DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 105 583 EA 007 001

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TITLE Teacher Evaluation: The State of the Art and a

Solution.

PUB DATE [/4]

NOTE 36p.; Best Copy Available

EDES PRICE MF-\$0.76 HC-\$1.95 PLUS POSTAGE

Behavioral Science Research; *Effective Teaching; Elementary Secondary Education; *Existentialism; Humanistic Education; Interaction Process Analysis; Measurement Instruments; Performance Based Education; Performance Contracts; *Research Methodology; *Self Actualization: Statistical Analysis: Student Teacher

Relationship: Teacher Behavior: *Teacher Evaluation;

Teachin4 Quality

ABSTRACT

DESCRIPTORS

The author begins with a critique of the failures of most neo-behavioral approaches to teacher evaluation and then assesses the existentialist reconceptualization of the primary relationship between teacher and pupil. He then reports on his studies using an individual's expressed and wanted behaviors in inclusion, control, and affection as predictor variables for authenticity. This probe asked, What might indicate that the teacher was authentic, free, or open? The research decision was not to change or to modify the behavior of the teacher, but to learn which variables might help determine the authentic, open relationship between the teacher and any other he might interact with, especially within the school organization. By following existertialist theory and avoiding any traits, personality, or characteristic approaches in teacher evaluation, especially through group norms or any other normative data, as well as by rejecting totally the neo-behavioral competency/performance-based approach, it is hoped that further systematic evaluation and rainstaking isolation of variables contributing to the improvement of teacher evaluation shall be forthcoming through the approach articulated in this report and that other educational researchers will exploit this direction. (Author/IRT)

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Feacher Evaluation: The State of the Art and a Solution

by

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The recent resurgence of judging teacher effectiveness has emerged, in part, from the now subsided student
unrest and the continued demands by students for relevant
learning. In particular, the works of N. A. Flanders, A. A.
Bellack, D. G. Ryans, N. L. Gage, B. F. Skinner, W. J.
Popham, and W. J. McKeachie, among others, in the fifties
and sixties had added to a revival of behavioristic
attempts to find universal criteria empirically in the
identification of the "good teacher" or "good teaching."
lronically, this revival comes when data about the effectiveness of various teaching methods indicated rather
strongly that "no particular method of college teaching
/at least/ is measurably to be preferred over another
(Dubin and Taveggia, 1968).

Within this neo-behavioristic revival, change from the comparison of student outcomes on an achievement variable, usually scores on selected standardized tests, has shifted to some form of student opinion poll about teachers and their courses as the alternate criterion.

Despite all that has been said under the guise as well as disguise of their brand of "science" and "empiricism," the neo-behaviorists seemed to have provided very little pedagogical illumination in defining the "good teacher"

or "good teaching," both in higher as well as public education.

Nothing, in addition, seemed to have emerged from Anderson

and Hunka's bold 1963 multivariate approach to focus, first,

on the evaluator and not the evaluatee, in this instance

these authors themselves, moreover, failing to continue their

research along the lines of their own proposal. Why, then,

this continued and sad state-of-affairs in pedagogical research?

With the revival of the early 20th century behaviorism of F.B. Watson, E. L. Thorndike, and G. S. Hall since the middle fifties and with an added impetus given to the movement in pedagogical research by the neo-behaviorists mentioned above, the emphasis on statistical method in such research far overshadowed the substantivity of its findings in supposedly defining "scientifically" excellence in pedagogy. Sadly, this search has gone on, according to both Barr and Popham, with no substantive advancement toward understanding the "what" of teaching for at least fifty years!

Neo-Behavioristic Approaches

What explanations can be attributed to this conclusive neo-behavioral exercise in futility? Perhaps the neo-behaviorists needed a new "frame of reference." Offhand the neo-behaviorists seemed to be obsessed with statistical methodology, including its applications to computer capability. To deprive the hard, empirical statistically-oriented neo-behaviorists of their a priori "educational objectives" and with it their seemingly continual delight for statistical quantification for all forms of human



the same and the same and the same same to the

behavior would certainly sentence them to a scholastic wasteland. Several explanations for the neo-behavioristic failures seemed possible.

First, the nec-behaviorists often overlooked the simple distinction between measurement (or grading) and evaluation. Kossoff provided this simple analogy: if one had a basketful of eggs, he could grade them easily depending which criterion for grading he decided to choose—weight, size or color. However, none of these methods told one which egg he wanted for breakfast. Only after one ate the egg could he so determine. In these senses, an evaluation thus became an appraisal; a measurement, a quantification.

Any determination of teacher effectiveness based on a priori criteria, including behaviorally—stated "educational objectives," therefore, yielded a quantification and not an appraisal (Kossoff, 1971-72).

