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FOGEL, LOUEEN SLAUGHTER. The Effects of Trait Labels on Teacher Evaluations of Target Behaviors, Ratings, and Academic Work. (1977) Directed by: Dr. Rosemary O. Nelson. Pp. 70.

The purpose of the present investigation was to examine the effects of trait labels on teachers' objective behavioral observations, teachers' subjective ratings, and teachers' grading of academic work. On the basis of previous studies examining observer bias, it was predicted that teacher observations would not be biased and that teacher subjective ratings would be biased. In addition, it was predicted that the subjective scoring of academic material would be biased.

Five groups of teachers were trained on a three-category behavioral code by means of a video tape. Teachers then observed a 12-minute video tape of the same normal child in a classroom setting. The specific trait labels describing the child that were given to different teachers were: Emotionally Disturbed, Learning Disabled, Educable Mentally Retarded, Normal, and No Label. Teachers then coded behaviors from the video tape, rated the target child on a rating scale, and scored academic material purportedly completed by the target child.

The results of this study confirmed two predictions. Teachers' behavioral ratings, unlike behavioral recordings, were influenced by the expectancy label assigned to the target child. Teachers' scoring of academic performance,

A

however, was not influenced by the expectancy labels. Since the present study was an analogue study conducted in a laboratory setting, the results must be interpreted with caution. The results cannot be generalized to natural settings until research is conducted in these settings. Given these limitations, it is suggested that in order to obtain accurate information from teachers, school psychologists and educators should rely on observational data and academic material which would be a sample of the students' classroom behavior, rather than on more global rating scales which may be more subject to bias.

A Thesis Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts

Greensboro
1977

Approved by
Raymond O. Neiland
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THE EFFECTS OF TRAIT LABELS ON TEACHER EVALUATIONS
OF TARGET BEHAVIORS, RATINGS, AND
ACADEMIC WORK

by

Loueen Slaughter Fogel

A Thesis Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
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APPROVAL PAGE

This thesis has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

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12-19-77
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Acknowledgments

The author gratefully acknowledges Dr. Rosemary O. Nelson, who served as Chairperson, for her guidance throughout the preparation and conduction of this research investigation. Appreciation is also extended to Dr. Jacquelyn Gaebelein and Dr. Sandra Powers for their constructive suggestions.

The numerous comments and suggestions offered by my friend, Skip Beck, were most valuable.

The author would like to thank the principals and teachers of Southern Primary School, Western Guilford Primary School and remaining teachers for their participation in this study. Additional assistance was offered by Mr. Jeff Warner, Headmaster of Piedmont Academy, for his permission to record the experimental tape in his school.

Finally, Mrs. Elizabeth R. Hunt deserves much credit for her patience and perseverance in making this an attractively typed and organized manuscript.

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CHAPTER I

1 Groups x Rating Scales Interaction. Mean number of items checked on the three rating scales by each expectancy group. 70

ments, for example, work localities, homes, and classrooms, to
justify both research investigations and individual therapy.
With the behavioristic emphasis on the scientific method,
the objective observation and assessment of an individual's
behavior in naturalistic settings is an integral aspect of
data collection. One reason for the behaviorists' preference
for naturalistic observational settings is the situation-
specificity of behavior (Mischel, 1968). Situation-specificity
of behavior refers to the finding that the behavior of an
individual which occurs in one stimulus situation does not
necessarily occur in another stimulus situation. The behav-
iorist assesses an individual's specific behavior in a spe-
cific situation, with no inferences made to behavior in
dissimilar situations. In addition to stimulus specificity,
naturalistic observations are also important in light of the
response mode specificity of behavior. Behaviors are observed
and recorded in either the verbal, physiological, or overt motor
response mode, with no inferences made to response modes
other than the one being recorded.

In most behavioral research, independent observers have
been employed to record the behavior of specific individuals.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Behavioral psychologists often utilize natural environments, for example, work locations, homes, and classrooms, to conduct both research investigations and individual therapy. With the behavioristic emphasis on the scientific method, the objective observation and measurement of an individual's behavior in naturalistic settings is an integral aspect of data collection. One reason for the behaviorists' preference for naturalistic observational settings is the situation-specificity of behavior (Mischel, 1968). Situation-specificity of behavior refers to the finding that the behavior of an individual which occurs in one stimulus situation does not necessarily occur in another stimulus situation. The behaviorist assesses an individual's specific behavior in a specific situation, with no inferences made to behaviors in dissimilar situations. In addition to stimulus specificity, naturalistic observations are also important in light of the response mode specificity of behavior. Behaviors are observed and recorded in either the verbal, physiological, or overt motor response mode, with no inferences made to response modes other than the one being recorded.

In most behavioral research, independent observers have been employed to record the behavior of specific individuals.

Independent or trained observers have observed children in school classrooms (Becker, Madsen, Arnold, & Thomas, 1967; Bersoff & Ericson, 1972; Cobb & Ray, 1971), families in their homes (Patterson, Ray, & Shaw, 1969), and individuals in psychiatric hospitals (Allyon & Azrin, 1964). The first step in making behavioral observations is to operationally define the target behaviors. These specific responses are then observed and recorded during both baseline and treatment phases. By comparing the behavior which occurred during baseline to the behavior observed during treatment, it is possible to evaluate the treatment effectiveness.

Problems with Observations

Observee reactivity. While behavioral observations conducted by independent observers in naturalistic settings provide a sample of the behavior in the situation in which it normally occurs, research has indicated that there are methodological problems related to the use of these procedures (Johnson & Bolstad, 1973; Lipinski & Nelson, 1974; O'Leary & Kent, 1973). Observee reactivity is one major problem associated with the use of independent observers. Lipinski and Nelson (1974) define observee reactivity as changes which occur in the behavior of the individuals being observed that are due to the observer's presence, and the resultant change in the stimulus situation. Researchers have shown that the presence of observers causes behavior to change from periods when behavior was recorded unobtrusively

(Arsenian, 1943; Bechtel, 1967; Browning & Stover, 1971; Patterson & Harris, 1968; Webb, Campbell, Schwartz, & Sechrest, 1966). In many of these investigations, mechanical devices and one-way mirrors were utilized in order to compare reactivity under overt versus unobtrusive recording conditions.

