between the teacher's total positive score of the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory and the students' total positive score of the Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory.

The null hypothesis that there would be no significant correlation between the teacher's score on MTAI and the student attitude scores on MSAI was accepted. If subscale scores had been available for the two instruments, there might have been significant correlations.

TABLE 15.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient between
the variables of Hypothesis XIII

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|-----------|-------------|--------------|
| MTAI -- MSAI | -.0986 | .30 |

Hypothesis XIV:

There will be no significant correlation between the
teacher's total positive attitude score of the
Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory and the
teacher's total indirect verbal interaction as
determined by the Flanders System of Interaction
Analysis.

TABLE 16.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficients between
the variables of Hypothesis XIV

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|-----------|-------------|--------------|
| MTAI -- FSIA 1234 | .0479 | .40 |
| FSIA 123 | .0524 | .39 |

The data accepted the null hypothesis that there
would be no significant correlation between the teacher's
score on the MTAI and the degree of indirect verbal
interaction exhibited in the classroom.

Hypothesis XV:

There will be no significant correlation between the
teacher's total positive attitude score of the
Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory and the
teacher's total direct verbal interaction as deter-
mined by the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis.

TABLE 17.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficients between
the variables of Hypothesis XV

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|---|---|---|
| MTAI -- FSIA 567 | -.0937 | .30 |
| FSIA 67 | .1718 | .17 |
| FSIA 6 | .3134 | .04 |

The null hypothesis that there would be no sig-
nificant correlation between the teacher's score on the
MTAI and the degree of direct verbal behavior was
accepted. When correlated separately, Category 6,
which is considered a type of direct behavior, and
the teacher attitude score achieved a significant posi-
tive correlation. The higher the teacher attitude
score, the more commands, directions, and orders he
would tend to give.

Hypothesis XVI:

There will be no significant correlation between the
teacher's total positive attitude score of the
Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory and the total
student verbal interaction as determined by the
Flanders System of Interaction Analysis.

TABLE 18.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficients between
the variables of Hypothesis XVI

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|---|---|---|
| MTAI -- FSIA 8 | .0235 | .45 |
| FSIA 9 | .1756 | .17 |

The null hypothesis that there would be no cor-
relation between the teacher attitude score of the MTAI
and the degree of student verbal interaction in the
classroom was accepted.

### Hypothesis XVII:

There will be no significant correlation between the
teacher's total positive attitude score of the
Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory and the
Category 10 total of the Flanders System of Inter-
action Analysis.

TABLE 19.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient between
the variables of Hypothesis XVII

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|-----------|-------------|--------------|
| MTAI -- FSIA 10 | .0831 | .33 |

The null hypothesis that there would be no sig-
nificant correlation between the teacher's attitude score
on the MTAI and Flanders Category 10 was accepted.  The
amount of pauses, confusion, and silent periods revealed
no relationship to teacher attitude.

### Hypothesis XVIII:

There will be no significant correlation between the
students' total positive attitude score of the
Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory and the
teacher's total indirect verbal interaction as
determined by the Flanders System of Interaction
Analysis.

TABLE 20.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficients between the variables of Hypothesis XVIII

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|-----------|-------------|--------------|
| MSAI -- FSIA 1234 | .2445 | .09 |
| FSIA 123 | .3811 | .02 |

The null hypothesis that there would be no relationship between student attitude as measured and the degree of teacher indirect verbal behavior was rejected when Flanders' Categories 1, 2, and 3 were considered. A significant positive correlation was indicated between student attitude and the degree of teacher indirect behavior when the subject content of Category 4 was not included. Students with more positive attitudes toward their teachers and the classes will also tend to have teachers who increase their use of supportive, encouraging, and accepting verbal behavior.

### Hypothesis XIX:

There will be no significant correlation between the students' total positive attitude score of the Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory and the teacher's total direct verbal interaction as determined by the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis.

TABLE 21.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficients between
the variables of Hypothesis XIX

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|-----------|-------------|--------------|
| MSAI -- FSIA 567 | -.2941 | .05 |
| FSIA 67 | -.1294 | .24 |

The null hypothesis that there would be no cor-
relation between the variables was rejected when Flanders'
Categories 5, 6, and 7 and MSAI scores were tested. A
significant negative correlation was found between stu-
dent attitude and Flanders' Categories 5, 6, and 7.
This relationship would show that students possessing
more positive attitudes toward the teacher and the class
would be likely to have teachers who decreased their use
of direct verbal behavior. It was also interesting to
note that both correlations for this hypothesis were
negative.

Hypothesis XX:

There will be no significant correlation between the
students' total positive attitude score of the
Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory and the total
student verbal interaction as determined by the
Flanders System of Interaction Analysis.

TABLE 22.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficients between
the variables of Hypothesis XX

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|---|---|---|
| MSAI -- FSIA 8 | .2899 | .05 |
| FSIA 9 | -.1716 | .17 |

The null hypothesis was rejected when Flanders'
Category 8 and the MSAI score were tested. A significant
positive correlation was found between the student attitude
score and Flanders' Category 8. The data suggest that
students with more positive attitudes would also respond
with increasing amounts of teacher-initiated student
verbal interaction.

Hypothesis XXI:

There will be no significant correlation between the
students' total positive attitude score of the
Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory and the
Category 10 total of the Flanders System of Inter-
action Analysis.

TABLE 23.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient between
the variables of Hypothesis XXI

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|---|---|---|
| MSAI -- FSIA 10 | -.3014 | .05 |

The null hypothesis that there would be no sig-
nificant correlation between the student attitude score
and Flanders' Category 10 was rejected. In classes

where student attitude was more positive, there tended
to be a diminished amount of confusion and pauses during
the class period.

## Related Data

Besides the hypotheses to be tested in this study,
certain other questions were to be answered. One
question asked the relationship between the teacher's
race and certain of the variables. Table 24 reveals
the significant correlations found.

TABLE 24.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficients between
race and selected variables

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|-----------|-------------|--------------|
| Race -- TSCS Self Satis | .3127 | .04 |
| Race -- TSCS Personal Self | .2941 | .05 |
| Race -- TSCS Social Self | .3599 | .02 |
| Race -- TSCS Distribution | .2890 | .05 |
| Race -- FSIA 4 | -.3403 | .03 |
| Race -- FSIA 1234 | -.2936 | .05 |
| Race -- FSIA 4 | -.3403 | .03 |

Positive correlations indicated that black
teachers achieved the highest mean rank and negative
correlations show white teachers to have achieved the
highest mean rank. The data indicated that black
teachers perceived themselves significantly higher
than white teachers on certain Subscales of the TSCS.
White teachers performed significantly higher than

black teachers in the use of indirect verbal interaction. Caution should be used when interpreting these data because the teacher sample included twenty-seven white teachers and only five black teachers.

Another question of concern in this study was the relationship between years of teaching experience and other variables. Table 25 presents these data.

TABLE 25.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficients between years of teaching experience and selected variables

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|---|---|---|
| Years -- TSCS Self Crit | -.3130 | .04 |
| Years -- FSIA 6 | -.2985 | .05 |
| Years -- FSIA 7 | -.4217 | .01 |
| Years -- FSIA 67 | -.3971 | .01 |
| Years -- FSIA 8 | .3759 | .02 |
| Years -- FSIA 10 | -.3330 | .03 |
| Years -- MSAI | .3916 | .01 |

The data suggest that teachers with more teaching experience also tend to be less self-critical. Teaching experience achieved a significant positive correlation with student attitude toward the teacher and the class. Years teaching experience was significantly related to direct verbal interaction. The negative correlation suggested that individuals with increased teaching experience exhibited less use of orders and student criticism. Years of teaching experience and Flanders' Category 8 correlated positively indicating that more

experienced teachers tended to achieve more student verbal interaction. Years of experience was also negatively correlated with Flanders' Category 10. This would infer that more experienced teachers were apt to allow less confusion and pauses to occur during the class period. Finally these data indicate a significant positive correlation between years of teaching experience and student attitude toward the teacher and the class. Students in this sample tended to hold positive attitudes toward teachers who were more experienced.

Additional correlations between student attitude as expressed by girls and those expressed by boys and other variables were of interest.

TABLE 26.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficients between the mean achieved by boys and girls on MSAI and selected variables

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|---|---|---|
| MSAIG -- Years | .3346 | .03 |
| MSAIG -- TSCS | .3250 | .03 |
| MSAIG -- TSCS Identity | .5289 | .00 |
| MSAIG -- TSCS Self Satis | .2993 | .05 |
| MSAIG -- TSCS Moral Eth | .3159 | .04 |
| MSAIG -- TSCS Personal Self | .2996 | .05 |
| MSAIG -- TSCS Family Self | .5457 | .00 |
| MSAIG -- TSCS Social Self | .3230 | .04 |
| MSAIG -- TSCS Distribution | .4020 | .01 |
| MSAIG -- FSIA 2 | .4457 | .01 |
| MSAIG -- FSIA 3 | .3270 | .03 |
| MSAIG -- FSIA 7 | -.3359 | .03 |
| MSAIB -- Years | .3150 | .04 |
| MSAIB -- MTAI | -.2948 | .05 |
| MSAIB -- TSCS Total Conflict | -.3286 | .03 |
| MSAIB -- FSIA 7 | -.3681 | .02 |
| MSAIB -- FSIA 10 | -.3637 | .02 |
| MSAIB -- MSAIG | .5740 | .00 |

The girls' attitudes achieved significant correlations with more variables than did the attitudes expressed by boys possibly suggesting that girls hold a more positive attitude toward school generally at this age and especially toward music.  Girls seemed to respond slightly more positively toward the teachers' years of teaching experience even though they both expressed significant positive attitudes toward this variable.  Girls' attitudes seemed to correlate positively with several Subscales of the TSCS while boys achieved a significant correlation only with the teacher's Total Conflict. The negative correlation between MSAIB and Total Conflict reveals that teachers with lesser degrees of conflict also had boys with more positive attitudes.  Of interest also was the fact that although the girls had significant correlation with various Subscales of TSCS, Total Conflict was not one of them.  Only the boys' attitude scores produced a significant correlation with teacher attitude. The negative correlation would suggest that teachers with more positive attitudes have male students with more negative attitudes.  Both boys' and girls' expressed attitudes achieved significant correlations with various Flanders' Categories.  The girls correlated positively with indirect verbal behaviors while these same behaviors did not correlate significantly with the boys' attitudes. Both boys and girls achieved negative correlations with

Flanders' Category 7. Teachers who were critical of students in class tended to have students with more negative attitudes. These data should not be interpreted to mean that a causal relationship existed but only that they were significantly correlated. Boys achieved a significant negative correlation between their attitude and Flanders' Category 10. Since Category 10 covers diverse behaviors, the correlation could indicate that classes in which confusion exists are apt to contain boys with negative attitudes toward the class. Category 10 also includes silent periods which quite often were used by the teacher for reading or writing activities. The data might also indicate that teachers who assigned increasing amounts of written work tended to have boys with more negative attitudes toward class. The final correlation indicated that the girls' and the boys' attitude scores correlated both positively and significantly.

The total teacher self-concept score achieved on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale revealed only one significant correlation. The significance occurred in a negative relationship between the TSCS total score and Flanders' Category 9. However, when the Subscale scores of the TSCS were correlated with various FSIA Categories, significant relationships appeared.

TABLE 27.--Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficients between
selected TSCS Subscales and selected FSIA Categories

| Variables | Correlation | Significance |
|---|---|---|
| TSCS Self Crit -- FSIA 7 | .3484 | .03 |
| TSCS Self Satis -- FSIA 1 | .3521 | .02 |
| TSCS Phys Self -- FSIA 3 | -.5454 | .00 |
| TSCS Phys Self -- FSIA 4 | -.3859 | .01 |
| TSCS Family Self -- FSIA 1 | .3069 | .04 |
| TSCS Social Self -- FSIA 1 | .3226 | .04 |
| TSCS Distribution -- FSIA 5 | -.4057 | .01 |
| TSCS Distribution -- FSIA 6 | .3851 | .01 |
| TSCS True False -- FSIA 1 | .3536 | .02 |
| TSCS True False -- FSIA 2 | .3197 | .04 |
| TSCS Total Confl -- FSIA 1 | -.4197 | .01 |
| TSCS Total Confl -- FSIA 2 | -.3103 | .04 |

As seen in Table 27, the teacher's Self Criticism
score and Flanders' Category 7 revealed a significant
positive relationship. This correlation was somewhat
misleading in that high scores on the Self Criticism
Subscale indicated a normal, healthy openness and
capacity for self-criticism. The correlation then
would indicate that the higher the degree of healthy
self-criticism, the greater the tendency to use Category
7 or criticizing or justifying authority.

A significant positive correlation existed
between the Self Satisfaction Subscale and Flanders'
Category 1. This statistic indicated that as the level
of self-satisfaction or self-acceptance increased, the
teacher tended to accept student feelings to a greater

degree. This relationship would suggest that empathic teachers would also be those who maintain a high level of self-acceptance.

Two significant correlations were achieved by the TSCS Subscale of Physical Self. Both correlations were negative and existed between Flanders' Categories 3 and 4. Teachers in this sample who were more satisfied with the perception of their body, state of health, physical appearance, skills, and sexuality, were likely to decrease their use of Category 3 and 4, or vice versa. Teachers who were not pleased with their perception of the physical self relied to a greater extent on indirect verbal behaviors especially those represented by Categories 3 and 4.

The TSCS Subscales of Family and Social Self produced a significant positive correlation with Flanders' Category 1. Category 1 indicates that the teacher accepts or clarifies an attitude or the feeling tone of a pupil in a nonthreatening manner. Family Self reflects one's feelings of adequacy, worth, and value as a family member, and Social Self indicates a person's sense of adequacy and worth in his social interaction with other people in general. The Subscales reveal that teachers who feel adequate in their interpersonal relationships tend to be more empathic toward their students.

The Distribution Subscale achieved a negative correlation with Flanders' Category 5 and a positive correlation with Category 6. These data would indicate that teachers who are very definite and certain in what they say about themselves tend to reflect Flanders' Category 5 to a lesser extent. They lecture less and give their own opinions less. Teachers who scored lower on the Distribution Subscale indicated less certainty about their personal statements and tended to be defensive and guarded in those statements. The correlation between the Distribution Subscale and Flanders' Category 6 was positive. This correlation would indicate that the greater the teacher certainty, the greater would be the tendency to give directions, commands, or orders to which a pupil is expected to comply.

The True-False Subscale was correlated significantly and positively with FSIA 1 and 2. High scores on this Subscale indicates that the teacher is achieving self-definition or self-description by focusing on what he is and is relatively unable to accomplish the same thing by eliminating or rejecting what he is not. The more positive the self-description, the more the teacher will tend to exhibit Flanders' Categories 1 and 2, or the more he will tend to use empathy, praise, and encouragement.

Significant negative correlations appeared between Total Conflict as measured by TSCS and Flanders' Categories 1 and 2. High scores on Total Conflict indicated the teacher to be confused, contradictory, and generally confused in self-perception. The negative correlation would indicate, then, that teachers with low scores in Total Conflict tended to reflect Flanders' Categories 1 and 2 to a greater extent than those achieving high scores in Total Conflict. Teachers with less conflict in personality appeared to be more empathic and encouraging toward students in verbal behavior.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, DISCUSSION, CON-

CLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

## Summary

This study investigated the relationship between

seventh grade general music teachers' self-concept and

three other classroom variables. The classroom variables

were: (1) student attitude toward the general music

class and teacher; (2) teacher attitude toward the general

music class and the students; and (3) the type of verbal

interaction occurring in the general music classroom.

The main hypothesis was that seventh grade general

music teachers with a high degree of positive self-concept

would create a classroom environment in which indirect

verbal interaction would occur more frequently than in

classrooms whose teachers expressed a more negative self-

concept. It was further hypothesized that students would

hold a positive attitude toward those music classes in

which the teachers expressed a positive self-concept.

Finally, it was hypothesized that teachers expressing a

high positive self-concept would also possess positive

attitudes toward the music class and its students. Other

concerns of the study were the relationships between the observed variables and the teacher's race and years of teaching experience.

A review of literature indicated that the teacher's self-concept was positively related to several classroom variables. Most studies found significant relationships between the teacher's self-concept and various forms of student classroom behavior. Some research indicated positive relationships between the teacher's self-concept and student academic performance. Other researchers cited positive relationships between teacher self-concept and student self-concept.

While the relationship between teacher self-concept and certain student variables was supported by a considerable amount of research, an even greater number of studies confirmed the relationship between teacher self-concept and teacher behaviors. Significant correlations were obtained in many studies between the teacher's self-concept and the degree of effectiveness and success experienced by the teacher. Other researchers discovered positive correlations between teacher self-concept and feelings of empathy expressed toward students. Teacher self-concept seemed to be positively correlated with the way in which the teacher perceived others and especially students. The apparent relationship between self-concept and behavior tended to support the hypotheses of this study.

Research exploring the potential of verbal inter-
action in the classroom suggested that verbal behavior
is an extremely complex phenomena which requires great
skill to adequately analyze or evaluate. Analysis in
many studies supported the hypothesis that the teacher's
personality was the prime determiner of the type of verbal
interaction which occurred in the classroom. Other
studies related the verbal interaction in the classroom
to both the teacher's and the student's personalities.
Some researchers discovered significant relationships
between verbal interaction and the type of subject
matter being studied in the classroom. Factual material
seemingly necessitated more direct verbal interaction
between the teacher and student. The type of verbal
interaction as reported by several studies, seemingly
influenced student behavior in significant ways. Students
exhibited greater insecurity and personal anxiety in
classrooms where the quality of verbal interaction was
predominantly direct and unempathic. Indirect verbal
interaction stimulated creative student behaviors and
increased the number of approach behaviors toward a
teacher. There is evidence to indicate that students
will interact in a manner which allows them to maintain
their self-image. Critical, direct teacher verbal
behavior is not conducive to student self-enhancement;
therefore, conflict arises between the teacher and

students. Student personality will influence his verbal interaction and will influence the teacher's verbal behaviors. The review of literature dealing with interaction tends to support the hypotheses of this study that the teacher's self-concept and personality will influence the verbal interaction which occurs in the classroom.

The review of literature assessing the influence of attitude upon teacher and student behavior, indicated mixed results. The personality and self-concept are one of many factors influencing the teacher's and the student's attitude toward a learning experience. Research would support the position that attitudes, both teacher and student, are translated into actions in different ways. Some research indicated that classroom attitudes were perceived through many subtle behaviors and that initial perceptions were quite accurate. Some researchers found that attitudes were influenced by both teacher and student expectations. Most research indicated that attitude is a multi-dimensional phenomena which may not be adequately measured by self-reporting instruments.

The present study included a sample of 32 general music teachers and 739 seventh grade general music students from junior high schools and middle schools located in southern Michigan. The teachers and students comprised classrooms in which general music was a required subject

in the seventh grade. The sample was drawn from various socio-economic settings and from both rural, suburban, and urban school systems. The teachers voluntarily participated in the study without pressure from administrators or supervisors.

Self-concept data were obtained from the teachers' scores on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. Teacher attitudes were determined from scores achieved on the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory. Student attitudes were derived from totals expressed on the Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory. Verbal interaction data were compiled from one hundred minutes of interaction analysis in each class using the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis.

### Findings

Spearman rank-correlation coefficients were computed for the classroom variables of teacher self-concept, teacher attitude, student attitude, and verbal interaction analyses. No significant correlation coefficients were found between the independent variable of teacher global self-concept and the dependent variables except in one instance. A significant negative correlation at the .04 level of significance existed between teacher self-concept and Category 9 of the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis. This correlation indicated that teachers whose total self-concept increased also experienced a

decrease in student-initiated verbal interaction. The
relationship could also indicate that teachers with more
negative self-concepts would tend to have increased
student-initiated verbal interaction. When teacher self-
concept was considered in terms of the subscales of the
Tennessee Self Concept Scale, significant correlation
coefficients appeared. This finding indicated that
meaningful relationships do exist between the dependent
variables and specific areas of the self-concept.

The hypotheses tested three different relation-
ships: (1) teacher global self-concept and the dependent
variables, (2) subcategories of teacher self-concept
and the dependent variables, and (3) the relationship
existing between the dependent variables. Additional
data indicated the relationship of teacher race and years
of teaching experience with the variables considered in
the study. When the null hypotheses were tested, the
following results appeared:

1. There is no significant relationship between the
   teacher's total self-image score (P+N Score) as
   measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale
   and the students' positive attitude score as
   measured by the Minnesota Student Attitude
   Inventory. Accepted.

2. There is no significant correlation between the
   teacher's total self-image score (P+N Score)

as measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and the teacher's total indirect verbal inter- action as determined by the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis. Accepted.

3. There is no significant correlation between the teacher's total self-image score (P+N Score) as measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and the teacher's total direct verbal interaction as measured by the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis. Accepted.

4. There is no significant correlation between the teacher's total self-image score (P+N Score) as measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and the total student verbal interaction as determined by Categories 8 and 9 of the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis. Only Category 9 rejected the null hypothesis.

5. There is no significant correlation between the teacher's self-image score (P+N Score) as measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and Category 10 of the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis. Accepted.

6. There is no significant correlation between the teacher's self-image score (P+N Score) as
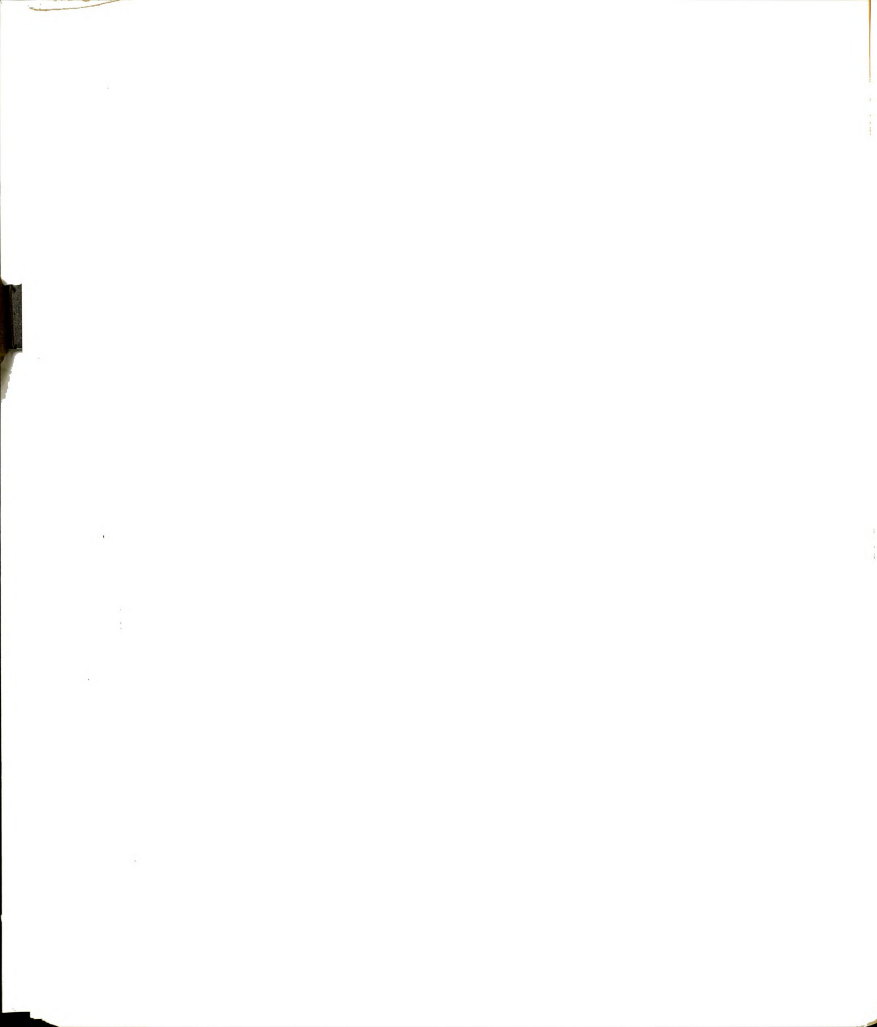
measured by the <u>Tennessee Self Concept Scale</u> and the teacher's attitude score of the <u>Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory</u>. Accepted.