Second, with heir overconcern for quantification, the neo-behaviorists often overlooked an enduring attribute of teaching: teaching as a process. As such, teaching per se was neither too dependent on any given philosophy nor any given psychology, but was highly ordered as symbolism through language. "Both pragmatic thought and behavioristic psychology," remarked Bellack (1963) "emphasize that learning takes place through activity. This view is popularized in the expression that one learns to do by doing. The import of this view is to deprecate the use of language in teaching.

. . This view is held in spite of the fact that it is



difficult, if not impossible, to teach one anything without the use of language."

Admitted that behavioristic psychology has made major contributions -- and will continue to do so -- to such acts in pedagogy as the three R's, in special education, in physical education, and in driver education, among others, but can the neo-behaviorists provide me, as a learner, with a program of studies, or even a three-hour credit course, including their own behavioral "educational objectives" properly operationalized, which would teach me how to lead the "good life"--indeed a most pragmatic question for me? Or say, teach me something about my dread toward death? about my ability "to have reason"? The obvious answers to these rather life-like, complex questions have to be a resounding "no." However, when confronted with such an attack, the neo-behaviorists either ignored the question or merely remarked that since such "educational objectives" could be quantified, they were thus "pseudo" and therefore not "real educational objectives."

Under these conditions, should a neo-behavioristicallycontrived criteria, including so-called "educational or
instructional objectives" be employed in evaluating teacher
performance? A categorical "no!" seemed to be the best
likely answer. "What would one substitute in its place?"
some would ask. "No substitution would be necessary,"
could be one form of reply. "But teachers must be evaluated,
especially uncer the latest concept of 'teacher accountability'



or 'performance contracting'," could be the rejoinder. But, at least according to one Office of Educational Opportunity report, neither the concept of "teacher accountability" nor "performance contracting" as behavioral methods of evaluation seemed to be the answer to the problem of teacher evaluation:

During the 1970-71 school year the Office of Economic Opportunity with an authorization of \$7.2 million for the project decided to conduct a major study on performance contracting. Instead of relying on standard teachers and their standard teaching routines, a community signed a contract with outside specialists. This outside firm would be paid only if it improved the students' learning. Some thirty cities experimented with performance contracting heavily subsidized by the OEO.

Six educational firms, eighteen school districts, both city and rural, and 13,000 children in grades one to three and seven to nine, comprised the OEO year-long "experiment." The final results of this \$7.2 million "experiment" to determine the validity of another "experiment," namely, performance contracting: a failure.

According to the OEO survey, both the special classrooms—the experimental groups—as well as in the ordinary classes—the control groups—failed to reach the standards expected in terms of national norms. In other words, two forms of behavioral methodology, the experimental or the "new" as well as the control or the "traditional" failed



to achieve the anticipated results (Time, February 14, 1972).

A third and final piece, this time of non-empirical but rational thinking, for the neo-behaviorists before a recommendation to them for a probable change in their most current "frame of reference" -- the specific and the microscopic or "micro-teaching." The neo-behaviorists' own behaviorism did not give them license to choose among several alternative behavioral specifications whenever there is more than one alternative to specify--and even more so, to operationalize -- an educational behavioral objective. Of equal, if not greater importance--even if such alternatives did exist--the neo-behaviorists could completely justify their selection of an educational objective stated in quantifiable (operationalized) behaviorial terms as contrasted to the selection by others of an educational objective stated in non-behaviorial terms. This decision had to represent a choice other than the application of the neo-behaviorists' own behaviorism, since the alternative not to do so also existed through the simplest in logical reasoning.

Since all behaviorial theory rested on statistical quantification—hence the neo-behaviorists' own assertion of their being "scientific" or "empirical," which was not necessarily the case. Frequently the decision to quantify or to not quantify an educational objective seemed to rest on a somewhat silly notion, namely: through the definition an educational objective into quantifiable behaviorial



terms through the introduction of an activity verb. For example, the non-behavioristically stated "to have the pupil understand modern poetry" as an educational objective altered to the behaviorally-stated "to have the pupil write a critical essay on modern poetry."—thus leading to some kind of teacher grading or measurement—did not in and of itself clinch the ultimate wisdom of the neo-behaviorists' decision. In other words, neo-behaviorism by itself per se did not provide sufficient cause for the selection of behavioral over non-behavioral educational objectives (Steinberg, 1972).

A Critique

Most neo-behavioral tactics interfered with the learner's self-actualization. In this respect, Etzioni (1972) observed that "what is becoming increasingly apparent is that to solve social problems by changing people is more expensive and usually less productive than approaches that accept people as they are and seek not to mend them but the circumstances around them." Yet, even here, the problems of individual man was far more primary to individual qua individual man than the problems of his society to him, despite the utterances of Skinner in Beyond Freedom and Dignity (1972) among others, to the contrary. Individual man had, because of the existentialist absurdity of his existence, to cope with the perennial problems of life itself, especially about the inevitability of his own death,



the joy as well as the agony of his love, the reality of choice through his own free will, the experience of his own freedom in a democracy or a totalitarian state, and the fruitfulness or futility of his own interpersonal relationships with others. In other words, individual man, as a learner, had to come into encounter with his own human predicament (Kneller, 1964).