Research on observee reactivity in the classroom environment indicates that the presence of observers affects behavior. Through the use of overt and also covert recording procedures, Mercatoris and Craighead (1974) found that when the observer was present in the classroom, the number of pupil-teacher interactions increased above covert recording levels. During the entire experiment, a hidden videotape camera recorded data covertly, while the observer noticeably recorded data in the classroom only on certain occasions. Kent, Fisher, and O'Leary (1974) utilized a one-way mirror in comparing overt and covert recordings and found that observer presence altered the comments and behavior of the teacher. When the observer was present in the classroom, there was an increase in the frequency of educational comments made by the teacher and also an increase in a composite measure of teacher behavior. In another investigation utilizing a one-way mirror, Hursh, Baer, and Rowburg (1974) found that the teachers carried out experimental instructions more when the observer was present in the classroom than when unobtrusive recordings were taken from behind a one-way mirror. Observee reactivity has also been found to occur in parent-child

interactions. Zegiob, Arnold, and Forehand (1975) investigated the interaction and activity level of mothers and their children in a laboratory setting. During overt recording, the mothers played with their children more, made more positive verbal statements, and structured their children's activities more than when the mothers were observed from behind a one-way mirror.

Numerous attempts have been made by behavioral psychologists to overcome the problem of observee reactivity. In trying to solve the problem of observee reactivity, researchers have utilized hidden mechanical devices and one-way mirrors (Webb et al., 1966). However, these procedures are often impractical. Alternative procedures to minimize observee reactivity include: instructions to trained observers to make themselves as unobtrusive as possible and to "fade into the walls" (Becker, Madsen, Arnold, & Thomas, 1967), advising the trained observer to extinguish interactions with the individuals being observed (O'Leary, Romanczyk, Kass, Dietz, & Santogrossi, 1971), recommending that the trained observer enter and remain in the observational setting for a period of time prior to the actual recording of behavior in order to allow observees to "habituate" to their presence (Patterson & Harris, 1968), providing an initial adaptation period to permit the class to habituate to the presence of observers (Breyer & Calchera, 1971), having observers wear sunglasses (Grimm, Parsons, & Bijou, 1972), and using a

portable observation booth as an alternative to overt observations (Bowles & Nelson, 1976).

Due to observee reactivity often produced by the use of independent observers in naturalistic observations, alternative methods for recording of behavior have been investigated. Self-monitoring, an alternative technique in which subjects record instances of their own behavior, has, however, generally produced reactive and unreliable data (Nelson, 1977). Several researchers have suggested the use of mediators as observers (Schwitzgebel & Kolb, 1974; Webb, Campbell, Schwartz, & Sechrest, 1969). A mediator or participant observer is a person who is already a member of a group or a participant of an ongoing situation. In terms of classroom settings, several researchers have suggested employing teachers as participant observers (Foster, Keilitz, & Thomas, 1974; Kubany & Sloggett, 1973). Since teachers are already present in the classroom environment, the use of teachers as observers of student behavior has the advantage of being economical as well as convenient. The effectiveness of teachers as behavioral observers was investigated and the results indicated that teacher observations produced reactive results (Hay, Nelson, & Hay, 1977). Since the mediator is already present in the individual's environment, some researchers had assumed that there would be relatively little observee reactivity (Patterson & Harris, 1968; Patterson & Reid, 1970). The contradictory finding of Hay et al., (1977) might be

explained by the fact that when the teacher records the behavior of a student, he or she may be changing the classroom environment in such a way as to modify the behaviors of the student being observed. That is, when he or she records the student's behavior, the teacher is behaving in a manner which is not typical of his or her usual behavior. Also the recording of the student's behavior requires the teacher to attend to that particular behavior of the student. This attention may result in a change in frequency of the behavior. Besides attending to the behavior of the student, the teacher may also become aware of antecedent conditions of that behavior. In the event that the teacher varies any of the antecedent conditions, changes in the frequency of certain behaviors may result. Such changes in the observer's behavior with respect to his functions as a mediator and recorder of the observee's behavior has been labeled "observer-mediator reactivity" (Hay et al., 1977).

In an investigation which employed an elementary student as both treatment implementor and data recorder (Surratt, Ulrich, & Hawkins, 1969), it was suggested that the observer became a discriminative stimulus for the target behavior. In this study, a fifth grader was the mediator employed to modify the study behavior of four first-grade students. It was found that the study behavior increased when the observer was present, but these increases were only partially maintained when the observer was not present. Crowder and

Willis (1972) provide additional evidence that observations made by mediators may be reactive in a study of the implementation of behavior modification in Head Start classes. In this study, Crowder and Willis report the occurrence of "baseline cures" or decreases in the frequency of target behaviors that occur during baseline observation and before treatment procedures are begun. The "baseline cures" were attributed to changes in the teachers' responses to the target behaviors. Another report of "baseline cures" was made by Forehand (1973) in a case in which a teacher identified and recorded the deviant behavior of spitting. The typical routine before instigating baseline and also during the first three days of baseline, was that the child was reprimanded for each spitting incident and instructed to wipe the saliva off the table. During the first three days of baseline, the spitting occurred at a progressively higher frequency. The spitting behavior decreased significantly on days four through nine as the teacher began to ignore the behavior. The term "baseline" is defined as no treatment. Since the teacher instigated the treatment of ignoring the behavior (extinction) on days four through nine, she was no longer correctly using a baseline procedure. Forehand explained that the decrease in the target behavior resulted from the identification by the classroom teacher of the antecedents and consequences of the behavior and the resultant changes in the teacher's responses to the target behaviors. While these

studies report changes in target behaviors in the desired direction, they also indicate that behavioral recordings by mediators may result in procedural problems such as "observer-mediator" reactivity effects.

Observer reactivity. Observer reactivity is a second major problem inherent in the use of independent observers in naturalistic settings. Observer reactivity refers to the observers' modification of their coding behavior as a function of the assessment of inter-observer agreement (Lipinski & Nelson, 1974). Evidence exists which indicates that observers who are aware that reliability is being assessed produce higher levels of agreement than observers who were led to believe that reliability was no longer being assessed (Reid, 1970; Romanczyk, Kent, Diament, & O'Leary, 1973). Reid (1970) found a sudden dramatic reduction in agreement for all independent observers as the transition from overt to covert assessment was made. Johnson and Bolstad (1973) advise using a random-check reliability procedure in research investigations. The assessment of reliability at random and unpredictable times (random-check) has been shown to maintain a non-significant but consistently higher level of reliability than either the spot-check or no-check assessment procedures (Taplin & Reid, 1973). O'Leary and Kent (1973) recommend three basic procedures which maintain consistently high levels of inter-observer agreement: (1) continuous monitoring of inter-observer agreement; (2) Taplin and Reid's random check

method; (3) use video or audio recordings of behaviors from which observers code behavior with knowledge that inter-observer agreement may be checked for any particular interval.