7. There is no significant correlation between the teacher's Subscale scores of the <u>Tennessee Self Concept Scale</u> and the students' attitude score as measured by the <u>Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory</u>. The Subscales of Identity, Family Self, and Social Self rejected the null hypothesis.

8. There is no significant correlation between the teacher's Subscale scores of the <u>Tennessee Self Concept Scale</u> and the teacher's attitude score of the <u>Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory</u>. Accepted.

9. There is no significant correlation between the teacher's Subscale scores of the <u>Tennessee Self Concept Scale</u> and the teacher's total indirect verbal interaction as determined by the <u>Flanders System of Interaction Analysis</u>. The Subscales of Physical Self and Net Conflict rejected the null hypothesis.

10. There is no significant correlation between the teacher's Subscale scores of the <u>Tennessee Self Concept Scale</u> and the teacher's total direct

verbal interaction as determined by the <u>Flanders
System of Interaction Analysis</u>. Rejected by the
Subscales of Personal Self, Social Self, and
Distribution.

11. There is no significant correlation between the
    teacher's Subscale scores of the <u>Tennessee Self
    Concept Scale</u> and the total student verbal inter-
    action as determined by the <u>Flanders System of
    Interaction Analysis</u>. The Subscales of Identity,
    Self Satisfaction, Physical Self, Moral-Ethical
    Self, Social Self, Variability, and Distribution
    rejected the null hypothesis.

12. There is no significant correlation between the
    teacher's Subscale scores of the <u>Tennessee Self
    Concept Scale</u> and Category 10 of the <u>Flanders
    System of Interaction Analysis</u>. Accepted.

13. There is no significant correlation between the
    teacher's total positive score of the <u>Minnesota
    Teacher Attitude Inventory</u> and the students'
    total positive score of the <u>Minnesota Student
    Attitude Inventory</u>. Accepted.

14. There is no significant correlation between the
    teacher's total positive attitude score of the
    <u>Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory</u> and the

teacher's total indirect verbal interaction as determined by the <u>Flanders System of Interaction Analysis</u>. Accepted.

15. There is no significant correlation between the teacher's total positive attitude score of the <u>Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory</u> and the teacher's total direct verbal interaction as determined by the <u>Flanders System of Interaction Analysis</u>. Accepted.

16. There is no significant correlation between the teacher's total positive attitude score of the <u>Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory</u> and the total student verbal interaction as determined by the <u>Flanders System of Interaction Analysis</u>. Accepted.

17. There is no significant correlation between the teacher's total positive attitude score of the <u>Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory</u> and the Category 10 total of the <u>Flanders System of Interaction Analysis</u>. Accepted.

18. There is no significant correlation between the students' total positive attitude score of the <u>Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory</u> and the teacher's total indirect verbal interaction as

determined by the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis. The FSIA Categories 1, 2, and 3 rejected the null hypothesis.

19. There is no significant correlation between the students' total positive attitude score of the Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory and the teacher's total direct verbal interaction as determined by the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis. The FSIA Categories 5, 6, and 7 rejected the null hypothesis.

20. There is no significant correlation between the students' total positive attitude score of the Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory and the total student verbal interaction as determined by the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis. The FSIA Category 8 rejected the null hypothesis.

21. There is no significant correlation between the students' total positive attitude score of the Minnesota Student Attitude Inventory and the Category 10 total of the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis. Rejected.

## Discussion

### Self-Concept and Teacher Attitude

This study hypothesized that there would be a significant correlation between the teacher's self-concept
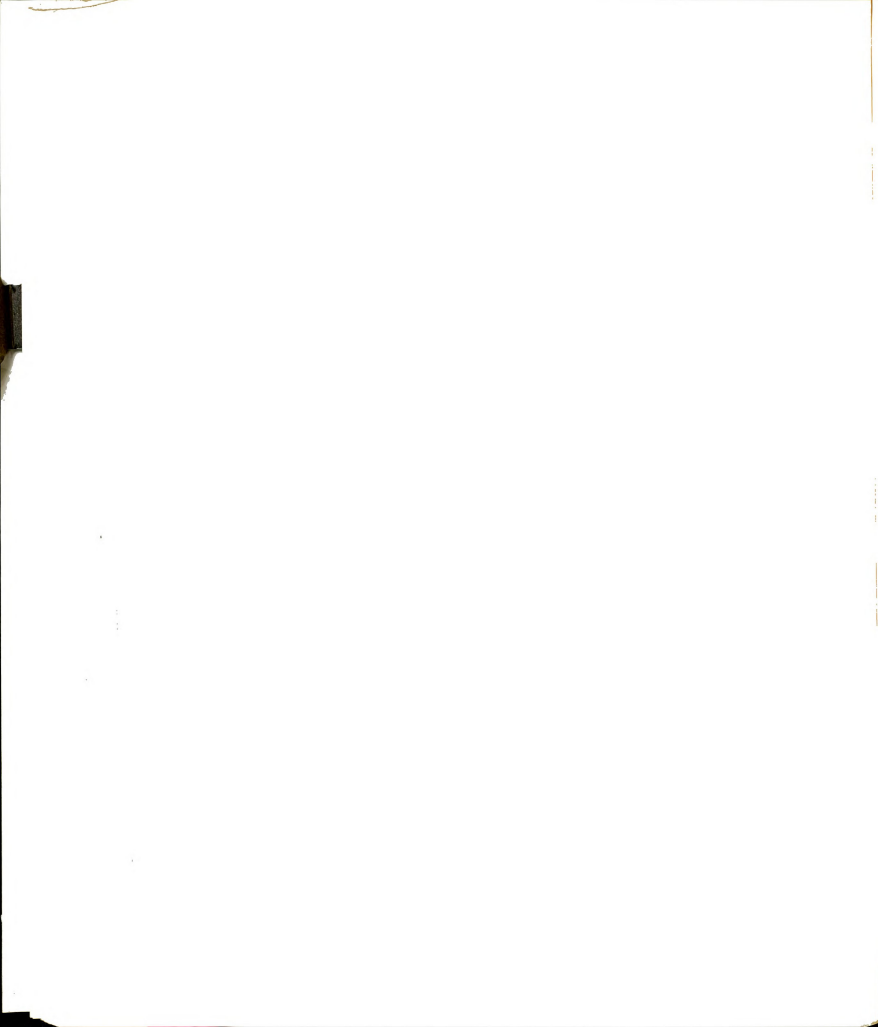
and his attitude toward students and teaching. Test data did not support this position. In fact, only one significant positive correlation appeared between TSCS Net Conflict and the MTAI. Other significance levels ranged from .49 to .07 indicating the degree to which these variables were unrelated.

This hypothesis was based on the belief that two aspects of personality such as the self-concept and attitude would possess a natural affinity. The review of literature confirmed the belief that the self-concept does influence behavior. In fact, some research indicated it determined behavior. It was also reasoned that attitude would likewise affect behavior. The influence exerted by both self-concept and attitude on behavior could be expected to be related. Of course, the results of this study did not support the assumption.

Two conclusions would seem appropriate when considering these data. The first conclusion might be that, in fact, there is no relationship between self-concept and attitude. A second, and more probable, explanation of the nonsignificant correlations could be attributed to failure on the part of the instruments to adequately measure the two phenomena. When global self-concept was correlated with the other variable considered in the study, few significant correlations were obtained. However, the sub-scales of the TSCS produced meaningful

relationships in several areas. It might be assumed, also, that various components of attitude would reach significant correlations with the other variables in the study. It would seem that the more specific the information regarding attitude or self-concept, the more useful that information might become especially if predictive or causal factors were of interest. The authors of the teacher attitude inventory considered a total attitude score to be adequate for assessing an over-all picture of a teacher's attitude toward teaching and students. A total attitude score may not have been appropriate for this study or other studies that are considering specific aspects of teacher personality.

### Self-Concept and Student Attitude

Correlational studies have shown that significant relationships existed between student attitudes and other classroom variables. This study hypothesized that such significant relationships would extend, also, to the teachers' self-concept. The relationship between teacher self-concept and student attitude was partially supported by this research. As was true with the correlation of global self-concept and teacher attitude, no significant correlation appeared between the teacher's global self-concept and a total student attitude score. However, when various aspects of teacher self-concept
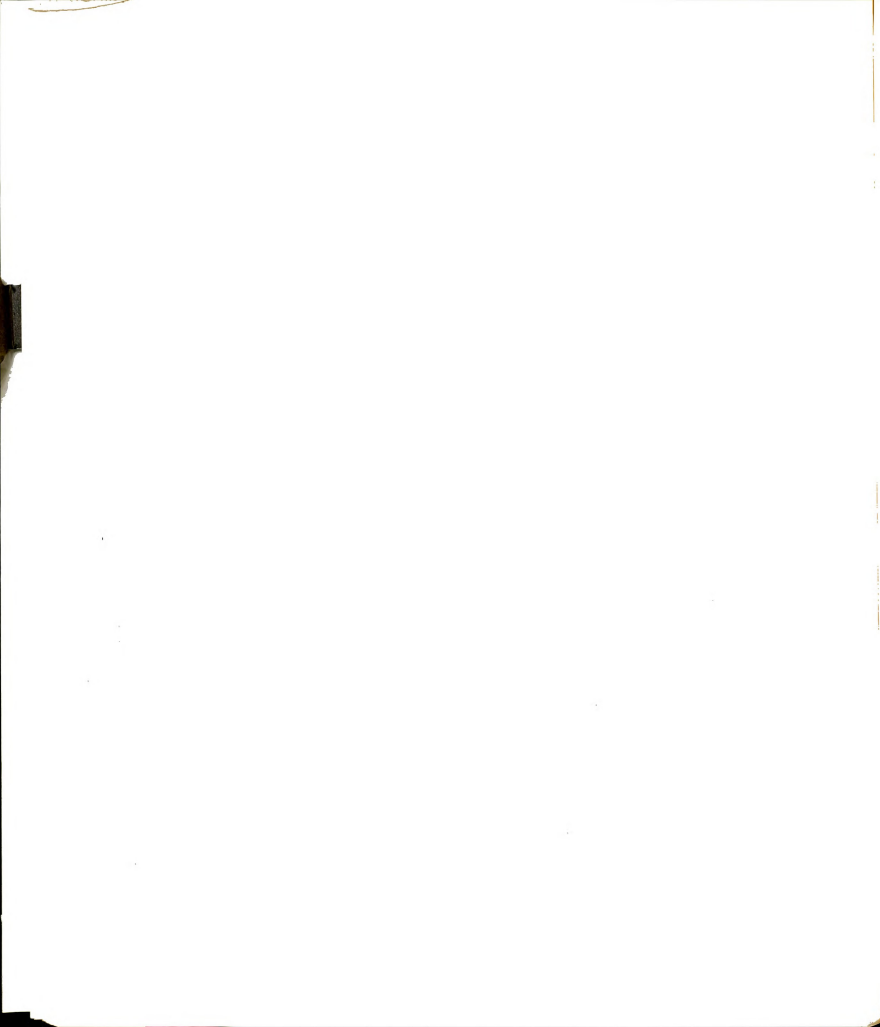
were correlated with student attitude, significant
coefficients appeared. Students responded favorably to
teachers attitudinally when the teachers had established
a definite identity of themselves. The teachers were
not questioning who they were because identity had been
well established in their minds. Teachers who felt
secure in their homelife or had satisfying domestic
relationships also had students who maintained a posi-
tive attitude toward the teacher and the class. Students
responded with positive attitudes toward teachers who
perceived themselves as successful in their social
relationships. These data indicate that teachers who
feel secure in these interpersonal relationships--Family
Self and Social Self--also have students who perceive
the teacher and class in a positive attitudinal way.
This, by no means, infers a causal relationship at this
time. The data suggest only that where one variable
exists, the other will also be in evidence.

Although not testing any of the hypotheses
directly, student attitudinal responses were identified
by sex. Girls' attitude correlated significantly with
seven subscales of TSCS and also with the total self-
concept score of TSCS. Boys achieved a significant
negative correlation between their attitude and the
Total Conflict expressed by the teacher. These findings
would suggest that in this study, the teachers with more
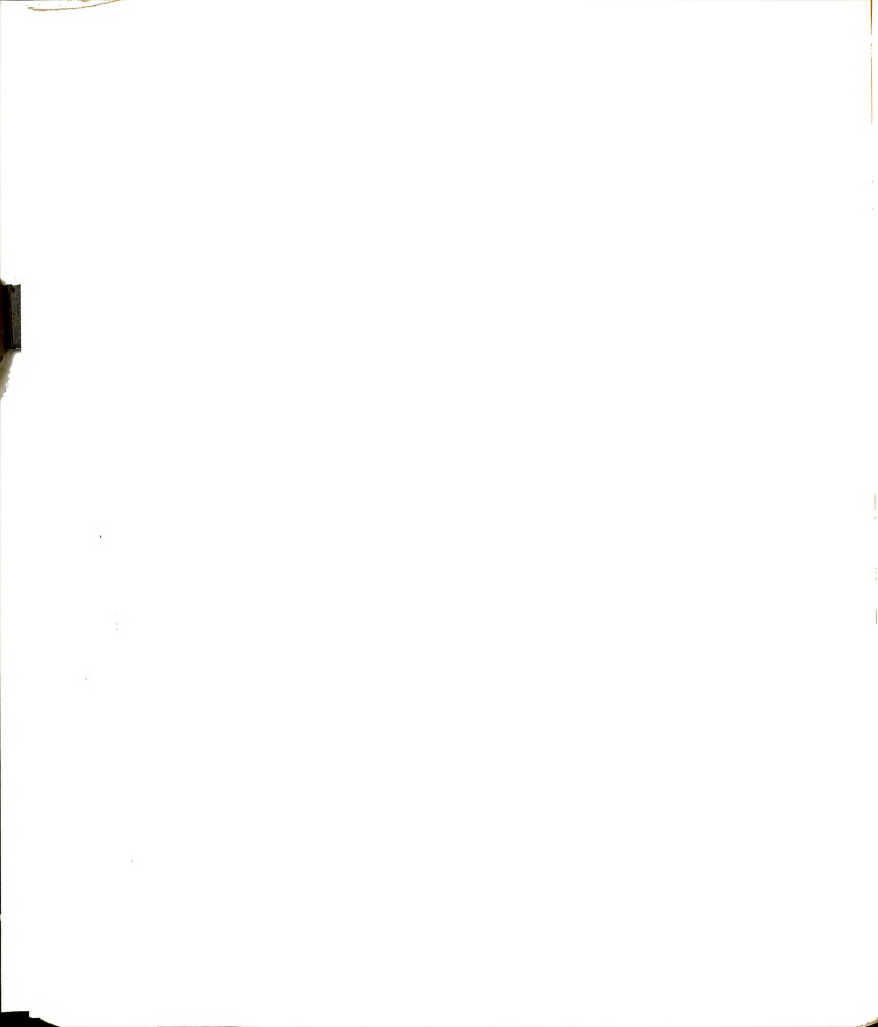
integrated self-concepts also had male students who
expressed more positive attitudes toward their teachers.
As the teacher's internal conflict increases, the boys'
attitudes tended to become more negative.  This is an
interesting relationship between which the girls did not
produce a significant correlation.  The degree of sig-
nificant correlations between these variables would
suggest that in this study the girls expressed more
positive attitudes toward various aspects of the
teacher's self-concept and the music class itself.
This finding is consistent with other research which
proposes that at this age girls do, in fact, have more
positive attitudes toward school in general.  These
data also lend support to an increasing number of edu-
cational leaders who contend that the public grade
schools are girl oriented.  The disparity between the
girls' attitudes and those expressed by the boys could
also be interpreted to mean that girls at this age hold
a more positive attitude toward music than do boys.
(Girls and boys were almost equally divided in this
study.)  Specifically, girls achieved a significant
positive correlation with the Total Self Concept Score,
Identity, Self Satisfaction, Moral Ethical Self, Per-
sonal Self, Family Self, Social Self, and Distribution
Subscale scores of the TSCS.  These correlations
indicate that girls hold positive attitudes toward

teachers and their classes when those teachers have expressed positive self-concepts. As the teachers increase in the degree of their positive self-concepts, female students also tended to become more positive in their attitudes toward the teachers and their classes. Data were not accumulated to determine the correlation between boys and girls and the sex of the teacher. The disparity between the attitudes of boys and girls would indicate that variables other than self-concept are influencing boys' attitudes toward the teachers in this study. As has been suggested previously, subscales on the student attitude inventory might reveal more significant correlations and produce more specific data.

### Self-Concept and Verbal Interaction

This study tested the hypothesis that teachers with more positive self-concepts would also utilize a higher degree of indirect verbal interaction than those teachers with more negative self-concepts. The hypothesis was only partially accepted. The hypothesis that teachers with positive self-concepts would also experience more student verbal interaction was partially supported. The hypothesis that a more positive teacher self-concept would result in fewer incidents of confused or silent periods during the class session was not accepted.
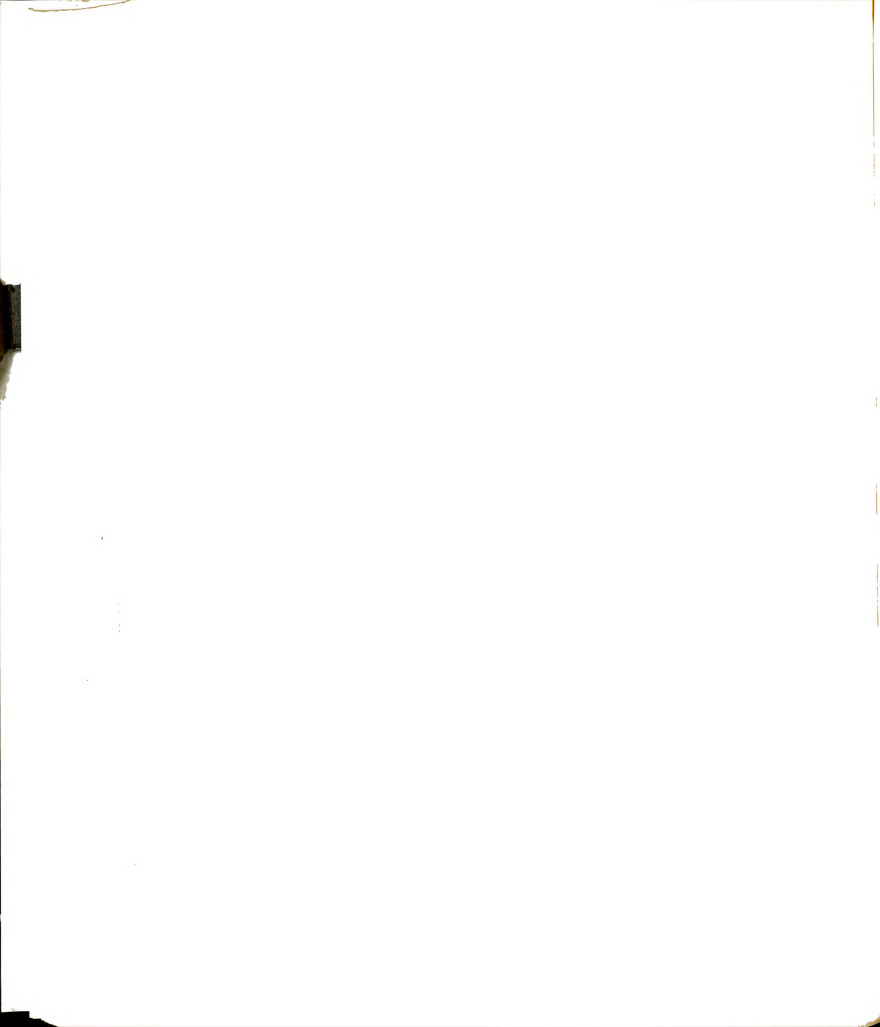
The degree of directness of interaction was determined by totalling the number of responses in Categories 1, 2, 3, and 4 of the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis. The degree of indirectness was also interpreted by using Categories 1, 2, and 3 of FSIA. The latter figuration eliminated the subject matter input of Category 4, asking questions. The correlation coefficients achieved between self-concept and indirect verbalization were negative correlations in all but two instances. Even though only four of the correlations were significant, the overall relationship was interesting. The negative relationship would indicate that as self-concept became more positive the reliance upon indirect verbal behavior tended to decrease. This trend would also suggest that teachers who exhibited a tendency to become more secure, self-assured, and self-satisfied become more emphatic and direct and also less empathic. If this assumption is acceptable, then insecure teachers would be more empathic and more indirect in their verbal encounter with students. It should be remembered that most of the coefficients were not significant, however. Significant negative relationships existed between Physical Self and both groupings of indirectness. The more positively the teacher perceives his body, his physical appearance, and his sexuality, the less need he would feel to employ indirect verbal
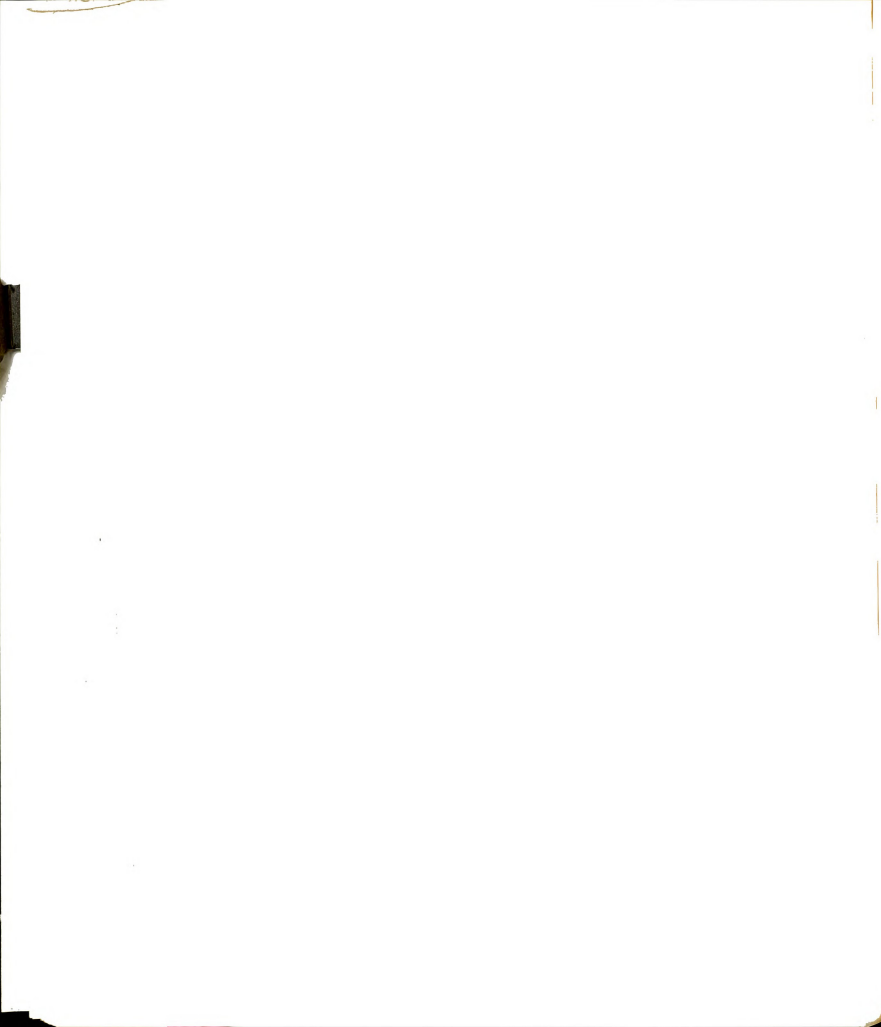
interaction. These data would tend to support the previous discussion. When physical security or satisfaction is high, indirect verbal behavior tends to diminish. The correlation between direct verbal behavior and Physical Self was not at all significant which would indicate some discrepancy in the findings. The significant correlation existing between indirect verbal behavior (Categories 1, 2, and 3) and the True False Subscale indicated that as the teacher accentuates the positive in his own self, he was also prone to increase his reliance on indirect verbal behavior. True False scores suggest the degree to which a person achieves self-description by focusing on what he is instead of what he is not. Higher scores on the Net Conflict Scale represent a person who is over affirming his positive attributes. A significant negative correlation between Categories 1, 2, and 3 and Net Conflict suggests that the teacher who over affirmed his positive aspects tended to rely less on indirect verbal behavior.