No neo-behaviorially-contrived "educational objectives" could cope with such rather high order, complex and highly individualized life-long concerns, which, moreover, could, be perceived as "objectives"--ultimate, educational or otherwise, but had to be conceived as continuous processes. Thus, as processes, these concerns did not represent final objectives, purposes, or missions-rather they were "the stuff of life" and hence more real to individual man than success at a vocation or being able to read and to write in a highly industrialized and technologically-oriented society. Therefore, the need for their quantification or their "operational definitions" became a near-impossibility, if not an unnecessary enterprise.

Despite all this, the neo-behaviorists would not abandon their elusive pursuit. As late as 1972, Gage continued to ask, can "science" contribute the the "art of teaching"? This question, he held, is being answered more and more positively (despite the preceding fifty or more years of futility), and this educational "science" was now "reaching solid ground" by no longer stressing the



search for the universal and the macroscopic, as the earlier research efforts before the sixties, but the specific and the microscopic (Gage, 1972). Research in the specific and the microscopic in modifying teaching behavior should yield no more than another plethora of fragmented, empirical frivolity—as fifty years or so of previous research on the universal and the macroscopic.

Why? Because current teacher evaluation techniques generally suffered from a most serious statistical flaw—and has been pointed out above, the neo-behaviorists could hardly be expected to abandon their current quantification tactics. This flaw rested upon the questionable assumption of linearity of the observed teacher behavior data. If the teacher-student relationship were viewed as an interaction paradigm, then all quantitative analytic techniques, including analysis of variance as well as other statistical techniques assuming linear, additive relationships among variables as a mathematic model expressed through the linear equation, had to be abandoned for the differential equation.

A feedback interaction paradigm of the teacherstudent relationship assumed teacher behavior to be a mathematical function of student behavior and vice versa and both behaviors changed over time-especially if one acknowledged role change through the neo-behaviorists' own enthusiasm for their own "behavior modification" through "operant conditioning." Differential equations occasionally did lend themselves to linear representation; but despite this, it was not the usual linear representation which



provided the estimation techniques for ordinary multiple regression analysis nor analysis of variance. For to test whether an observed set of teacher-student interaction data were rather "well-fitted" by a differential equation required more complex estimation techniques in order to test for a teacher-student feedback loop interaction model (Editors, <u>Harvard Educational Review</u>, May, 1972).

The Mixed Results with Existing Measures

Three instruments have been extensively used with mixed results being obtained in defining desirable teacher and course characteristics.

Purdue Performance Instructor Indicator (1960) by H. H. Remmers and J. H. Sneddeker.

Purdue Rating Scale for Instruction (1950) by H. H. Remmers and D. N. Elliott.

Student Opinion of Teaching and Course (1969) by W. J. McKeachic.

The Fifth and Sixth Year Mental Measurements Yearbooks

(1959 and 1965) contained critical evaluations of the Purdue forms, and as McKeachie admitted in a December, 1971 letter to this writer for his form, all three measures lacked any extensively field developed normative data. With the shift by other neo-behaviorists to "microteaching" from "macro-teaching" behavior was usually coupled with a shift from normative data interpretation to "competency or performance-based" criteria data interpretation. Thus, for all these reasons the employment of



these measures would result in the obtaining of questionable data for decisions about teacher performance.

It might be appropriate also to remark here that with the current emphasis by some neo-behaviorists on "microteaching," that is, their abandonment of their search for the macroscopic and the universal in teaching behavior, has resulted in a somewhat anolomous position on their part.

Briefly, they assert teaching was a complex act; it required the separation of it into simpler component behavioral acts so these acts could be more readily quantified. But then, they hardly seemed to demonstrate, how after the appropriate components were discovered, these could be reassembled (other than through factor analysis) so their research could again comply with one of the simplest of mathematical laws, namely, "the whole is equal to the sum of its parts," or in other words, into the high order abstractions, the "good teacher" and "good teaching."

Anderson and Hunka (1963) suggested the employment of various multivariate statistical analyses to focus upon the perceptual dynamics of the evaluator himself and not the evaluatee. Their research proposal had yet to realize any fruition for the neo-behaviorists position, in general, held that students, because of their frequency of direct contact with their teachers, remained the most reliable source for observed data despite the fact that the reliability and validity any evaluatee criteria had yet to be categorically demonstrated by the neo-behaviorists. From



a most respectable search of the existing literature, Anderson and Hunka developed a near common sense hypothesis: the probable existence between anxiety and evaluation, namely, the more anxious the self, the more susceptible it was to anxiety and thus the more quickly the evaluative process took place. Furthermore, Anderson and Munka also established a probable relationship between individual dogmatism, the degree of one's openness or closedness of his own belief system and anxiety. In short, the greater the self's dogmatism, the greater the anxiety, and hence the greater the misperception.