Observer bias. Another major problem associated with the use of independent observers is observer bias. Lipinski and Nelson (1974) define observer bias as consistent changes in the observer's recording behavior in response to factors other than the observee's behavior. Often, observer bias results from observers' knowledge of expected experimental outcome prior to or during data collection. Early concern over the experimenter bias effect was aroused by Rosenthal (1963) with his experiments which demonstrated that knowledge of expected results biases an experimenter's data. Rosenthal and Fode (1963) randomly assigned rats to two groups of student-experimenters. When one group of experimenters were told that their rats were bred from maze-bright animals, they recorded faster learning times for their animals than the group of experimenters who were informed that their rats were bred from maze-dull animals. Rosenthal also introduced the controversial topic of teacher expectancy. Rosenthal and Jacobsen (1966) gave teachers a list of randomly-selected students and informed the teachers that these students, based on test results, would "bloom" intellectually during the school year. In comparing pre- and post-test IQ scores, the randomly-selected "late bloomers" made significant gains over the control group of children. However, this study led

to a great deal of controversy and has received numerous criticisms (Snow, 1969; Thorndike, 1968). Although the study was subjected to numerous criticisms, it generated interest in teacher bias.

Early research on observer bias in the classroom further intensified concerns about bias effects among observers. Kass and O'Leary (1970) videotaped an elementary class and gave differing expectations to each of three groups of observers concerning the effects of treatment on the level of disruptive behavior. The same videotapes were viewed by the three groups of observers who recorded disruptive behavior. The tapes used in this experiment showed a drastic reduction in disruptive behavior from baseline to treatment. One group of observers was told that the level of disruptive behavior would decrease from baseline to treatment. The second group was told that there would be an increase in disruptive behavior, while the third group was given no prediction of behavior from baseline to treatment. Significant differences among the three groups were found which indicated that the expectancies did produce observer bias. The group of observers which were told that there would be an increase in disruptive behavior recorded a smaller decrease in disruptive behavior from baseline to treatment than the group which had been told that there would be a decrease.

While the early research investigations which induced observer expectations of treatment effects reported significant changes in the observers' data, more recent studies have

not replicated these findings (Foster, Yssledyke, & Reese, 1975; Kent, 1972; Kent, O'Leary, Diament, & Dietz, 1974; Shuller & McNamara, 1976; Skindrud, 1972). In the investigations conducted by Skindrud (1972) and Kent (1972) no evidence was found to support observer bias; the behavioral recordings in both of these studies were unbiased by observer expectations. Both studies attempted to replicate Kass and O'Leary's effects with investigations which reduced methodological problems existing in that study.

Kent, O'Leary, Diament and Dietz (1974) used video tapes of classroom settings which showed no change in disruption from baseline to treatment. Five pairs of trained observers were randomly assigned to each of two experimental groups. The two groups of observers were told, respectively, that level of disruptive behavior from baseline to treatment (a) would not change and (b) would decrease. Nine categories of disruptive classroom behavior were coded utilizing the O'Leary codes (cf. O'Leary, Kaufman, Kass, & Drabman, 1970). Results indicated that while the subjective global evaluations (on a questionnaire) were affected by the expectancies, the objective behavioral recordings were not.

Kent et al. (1974) manipulated expected treatment outcome and demonstrated that while subjective evaluations of behavior were biased by observer expectations, objective recordings were not. Shuller and McNamara (1976) examined the effects of expectancies that were generated by trait labels

on both objective behavioral observations and global subjective evaluations. Undergraduate students who achieved 90% agreement between their observations and a criterion on a reliability measure were randomly assigned to one of four experimental conditions: Aggression Expectation, Hyperactivity Expectation, Normal Expectation, and No Expectation. In each condition, the subjects were to view the same child on videotape, but they were given different trait labels (aggressive, hyperactive, normal, or no label) as descriptive of the child. Subjects viewed the same videotapes and recorded the occurrence of six behaviors by a time sampling procedure. A post-experimental rating form was also used to obtain observers' subjective impressions of the target child. Results indicated that the observers' objective behavioral recordings were not influenced by the trait-state expectancies. However, the subjective impressions differed significantly across groups. These results produced by manipulating trait labels are consistent with those which Kent et al. (1974) produced by manipulating expected treatment outcome. The fact that subjective ratings are biased by trait labels was replicated by Foster, Ysseldyke, and Reese (1975). Even though all subjects saw a videotape of the same child, some subjects were told that the child was normal while others were told that he was emotionally disturbed. Subjective ratings were influenced by these labels. This study did not include objective behavioral recordings.

Statement of Problem

The purpose of the present investigation was to examine the effects of trait labels on teachers' objective behavioral observations, teachers' subjective impressions, and teachers' grading of academic work. The specific trait labels that were assigned to the same child were: Emotionally Disturbed, Learning Disabled, Educable Mentally Retarded, Normal, and No Label. This study is important because of the numerous criticisms that have been aimed at the use of labels of exceptionality, the increased use of such labels, and the growing use of teachers as sources of classroom data.

The present study attempted to extend the findings of Shuller and McNamara (1976) that while the subjective evaluations of observers are significantly affected by different trait expectancies, their objective behavioral recordings are not so influenced. The present investigation examined the effects of such expectancies on teachers as subjects in order to determine whether labels that frequently are given to teachers bias their objective recordings, subjective recordings, and grading of academic papers.

The results of this study provide valuable information because the use of teachers as observers in the classroom is increasing in frequency. School psychologists often utilize teachers as observers for collecting baseline and treatment data to evaluate the effectiveness of their intervention programs in the classroom. Another important reason

for investigating the effects of expectancy on teacher judgments relates to the fact that an increasing number of labels are being used in special education. Dunn (1968) states that in order to qualify for and to receive special education services, the child must first receive a label (Dunn, 1968).

In actual classroom settings, teachers often receive expectancies concerning children through test scores or through labels of exceptionality. While the purpose of the present experiment was to investigate the effects of trait labels on teachers' objective recordings, subjective evaluations, and paper grading, the effects of labels on teacher and student behaviors has also been a source of concern within educational circles for other reasons. The use of categories, labels, and negative terminology in special education has come under increasing attack (Blatt, 1972; Clark, 1969; Dunn, 1968; Edgerton, 1967; Gallagher, 1972; Hammons, 1972; Lilly, 1971; Meyen, 1971; Reynolds & Balow, 1972). Schain (1972) states that this expectancy is transferred to the student who then behaves according to the expectancy. Dunn (1968) states that a teacher's expectancy for a child to succeed is reduced by labeling him "handicapped".

Salvia, Clark, and Ysseldyke (1973) investigated the existence and retention of stereotypes of exceptionality by teachers. The results indicated that the subjects who were teacher trainees did hold stereotyped expectancies of children labeled gifted and retarded. It also was demonstrated that

these expectancies were retained when the teacher trainees rated children who actually were normal but who had been labeled as either gifted or retarded. In a similar study, already described above, Foster, Ysseldyke, and Reese (1975) investigated the existence and retention by teachers of negative stereotyped expectations regarding emotionally disturbed children. Results of this study indicated that teacher trainees held negative stereotyped expectancies about the behavior of emotionally disturbed children. It was also found that when the teacher trainees observed a normal child, they rated the child more negatively when they were given the emotionally disturbed expectancy than when they were told the child was normal.