Indirect categories of FSIA, when correlated individually with Subscales of TSCS, revealed several significant correlations. Physical Self maintained its negative correlation with only Categories 3 and 4 of the indirect group. These statistics indicate that as the teachers' perception of their physical self becomes more positive, their reliance on questions and using
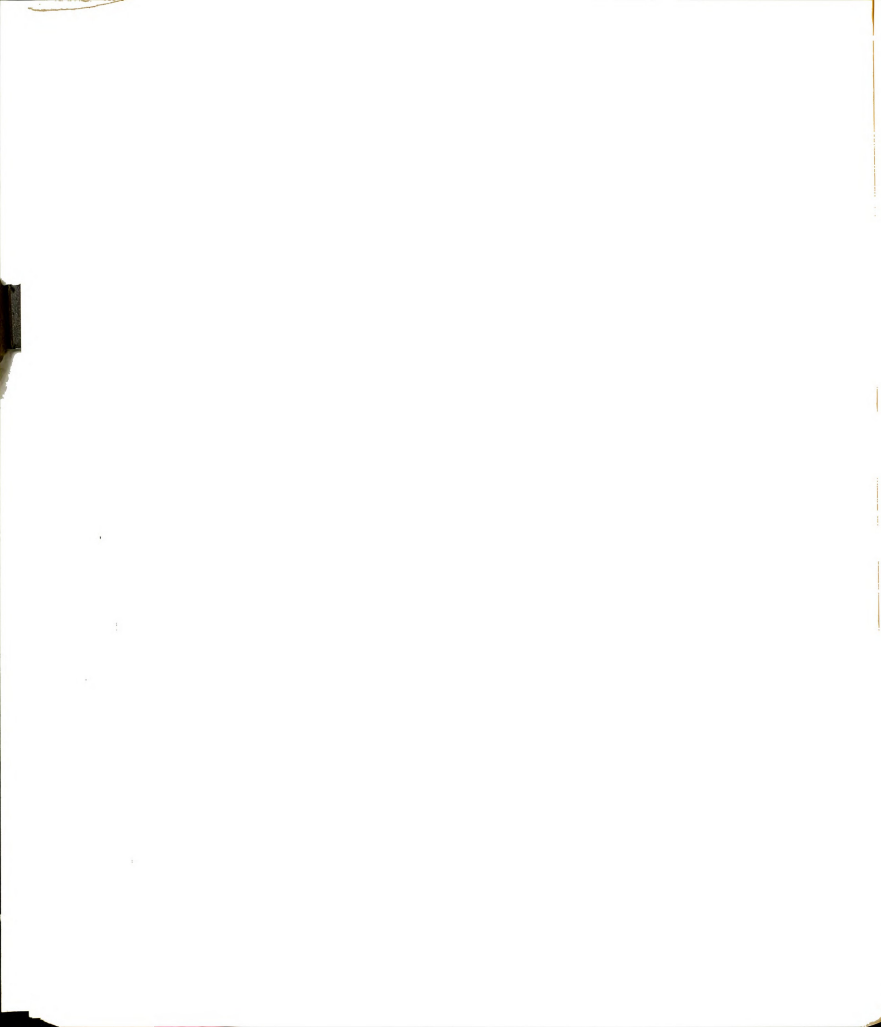
student ideas, suggestions, or comments tends to lessen.
These correlations clarify the relationships discovered
between the indirect grouping of Categories. The
relationship with indirectness actually existed most
strongly with Categories 3 and 4. Category 1 of the
FSIA demonstrated significant correlations with Self
Satisfaction, Family Self, Social Self, True False, and
Total Conflict. Of these correlations only Total Con-
flict produced negative results. Category 1 indicates
the degree of empathy toward students during verbal
interaction. Teachers who are more satisfied and
secure with the self generally and also in both domestic
and social situation tended to be more empathic verbally.
The correlation between True False and Category 1 indi-
cated that the more positiveness exhibited in responses
to questions concerning self, the more use there seemed
to be made of empathy. Total Conflict indicates the
degree of conflict existing within the personality.
The negative correlation between the variables indicates
that as conflict is reduced in teacher personality, the
more empathy he will tend to express verbally toward
students. Category 2 of the FSIA was significantly
correlated with True False and Total Conflict. The
positive correlation between True False and Category 2
discloses that as the individual emphasizing his positive
characteristics, also increases his tendency to use verbal
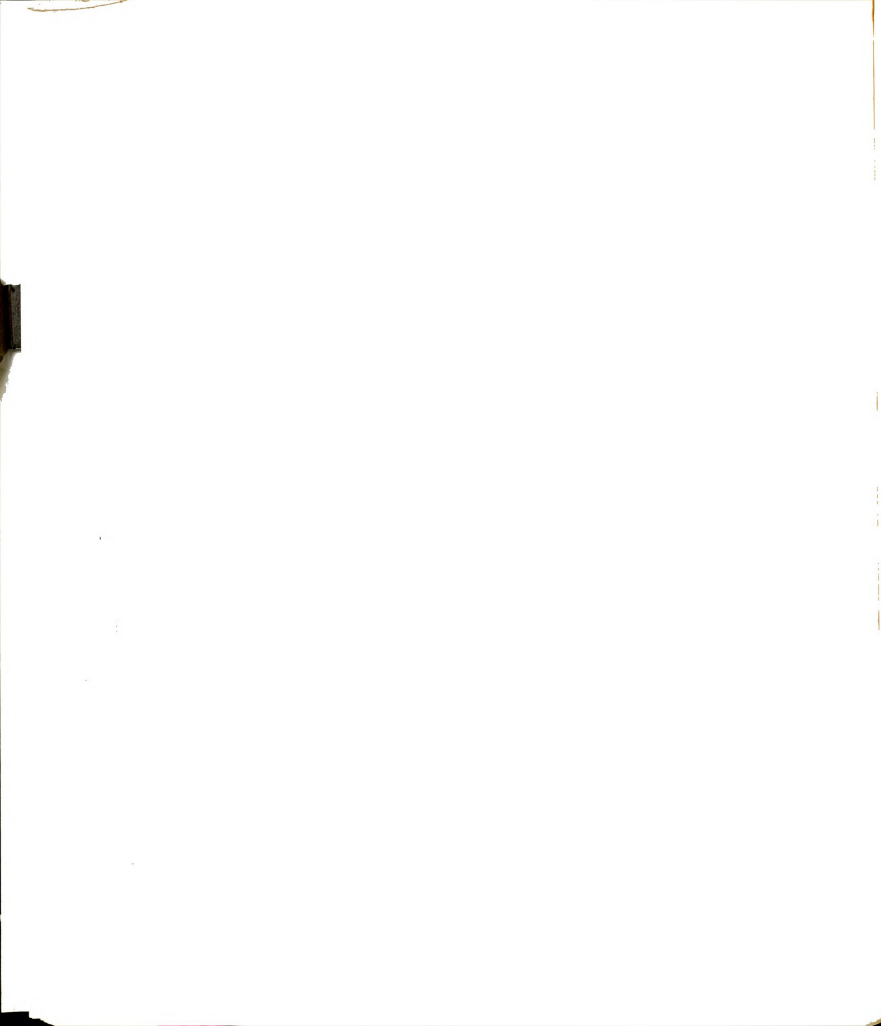
praise or encouragement. Middle range scores on the True
False Subscale indicate a person is able to achieve self-
description by affirming what is self and eliminating
what is not self. Higher scores in this area suggest
that the individual is not approaching a normal balance
between the extremes. In this correlation the higher
the positiveness, the higher the tendency to use Category
2. The negative correlation shown between Total Conflict
and Category 2 of the FSIA suggested that the less conflict
in the teacher's personality, the more he will tend to
use praise and encouragement in his verbal interaction.
As has been displayed in other correlations, teachers
with integrated self-concepts achieve more indirectness
in their verbal interaction.

When self-concept attributes were correlated
with direct verbal behavior, most of the relationships
were found to be nonsignificant. Seven significant cor-
relation coefficients appeared between the variables.
The Personal Self Subscale and Categories 5, 6, and 7
produced a significant negative correlation. The
more highly the teacher perceived his personal worth
or adequacy, the less apt he would be to use direct
verbal interaction. Teachers with a high degree of
positive personal regard, then, will tend to use more
indirect verbal interaction. The same negative relation-
ship also existed between the Social Self and Distribution
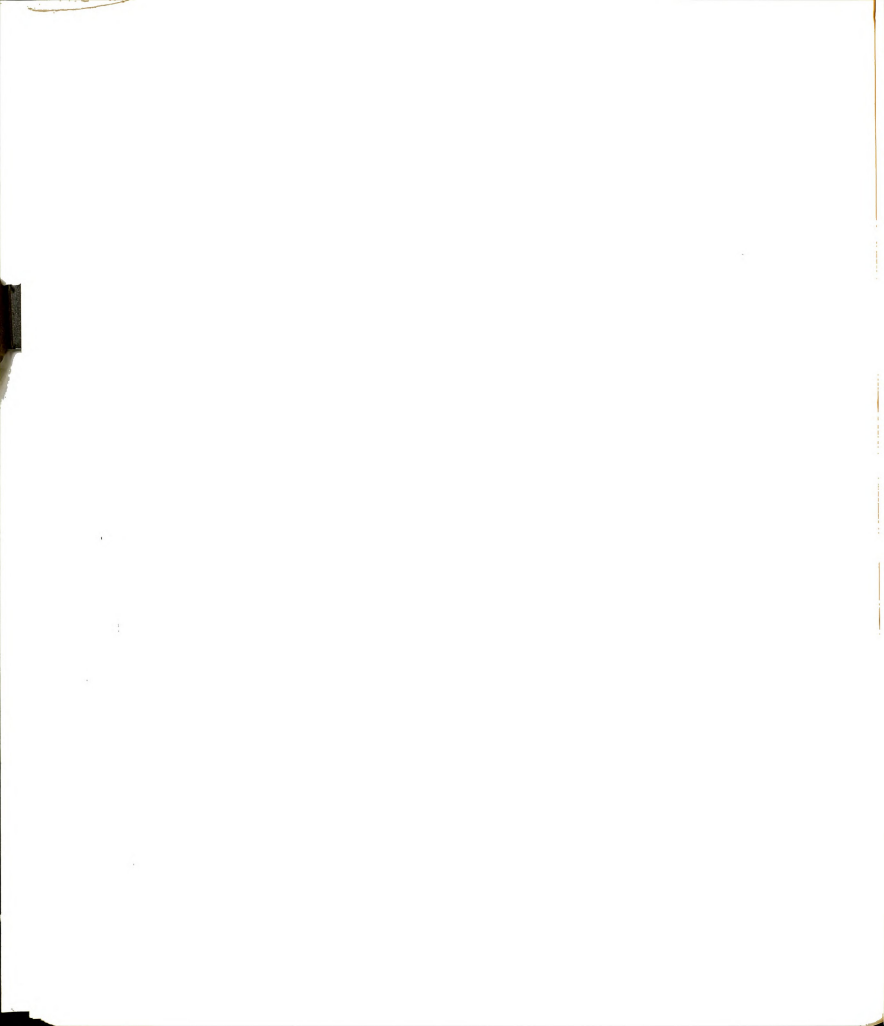
Subscales and Categories 5, 6, and 7. This finding reveals that individuals who speak about themselves with certainty and definiteness and perceive of themselves as socially adequate will tend to use direct verbal behavior to a lesser degree. The Distribution Subscale displayed a positive correlation with direct verbal behavior when subject matter content was eliminated (Categories 6 and 7 only). This would suggest that teachers who express certainty and definiteness about themselves might also be more apt to be critical of students and issue more directives to them. When the Distribution Subscale was compared with Category 6 individually, a significant positive correlation was achieved. Category 7 when correlated separately with Distribution did not produce a significant finding indicating that the positive correlation between Distribution and direct verbal behavior (Categories 6 and 7) was in reality only achieving significance with Category 6. This would then indicate a relationship between an individual's certainty and definiteness about self with giving orders or directions to students. This type of emphatic individual would find the giving of specific instructions to be consistent with his personality. It was found that this type of individual achieved a significant negative correlation with Category 5. This finding possibly suggests that a teacher scoring high on the Distribution Subscale

would feel little necessity to become involved in lengthy lectures or discussions; whereas the less sure individual might feel some security in lengthy discussions or lectures partially to reassure himself. Category 7, when correlated individually, did achieve significance with the Self Criticism Subscale. This finding showed that those individuals who indulged in a high degree of self-criticism also tended to criticize others to a higher degree, in this case students.

The hypothesis that classes whose teachers held positive self-concepts would result in a higher degree of student verbal interaction was partially accepted. Significant positive correlations appeared between Category 8, teacher-initiated student interaction, and Self Satisfaction, Physical Self, Moral Ethical Self, and Distribution. Teachers who have a high degree of self-acceptance, physically and morally, and express a high degree of certainty and definiteness, seemingly create an environment in which they elicit a high degree of student interaction. Because of their positive feelings toward self, they are not threatened by student involvement. These teachers feel secure in their ability to cope with the student interaction. Category 9, student-initiated interaction, exhibited significant correlations with Total Self Concept, Identity, Self Satisfaction, Physical Self, Moral Ethical Self, Social Self, and Variability.
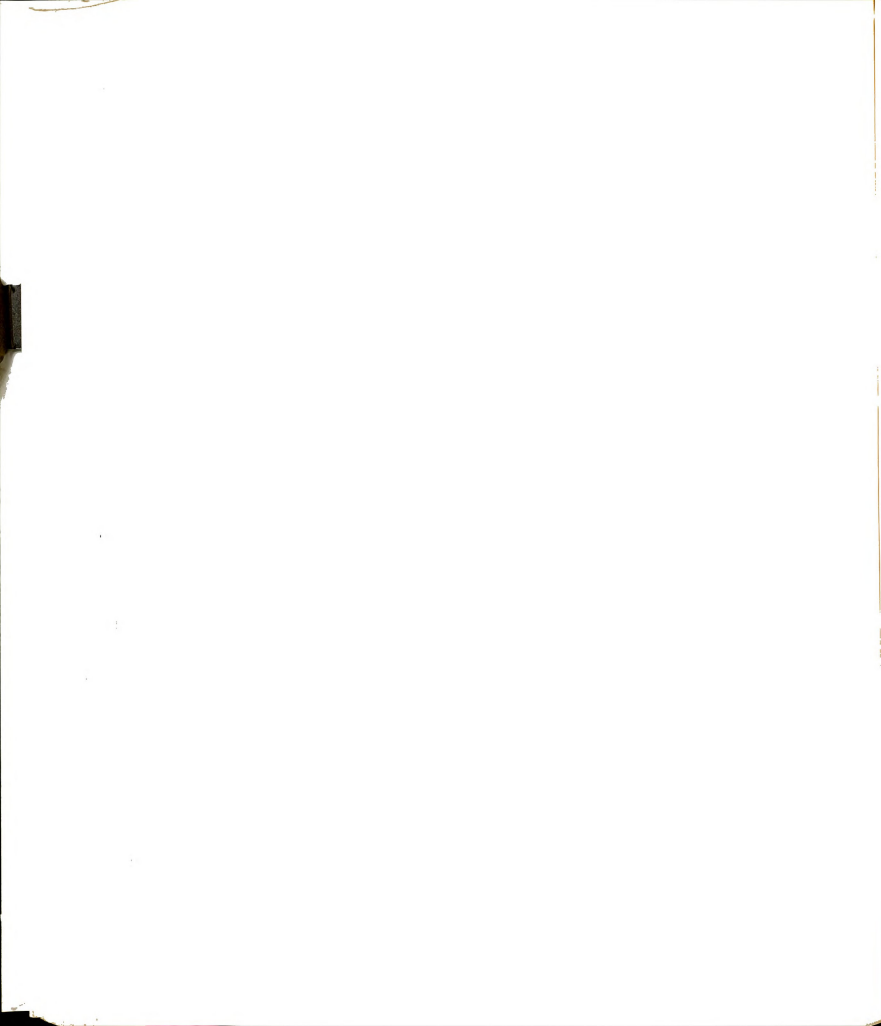
While Variability produced a positive correlation, the meaning of the relationship was negative. Variability reveals inconsistencies or lack of integration from one area of the self-concept to another. These findings indicate that when teachers feel insecure or perceive themselves negatively, students tend to recognize the teacher's self-doubt and initiate their own interaction. Category 9 might be construed in two distinct ways. Either the students are so stimulated or motivated by the environment the teacher has skillfully created that they initiate verbal interaction or the students, sensing the teacher's self-doubts, take charge of the situation. The data support the latter interpretation.

The hypothesis that a significant correlation would exist between Category 10 of the FSIA and the self-concept was not accepted. Of the fifteen correlation coefficients produced for this hypothesis, thirteen were negative. Although not significant, the negative relationships were worth noting.

### Relationship of Dependent Variables

The hypothesis indicating a significant correlation between teacher attitude and student attitude was not supported. Although total scores produced by the instruments did not achieve significance, subscale scores, had they been available, might have produced something of significance.
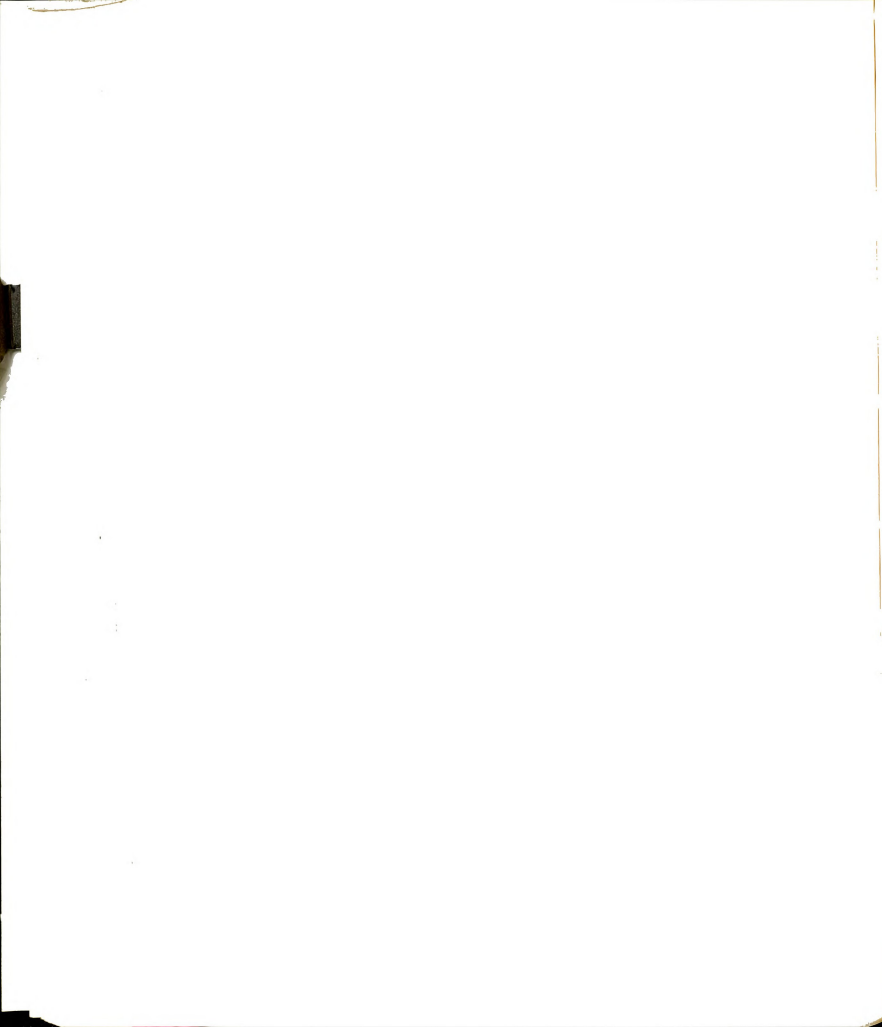
The MTAI when correlated with the FSIA achieved significance only with Category 6. These results signify that as teacher attitude toward the students becomes more positive, the teacher's use of commands, orders, and instructions also tends to increase. Those teachers who become more positively identified with their classes feel more secure in their demands upon the class which results in greater use of directions and orders.