In summary, according to Anderson and Hunka, not all persons were qualified to evaluate others and their greatest objection to current procedures, besides this, had to do with the problem of criteria, that is to say, current procedures focused on teacher behavior per se and at the same time ignored situational determinants. Current evaluative procedures therefore ignored the evaluator himself and his own psychological make-up, thus ignoring his perceptual framework, the totality of his organized concepts, which, in turn, resulted into a self-concept. In short, as with any other evaluative procedure, the <u>Self</u> evaluated the <u>self</u> and not another.

The traits research approach to desirable teacher characteristics seemed to have ended with the work of Ryans (1960) with negligible results in tying desirable teacher characteristics to actual pupil growth. Much enthusiasm for Ryan's research stemmed from his use of factor analysis.



Several researchers, Hamacheck, 1969; Turner, 1969; and McKeachie, 1969 had in the late sixties revived the characteristic traits thrust with their published efforts resulting more in exhortations for further research rather than actual, generalizable, systematic findings. Added to these researchers "findings" could be added the effort of Rosenshine, Costin, and Popham in the late sixties and early seventies, and as would be anticipated, the results of their findings were mixed and confusing.

In 1972, Gage criticized past research for its continued use of what he called "the criterion-of-effectiveness" paradigm, that is, a criterion variable was selected and then an attempt was made to find the predictor variables which would statistically predict the criterion. Usually the criterion, or dependent, variable turned out to be some form of pupil achievement variable, mostly in addition, of the cognitive variety, such as cognitive scores on standardized tests or the punier teacher-awarded letter or test score grade.

Gage's own proposed research thrust resulted into a contradiction of conceptualization and his rejection of the "criterion-of-effectiveness" paradigm. Gage himself would obtain initial student ratings on teacher behavior, assume this initial rating to be the predictor and then have the teacher undergo some "behavior modification." He would then employ a second set of student ratings as the criterion. This, of course, was not the interaction, feedback model Gage thought he had but a modified form of his rejected "criterion-of-



effectiveness" model (Editors, <u>Harvard Educational Review</u>, 1972).

with California's enactment of the Stull Act (1971), the need for a radically new approach to teacher evaluation, this time also to implement the legislative will, became evident with the Stanford University sponsored "Conference on the Stull Act," October 12-14, 1972, N. L. Gage, Chairman. Such neo-behaviorists as Glass, Popham, Abbott, Flanders, Alkin, and Baker participated. The Conferences* participants were still searching for a viable conceptualization of what it meant to evaluate teacher performance. According to Broudy, the three recognized teaching styles of didacties, heuristies, and philetics tended only to blur further the quantification problem in teacher evaluation (Broudy, 1972).

So with more than fifty years of "empirical research," including the sustained, but disappointing efforts of the neo-behaviorists, would it be reasonable to expect modifications in teaching along the research routes proposed by the neo-behaviorists will dramatically affect teaching? Probably not-simply because when coupled with the enormous inputs, both biological and cultural, including the educational, into the lives of our students, more than fifty years of research on teaching should by now have provided the American educational establishment, especially its neo-behavioral adherents, with two categorical answers, namely: (1) modifications of the current known teaching styles will not dramatically affect current learning, and (2) no further research on teaching



(Editors, <u>Marvard Educational Review</u>, May, 1972). Despite all this, the neo-behaviorists' shift from the universal and the macroscopic to the specific and microscopic seemed not justified by fifty to seventy-five years of previous futile research but rather symptomized a continued obsession for the quantification of teaching behavior, no matter how inconsequential the results produced by the neo-behaviorists' questionable selected variables as well as educational settings.

An Existentialist Reconceptualization

Along behavioral-pragmatic lines, what, then became the primary relationship between teacher and pupil? The current model of the American teacher seemed to be that of the boss and the lecturer as well as the intrusive conditioner and reinforcer—the last alluding to the primary concerns of the neo-behaviorists, namely through "operant conditioning" and "behavior modification." In contrast, under existentialist educational thought the teacher would be the receptive, Taoist helper in the teacher-student relationship—not necessarily always the pragmatic teacher, but the teacher capable of spontaneous as well as unselfish actions, constantly trying to provide harmony to the conflict the Sclf encounters in its human existential predicament. In the words of Maslow:

This doctrine of the Real Self to be uncovered and actualized is also a total rejection of the tabula rosa notions of the behaviorists and associationists, who often talk as if anything can be learned or as if anything can be taught, and as if the human being is a sort of passive clay to be shaped, controlled, reinforced in any way that the teacher arbitrarily decided (Maslow, 1968).