Reynolds and Balow (1972) criticize the use of simplistic categories and negative terminology in the field of special education. Examples they cite include "the mentally retarded, the visually handicapped, the hearing impaired, the emotionally disturbed, and the socially maladjusted." The use of such categories is criticized on the grounds that the categories often incorrectly stereotype individuals, attach indelible stigmas to children, provide negative expectations of the child's development, and result in incorrect assumptions regarding the needed curriculum. The authors favor an educationally focused definition of problems and procedures as an alternative to simplistic categorization. Emphasis is on educationally relevant variables based on

specific abilities which in themselves indicate appropriate educational procedures.

Specifically, based primarily on Kent et al.'s (1974) and Shuller and McNamara's (1976) findings, the following three hypotheses for the present study were proposed:

1. Teacher observations would not be biased. The data recorded by the teachers would not differ significantly across experimental groups.

2. Teacher subjective impressions would be biased as would be evidenced by a significant difference across groups on an adjective rating form.

3. The subjective scoring of academic material would be biased. It was predicted that the total number of errors circled by the Emotionally Disturbed, Learning Disabled, and Educable Mentally Retarded expectancy groups would be greater than the number circled by either the Normal or No Expectancy group. No differences between the Emotionally Disturbed, Learning Disabled, and Educable Mentally Retarded expectancy groups were predicted.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Design

Each of the 30 female teachers serving as subjects in this experiment were randomly assigned to one of the following experimental groups: Emotionally Disturbed Expectation (EDE), Learning Disabled Expectation (LDE), Educable Mentally Retarded Expectation (EMRE), Normal Expectation (NrE), and No Expectation (NoE). All subjects viewed the same video tape recordings of the same target child, but were given differing expectancies about the child.

The influence of these varying expectations were assessed on the three dependent measures, more fully described below: objective behavioral recordings, subjective behavioral ratings, and academic performance. To obtain "objective" behavioral recordings, all subjects viewed the same video tape recordings of the same target child and made time sample recordings of three behavior categories simultaneously. The three behavior categories, Playing, Out of Chair, and Orienting Response, were selected in view of their relatively high frequency of occurrence on the Stony Brook tapes, more fully described below. A behavioral rating scale was used to assess the teachers' "subjective" impressions of the target child's behavior. As a third measure, the teachers were

asked to grade some academic work that supposedly was done by the target child. Within each experimental group, a replicated Latin square design was used to randomize the order of obtaining the three dependent measures. All possible orders were used, one for each subject in each condition.

Subjects

Thirty teachers participated in this experiment on a voluntary basis. Twenty of the teachers were from two local primary schools and the remaining teachers were taking graduate courses in psychology at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. All subjects were primary level teachers.

Dependent Measures

There were three dependent variables: (1) frequency with which each subject recorded each of the three target behaviors from video tapes, (2) the frequency with which each subject rated the target child on each of the three subjective rating scales, and (3) the frequency of errors each subject scored on the academic material.

Objective behavior recordings. Objective behavior recordings were made from segments from the Stony Brook video tapes which were made by Drs. Daniel O'Leary and Ronald Kent at the State University of New York at Stony Brook in a series of studies on classroom observation procedures (additional information on these tapes may be obtained from Dr. Daniel

O'Leary, Point O'Woods Laboratory School, State University of New York at Stony Brook). Each tape shows two children engaging in activities in a classroom setting. The children are two boys and one girl who appear to be approximately seven years old, and in the early part of their second grade school year. The experimenter selected segments of the Stony Brook tapes on the basis of the relatively high frequency of occurrence of the target behaviors on the tapes.

The same six segments of the Stony Brook tapes were viewed by all subjects. The first tape was a 2-minute training tape used to instruct subjects on the time sampling procedure and to provide practice in recording. The second and third tapes each were 12-minute segments which were divided in half for training purposes. In this manner, more immediate feedback on performance was given. Therefore, there were a total of one 2-minute segment and four 6-minute segments available for training resulting in a total of 26 minutes of video tape used for training purposes. Each subject viewed all of the training tapes. On the sixth tape which was the experimental tape, the target child was different from the target child in the training tapes in order to eliminate bias effects which could have resulted from repeated exposure to the same child. The experimental tape was of 12 minutes duration, containing a total of 24 time sample periods.

Time sample periods were 20 seconds of observing, spaced with periods of 10 seconds of recording so that there were two observation intervals per minute. A cassette tape recorder with a recorded voice indicated appropriate time intervals for observing and recording. In this manner, the exact times for observation and recording of behaviors were clearly specified. During each 20-second interval all subjects made time sample recordings of three behavior categories simultaneously. Thus each of the three target behaviors could have been recorded a maximum of 24 times.

Separate behavioral coding sheets were used for each video tape. The coding sheets for each of the four, 6 minute training tapes were divided into twelve, 20-second recording intervals (Appendix A). The coding sheets for the 12 minute experimental tape were divided into twenty-four, 20-second observation intervals (Appendix B). In this manner, one coding sheet provided sufficient space for observation of one video tape.

Subjective behavioral ratings. A behavioral rating form comprised of three scales was given to each of the teachers (Appendix C). Each of the three scales consists of ten sentences which describe the behaviors of children that are either mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, or learning disabled. The descriptions do not include labels indicating the particular handicap. The subject rated each sentence as being characteristic or not characteristic of the target

child. Most of the items consist of slightly modified sentences selected from the Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale (RGEPS) (Rucker & Gable, 1973). The RGEPS items are brief descriptions of children actually referred for special education services. Thus the maximum number of items for which the target child can receive a positive rating on each of the three scales is 10.

Scoring of academic performance. All teachers were asked to grade some academic work that supposedly was done by the target child. Upon presentation of the academic material to the teachers, the experimenter explained that the material recently had been completed by the target child. The paragraph actually was copied by a non-target child. The typed version of the academic material with correct spelling and punctuation (Appendix D) was presented along with the child-printed material. Subjects were told that the target child had just entered the second grade and that the paragraph was copied by the target child from the blackboard. All teachers received the same "seatwork", consisting of a paragraph of child-printed words with various errors such as letter reversals, omission of letters, and incorrectly formed letters. The material was deliberately selected to be ambiguous rather than a more structured task so there would be more room for bias effects to be manifested. The teachers were instructed to use the same criteria for circling errors which they would use in their own classroom, as if they were teaching second grade.

Procedure

Five teachers, one subject from each experimental condition, were simultaneously trained, administered the experimental manipulations, and exposed to the same sequence of the three dependent variables. To insure that each teacher's response was not affected by the response of other teachers, there was a distance of three feet separating the chairs in which the teachers were seated.