Student attitude when correlated with the Flanders' Categories produced several significant correlations. A significant positive correlation appeared between student attitude and Categories 1, 2, and 3 indicating that as the teacher's use of indirectness increased, student attitude tended to become more positive. The significant negative correlation between student attitude and the teacher's use of Categories 5, 6, and 7 supports the hypothesis stating that relationship. It should be noted, however, that significance was achieved between student attitude and direct verbal interaction only when Category 5 was included. This would suggest that lecturing and opinions expressed by teachers are closely related to negative student attitudes. Student attitude correlated significantly and positively with Category 8. If students possess a positive attitude toward a class, there will tend to be more student response toward teacher initiations. The
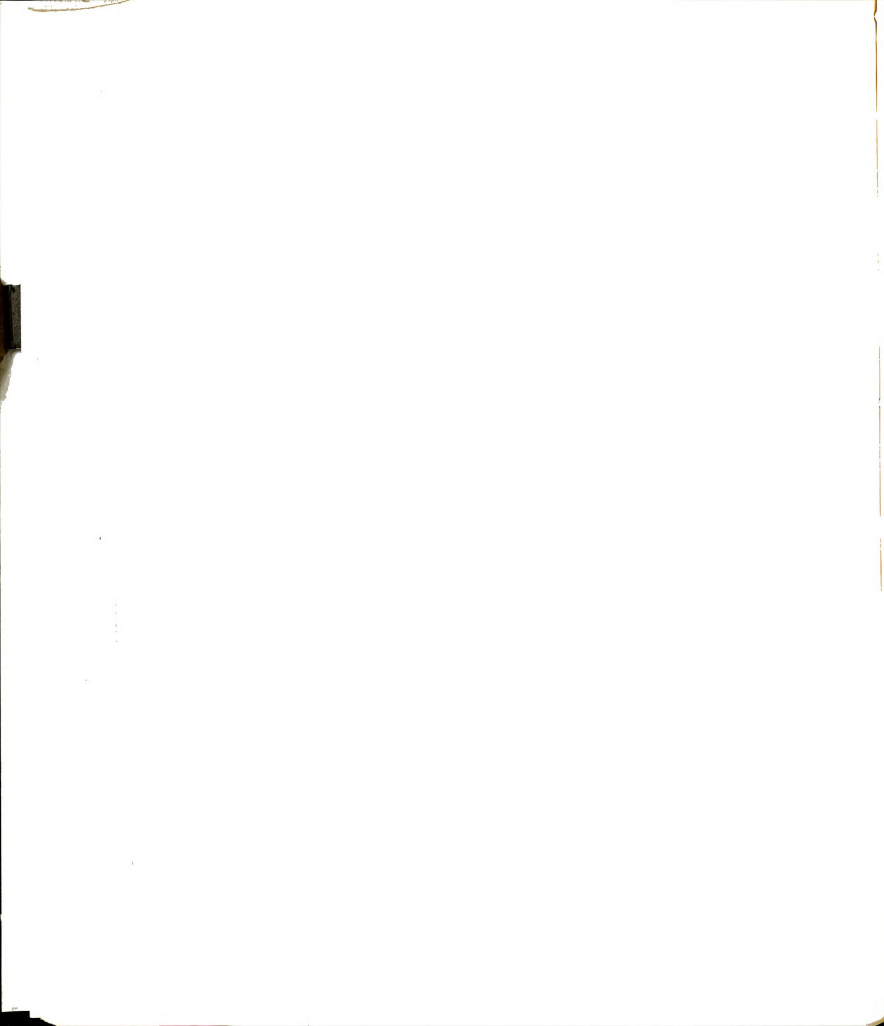
negative correlation between MSAI and Category 10 is an understandable relationship. The more positive students' attitudes toward a class tend to be, the less they will engage in disruptive talk or create periods of confusion. Girls' attitudes produced significant positive relationships with Categories 2 and 3. This would indicate that the teachers who engaged in praise and use of student ideas also had female students who expressed more positive attitudes. Interestingly, boys' attitudes did not correlate significantly with either category. Boys, it would appear, respond to praise differently than girls. Both boys' and girls' attitudes reached significance with Category 7. The negative correlation indicated that neither boys nor girls tend to respond positively to criticism. Boys' attitudes correlated negatively with Category 10. Total student attitude also achieved negative correlation with Category 10. Since the girls indicated no significant correlation with Category 10, it might be assumed that boys' attitudes are reflected in the amount of confusion and disorder which occurs in the classroom. The more negative the attitudes, the greater the trend toward confusion. A significant negative correlation was also reached between boys' attitudes and teachers' attitudes. When total student attitude was correlated with teacher attitude, no significance was reached. The relationship, however, was also
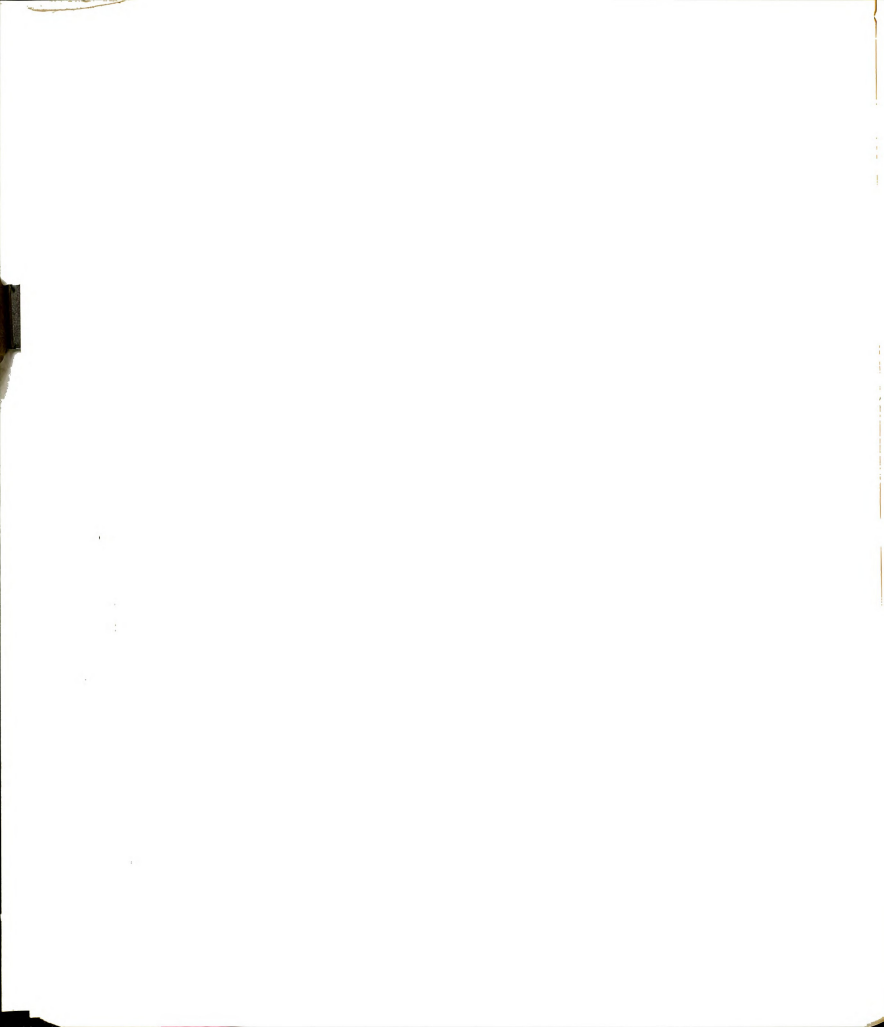
negative. These data suggest that boys in this study not only reacted negatively to positive teacher attitudes but they also responded differently to similar stimuli than did the girls. It must be cautioned here that the two variables only correlated negatively and no causal influence should be inferred.

## Related Questions

This study explored the relationship between the teachers' race and years of teaching experience and the variables considered in the hypotheses. Black teachers in the study correlated significantly with the following subscales of the TSCS: (1) Self Satisfaction, (2) Personal Self, (3) Social Self, and (4) Distribution. The findings suggest that black teachers expressed a high degree of self-acceptance, personal worth and adequacy, efficacy in social situations, and a high degree of certainty in his expressions about himself. The data indicated that the black teachers in this study perceived themselves more favorably than white teachers. This finding is consistent with research showing black students to possess more positive self-concepts than white students. White teachers tended to use indirect verbal behavior to a greater extent than black teachers, however. As was suggested earlier there seemed to be a positive correlation between self-concept and the use
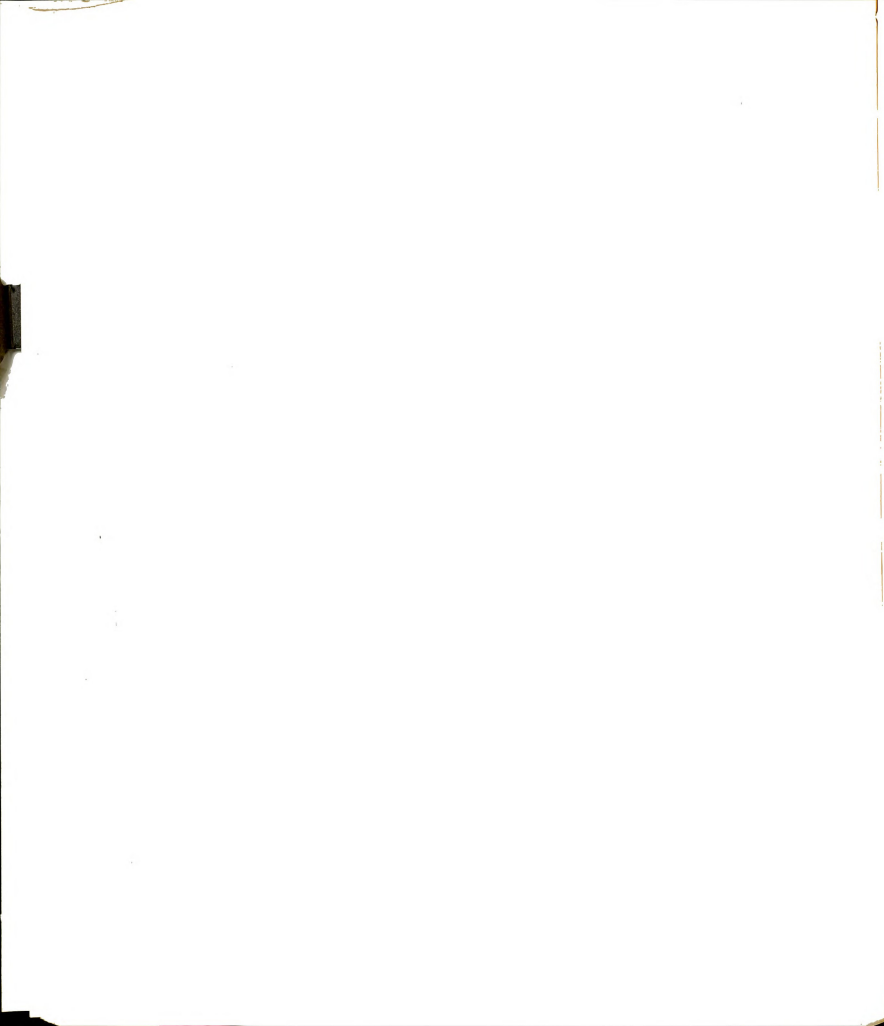
of indirect verbal interaction. These data would tend
to question this relationship.

The teachers' years of experience was correlated
with variables of this study. The significant negative
correlation between years of experience and Self Criticism
of the TSCS indicated that teachers are apt to become
less critical of themselves with increased teaching
experience. With increased experience, and hopefully,
skill, teachers tend to become more secure not only in
teaching, but in life in general. Research reported in
Chapter II indicated that experienced teachers did become
more tense in the teaching situation, however. The two
findings are not entirely inconsistent. Lessened self-
criticism indicates more self-acceptance and security in
teaching behavior. Increased tenseness would indicate
frustration when the teachers' secure and accepted
teaching methods and objectives are not successful or
accomplished.

Significant positive relationships existed
between years of experience and student attitude. These
results are encouraging for experienced teachers. Posi-
tive correlations were achieved not only with the total
student attitude, but also with the total boys' and total
girls' student attitude. In this study, then, students
tended to have more favorable attitudes toward exper-
ienced teachers.

Years of experience produced significant correlations with Categories 6, 7, 8, and 10 of the FSIA. Category 6 resulted in a negative correlation. Experienced teachers relied to a lesser extent on giving directions, orders, or commands with which students were expected to comply. With increased years of experience, teachers used less criticism of students and tended to justify their position to a lesser extent. Increased years of experience seemed to result in a higher occurrence of Category 8, teacher-initiated student verbal interaction. The appearance of Category 10, confusion, silence, and muffled conversations, seemed to diminish as teacher experience increased. These findings suggest that in this study, teachers appeared less direct as experience increased. Interestingly, the data did not suggest that they became more indirect with experience.

## Conclusions

Analysis of the research data supports the following conclusions:

1. When teachers perceive themselves as adequate and successful in their interpersonal relationships, their students will tend to have positive attitudes toward that teacher.
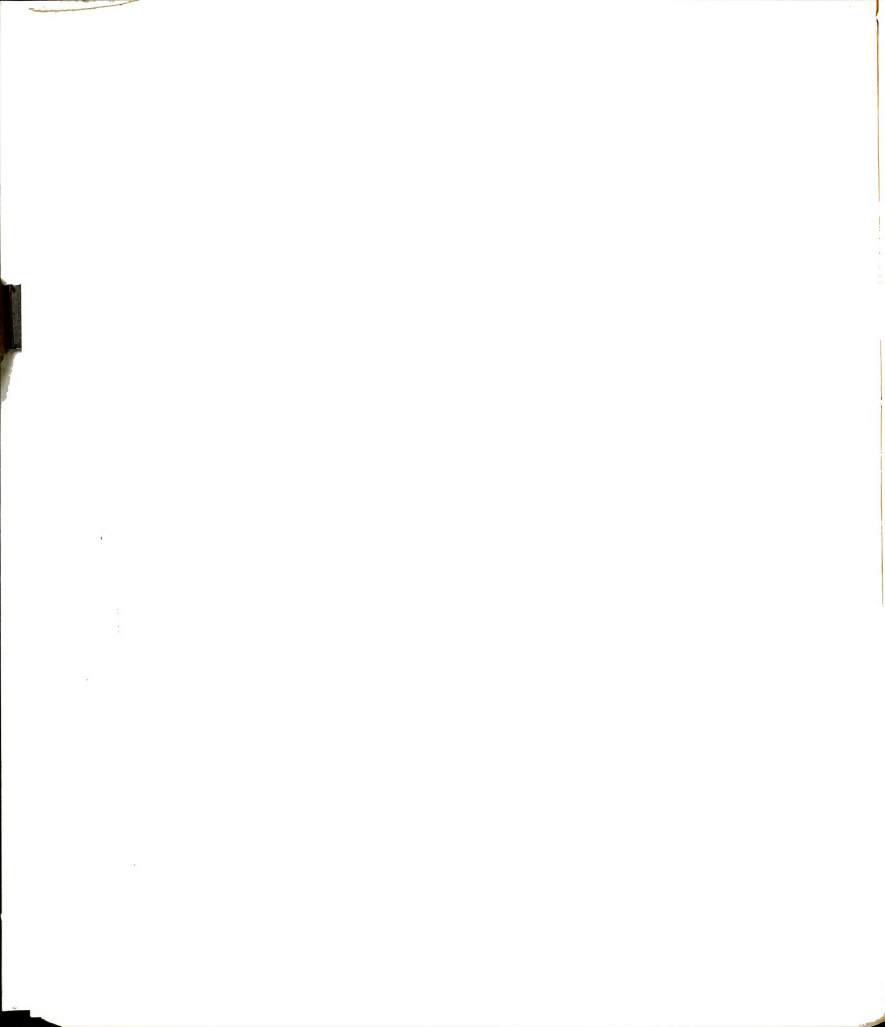
2. Teachers who have integrated self-concepts and a high degree of self-acceptance will tend to have students who express positive attitudes toward that teacher and his class.

3. Teachers who maintain negative concepts of their body, state of health, physical appearance, skills, and sexuality tend to use questions and student ideas in their verbal interaction to a greater extent than those teachers who hold positive concepts of the same areas.

4. Teachers with a positive self-concept and a low degree of conflict in their personalities will tend to be more empathic, encouraging and praising in their verbal interaction than other teachers.

5. The higher the teacher's sense of personal worth and adequacy, the less he tends to rely upon direct verbal interaction.

6. Teachers who are very definite and certain in what they say about themselves will tend to criticize and give orders and commands more than less definite teachers.

7. Teachers who criticize themselves severely will tend to criticize others to the same degree.

8. The more positively the teacher tends to perceive himself, the more teacher-initiated student verbal interaction he will achieve in his classes.

9. As a teacher's degree of self-satisfaction or self-acceptance increases, his classes' use of student-initiated verbal interaction tends to decrease.

10. Teachers with more positive attitudes toward students and their classes will tend to give more verbal commands and instructions.

11. If student attitudes toward a class are positive, the teacher will tend to use a high degree of verbal empathy and praise and will also use student ideas increasingly. When student attitudes are negative, the teacher also employs a high degree of direct verbal interaction.

12. Classes in which student attitude is positive will also exhibit a high degree of teacher-initiated student verbal interaction.

13. Classes in which student attitudes are negative will also experience a higher degree of confusion, extraneous conversation, and disorganization.
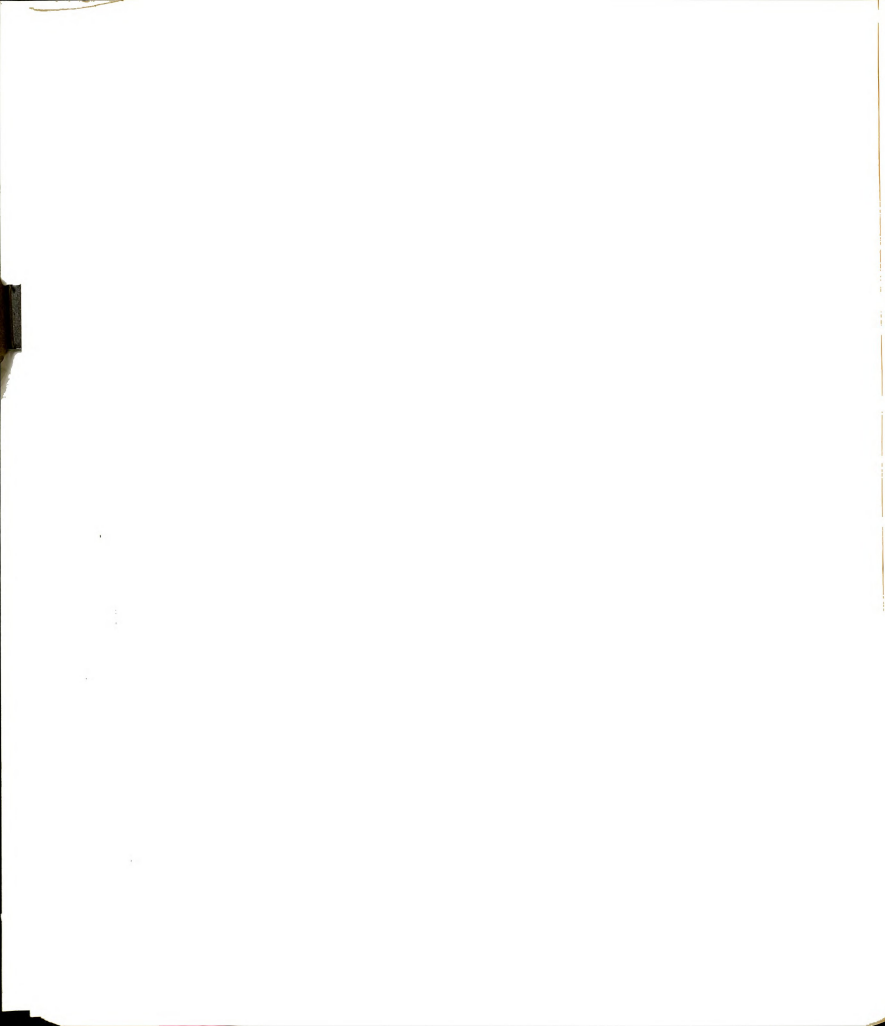
14. When boys express a negative attitude toward the class and its teacher, the teacher tends to express positive attitudes toward the students.

15. Black teachers express a higher degree of self-satisfaction or self-acceptance than white teachers.

16. White teachers tend to use more indirect verbal interaction than black teachers.

17. Teachers with a greater amount of teaching experience tend to exhibit less self-criticism.

18. As the teacher's years of experience increases, his students' attitudes tend to become more positive toward that teacher.

19. As the teacher's years of experience increases, his use of verbal interaction encompassing orders, directions, and criticism tends to decrease. His classes also experience fewer confused and disorganized times.

20. As the teacher's years of experience increases, the incidence of teacher-initiated student verbal interaction also increases.

## Implications

The recognition by educators of the importance of the teacher's self-concept and attitude upon
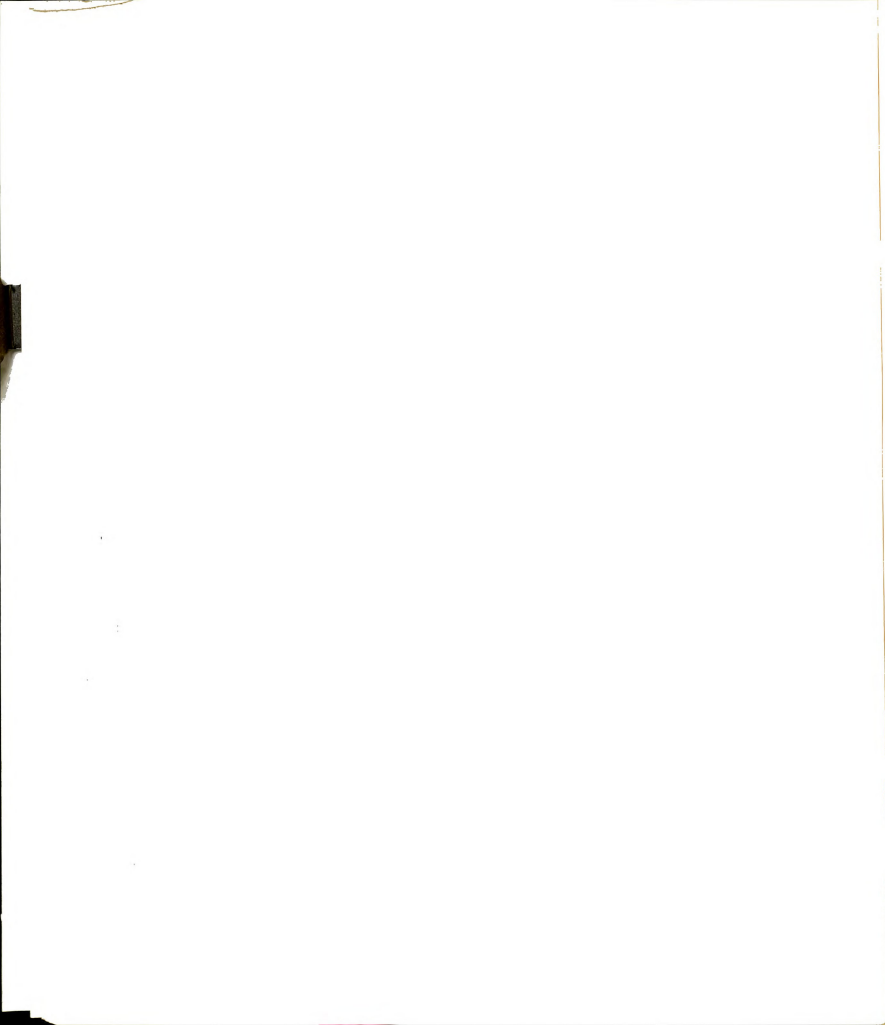
teacher-student interaction could have the following implications for music education:

1. Teacher training institutions could expand their classroom instruction and field experiences to include preparation for profitable teacher-student interaction and opportunities to apply those interaction skills.

2. In-service training could profitably include instruction designed to improve teacher-student interpersonal relationships.

3. Public school personnel officers could utilize the results of self-concept and attitude inventories in their selection of new music teachers.

## Recommendations

1. A replication of this study with certain modifications is recommended. A study using a larger teacher sample might well lead to different conclusions. The sample for the present study was relatively small. A team of verbal interaction observers would certainly add to the validity of future studies.

2. A study would be appropriate to assess the variables in the present study over a span of time. This type of study could determine the
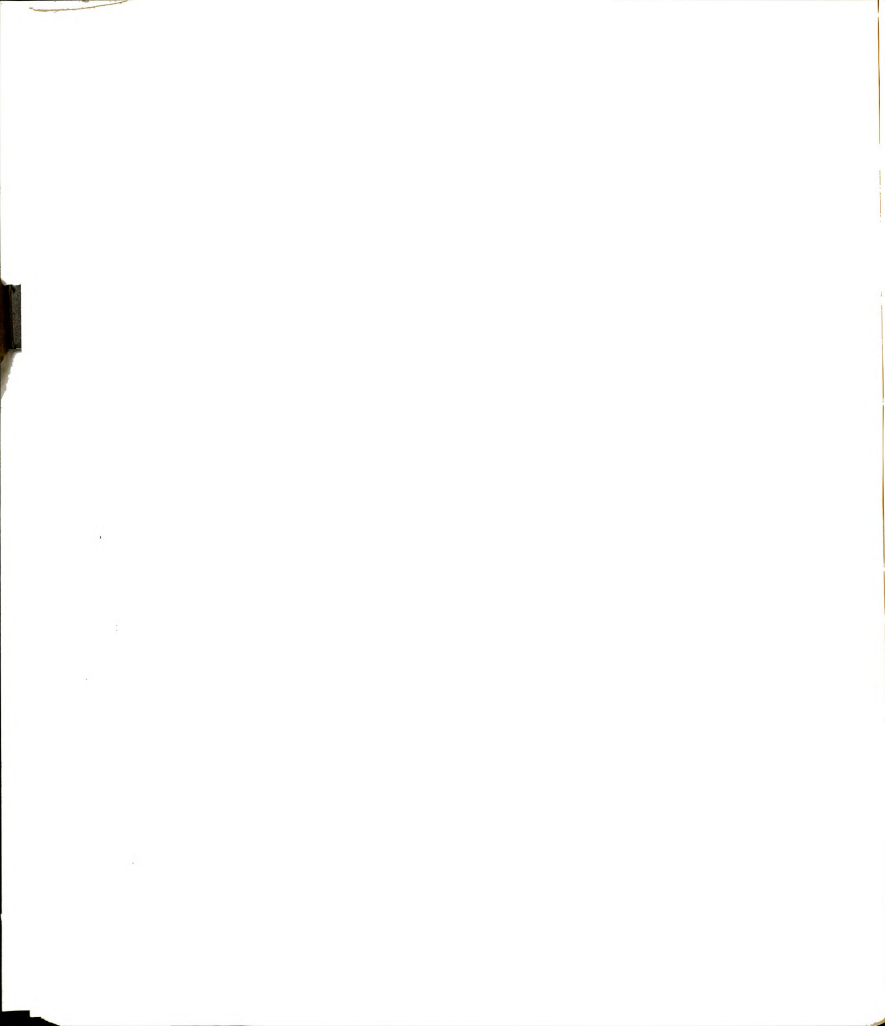
teacher's influence upon student attitude and verbal interaction. Data gathered at the beginning of a term could be compared with results at the conclusion of the term.