Existential educational theory would seem to be therefore the answer. Such a new "conceptualization" would totally
eliminate behavioristically-oriented criteria as the primary
means in teacher evaluation.

Why, At least four explanations can be given. First, at least since John Dewey's influence, education has depended heavily both philosophically as well as "realistically" on pragmatism. Pragmatism, in turn, has drawn most of its basic tenets from the behavioral sciences, particularly psychology (Kneller, 1958). Second, problems in education have lacked a rigorous experimental approach in research methodology and thus much educational research has been forced to use ex post facto conditions (Kerlinger, 1964).

Third, whenever the pragmatic concept of individual differences among learners has been applied on an experimental basis, the cataloguing of the findings has resulted in accepted social and psychological norms. In turn, this has produced educational programs which have focused on inquiry, consensus, and process rather than on the individual, authentic freedom of the learner himself. Thus, the experimentalistic-pragmatic approach to education had failed to sensitize the learner to his own sense of freedom (Kneller, 1958). Finally, because the behavioral sciences seem to have been overly concerned with externally-placed guides on behavior, education itself has given little attention to the organismic states of the individual learner, and, as a result, the behavioral has been emphasized in subject material as well as in teaching materials almost totally at the expense of the learner's



physiological needs (Hilgard, 1964). There, furthermore, seemed to be turning away from an orientation in education which lead the learner to feel, as a result of his total educational experience, that he was no more than an object about whom conclusions had already been reached. Whenever teachers focused on too much empiricism and behavioral statistical data derived from group norms, this easily could be the result.

As long as the three orientations of logical positivism, operationalism, and pragmatism continued to influence educational thought--the latter two most heavily--then education had no choice but to look toward the behavioral sciences (Di Renzo, 1966). Until existential thought, however, began to threaten behavioral and pragmatic educational thought during the sixties, the latter had almost near monopoly on American educational practices and research, including pedagogy, from about 1900 to 1960. Thus, despite the continued necessity for a pragmatic orientation, the behavioral sciences had yet to distinguish clearly between meaningful and meaningless pedagogical concepts as well as pedagogical concepts corresponding to real experience, on the one hand, and purely verbal definitions on the other (DiRenzo, 1966). Now, according to existentialist thought, the behavioral sciences did have an opportunity to unify subjective with objective knowledge and thus assist education in developing a more profound understanding of the relation of the individual to the group (Kneller, 1958), not through group norms and consensuality, but how to redefine



individual behavior as it related to another. Therefore, below is a proposal and some limited research concerned with teacher authenticity or freedom and a redefining through multivariate statistical techniques what, in fact, might provide a operational definition of the "good teacher." In short, it is proposed to go existentialist through behavioral tactics.

Authenticity as a High Order Concept and Criterion Variable

Beginning with Sartre's 1949 existentialist explanation of "over-determined" behavior as being a manifestation of Inauthenticity, sociologists, particularly, have begun to invoke the concept of Authenticity or its converse, as a crucial concept in organizational theory (Seeman, 1960, 1966; Etzioni, 1968). In the meantime, various researchers in educational administration have also tried to apply this concept to educational organizations through various empirical approaches hoping to gain some insight into how the concept of Authenticity might be explained in operationalized terms (Halpin and Croft, 1963; Halpin, 1966; Brumbaugh, 1968, 1969, 1971; Appleberry and Hoy, 1969; Hodgkinson, 1970). Observed Halpin particularly: Authentic individuals, in the language of the French existentialists, were given the chance to invent themselves. . . . Authenticity is a tricky concept; it does not lend itself readily to operational definition."

The research herein was specifically addressed to determining whether certain existing empirically-determined



variables purporting to be indicative one way or another of authenticity could, in fact, be linked to an individual teacher's own fundamental interpersonal relations orientation. Five operationalized variables in the extant literature purported to measure some aspect of human behavior which, in turn, their respective researchers held to be one way or another a manifestation of authenticity: Esprit and Thrust, (Halpin, 1966); Custodialism (Willower et al., 1967; Appleberry and Hoy, 1969, 1970); Ambivalence (Seeman, 1960); Dogmatism (Rokeach, 1960).

Halpin held that two variables within his Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ), Esprit and Thurst, could furnish possibilities for an operational definition of Authenticity. "Probably the best single index to Authenticity which we could adduce from our present data is the combination of high OCDQ scores on both Thrust and Esprit," claimed Halpin. Esprit, as operationally defined by him, represented the teacher's own perception of his degree of morale or satisfaction within the school environment, while Thrust represented the teacher's perception of his principal's degree of positive leadership behavior.