At the beginning of the training period, teachers were informed that they were participating in the study in order to increase their skills in behavioral observation procedures. They were instructed to be as accurate as possible since possessing skills in observation procedures would be valuable for use with children in their own classroom. Each teacher was then given a copy of the behavior code (Appendix E) and instructions on its use. The experimenter explained each category briefly and demonstrated examples of the behaviors. Questions which the teachers asked regarding the behavior code were then answered by the experimenter.

All subjects then viewed the same five training tapes with their code definition sheets in front of them as they recorded behaviors on all tapes. The first tape was a 2-minute training tape which was used to instruct subjects on the time sampling procedure and to provide practice in recording. After viewing the first training tape, each individual interval was reviewed and the correct coding was cited by the experimenter. To provide additional practice

in recording and in using the behavioral code, the teachers viewed four 6 minute training tapes and coded the three behaviors on each tape. After the viewing of each 6-minute segment, the experimenter cited the correct coding of each individual interval.

Subjects received no further training beyond the fourth 6-minute segment. After the viewing, coding, and reviewing of the fourth 6-minute tape, subjects were instructed to ask no further questions and to make no comments until the experimental session was completed. The experimenter explained that it was extremely important that they obey these instructions since the experimenter must give equal amounts of training to all subjects, and that if subjects were allowed to ask questions or to make statements then unequal amounts of training would be given by the experimenter to those teachers.

The experimental manipulation occurred prior to viewing the 12-minute experimental tape. Each subject from each of the expectation groups (EDE, LDE, EMRE, NrE, and NoE) was given a trait description disguised as a summary report taken from the target child's cumulative folder (Appendix F). The wording of each summary was similar except for key phrases. The teacher from EDE group was given a summary report which described the target child as having a history of being emotionally disturbed. The teacher from the LDE group was given a descriptive summary which described the target child

as learning disabled. The descriptive summary presented to the teacher from the EMRE group stated that the target child performed within the educable range of mental retardation. The teacher from the NrE group received a summary report which described the target child as normal. The teacher in the NoE group received a summary report which appeared to be similar to the summary reports of the teachers in the other groups. Instead of containing key phrases, the NoE summary report stated that the information is not available at this time. In addition to the trait descriptions, each summary report also contained IQ scores, achievement test scores, and achievement level of classroom performance which were typical for each trait label.

Again the experimenter emphasized the importance of no further comments and no further questions. The experimenter instructed subjects to read silently the description of the target child, in a very careful manner. The experimenter explained that five minutes would be allowed for careful reading and re-reading of the summary description so that teachers could have a good understanding of the child whose behavior they were about to record. The experimenter explained that cumulative folders contain very valuable information and that just as it was important to be very familiar with the valuable information contained in cumulative folders of the actual children in their own classrooms, it was extremely

important to become very familiar with the descriptive information which they had just been presented. After the last comments by the experimenter, five minutes of silence were given to allow the teachers to read and become familiar with the child's history.

After the five minutes passed, the experimenter showed the 12-minute experimental tape to acquaint all subjects with the child. No behavioral recordings occurred during this initial 12-minute presentation. The experimenter instructed the subjects to relax while viewing the tape. The experimenter then presented the various tasks in the Latin square order for that particular group. Teachers remained silent during the experimental period, according to instructions.

The order of presentation of various tasks for each group was previously determined by a replicated Latin square design. All possible orders which resulted from the Latin square ordering were used, one for each subject in each condition.

At the end of the procedure for each group, a brief questionnaire was administered to each teacher, to determine whether they remembered the original trait label and to assess suspicion regarding the purpose of the study (Appendix G).

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Check on Independent Variable

To determine whether the teachers remembered the expectancy information contained in the cumulative folder summary reports, a questionnaire was administered at the end of the experimental session (see Appendix H). Five of the teachers who received the Emotionally Disturbed expectancy checked "Emotionally Disturbed," and one teacher checked "I was not given a label for the child" on the Teacher Questionnaire. Of the six teachers who received the Learning Disabled expectancy, five teachers checked "Learning Disabled," and one teacher checked "I was not given a label for the child" on the Teacher Questionnaire. Of the six teachers who received the Educable Mentally Retarded expectancy, five teachers checked "Educable Mentally Retarded," and one teacher checked "I was not given a label for the child." Of the six teachers who received the Normal expectancy, three teachers checked "Normal," two teachers checked "I was not given a label for the child," and one teacher checked "Learning Disabled," on the Teacher Questionnaire. All six teachers who were told that "No information is available at this time" checked, "I was not given a label for the child." Thus, of the thirty teachers, twenty-four correctly indicated the expectancy label that had been given to them.

Accuracy of Teachers' Behavioral Recordings after Training

The accuracy of the teachers' behavioral recordings following training was calculated on the fourth 6-minute segment of training tape. Accuracy was calculated by comparing each subject's coding of the target behaviors with the criterion coding which had been established for the Stony Brook tapes. The formula used to calculate accuracy was: $\frac{\text{intervals of agreement}}{\text{all intervals}}$. Based on this formula, an accuracy score in the form of percentage data was obtained.

Accuracy was calculated both for the interval as a whole and for each individual target behavior. In calculating accuracy for the interval as a whole, the recordings for all three target behaviors within each interval had to agree with the criterion coding. Accuracy was also calculated for each individual target behavior separately by comparing the subject's coding of each target behavior with the criterion coding.

To determine if there was a significant difference among groups when accuracy was calculated for the interval as a whole, a one-way analysis of variance was performed on the percentage data, following arcsine transformation. The means are presented in Table 1. There was no significant main effect for groups, $F(4, 25) = 0.79, p < .01$ (Table 2).

In order to determine whether there was a significant difference in the accuracy of teachers' recordings at the end of training for each behavior considered separately, a

3 (behaviors) x 5 (groups) analysis of variance was performed on the percentage accuracy scores of each teacher. An arcsine transformation of percentage data was performed prior to the analysis of variance. The analysis indicated only a significant main effect for target behaviors, $F(2, 50) = 7.197, p < .01$ (Table 3). The means for observer accuracy are shown in Table 1. The means were compared by means of a Scheffe' test. The results indicated that regardless of expectancy group, teachers recorded Playing more accurately than Orienting. Neither the main effect for teachers nor the teacher x behaviors interaction was significant.

Dependent Variable 1: Objective Behavioral Recordings

It was hypothesized that teacher observations of behavior would not be biased, that is, the objective behavioral recordings of teachers would not differ significantly across groups. Since there were 24 observation intervals, the frequency with which each target behavior was recorded could range from 0-24. A 3 (behaviors) x 5 (groups) analysis of variance was calculated on the frequency with which each teacher recorded the three target behaviors. The analysis is summarized in Table 4. The analysis indicated a significant main effect for Target Behaviors, $F(2, 50) = 28.125, p < .01$. The means for each target behavior are reported in Table 1. The means were compared by means of a Scheffe' test. The results showed that regardless of expectancy groups, teachers

recorded the behavior of Playing more frequently than Out of Chair or Orienting. Neither the main effect for teachers nor the teacher x behavior interaction was significant. The results supported the hypothesis that teacher observations of behavior would not be biased.