3. An effort should be made to pinpoint specific aspects of both teacher and student attitude. Global attitude scores deprive the researcher of specific knowledge of the component of attitude. Such information would enhance the value of future studies in their probing of the cause and effect of classroom interaction.
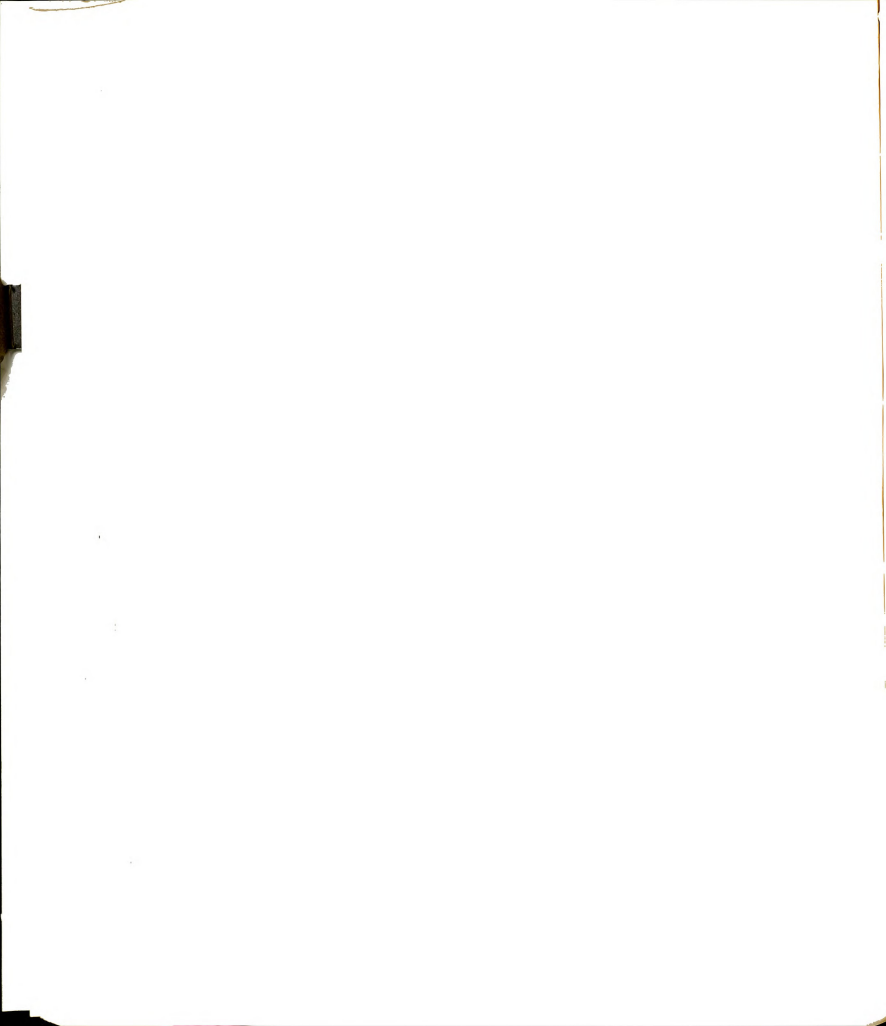
APPENDIX

CRITERION INSTRUMENTS

TENNESSEE

SELF CONCEPT SCALE

by

William H. Fitts, PhD.

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## INSTRUCTIONS

On the top line of the separate answer sheet, fill in your name and the other information except for the time information in the last three boxes.  You will fill these boxes in later.  Write only on the answer sheet.  Do not put any marks in this booklet.

The statements in this booklet are to help you describe yourself as you see yourself.  Please respond to them as if you were describing yourself to yourself. Do not omit any item!  Read each statement carefully; then select one of the five responses listed below. On your answer sheet, put a circle around the response you chose.  If you want to change an answer after you have circled it, do not erase it but put an X mark through the response and then circle the response you want.

When you are ready to start, find the box on your answer sheet marked time started and record the time.  When you are finished, record the time finished in the box on your answer sheet marked time finished.

As you start, be sure that your answer sheet and this booklet are lined up evenly so that the item numbers match each other.

Remember, put a circle around the response number you have chosen for each statement.

### Responses

| Completely false | Mostly false | Partly false and partly true | Mostly true | Completely true |
|:---:|:---:|:---:|:---:|:---:|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

You will find these response numbers repeated at the bottom of each page to help you remember them.

William H. Fitts, 1964
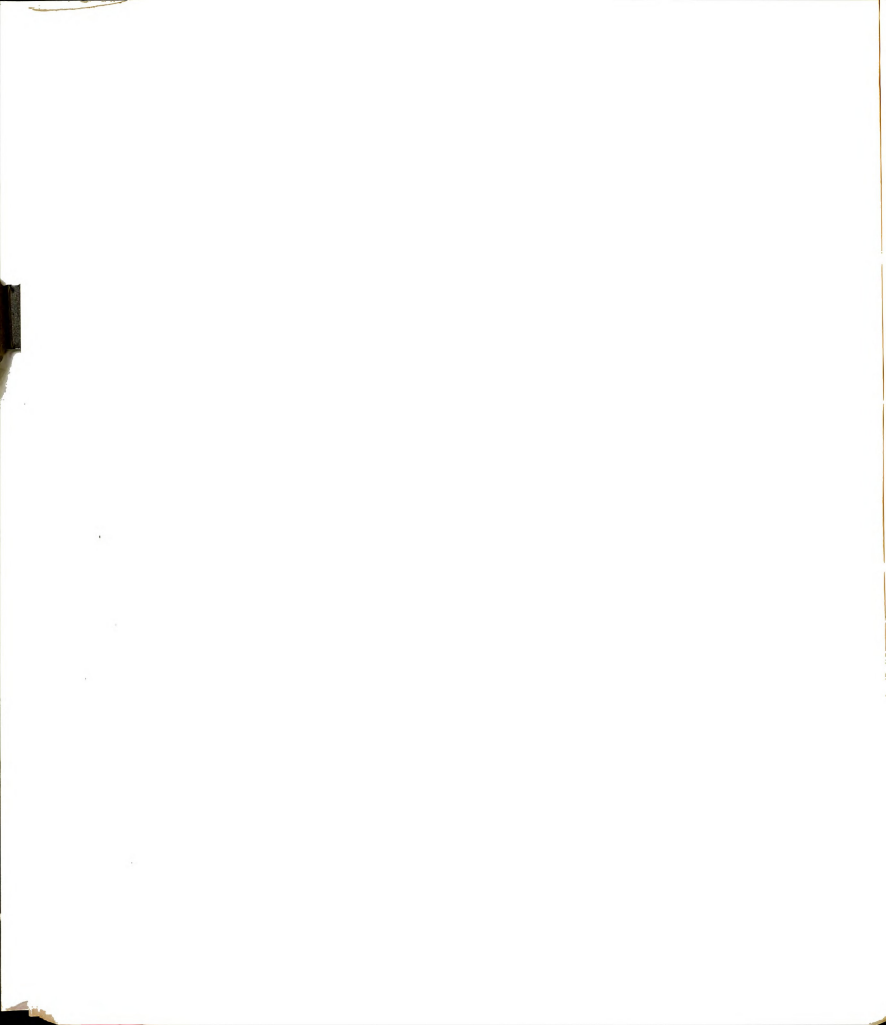
1. I have a healthy body.................................................... 1

3. I am an attractive person............................................... 3

5. I consider myself a sloppy person...................................... 5

19. I am a decent sort of person........................................... 19

21. I am an honest person................................................. 21

23. I am a bad person...................................................... 23

37. I am a cheerful person................................................. 37

39. I am a calm and easy going person................................... 39

41. I am a nobody......................................................... 41

55. I have a family that would always help me in any kind of trouble............. 55

57. I am a member of a happy family..................................... 57

59. My friends have no confidence in me................................. 59

73. I am a friendly person................................................. 73

75. I am popular with men................................................. 75

77. I am not interested in what other people do........................... 77

91. I do not always tell the truth.......................................... 91

93. I get angry sometimes................................................. 93

| Responses— | Completely false | Mostly false | Partly false and partly true | Mostly true | Completely true |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
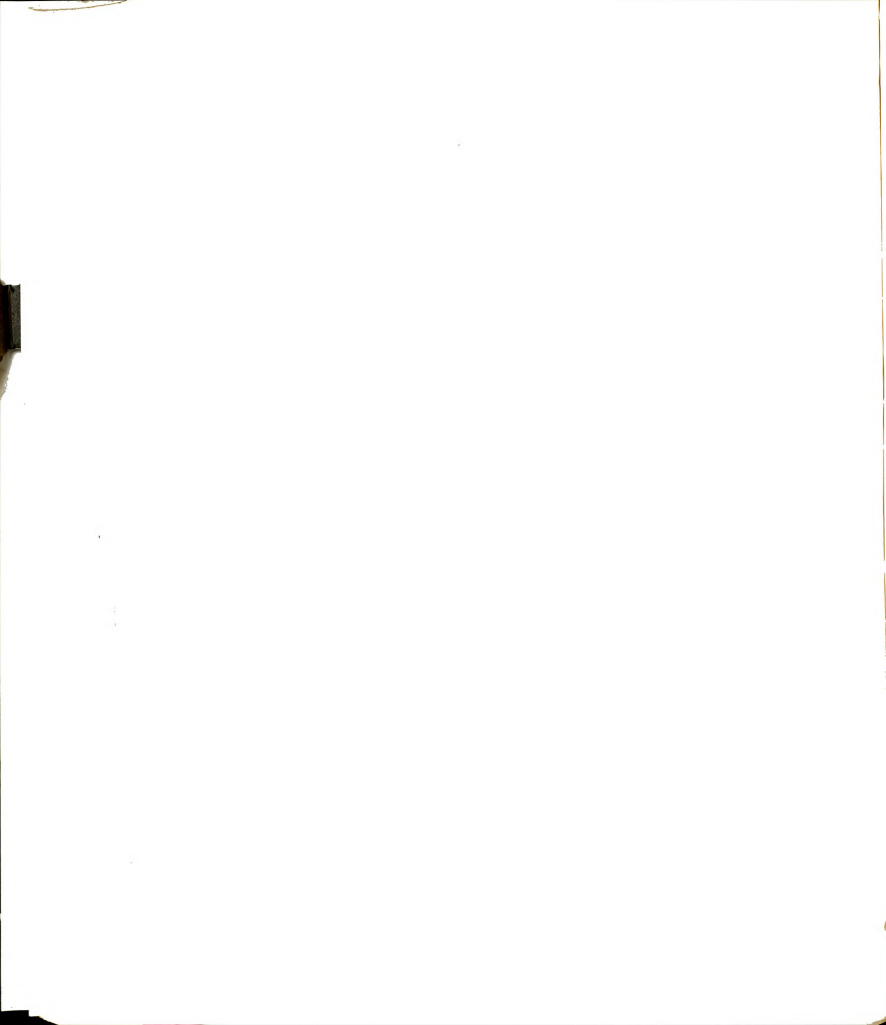
2. I like to look nice and neat all the time ..................................... ▮

4. I am full of aches and pains ..................................... ▮

6. I am a sick person ..................................... ▮

20. I am a religious person ..................................... ▮

22. I am a moral failure ..................................... ▮

24. I am a morally weak person ..................................... ▮

38. I have a lot of self-control ..................................... ▮

40. I am a hateful person ..................................... ▮

42. I am losing my mind ..................................... ▮

56. I am an important person to my friends and family ..................................... ▮

58. I am not loved by my family ..................................... ▮

60. I feel that my family doesn't trust me ..................................... ▮

74. I am popular with women ..................................... ▮

76. I am mad at the whole world ..................................... ▮

78. I am hard to be friendly with ..................................... ▮

92. Once in a while I think of things too bad to talk about ..................................... ▮

94. Sometimes, when I am not feeling well, I am cross ..................................... ▮

| sponses– | Completely false | Mostly false | Partly false and partly true | Mostly true | Completely true |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

7
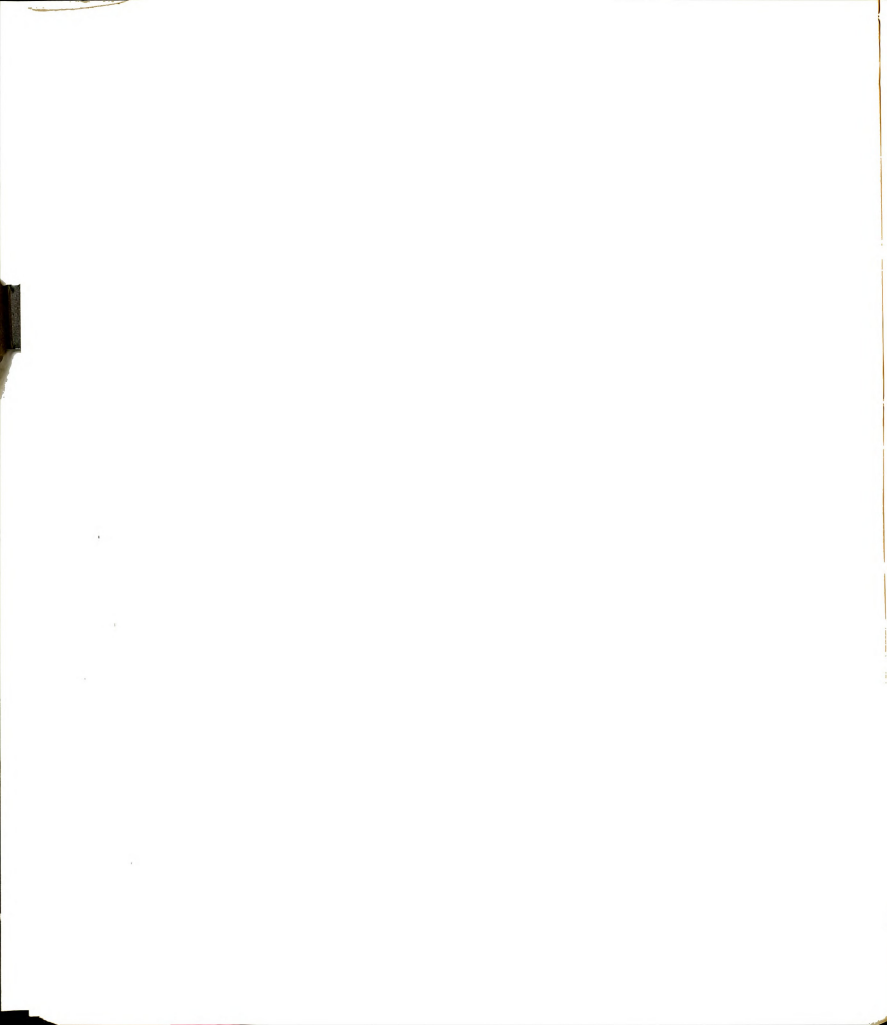
7. I am neither too fat nor too thin.................................................

9

9. I like my looks just the way they are...................................

11

11. I would like to change some parts of my body...........................

25

25. I am satisfied with my moral behavior..................................

27

27. I am satisfied with my relationship to God..............................

29

29. I ought to go to church more............................................

43

43. I am satisfied to be just what I am.....................................

45

45. I am just as nice as I should be.........................................

47

47. I despise myself........................................................

61

61. I am satisfied with my family relationships.............................

63

63. I understand my family as well as I should..............................

65

65. I should trust my family more...........................................

79

79. I am as sociable as I want to be........................................

81

81. I try to please others, but I don't overdo it............................

83

83. I am no good at all from a social standpoint............................

95

95. I do not like everyone I know...........................................

97

97. Once in a while, I laugh at a dirty joke...............................

| Responses– | Completely false | Mostly false | Partly false and partly true | Mostly true | Completely true |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
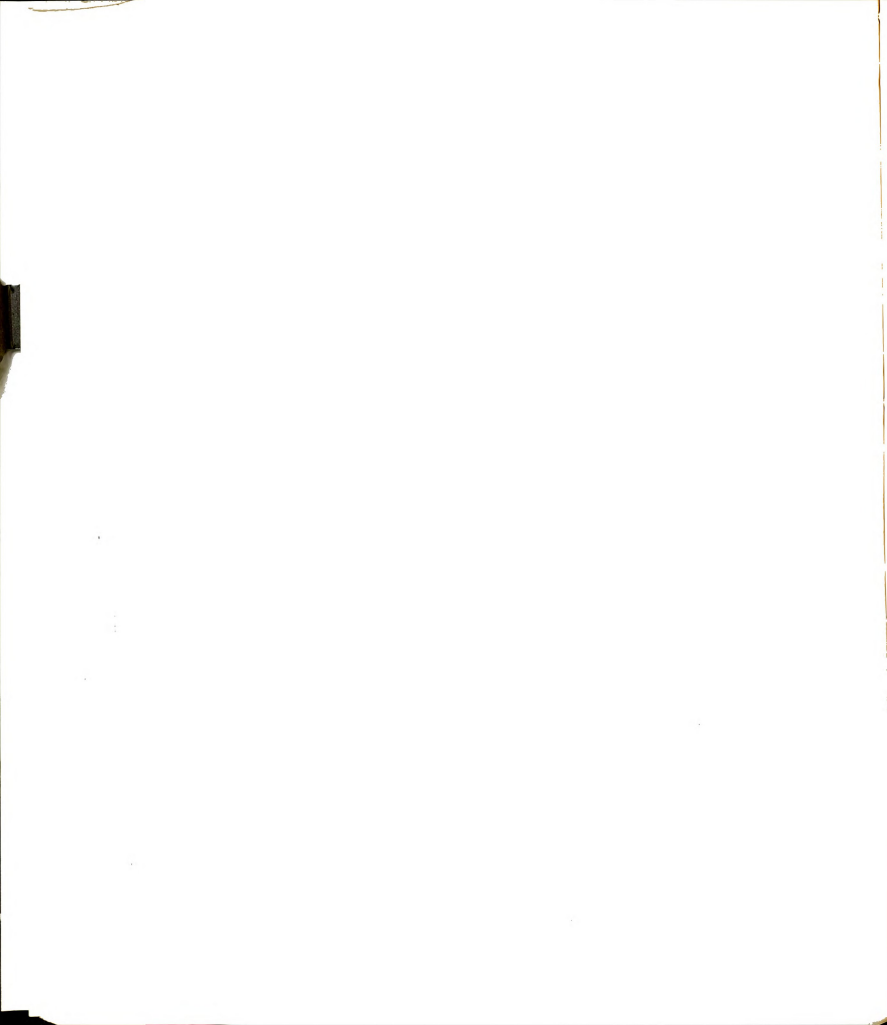
213

8.   I am neither too tall nor too short..................................... ⬛

10.   I don't feel as well as I should.................................... ⬛

12.   I should have more sex appeal..................................... ⬛

26.   I am as religious as I want to be.................................. ⬛

28.   I wish I could be more trustworthy................................ ⬛

30.   I shouldn't tell so many lies...................................... ⬛

44.   I am as smart as I want to be..................................... ⬛

46.   I am not the person I would like to be............................ ⬛

48.   I wish I didn't give up as easily as I do.......................... ⬛

62.   I treat my parents as well as I should (Use past tense if parents are not living) ⬛

64.   I am too sensitive to things my family say......................... ⬛

66.   I should love my family more...................................... ⬛

80.   I am satisfied with the way I treat other people................... ⬛

82.   I should be more polite to others.................................. ⬛

84.   I ought to get along better with other people..................... ⬛

96.   I gossip a little at times......................................... ⬛

98.   At times I feel like swearing..................................... ⬛

| Responses – | Completely false | Mostly false | Partly false and partly true | Mostly true | Completely true |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
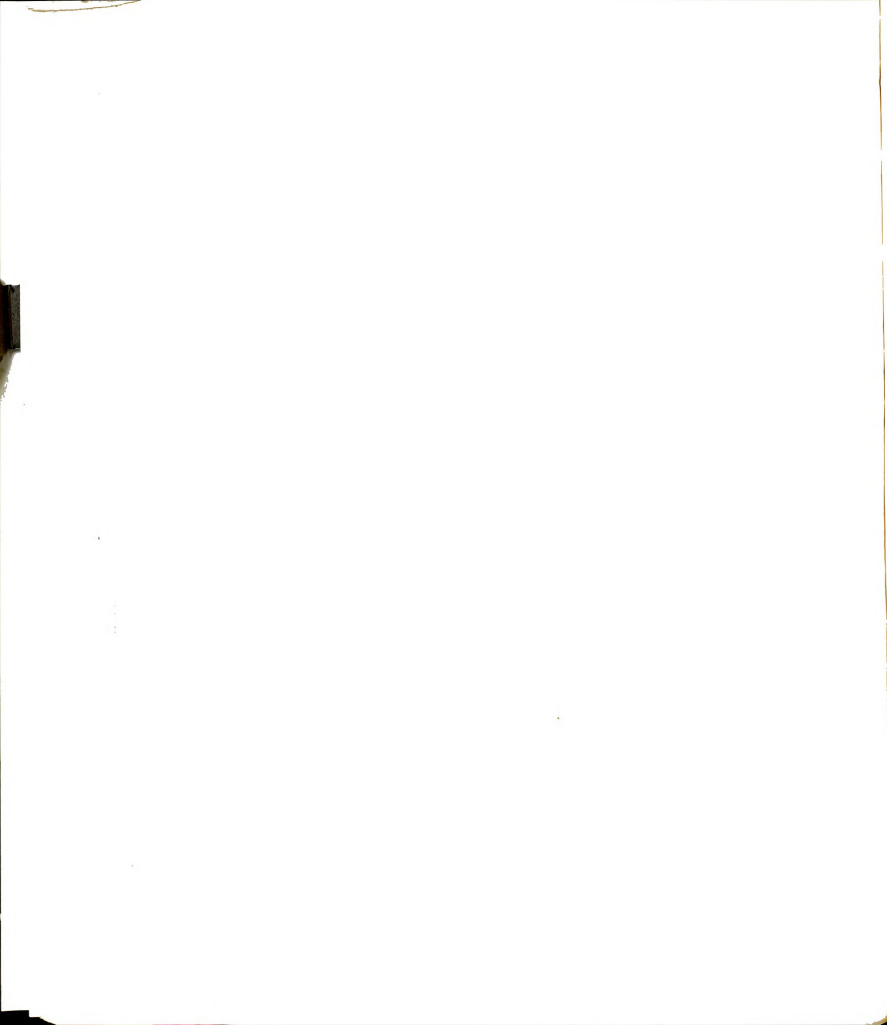
13.    I take good care of myself physically.................................. 13

15.    I try to be careful about my appearance................................ 15

17.    I often act like I am "all thumbs"..................................... 17

31.    I am true to my religion in my everyday life........................... 31

33.    I try to change when I know I'm doing things that are wrong............. 33

35.    I sometimes do very bad things........................................ 35

49.    I can always take care of myself in any situation...................... 49

51.    I take the blame for things without getting mad....................... 51

53.    I do things without thinking about them first......................... 53

67.    I try to play fair with my friends and family......................... 67

69.    I take a real interest in my family................................... 69

71.    I give in to my parents. (Use past tense if parents are not living)......... 71

85.    I try to understand the other fellow's point of view.................. 85

87.    I get along well with other people.................................... 87

89.    I do not forgive others easily........................................ 89

99.    I would rather win than lose in a game................................ 99

| Responses – | Completely false | Mostly false | Partly false and partly true | Mostly true | Completely true |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