Halpin through factor analysis of his own data on the construct, school organizational climate, discovered three major factors, Social Needs, Esprit, and Social Control, to describe the types of behavior that occurred among members of elementary school faculties. He then compared non-empirically these to Schutz factors of Affection, Control, and Inclusion. Affection



corresponded to <u>Social Needs</u> and <u>Control</u> to <u>Social Control</u>; however, Halpin's factor of <u>Esprit</u> and Schutz's factor of <u>Inclusion</u> did differ for <u>Esprit</u> reflected the interaction between the group and the leader, whereas <u>Inclusion</u> seemed to describe primarily a measure of within the group.

Or "closed" climates, the extremes of Halpin's six prototypic school organizational climate identifications of open, autonomous, familiar, controlled, paternalistic and closed, Appleberry and Hoy found their "relatively open" schools to be low on <u>Custodialism</u> or "humanistic" as contrasted to their "relatively closed" schools which were high on <u>Custodialism</u>. As an operational variable, <u>Custodialism</u> had been defined in the original work of Willower <u>et al</u>. with their <u>Pupil Control Ideology Form (PCI Form)</u> and represented a teacher's degree of <u>Custodialism</u> toward his pupils. About their study, Appleberry and Hoy said:

The rationale for the major hypotheses of this study stressed the authenticity of interactions among professional staff in schools with open climates and the inauthenticity of the interactions among professional staff in closed climates... We also theorized that humanistic pupil control ideology would facilitate and be facilitated by authentic interactions between teachers and pupils (Appleberry and Hoy, 1969).

In addition to <u>Thrust</u>, <u>Esprit</u>, and <u>Custodialism</u> as being measures of authenticity, Seeman's <u>Ambivalence</u> variable in his <u>Leadership Ideology and Ambivalence Scales</u> was suggestive of a form of inauthenticity for follow-up interviews with his sample of superintendents indicated that some were not persons



the Bar

of clarity and decision as their stereotyping indicated (Seeman, 1960). The Ambivalence Scale, according to Seeman, thus gave clues to inauthentic behavior for reality-centered persons did not deny conflict nor exaggerate it, but rather possessed moderate degrees of ambivalence about their own ideological choices on the scale. In short, Seeman implicitly proposed that, based on his data, there were clues to individual psychological differences to authentic behavior.

Rokeach with the variable <u>Dogmatism</u> as operationalized by his <u>Dogmatism Scale</u>. In developing distinctions between the open and the closed mind, Rokeach studied the characteristics of individual belief-disbelief systems. He called the degree of openness to closedness of an individual's cognitive style as <u>Dogmatism</u>. "The more open one's belief system," he held, "the more evaluating and acting on information proceed independently on its own merits, in accord with the inner structural requirements of the situation," and thus, the individual's ability to be "reality-centered." In short, the lower the degree of <u>Dogmatism</u>, the more open the mind and the greater its tendency toward being reality-centered (Rokeach, 1960).

In sum, all these empirically-determined variables,

Thrust, Esprit, Custodialism, Ambivalence, and Dogmatism, therefore, purported in one way or another to be suggestive of a
higher order abstraction, Authenticity.



The Predictor Variables

Schutz's FIRO-B Scale was constructed to measure how an individual acted in interpersonal situations with others. Specifically, the scale measured an individual's expressed behavior toward others as well as his wanted behavior from others in three areas of interpersonal relationships:

Inclusion, Control, and Affection. In short, Schutz held that he could empirically and parsimoniously explain how an individual oriented and related toward others in all social situations. Specifically, the FIRO-B Scale measured an individual's expressed behavior toward others as well as his wanted behavior from others in three areas of interpersonal relationships. Inclusion, Control, and Affection (Schutz, 1968).

Inclusion was defined as behavior directed toward the satisfaction of the interpersonal need for inclusion and referred to behavior that reflected "belonging," "communication," and "togetherness" as contrasted to "isolated," "lonely," "ignored," and "excluded." Control was defined as behavior directed toward the satisfaction of the interpersonal need for control as suggested by "dominance," "authority," and "rules" and thus contrariwise to behavior that connoted "rebellion," "resistance," and "submission." Finally, Affection reflected behavior directed toward the interpersonal need for affection as characterized by such terms as "like," "personal," and "friendship" as contrasted to "dislike," "cool," and "emotionally distant" (Halpin, 1966).



The <u>FIRO-B</u> <u>Scale</u>, therefore, yielded six scores, expressed as well as wanted inclusion behavior, expressed as well as wanted control behavior, and expressed as well as wanted affection behavior.