Dependent Variable 2: Subjective Behavioral Ratings

It was hypothesized that teachers' subjective impressions would be biased, that is, the subjective behavioral ratings by teachers would differ significantly across groups. In order to test this hypothesis, a 3 (scales) x 5 (groups) analysis of variance was performed on the frequency with which each teacher marked items on each rating scale. Since there were 10 items comprising each scale, the frequency could range from 0-10. The analysis is summarized in Table 5. The analysis indicated a significant main effect for Groups, $F(4, 25) = 2.933, p < .05$. The means for each scale are shown in Table 1. The Scheffe' post hoc comparison among the group means failed to identify groups that differed significantly. However, an assumption can be made that the two most extreme means differed significantly, that is, the Learning Disabled expectancy group (4.389) differed significantly from the Normal expectancy group (1.945).

The analysis of variance also indicated a significant main effect for Ratings, $F(2, 50) = 6.043, p < .01$, indicating a significant difference across rating scales for the number of items marked. The means were compared by means of

a Scheffe test. The results showed that the number of items marked on the Learning Disabled rating scale was significantly higher than the number of items marked on the Emotionally Disturbed rating scale at the .05 level.

Most importantly, the results of the analysis of variance also revealed a significant Groups x Rating Scales interaction, $F(8, 50) = 3.128, p < .01$. The interaction is depicted graphically in Figure 1. In comparing the means between groups at each level of the rating scales, the Scheffe' test indicated that on the Educable Mentally Retarded rating scale, the Educable Mentally Retarded expectancy group marked a significantly greater number of items than either the Normal Expectation group or the No Expectation group at the .05 level. On the Educable Mentally Retarded rating scale, it was also found that the Learning Disabled expectancy group marked significantly more items than either the Normal Expectancy group or the No Expectation group at the .05 level. No other means were significantly different on the Educable Mentally Retarded rating scale. The results suggest that the teachers in the Learning Disabled and Educable Mentally Retarded expectancy groups similarly marked more items from the Educable Mentally Retarded Scale as descriptive of the target child.

The Scheffe' test indicated that on the Learning Disabled Rating scale, the Learning Disabled, the Emotionally Disturbed, and the Educable Mentally Retarded expectancy groups marked

significantly more items than the Normal Expectancy group at the .05 level. The results suggest that the teachers in the Learning Disabled, the Emotionally Disturbed, and the Educable Mentally Retarded expectancy groups marked more items from the Learning Disabled scale as descriptive of the target child.

On the Emotionally Disturbed rating scale, the Emotionally Disturbed expectancy group marked a significantly greater number of items than the Educable Mentally Retarded expectancy group at the .05 level. No other mean comparisons were significant on the Emotionally Disturbed rating scale.

In comparing the means between rating scales for each group, the Scheffe' means comparison test indicated that the No Expectancy group marked a significantly greater number of Learning Disabled items than Educable Mentally Retarded items at the .05 level. The Educable Mentally Retarded expectancy group marked a significantly greater number of Educable Mentally Retarded items and Learning Disabled items than Emotionally Disturbed items at the .05 level. No other mean comparisons were significant in comparing the means between rating scales for each group.

In summary, teachers who received labels of exceptionality marked more items on the rating scales than teachers who received expectancies of Normal and No Expectation (Table 3). For all three rating scales, the group receiving the expectancy label that matched that particular rating scale, indicated that

more items from the respective rating scale were descriptive of the target child than had at least some other expectancy group.

Dependent Variable 3: Scoring of Academic Performance

It was hypothesized that teachers' scoring of academic material would be biased, that is, a significant difference across experimental groups in scoring academic material was predicted. A one-way analysis of variance was performed on the frequency of errors each teacher had marked on the academic material. The analysis is summarized in Table 6. The means are presented in Table 3. There was no main effect for expectancy groups. The results failed to support the hypothesis of bias effects on teachers' subjective scoring of academic performance. There was a large variability within each group in scoring the academic material. In the Emotionally Disturbed expectancy group, the number of errors circled ranged from 40-171; in the Learning Disabled expectancy group, the range was 52-179; in the Educable Mentally Retarded expectancy group the range was 24-216; in the Normal expectancy group the range was 21-243; and in the No Expectation group the range was 42-174. In the marking of errors on the academic material some teachers circled entire words, some teachers circled each individual letter, and some teachers used a combination of circling individual letters and circling entire words. For purposes of this analysis, each circle was counted as an error.

Summary

The results of this study confirmed two predictions. Teachers' behavioral ratings unlike behavioral recordings were influenced by the expectancy label assigned to the target child. Contrary to prediction, the teachers' scoring of academic performance was not influenced by the expectancy labels.

Teachers' behavioral ratings and teachers' grading of academic work are important areas for investigating the effects of expectancy on teacher judgments related to classroom management and instructional success. This study investigated these phenomena with independent observers. Further steps for the importance of this study is the fact that an increasing number of tests labels are being used in public education.

As mentioned earlier in this paper, behavioral psychology has been used in educational research and practice. However, the behavioral and cognitive and affective components of individual therapy, independent observers have been employed in behavioral research to record the behaviors of specific individuals in naturalistic settings. Research has indicated methodological problems related to the use of independent observers (Johnson & Golecki, 1971; Johnson & Golecki, 1974; O'Leary & Holt, 1971). These problems include observer reactivity, observer reactivity, and observer bias.

In the classroom setting, several researchers have suggested employing teachers as participant observers (Foster, Wallace, & Thomas, 1974; Spang & Skowron, 1971). The use

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present investigation was to examine the effects of trait labels on teachers' objective behavioral observations, teachers' behavioral ratings, and teachers' grading of academic work. One important reason for investigating the effects of expectancy on teacher judgments relates to the recent concern over observational problems with independent observers. Another reason for the importance of this study is the fact that an increasing number of trait labels are being used in public education.

As mentioned earlier in this paper, behavioral psychologists often utilize the natural environments of work locations, homes, and classrooms for conducting both research investigations and individual therapy. Independent observers have been employed in behavioral research to record the behaviors of specific individuals in naturalistic settings. Research has indicated methodological problems related to the use of independent observers (Johnson & Bolstad, 1973; Lipinski & Nelson, 1974; O'Leary & Kent, 1973). These problems include observee reactivity, observer reactivity, and observer bias.

In the classroom setting, several researchers have suggested employing teachers as participant observers (Foster, Keilitz, & Thomas, 1974; Kubany & Sloggett, 1973). The use

of teachers as observers in the classroom is, in fact, increasing in frequency. School psychologists often utilize teachers as observers for collecting baseline and treatment data to evaluate the effectiveness of their intervention programs. Given the increased use of teachers as data collectors, it is important to determine the effects of trait labels on their data collection.