14.   I feel good most of the time ........................................... ▪

16.   I do poorly in sports and games ....................................... ▪

18.   I am a poor sleeper ................................................... ▪

32.   I do what is right most of the time ................................... ▪

34.   I sometimes use unfair means to get ahead .......................... ▪

36.   I have trouble doing the things that are right ....................... ▪

50.   I solve my problems quite easily ..................................... ▪

52.   I change my mind a lot ............................................... ▪

54.   I try to run away from my problems ................................... ▪

68.   I do my share of work at home ....................................... ▪

70.   I quarrel with my family ............................................. ▪

72.   I do not act like my family thinks I should .......................... ▪

86.   I see good points in all the people I meet ........................... ▪

88.   I do not feel at ease with other people ............................ . ▪

90.   I find it hard to talk with strangers ................................. ▪

100.   Once in a while I put off until tomorrow what I ought to do today .......... ▪

| Responses– | Completely false | Mostly false | Partly false and partly true | Mostly true | Completely true |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
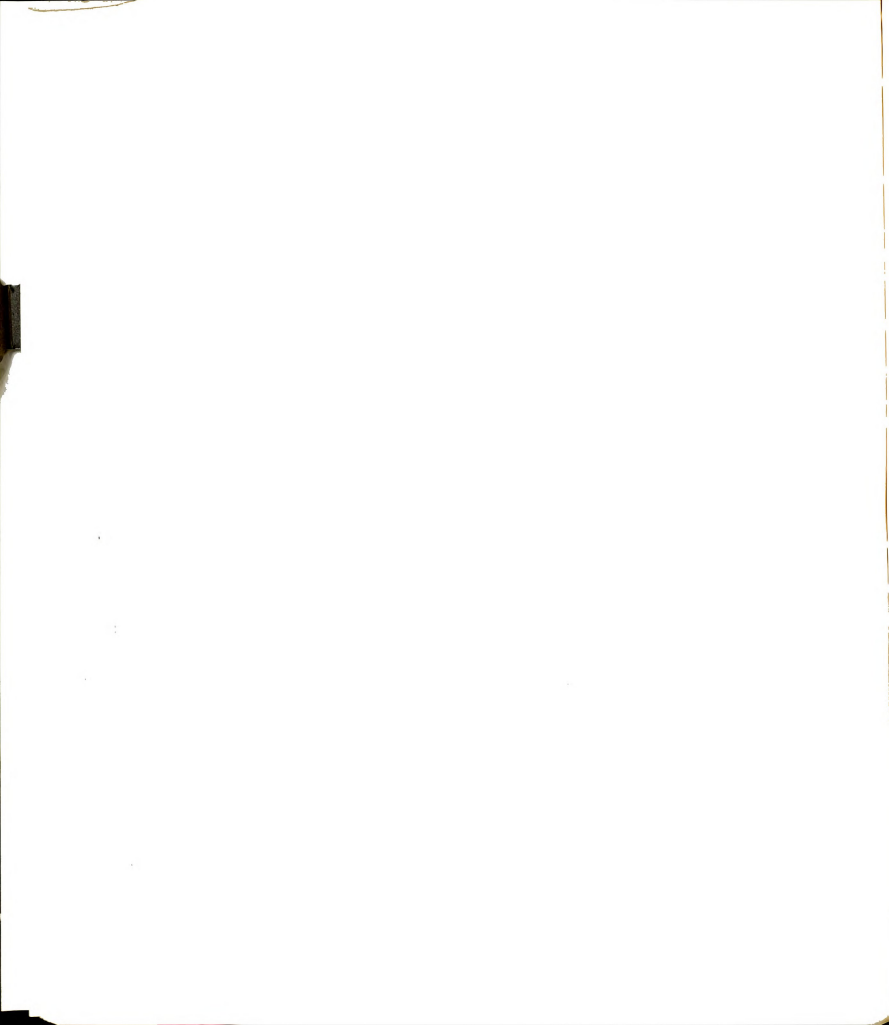
## MINNESOTA STUDENT ATTITUDE INVENTORY

This is not a test because there are no wrong answers. The answer to each question is A MATTER OF OPINION and your true opinion, whatever it is, IS THE RIGHT ANSWER. You will be asked a lot of questions about how much you like this class, the teacher, and the work you are doing here. All the questions refer to THIS ONE CLASS AND THIS PARTICULAR TEACHER. By giving frank, true answers to show exactly how you feel, you can help us understand the opinions of students.

DIRECTIONS:
1. Please make sure your name is on the answer sheet.
2. Do not skip any questions--answer each one carefully.
3. Make sure that the number on the answer sheet matches the question number when you mark your answer. Double check when you are asked.

EXAMPLE: O. IN THIS CLASS WE RECITE OUT LOUD.

Here are the four alternatives you can choose from. A--every day; B--most days; C--a few days; D--no days. One of these will be most true for you. Here is how you will decide which one is most true for you.

1. If you think you recite out loud every day in this class, you should choose "A"--every day, and put an X on "A" on your answer sheet.

OR 2. If you don't think you recite out loud in this class at all, you should choose "D"--no days, and put an X on "D" on your answer sheet.

OR 3. If you are not quite sure, but think you recite out loud quite often, you should choose "B"-- most days, and put an X on "B" on your answer sheet.

OR 4. If you think you recite out loud only once in a while, you should choose "C"--a few days, and put an X on "C" on your answer sheet.

Sometimes you must choose your answer from A--every day, B--most days; C--a few days, or D--no days, as we have just shown you. Question number 1 on your paper is this same kind. On other questions you must choose from A--strongly agree, B--agree, C--disagree, and D--strongly disagree. You will see clearly when we want you to do this, because your choices are written under each question. Here is an example of this other type of question.
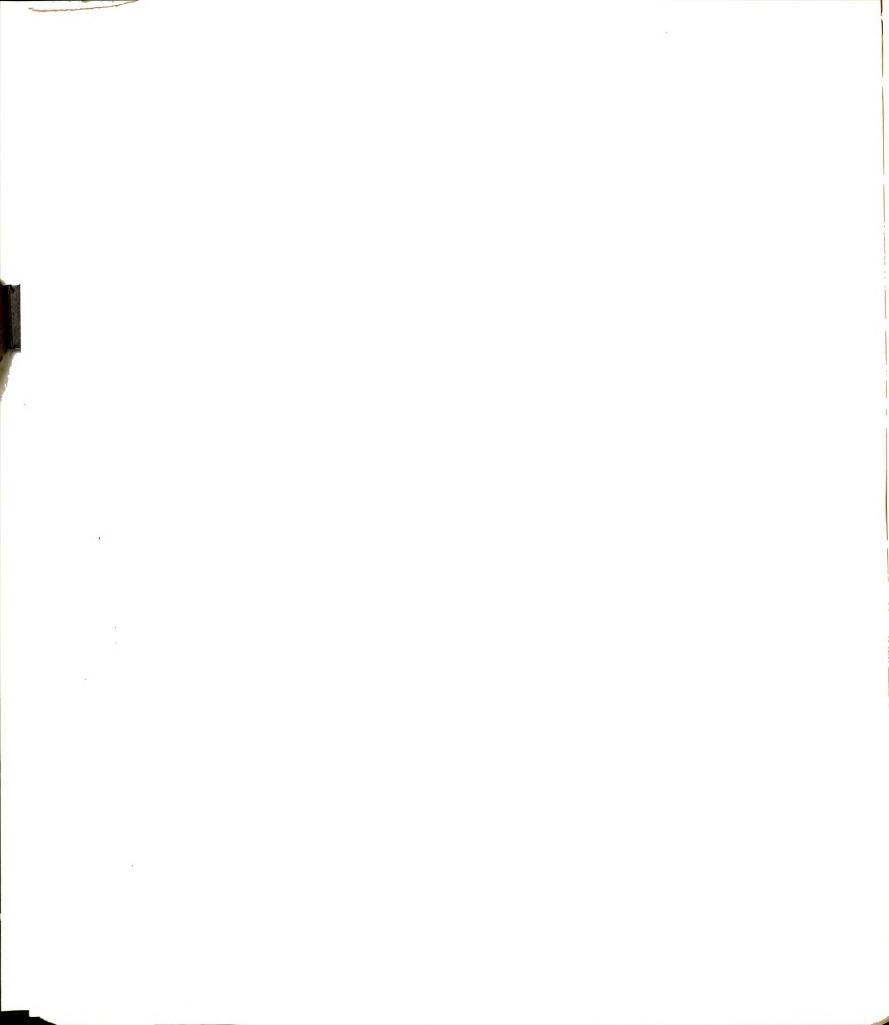
EXAMPLE: OO. I THINK MY HOMEWORK IS VERY HARD.

Here are the four alternatives you can choose from. A--strongly agree; B--agree; C--disagree; or D--strongly disagree. One of these will be most true for you. Here is how you will decide which one is most true for you.

1. If you think that your homework is very hard most of the time, you should choose answer "A"--strongly agree, and put an X on "A" on your answer sheet.

OR 2. If you <u>don't</u> think that your homework is very hard, you should choose answer "D"--strongly disagree and put an X on "D" on your answer sheet.

OR 3. If you are not quite sure, but you tend to find your homework hard more than half the time, choose answer "B"--agree, and put an X on "B" on your answer sheet.

OR 4. If your homework tends to be hard less than half the time, choose answer "C"--disagree, and put an X on "C" on your answer sheet.

DO NOT WRITE ON THIS QUESTIONNAIRE BECAUSE OTHER STUDENTS WILL HAVE TO USE IT.

## MINNESOTA STUDENT ATTITUDE INVENTORY

1. When this teacher asks us to be quiet, we know there is a good reason.
   A--EVERY DAY      B--MOST DAYS  C--A FEW DAYS  D--NO DAYS

2. This teacher makes you feel good when you do your work well.
   A--EVERY DAY      B--MOST DAYS  C--A FEW DAYS  D--NO DAYS

3. This teacher never tries to make you feel ashamed.
   A--STRONGLY AGREE  B--AGREE      C--DISAGREE      D--STRONGLY
                                                        DISAGREE

4. This teacher becomes confused easily.
   A--STRONGLY AGREE  B--AGREE      C--DISAGREE      D--STRONGLY
                                                        DISAGREE

5. We behave well in this class even when the teacher is out of the room.
   A--STRONGLY AGREE  B--AGREE      C--DISAGREE      D--STRONGLY
                                                        DISAGREE

6. Most of us get pretty bored in this class.
   A--EVERY DAY      B--MOST DAYS  C--A FEW DAYS  D--NO DAYS
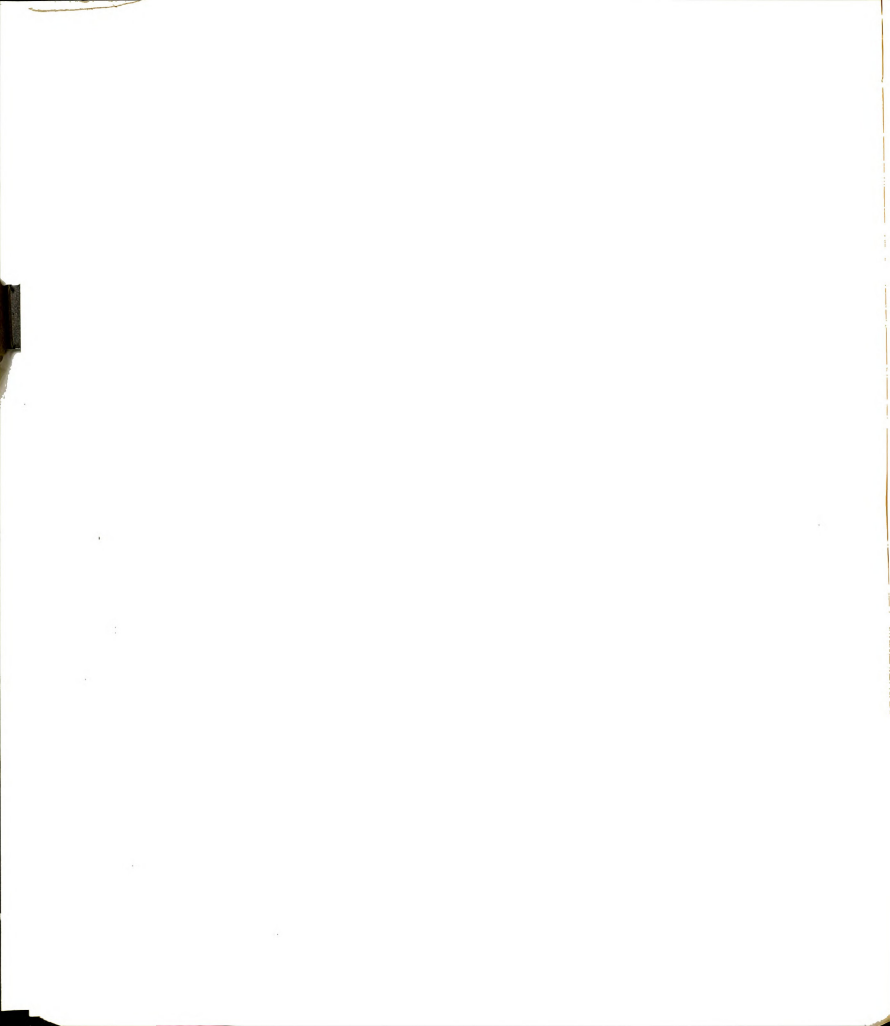
7. This teacher wants to check our work to make sure we are on the right track.
   A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

8. I'm afraid of the grade(s) this teacher will give me.
   A--STRONGLY AGREE   B--AGREE        C--DISAGREE      D--STRONGLY DISAGREE

9. Sometimes things "get out of control" in this class.
   A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

10. This teacher says something nice when my work is well done.
    A--STRONGLY AGREE   B--AGREE        C--DISAGREE      D--STRONGLY DISAGREE

11. This teacher never asks trick questions to show how dumb we are.
    A--STRONGLY AGREE   B--AGREE        C--DISAGREE      D--STRONGLY DISAGREE

12. It is fun to see how much we can whisper before we get caught.
    A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

13. In this class I pretend to be busy even when I'm not.
    A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

14. Our teacher never gives us extra assignments as punishment.
    A--STRONGLY AGREE   B--AGREE        C--DISAGREE      D--STRONGLY DISAGREE

15. If you want to work alone, this teacher will let you.
    A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

16. The Capitol of the United States is located in Seattle, Washington.
    A--STRONGLY AGREE   B--AGREE        C--DISAGREE      D--STRONGLY DISAGREE

17. This teacher is too bossy.
    A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

18. This teacher punishes me for things I don't do.
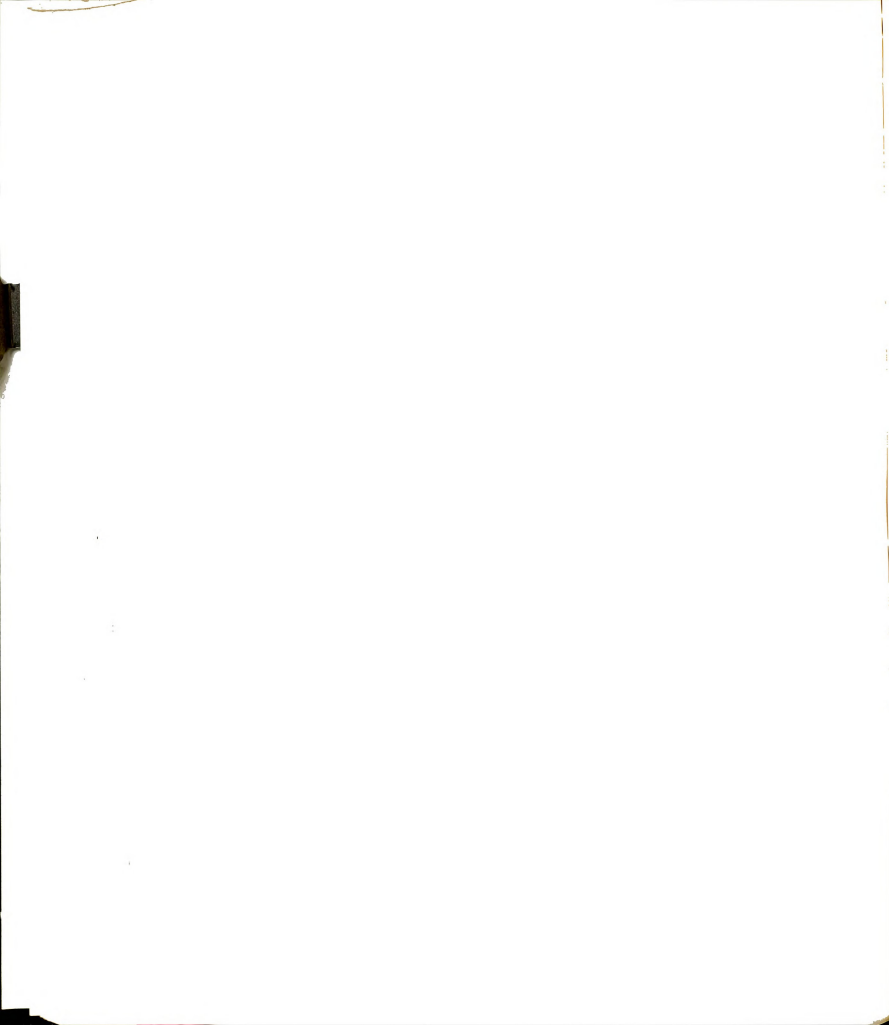    A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

19. This teacher threatens us, but we know he(she) doesn't mean it.
    A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

20. This teacher asks our opinion in planning work to be done.
    A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS
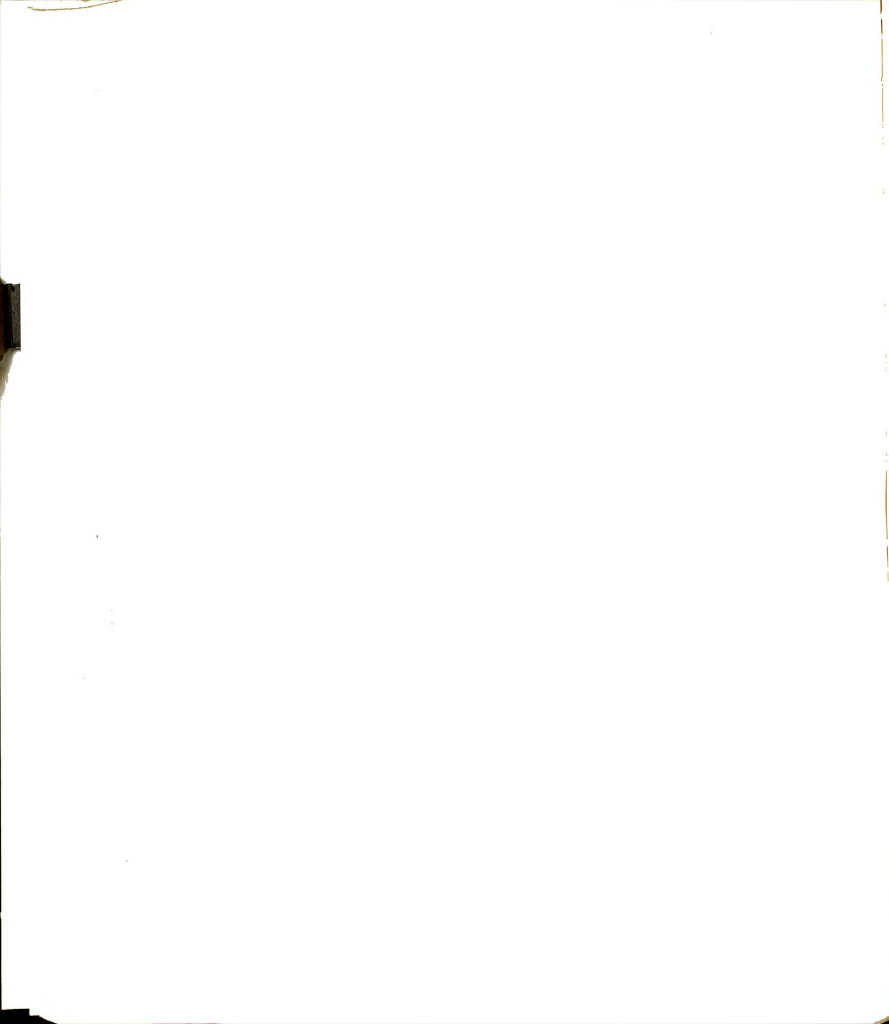
21. I just don't trust this teacher.
    A--STRONGLY AGREE  B--AGREE      C--DISAGREE    D--STRONGLY
                                                      DISAGREE

22. This teacher likes us to help each other with our work.
    A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS  C--A FEW DAYS  D--NO DAYS

23. This teacher is too strict.
    A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS  C--A FEW DAYS  D--NO DAYS

24. Sometimes just thinking about this class makes me sick.
    A--STRONGLY AGREE  B--AGREE      C--DISAGREE    D--STRONGLY
                                                      DISAGREE

25. This teacher never "picks on" certain boys and girls.
    A--STRONGLY AGREE  B--AGREE      C--DISAGREE    D--STRONGLY
                                                      DISAGREE

26. Our school work is done exactly as the teacher says and no
    other way will do.
    A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS  C--A FEW DAYS  D--NO DAYS

27. Sometimes I think this teacher is deaf.
    A--STRONGLY AGREE  B--AGREE      C--DISAGREE    D--STRONGLY
                                                      DISAGREE

28. I have bad dreams about this class.
    A--STRONGLY AGREE  B--AGREE      C--DISAGREE    D--STRONGLY
                                                      DISAGREE

29. I find it easy to talk to this teacher.
    A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS  C--A FEW DAYS  D--NO DAYS

30. I think this teacher has a grudge against me.
    A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS  C--A FEW DAYS  D--NO DAYS

31. I'm afraid to raise my hand in this class.
    A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS  C--A FEW DAYS  D--NO DAYS

32. Minnesota is the largest state in the Union.
    A--STRONGLY AGREE  B--AGREE      C--DISAGREE    D--STRONGLY
                                                      DISAGREE

33. This teacher likes us to go ahead on our own.
    A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS  C--A FEW DAYS  D--NO DAYS

34. There is something about this class that makes me feel
    very uneasy.
    A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS  C--A FEW DAYS  D--NO DAYS