As a result of all the above, the expressed as well as wanted behaviors in Inclusion, Control and Affection of an individual were considered herein as predictor variables. From Schutz, it was determined that these subscales could not be averaged and so each predictor variable was treated as a separate entity. The algebraic notations Eⁱ, E^c, E^a, Wⁱ, W^c and W^a, help in fixing mentally these six predictor variables (Schutz, 1968).

Methodology

There, therefore, was the necessity to assess the status of the art in faculty evaluative procedures by taking those instruments already in existence and stressing an individual's own perception of authenticity or freedom or openness, and subjecting them to data analysis through several multivariate procedures. Several researchers have addressed themselves to the concept, <u>Authenticity</u>, and claimed to have noted some aspects of it in their own research and therefore tried partially to link their own empirically-determined variables to this seemingly higher order concept. Of these researchers, Halpin particularly had given much speculation to its possible operational definition (Halpin, 1966).

As a result, what could it perhaps mean in empirical terms for a teacher to perceive accurately certain purported



forms of authenticity? A partial answer thus seemed reasonable in light of these data: the teacher high on his own expressed and wanted behaviors of Inclusion, Control, and Affection would also tend to be high on his own Esprit, low on his own Custodial-ism, neither be too low nor too high on his own Ambivalence, low on his own Dogmatism and perceive his principal to be high on Thrust.

In order to enter into multivariate prediction, it was hypothesized that a teacher's expressed behavior on Inclusion, Control, and Affection as well as his wanted behavior on Inclusion, Control and Affection, as measured by the FIRO-B Scale, would significantly predict p < .05) his own Esprit, Thrust, Custodialism, Ambivalence and Dogmatism, as measured by the OCDQ Esprit and Thrust subtests, the PCI Form, the Ambivalence Scale, and the Dogmatism Scale, respectively. And if the level of acceptance were attained, then a linkage between purported authentic behavior as suggested by the latter five instruments and a teacher's own interpersonal orientation needs would, as suggested by the FIRO-B Scale, be established. And with all this perhaps a partial answer would be forthcoming as to what it meant to be authentic in empirical term:

To be avoided in this research effort was the typical approach through null hypothesizing. In other words, the first problem became one of data analysis, and not the rigid posing of narrow statistical hypotheses:

There have to be people in the various sciences who concentrate much of their attention on methods of analyzing data and of interpreting the results of



statistical analysis. These have to be people who are more interested in the sciences than in mathematics, who are temperamentally able to seek for scope and usefulness rather than security, and who are willing to err moderately often in order that inadequate evidence shall more often suggest the right answer (Cooley and Lohne 71).

The Results of Several Samplings

The first sample consisted of forty-seven public school teachers from Tidewater Virginia enrolled in two graduate courses at Old Dominion University in the 1970-71 academic year. Thus, pure randomness and fully true representativeness were not attained; however, with ex post facto data and multiple regression analysis, to which canonical correlation was directly related, true representativeness through random selection was not totally necessary (Kerlinger, 1973). And as a variable, individual teacher self-perceived authenticity seemed not easily amenable to experimental conditions.

The statistic utilized was canonical correlation. This statistic allowed for the conceiving of one set of variables as predictors and another set as criteria. The chi square test, moreover, became the appropriate test for significance (IBM Application Program, 1967).

Table I shows the results.



TABLE I

CANONICAL CORRELATION BETWEEN PREDICTOR AND

CRITERION VARIABLES

Predictor Variables	Criterion Variables
	Esprit, Thrust, Custodialism, Ambivalence, Dogmatism
Expressed Behavior Inclusion Control Affection	$R_{C} = .603$ $N = 47$ $\hat{a}f = 30$
Wanted Behavior Inclusion Control Affection	Chi square = 33.837 p ≤ .20

While the obtained level of significance, .20, did not reach the level of acceptance, nevertheless, it was suggestive.

Therefore, since Esprit, Thrust, and Custodialism seemed from the literature to provide a "better fix" upon Authenticity, another canonical correlation was computed without the Ambivalence and Dogmatism variables. Table II shows these results.

TABLE II

CANONICAL CORRELATION BETWEEN PREDICTOR AND CRITERION VARIABLES

Predictor Variables	Criterion Variables	
	Exprit, Thrust, Custodialism	
Expressed Behavior Inclusion Control Affection	$R_{C} = .561$ $N = 47$ $0 = 18$	
Wanted Behavior Inclusion Control Affection	Chi square = 29.909 p ≤ .05	



With an R_C of .561, an .05 level acceptance was obtained. From these data, it could be inferred that a teacher's expressed behavior on <u>Inclusion</u>, <u>Control</u>, and <u>Affection</u> as well as his wanted behaviors on these three variables would predict his own <u>Esprit</u>, his own <u>Custodialism</u>, and his own perception of his principal's <u>Thrust</u>. Thus, if these three criterion variables pointed toward a teacher's authenticity, then his expressed and wanted behaviors did, in fact, help predict it.