Investigating the effects of expectancy on teacher judgments is also important because of the fact that an increasing number of trait labels are being used in public education. The use of categories and labels of exceptionality has received numerous criticisms based on concerns that the negative terminology and labels carry an expectancy which is transferred to the student who behaves according to expectancy (Schain, 1972). Furthermore, a teachers' expectancy for a child to succeed is reduced by labeling him "handicapped" (Dunn, 1968). Investigators have demonstrated the existence and retention of negative stereotyped expectations by teacher trainees (Foster, Ysseldyke, & Reese, 1975; Salvia, Clark, & Ysseldyke, 1973). Given the increased use of educational resources for exceptional children and the related increase in trait labels, it is important to determine how such labels affects teachers' observations, ratings, and grading practices.

Several studies in the behavioral literature had previously investigated the topic of observer bias. The present investigation differed from those studies in several ways: teachers served as subjects, teachers were given trait labels as expectancies of the same target child, and scoring of academic performance was an additional dependent variable.

On the basis of previous studies which have examined the effect of trait labels on both objective behavioral recordings and global subjective evaluations, it was predicted that teachers' objective behavioral recordings would not be biased and that teachers global subjective impressions would be biased. Both of these predictions were confirmed by the present study, consistent with the results of previous investigations. In studies employing college students as subjects, it previously was demonstrated that induced observer expectations resulted in unbiased objective behavioral recordings (Kent, 1972; Kent, O'Leary, Diament, & Dietz, 1974; Shuller & McNamara, 1976; Skindrud, 1972). The present investigation replicated these findings using as subjects teachers who were given differing trait labels for the same target child. One possible explanation for the fact that the objective behavioral recordings were not biased would be that teachers coded behaviors from video recordings with the knowledge that their accuracy would be checked. O'Leary and Kent (1973) stated that consistently high levels of inter-observer agreement are maintained with the use of video or audio recordings

of behavior with the knowledge that inter-observer agreement may be checked for any particular interval. The unbiased objective behavioral recordings could also be due to specific training in observation procedures which the teachers received. Still another explanation for the lack of bias effects on objective behavioral recordings would be that the nature of the task was explicit, that is, teachers were told specifically to attend to certain behaviors.

It also was demonstrated previously that subjective evaluations of behavior were biased by observer expectations (Foster, Ysseldyke, & Reese, 1975; Kent, O'Leary, Diament, & Dietz, 1974; Shuller & McNamara, 1976). The present investigation also replicated these findings utilizing as subjects teachers who were given differing trait labels for the same target child. Bias effects on teacher global subjective impressions was evidenced by the finding that teachers who received labels of exceptionality marked more items on the rating scales than teachers who received expectancies of Normal and No Expectation. Possible explanations for the bias effects on subjective evaluations of behavior would be that teachers were not trained in the use of the rating scales and the rating form was not worded as explicitly as the code definitions describing the target behaviors for the objective behavioral recordings.

The present investigation also hypothesized that teacher scoring of academic material would be biased. The results failed to support his hypothesis. Teachers were not

consistent in marking errors since some teachers circled entire words, some teachers circled individual printed letters, and some teachers used a combination of circling entire words and circling individual letters in their marking of errors on the academic material. The lack of homogeneity within experimental groups in scoring academic performance suggests that some teachers were strict and some were lenient in their marking of errors, regardless of expectancy group. These results suggest that the teachers' past learning history in relation to grading papers may have been more powerful than the trait labels in determining number of circled errors. Also, the teachers received no training in the scoring of academic material. The task deliberately was selected to be ambiguous and the experimenter instructed the teachers to rely on their past learning history in scoring the academic material.

All of the above results must be interpreted with caution since the present study was an analog study conducted in a laboratory setting. Therefore the results cannot be generalized to natural settings until research is conducted in these settings. Nonetheless the results of this study point the way to future research. One previous investigation which was conducted in the classroom and which examined the effectiveness of teachers as behavioral observers indicated that teacher observations produced reactive, unreliable, and unbiased results (Hay, Nelson, & Hay, 1977).

Conclusion

Given the above noted limitations, it is suggested that in order to obtain accurate information from teachers, school psychologists and educators should rely on observational data and homework sheets or other academic material which would be a sample of the students' classroom behavior, rather than on more global rating scales which may be more subject to bias.

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APPENDIX A

Observation Sheet Used During Training

Teacher's Name _____

Date _____

Training Tape Number: 1 2 3 4

(circle appropriate number)

P C O	P C O	P C O	P C O	P C O	P C O
----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------

P C O	P C O	P C O	P C O	P C O	P C O
----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------

Brief definitions

- (C) = Out of Chair: Observable movement of the child from his chair when not permitted or requested by teacher. None of the child's weight is to be supported by the chair, but the child may be in physical contact with the chair.
- (P) = Playing: Child uses his hands to play with his own or community property so that such behavior is incompatible with learning. Examples include playing with comb or toy car, drawing on self, shoving pencil back and forth on desk.
- (O) = Orienting: The turning or orienting response is not rated unless the child is seated and the turn must be more than 90 degrees, using the desk as a reference point.

Total Frequency

- C =
P =
O =

Accuracy = $\frac{\text{intervals of agreement}}{\text{total no. of intervals}}$

Accuracy =

APPENDIX B

Post-training Observation Sheet

Teacher's Name _____

Date _____

P C O	P C O	P C O	P C O	P C O	P C O
-------------	-------------	-------------	-------------	-------------	-------------

P C O	P C O	P C O	P C O	P C O	P C O
-------------	-------------	-------------	-------------	-------------	-------------

P C O	P C O	P C O	P C O	P C O	P C O
-------------	-------------	-------------	-------------	-------------	-------------

P C O	P C O	P C O	P C O	P C O	P C O
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Brief definitions

- (C) = Out of Chair: Observable movement of the child from his chair when not permitted or requested by teacher. None of the child's weight is to be supported by the chair, but the child may be in physical contact with the chair.
- (P) = Playing: Child uses his hands to play with his own or community property so that such behavior is incompatible with learning. Examples include playing with comb or toy car, drawing on self, shoving pencil back and forth on desk.
- (O) = Orienting: The turning or orienting response is not rated unless the child is seated and the turn must be more than 90 degrees, using the desk as a reference point.

Total Frequency

C =
P =
O =

APPENDIX C

Behavioral Rating Form

Instructions to teachers: Please circle "Yes" if you think the item applies to the child and circle "no" if you think the item does not apply to the child.