35. If I could get away with it, I'd sure like to tell this
    teacher off!
    A--STRONGLY AGREE  B--AGREE      C--DISAGREE    D--STRONGLY
                                                      DISAGREE
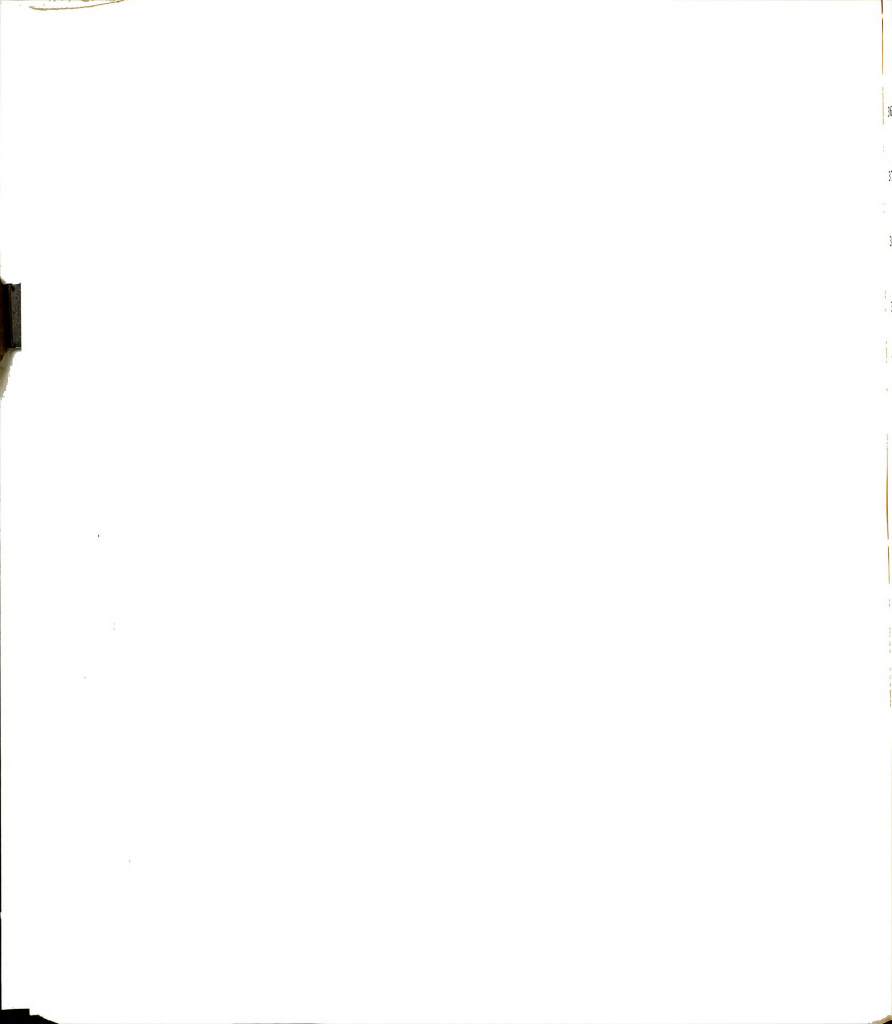
36. This teacher allows students to take charge of the class even when he(she) is in the room.
   A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

37. It seems like I never do anything right in this class.
   A--STRONGLY AGREE   B--AGREE        C--DISAGREE     D--STRONGLY DISAGREE

38. It seems that somebody is always getting punished in this class.
   A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

39. Most of the work we do in this class we plan ourselves.
   A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

40. This class is noisy and fools around a lot.
   A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

41. This teacher sends boys and girls out of the room as punishment.
   A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

42. I get along well with this teacher.
   A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

43. This teacher can't tell whether we've done our work well or not.
   A--STRONGLY AGREE   B--AGREE        C--DISAGREE     D--STRONGLY DISAGREE

44. I wish I could get even with this teacher.
   A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

45. If this teacher were absent, we could still figure out what to do next.
   A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

46. This teacher is very unfriendly.
   A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

47. In this class we fool around a lot in spite of the teacher.
   A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

48. Lake Superior is one of the "Great Lakes."
   A--STRONGLY AGREE   B--AGREE        C--DISAGREE     D--STRONGLY DISAGREE

49. This teacher has lots of fun with us.
   A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

50. This teacher will punish the whole class when he(she) can't find out who did something bad.
A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS    C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

51. You can't walk around in this class without permission.
A--STRONGLY AGREE   B--AGREE        C--DISAGREE     D--STRONGLY
                                                       DISAGREE

52. If there were no tests, I would work just as hard in this class.
A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS    C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

53. This teacher has some special favorites or "teacher's pets."
A--STRONGLY AGREE   B--AGREE        C--DISAGREE     D--STRONGLY
                                                       DISAGREE

54. There are times in this class when I almost want to cry.
A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS    C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

55. I really like this teacher.
A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS    C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

56. There are things I do nearly every day that I hope this teacher won't find out.
A--STRONGLY AGREE   B--AGREE        C--DISAGREE     D--STRONGLY
                                                       DISAGREE

57. This teacher makes sure WE understand our work.
A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS    C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

58. I get nervous and upset about this class.
A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS    C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

59. I can't do my best work in this class.
A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS    C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

60. This teacher has lost the respect of the class.
A--STRONGLY AGREE   B--AGREE        C--DISAGREE     D--STRONGLY
                                                       DISAGREE

61. This teacher is too busy to talk with me.
A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS    C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

62. When we raise a fuss, this teacher gives in.
A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS    C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

63. This teacher keeps order with a fair and firm hand.
A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS    C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

64. In the United States a quarter (25 cents) is larger than a dime (10 cents).
A--STRONGLY AGREE   B--AGREE        C--DISAGREE     D--STRONGLY
                                                       DISAGREE

65. This teacher dislikes boys and girls my age.
A--STRONGLY AGREE    B--AGREE        C--DISAGREE        D--STRONGLY
                                                           DISAGREE

66. We often complain just to get out of work.
A--EVERY DAY          B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

67. Frankly, we just don't obey the teacher in this class.
A--STRONGLY AGREE    B--AGREE        C--DISAGREE        D--STRONGLY
                                                           DISAGREE

68. This teacher couldn't be mean to anyone.
A--STRONGLY AGREE    B--AGREE        C--DISAGREE        D--STRONGLY
                                                           DISAGREE

69. In this class you will be punished if you don't finish
your work.
A--EVERY DAY          B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

70. This teacher pretends not to watch us when he (she) actually
is.
A--STRONGLY AGREE    B--AGREE        C--DISAGREE        D--STRONGLY
                                                           DISAGREE

71. This teacher really understands boys and girls my age.
A--STRONGLY AGREE    B--AGREE        C--DISAGREE        D--STRONGLY
                                                           DISAGREE

72. It is easy to fool this teacher.
A--EVERY DAY          B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

73. Frankly, we don't pay attention to this teacher.
A--STRONGLY AGREE    B--AGREE        C--DISAGREE        D--STRONGLY
                                                           DISAGREE

74. I think of this teacher as one of my good friends.
A--STRONGLY AGREE    B--AGREE        C--DISAGREE        D--STRONGLY
                                                           DISAGREE

75. This teacher never scolds you in front of the class.
A--STRONGLY AGREE    B--AGREE        C--DISAGREE        D--STRONGLY
                                                           DISAGREE

76. This teacher is one of the best I have ever had.
A--STRONGLY AGREE    B--AGREE        C--DISAGREE        D--STRONGLY
                                                           DISAGREE

77. This teacher never gets angry and shouts at us.
A--STRONGLY AGREE    B--AGREE        C--DISAGREE        D--STRONGLY
                                                           DISAGREE

78. This teacher is cool and calm.
   A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

79. This teacher never slaps us or handles us roughly.
   A--STRONGLY AGREE   B--AGREE       C--DISAGREE     D--STRONGLY
                                                          DISAGREE

80. Usually boys and girls go to elementary school before going to high school.
   A--STRONGLY AGREE   B--AGREE       C--DISAGREE     D--STRONGLY
                                                          DISAGREE

81. We work harder for this teacher than any other.
   A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

82. This teacher never pushes us or shakes us in anger.
   A--STRONGLY AGREE   B--AGREE       C--DISAGREE     D--STRONGLY
                                                          DISAGREE

83. This teacher makes very careful plans for each day's work.
   A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

84. This teacher helps us get the most out of each hour.
   A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

85. I really enjoy this class.
   A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

86. Our teacher is very good at explaining things clearly.
   A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

87. This teacher makes everything seem interesting and important.
   A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

88. I work hard in this class because it is so interesting.
   A--EVERY DAY        B--MOST DAYS   C--A FEW DAYS   D--NO DAYS

89. I wish I could have this teacher next year.
   A--STRONGLY AGREE   B--AGREE       C--DISAGREE     D--STRONGLY
                                                          DISAGREE