A second sample consisted of 105 Tidewater Virginia teachers enrolled in graduate courses. Data here was gathered during the 1971-72 academic year. Neither the first, nor none of the succeeding derived canonical variates proved significant (p≤.05). Thus with this sample, at least, the individual teacher's degrees of expressed and wanted behaviors on Inclusion, Control, and Affection did not predict his degrees of Ambivalence, Dogmatism, Custodialism, Esprit, and Thrust.

The significant findings worth reporting were bivariate correlations as follows:

TABLE III

Custodiali		Custodialism	Dogmatism .320	<u>Esprit</u>	Thrust
Dogmatism	Sitt		- 320	.243 ²	.205*
Esprit	•			. 243	.337 ³
_	$\frac{1}{2}p \le .05$	(two-tailed (two-tailed (two-tailed	test)	_	
	$p \leq .02$	(two-tailed	test)	·	
	³ p≤.01	(two-tailed	test)		



These bivariate data confirmed, in part, Willower et.

al.'s (1967) findings with their New York and Pennsylvania
samples of significant relationships between teacher <u>Dogmatism</u>
and <u>Custodialism</u> and <u>Halpin's</u> (1966) assertions of the strong
relationship between a teacher's own <u>Esprit</u> and his own perception of his own principal's leader behavior on <u>Thrust</u>. Finally,
the significant relationships between <u>Dogmatism</u> and <u>Esprit</u> as
well as <u>Dogmatism</u> and <u>Thrust</u> suggested future research with
these three variables and <u>Custodialism</u> for they still might give
clues to what it might mean to be authentic in existing empirical
terms.

A third sample was gathered during the spring 1973. Rather than using teachers enrolled in graduate courses, a random sample of eighty-four teachers in four Tidewater Virginia schools provided the data. Furthermore, upon examination of previous printout data and a thorough analysis of the Brumbaugh and Appleberry and Hoy reports, it was decided to eliminate the Dogmatism and Custodialism variables. Brumbaugh's wobbly findings with Rokeach's Dogmatism variable and Seeman's Ambivalence variable led to the conclusion that these two variables might be labeled as "contaminating" variables, for if two measures were presumed to measure the same construct, a correlation in the proper direction between them could be However, if the obtained correlation departed from predicted. the expectation, there was no way to know whether the fault would lie with either measure or in the formation of the construct itself. With the <u>Custodialism</u> variable, a rereading



of Appleberry and Hoy suggested an unjustified inferential leap by them in relating <u>Custodialism</u> as a variable to <u>Authenticity</u>. The results of this third sampling follow.

Table IV

Canonical Correlation Between Predictor and Criterion Variables

Predictor Variables	Criterion Variables
Expressed Behavior Inclusion	Thrust and Esprit
Control Affection	$R_{C} = .479$
Wanted Behavior	c
Inclusion Control Affection	N = 84 df = 12
	chi square = 25.106
	p < .92.
:	-

Thus, a multivariate statistical link (p \leq .02) was established between the six predictor and two criterion variables. With Thrust as the single criterion variable, the six predictor variables also produced a multiple R of .474, significant at the .01 level, while with Esprit as the criterion variable the six predictor variables produced a multiple R of .345 which not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the single criterion variable multiple regression analysis with the gathered ex post facto data suggested that the link between the six predictors and Thrust was, in fact, a more firm link than between the six predictors and Esprit.

The last item of data analysis was a multivariate partial correlation, that is, $R_{78.123456}$, where 7 and 8



symbolized the Thrust and Esprit variables and 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, the six predictors were "partialed out" and resulted in an R of .418, which squared yielded a .173 thus explaining about 17 percent of the total variance produced upon the two criterion variables by the six predictor variables. In other words, additional criterion variables must be found to help further explain Authenticity, and perhaps the reinsertion of the Custodialism variable in future samplings would have merit.

Conclusions

While the empirical phase of this research report has produced little in the form of any infinite, universal law about teacher behavior and was thus only highly suggestive for another direction in empirical probing, unlike the neobehaviorists who seemed to be concerned with modifying the teacher's behavior to a priori criteria, macro- and micro; this probe basically asked: what might indicate that the teacher was authentic, free or open? The research decision herein was not to change or to modify the behavior of the teacher, but to learn which variables might help determine the authentic or free, open relationship between the teacher and any other he might interact with, especially within the school organization. By following existentialist theory and avoiding any traits, personality, or characteristic approaches in the teacher evaluation, especially through group norms or any other normative data, as well as rejecting totally the neo-behavioral competency/preformance-based approach, it is



hoped that further systematic evaluation and painstaking isolation of variables contributing to the improvement of teacher evaluation shall be forthcoming through the approach articulated in this report and that other educational researchers will exploit this direction.

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