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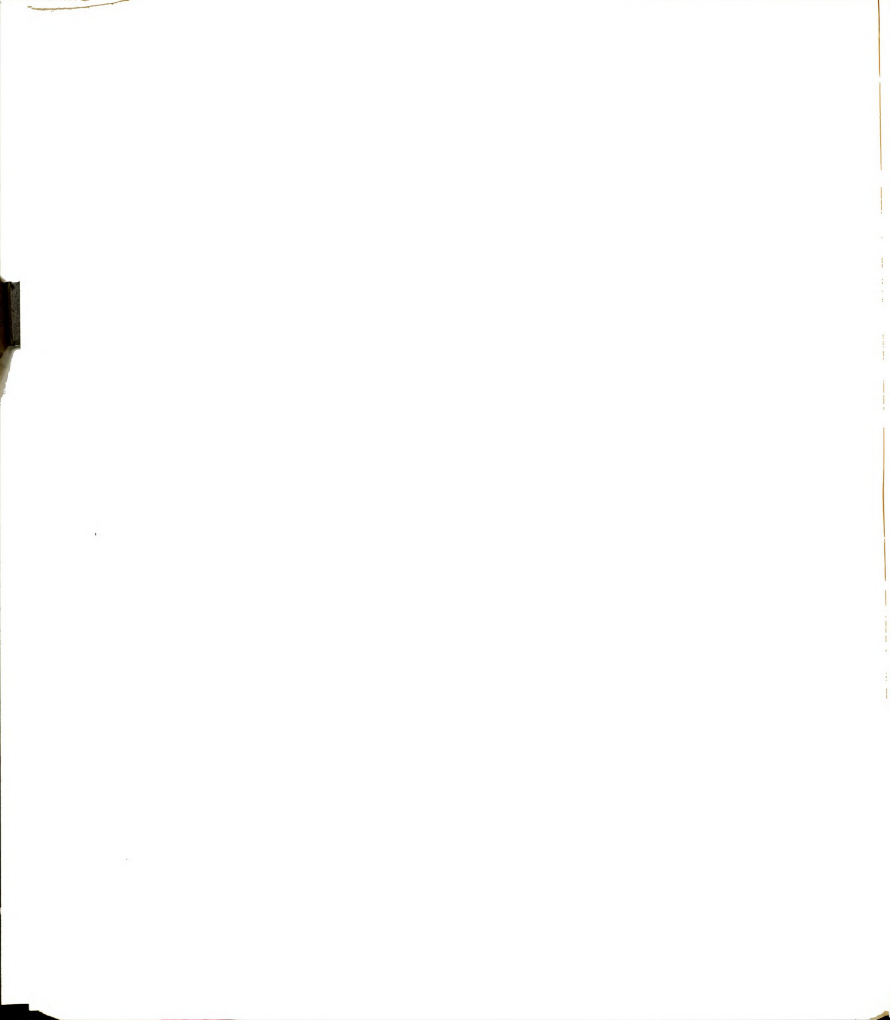
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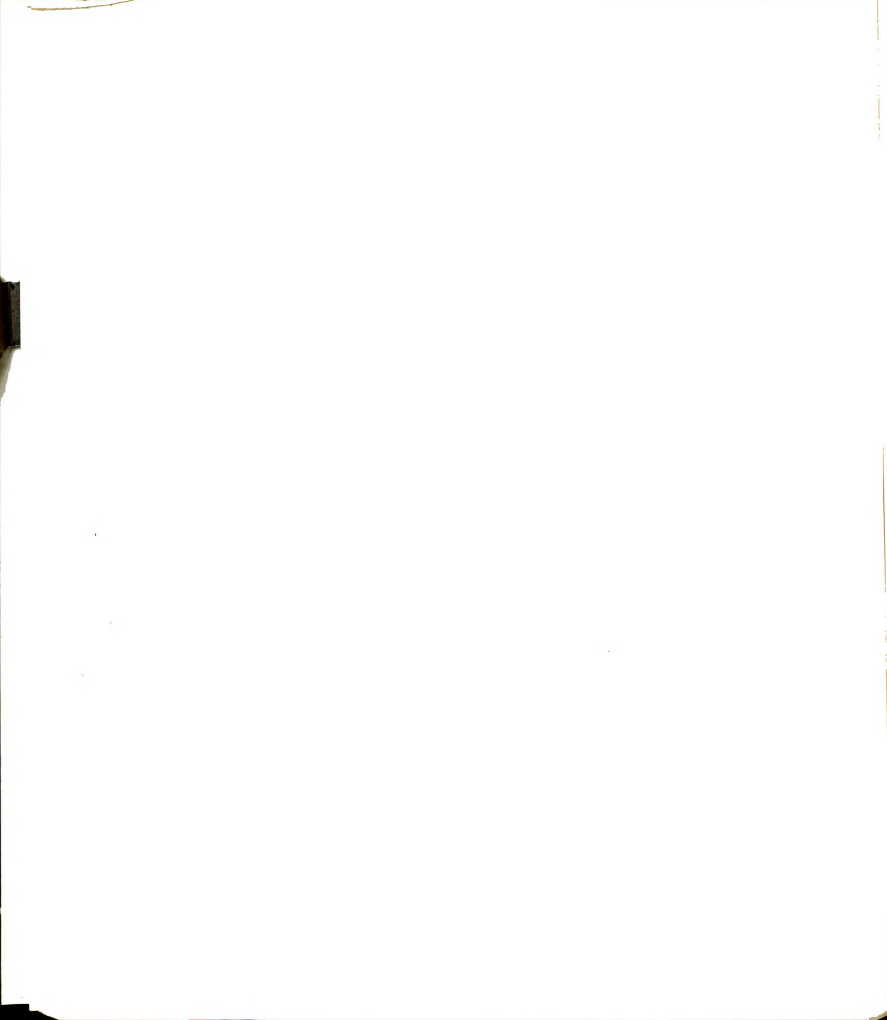
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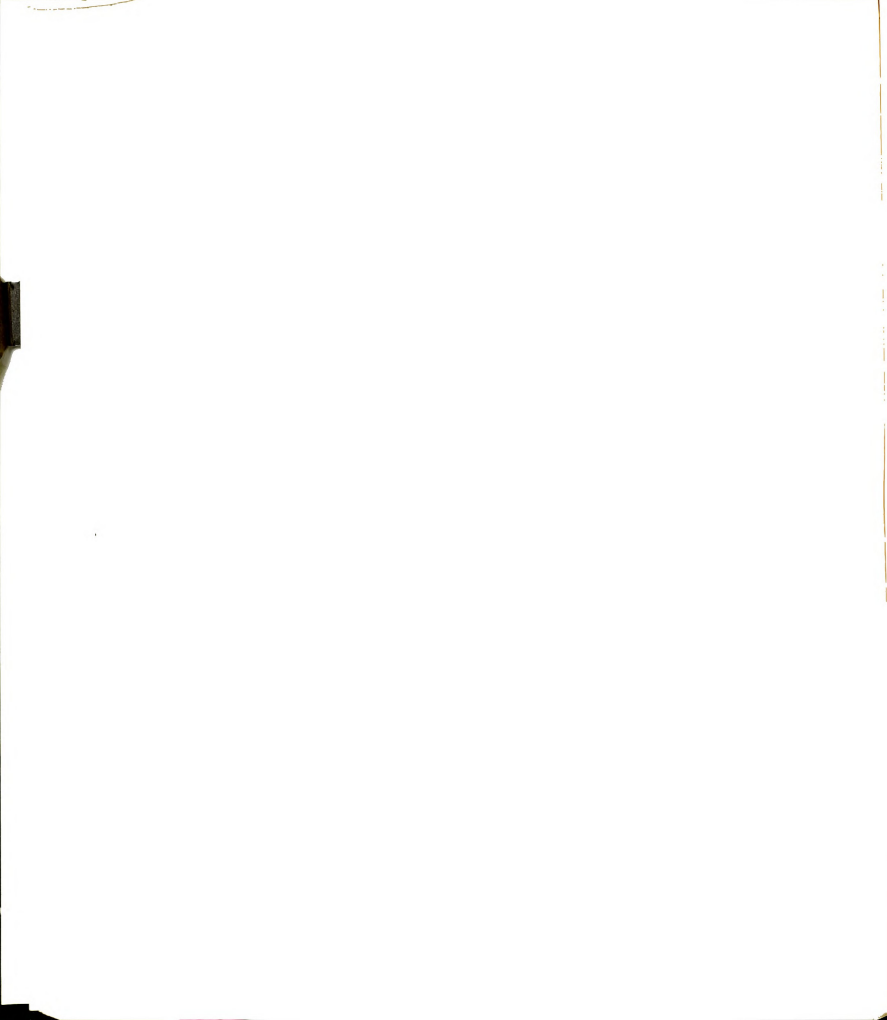
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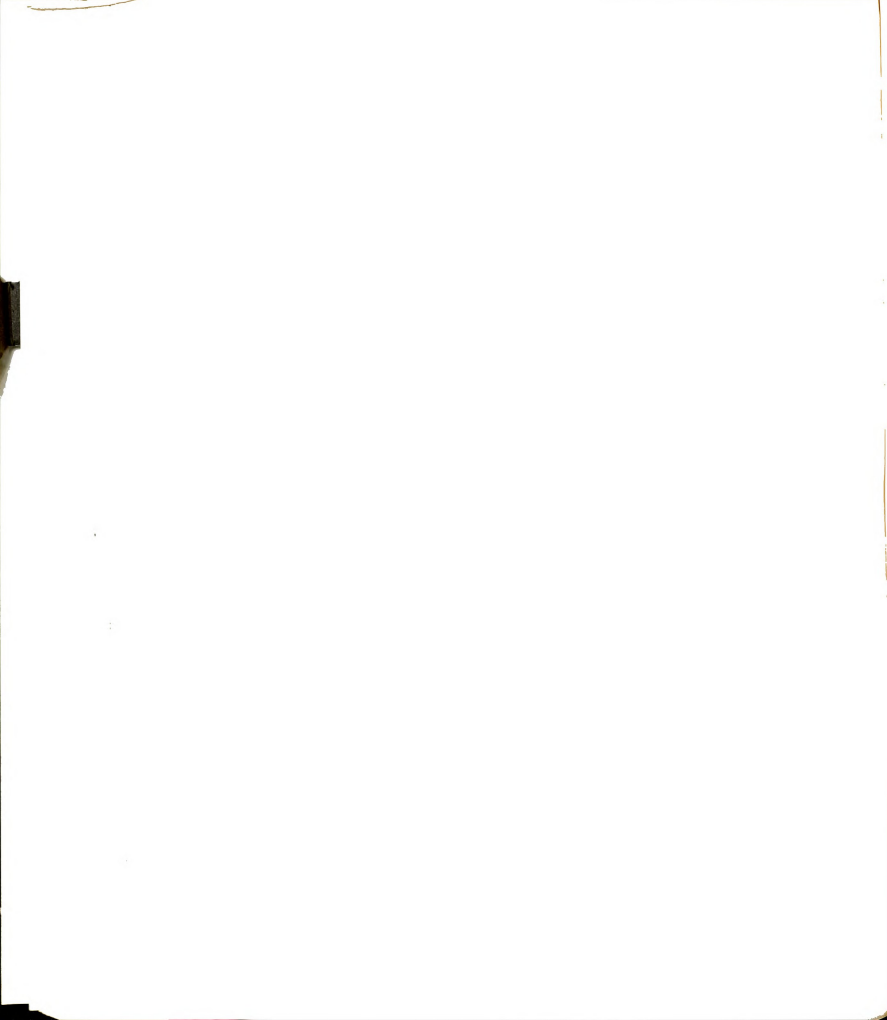
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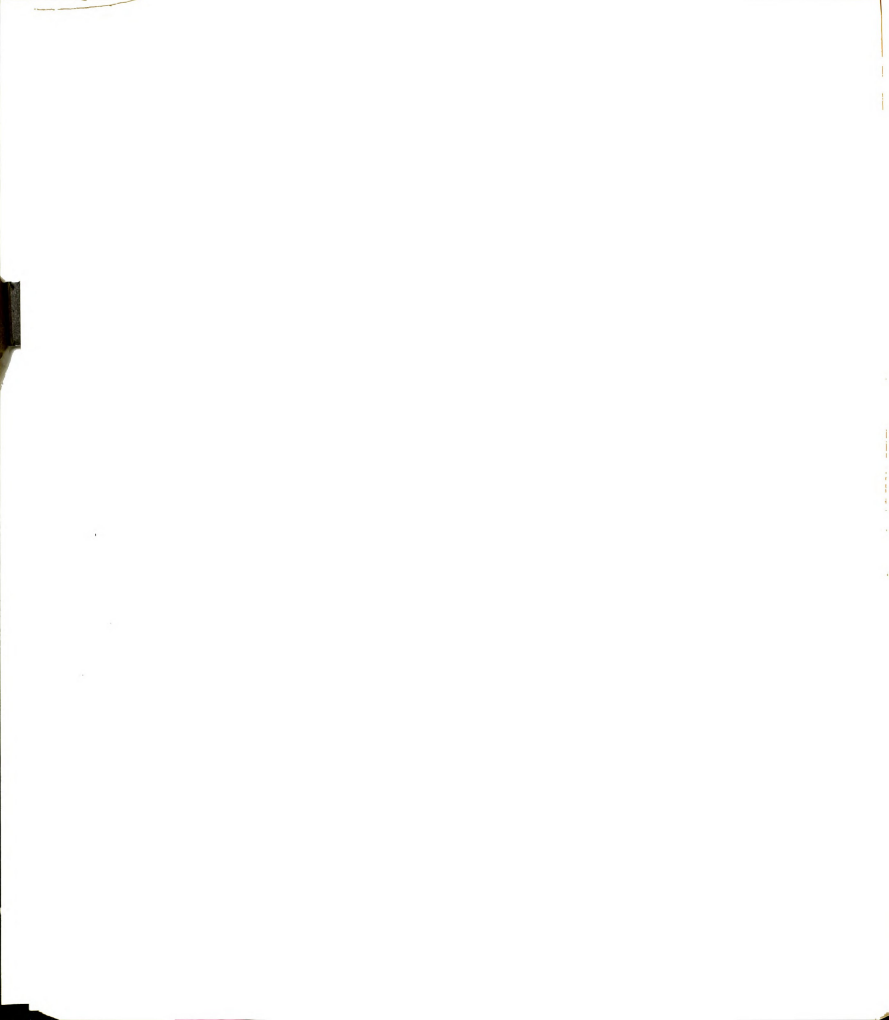
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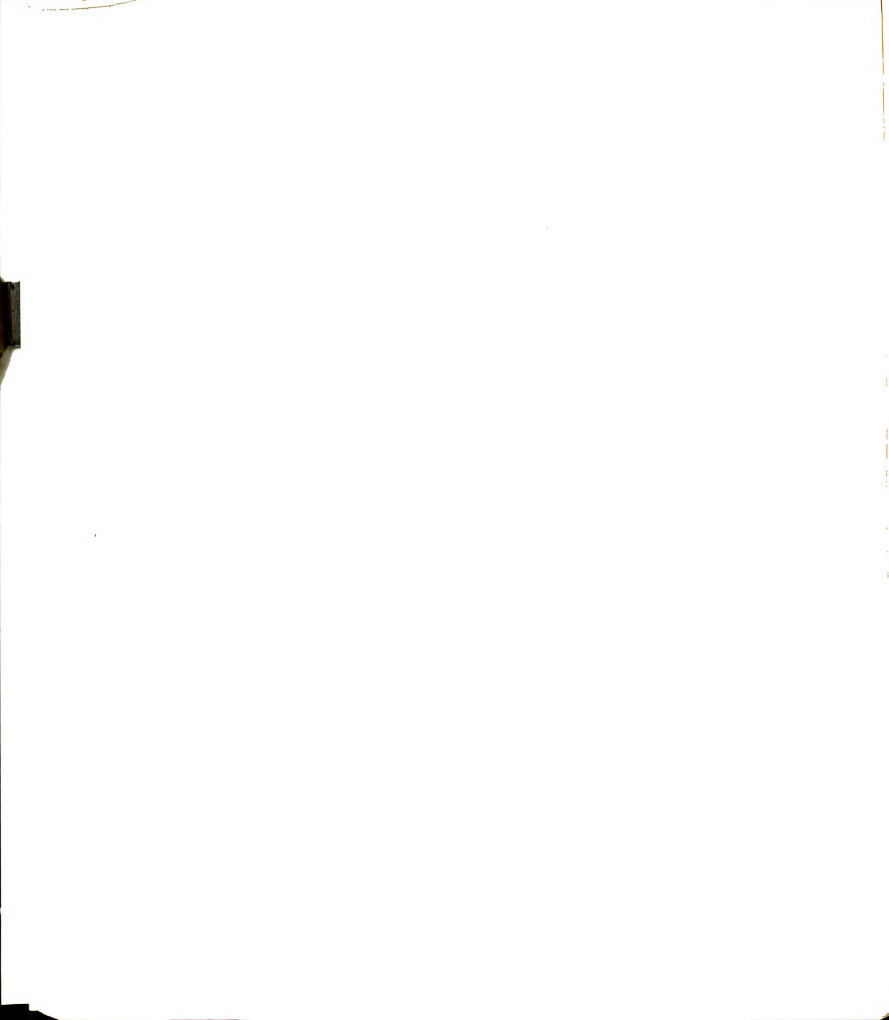
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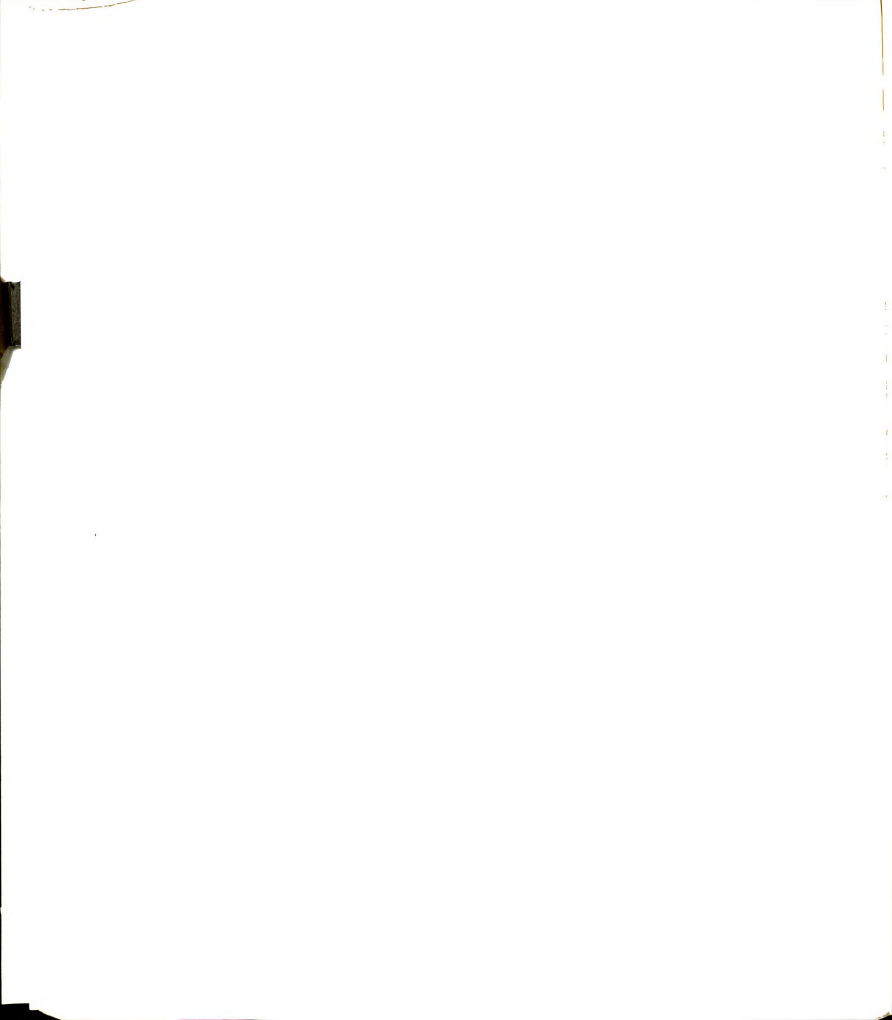
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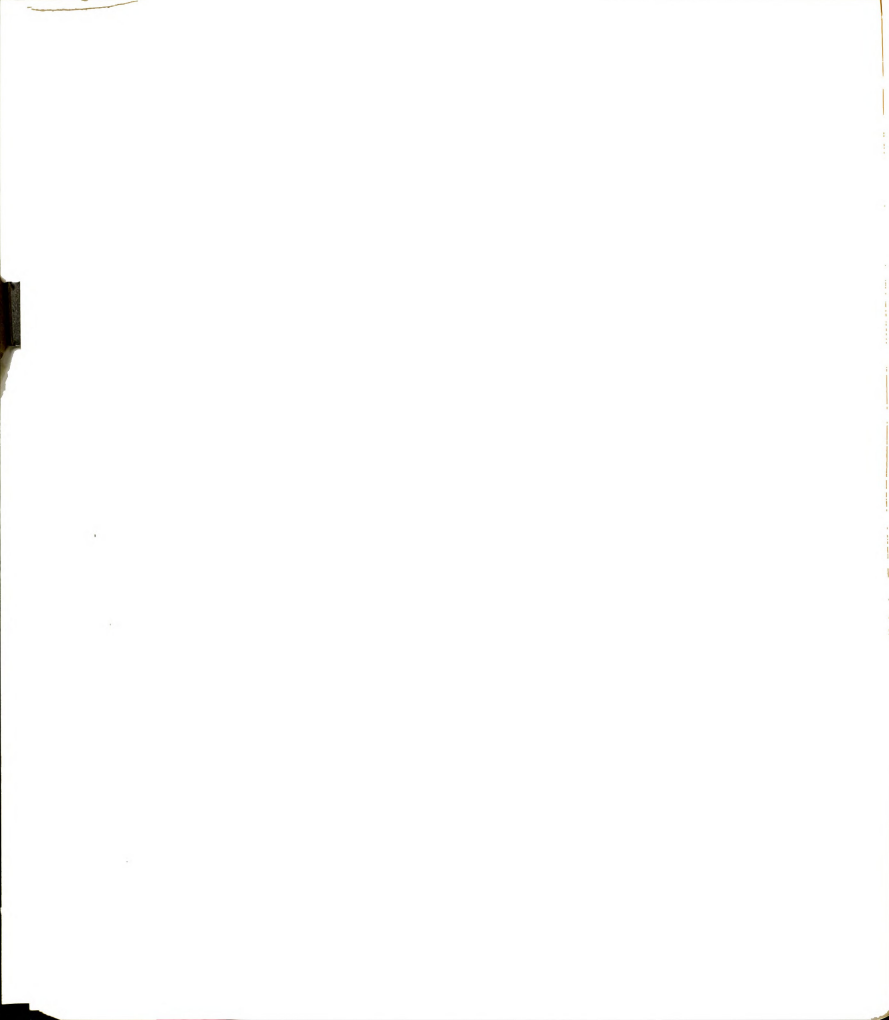
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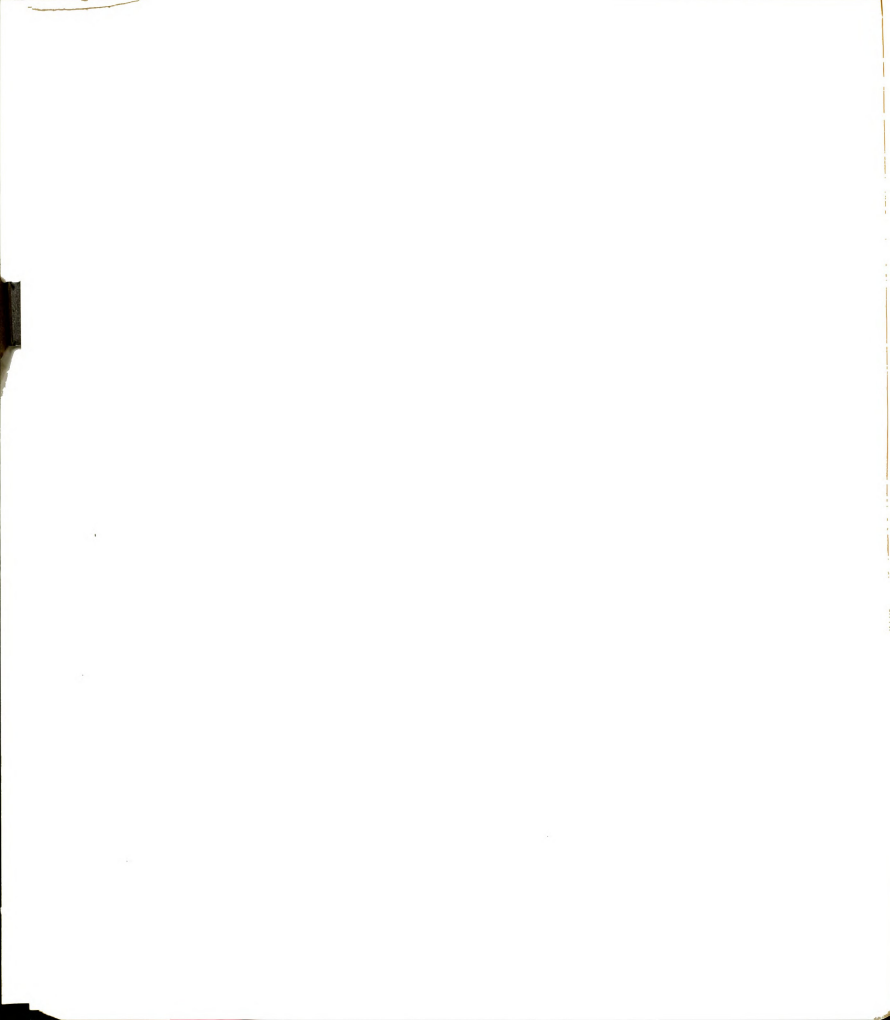
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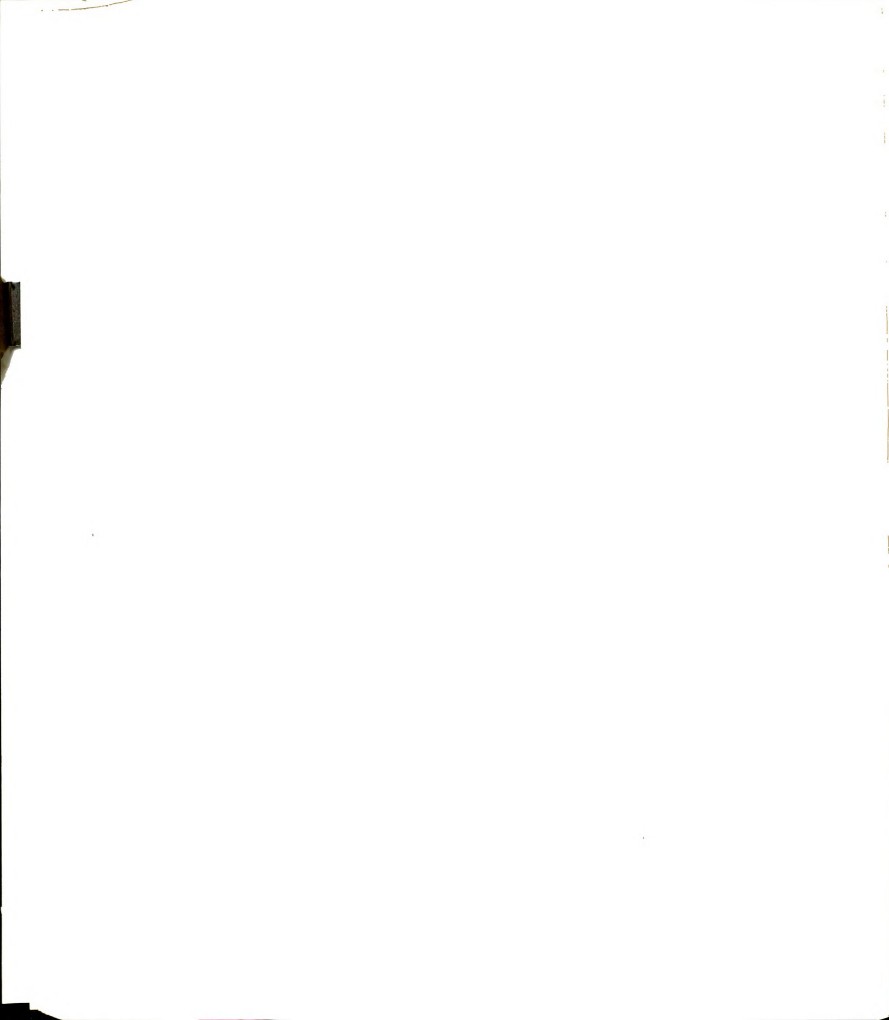
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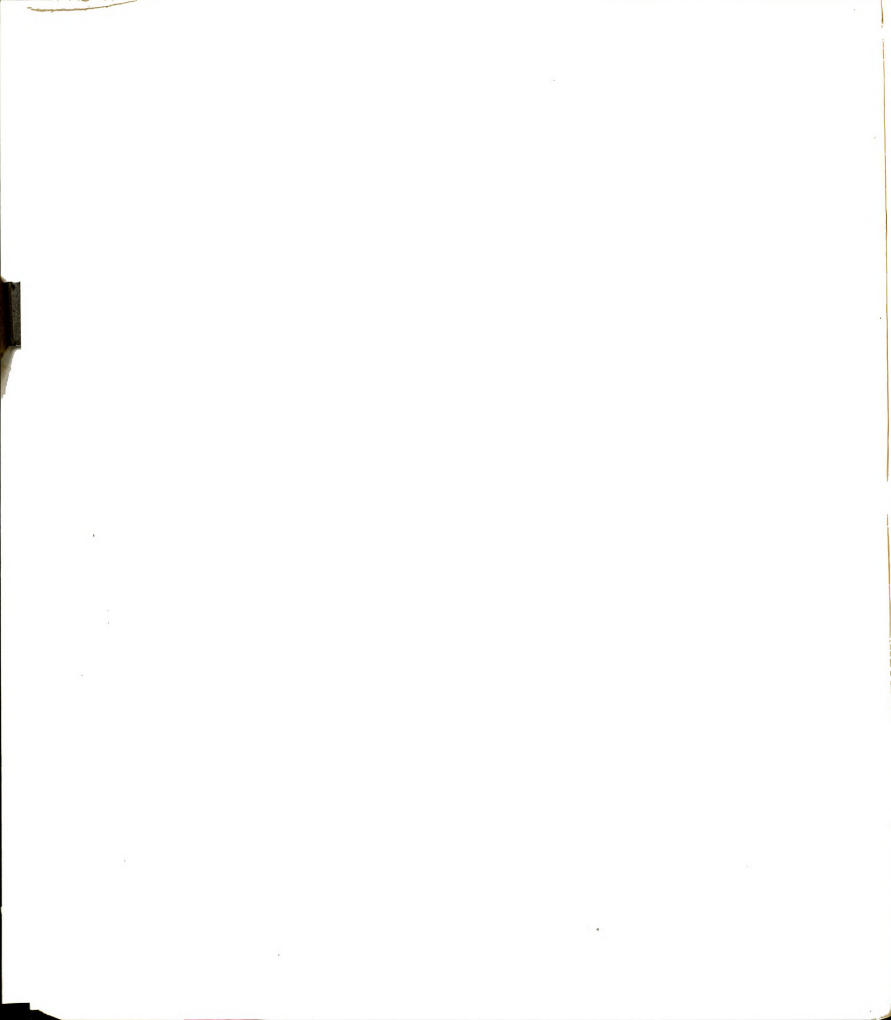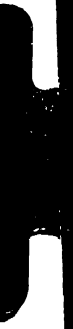          dissertation, George Peabody College for Teachers,
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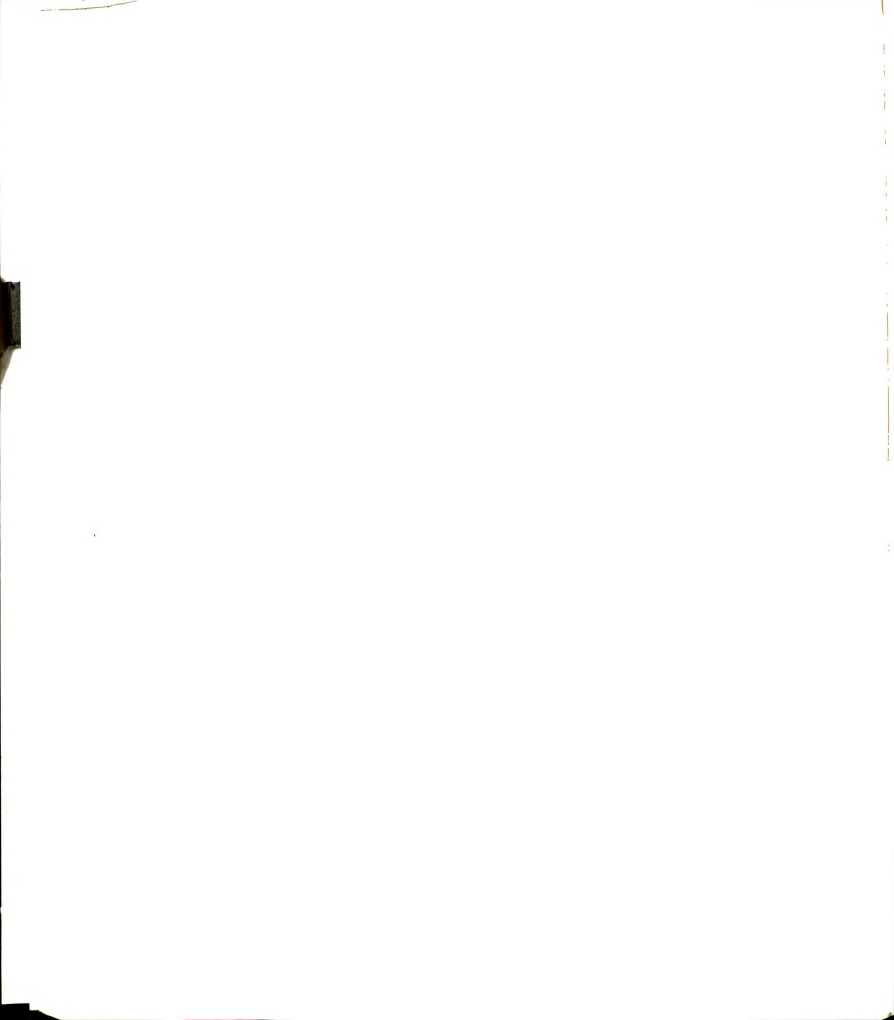
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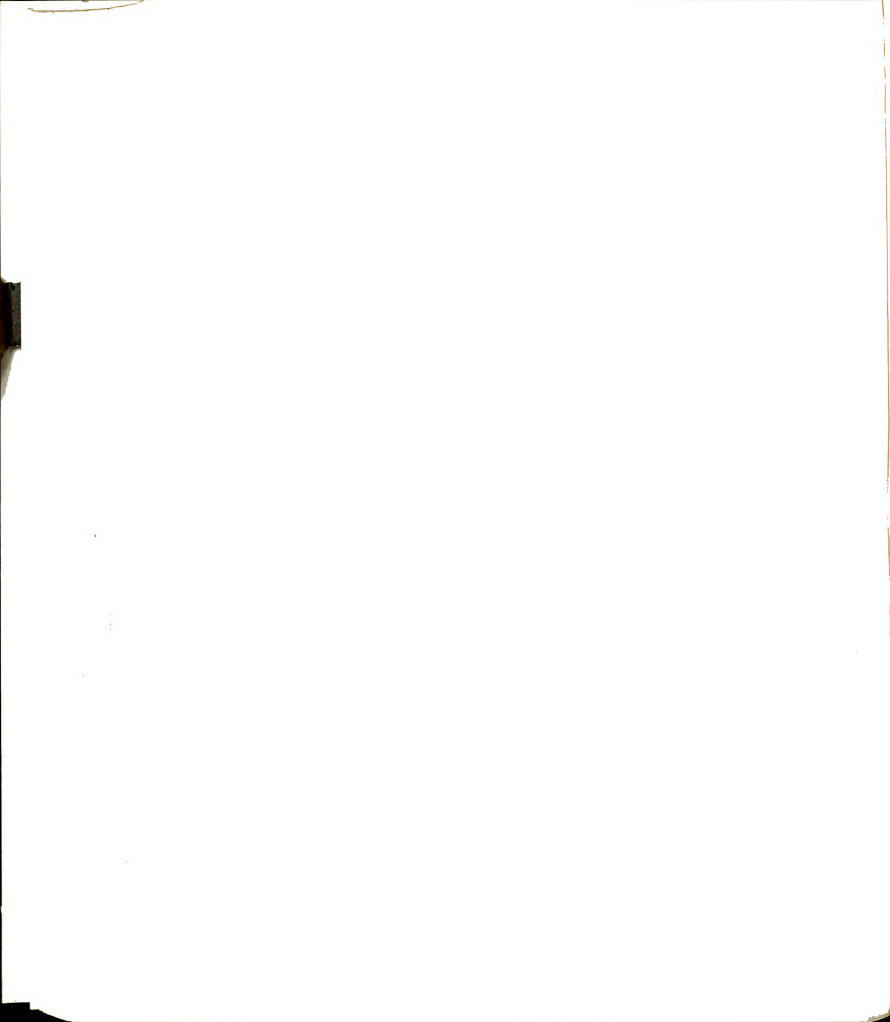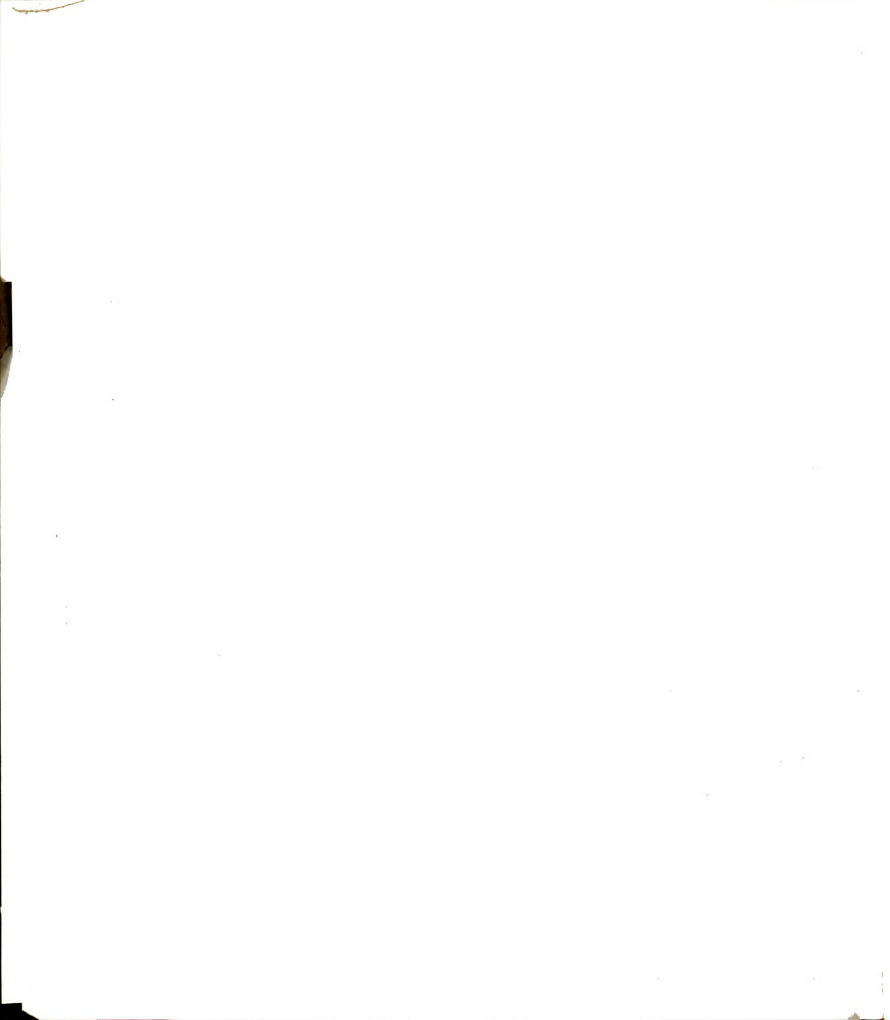
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