- | | | | |
|-----|----|----|---|
| Yes | No | 1. | Wade is a second grader who has difficulty keeping his place during oral reading. His handwriting is labored, the letters are very large and irregular, and he cannot write on the lines. His work is disorganized. He gives up easily and needs a lot of personal attention |
| Yes | No | 2. | Wade's achievement is approximately two years below expectation for his age of seven. He has great difficulty understanding and following directions and forgets them quickly. He seems to be weak in the area of social skills. |
| Yes | No | 3. | Wade, a seven year old, is very alert and imaginative; he is able to discuss a variety of topics intelligently, but he is unable to read. |
| Yes | No | 4. | Wade is a second grader who often becomes aggressive in class. His relationships with other children are usually quarrelsome and he is prone to get into trouble when left alone. |
| Yes | No | 5. | Wade repeated kindergarten because of his immaturity and is now having trouble doing his second grade work. If he is included in a group activity, he constantly teases the smaller children. He has to be watched constantly or he will destroy their work in a sadistic manner. |
| Yes | No | 6. | Wade, age seven, occasionally prints letters backwards, writes from right to left, and is restless in class. His parents are concerned that he is still on reading readiness material rather than in a reading group like his classmates. |

- Yes No 7. Wade has made a poor adjustment to his second grade class despite his capability for learning. He has difficulty participating in group functions because he is so mischievous. He often fails to respond to discipline.
- Yes No 8. Wade, age seven, is a second grade repeater with above average potential; he has great difficulty remembering material presented in a visual manner and, in spite of a great deal of remedial reading instruction, remains a non-reader.
- Yes No 9. Wade is a seven year old with a history of late development. He sat up at age two, he had no recognizable speech until age four, he learned to walk at age four, and he was late in getting toilet trained.
- Yes No 10. Wade's achievement is below that of his second grade classmates. He is moody, and a loner who is continually seeking attention and testing adults to see if they like him. At home he has displayed physical violence, but never at school.
- Yes No 11. Wade beat another second grader so severely that minor surgery was required. He has bitten a number of his classmates and has to be supervised constantly.
- Yes No 12. Wade is a seven year old who was delayed in sitting up, crawling, and walking. He has limited communication skills. He has occasional accidents due to poor bowel and bladder control, has messy eating habits, and is very susceptible to upper respiratory infections.
- Yes No 13. Wade seems unable to perform the academic requirements of his second grade class, particularly in mathematics and language. He has a cheerful compliant personality. He works best on a concrete level.
- Yes No 14. Wade is a seven year old who does little work in school. He is capable of verbal and physical attacks on anyone when angry. He doesn't seem to care about any school relationships and neither threats nor praise are effective in dealing with him.

- Yes No 15. Wade, age seven, doesn't seem to acquire new skills as quickly as most; he needs to have instructions repeated several times. He has difficulty working individually and needs a great deal of encouragement and supervision.
- Yes No 16. Wade is new to his present second grade class. He seems anxious while he is in school, but is much calmer as soon as he leaves the school grounds. His schoolwork is slightly below average, but he is quite responsive if encouraged.
- Yes No 17. Wade, a seven year old, has difficulty keeping up with his class in all subjects. He is very large for his age and quite immature socially. He has a noticeable speech problem.
- Yes No 18. Wade is a seven year old of average ability who wants desperately to learn to read, but even though he has had remedial instruction, he is virtually a non-reader. He disturbs other children by humming to himself much of the time. Although he is frustrated in most academic endeavors, he does very well in experiments and class discussions in science and on all oral tests.
- Yes No 19. Wade is a seven year old who disrupts group tasks and refuses to go with his class to lunch or gym. At recess he plays with older children from other classes since his own classmates won't play with him. Although he seems to like his teacher and has above average potential, he seldom completes his work in a satisfactory manner.
- Yes No 20. Wade is a seven year old who is extremely immature in all areas. He is not able to do any of the tasks that are expected of a second grader. His speech is primarily limited to one or two word utterances. He has a negative approach to school.
- Yes No 21. Wade is a soft spoken seven year old. He has trouble understanding even simple directions and often chooses to ignore them. He usually cannot do assigned work and reacts by crying or distracting other children.

- Yes No 22. Wade is a second grader who was retained in first grade. His performance is low in all subjects, but he appears fairly capable. He is lethargic, passive, and non-reactive, seeming to lack emotional responsiveness. He still checks each letter when copying a word and often confuses letters and whole words.
- Yes No 23. Wade is a second grader who wants friends, but his classmates continually make him a scapegoat. Although he is apparently bright, he is very forgetful and seems unaware of what is expected by his teacher.
- Yes No 24. Wade, age seven, is a good student in all areas except mathematics which is a constant frustration to him, he is unable to deal successfully with the most basic arithmetic concepts.
- Yes No 25. Wade is a very friendly seven year old who has recently learned to print his name. His speech skills are on a very immature level. He has mastered some self-help skills.
- Yes No 26. Wade continually disrupts his second grade class. He seems to be angry much of the time and often bullies other children. Although he is of average potential, he doesn't have much interest in his studies.
- Yes No 27. Wade is a very articulate second grader with many interests. He works very slowly, particularly in reading. He is weak in phonetic analysis, can't seem to retain reading skills, and any academic growth on his part depends on a great deal of drill.
- Yes No 28. Wade, age seven, is only slightly slower than his average classmates, but he is clumsy and other students have nicknamed him "Wade the dunce".
- Yes No 29. Wade is a seven year old whose academic performance is well below what is expected for his age. He has messy eating habits, he has poor bladder control, and he has very poor motor coordination.

Yes No 30. Wade is a seven year old second grader who was retained in first grade. His attention span is short and many of his interests are immature. His motivation for classroom work is very low, but improves markedly in a one-to-one relationship. He has difficulty with reading, spelling, and arithmetic concepts. His oral performance indicates that he is far more able than his written work would indicate.

Can a little bug be a friend? Yes, it really can.

One bug that is a good friend is the ladybug. On many days, you may find many ladybugs on trees or flowers or on your window. Ladybugs can be found almost anywhere.

A ladybug's back shines like a new penny. The back may be black or red or golden. It has little spots on it.

APPENDIX D

Academic Material

Ladybug, Ladybug

Can a little bug be a friend? Yes, it really can.

One bug that is a good friend is the ladybug. On sunny days, you may find many ladybugs on trees or flowers or on your window. Ladybugs can be found almost anywhere.

A ladybug's back shines like a new penny. The back may be black or red or golden. It has little spots on it.

APPENDIX E

Behavior Code

Playing--symbol = P

- Purpose: Playing is intended to monitor often subtle manipulative behavior that is distracting to the child and possibly also distracting to others.
- Description: Child uses his hands to play with his own or community property, so that such behavior is incompatible (or would be incompatible) with learning.
- Critical Points: Child uses his hands to manipulate his own or community property.
- Includes: Playing with toy car when assignment is spelling. Playing with comb or pocket book. Eating only when the hands are being used--chewing gum is not rated as P unless child touches or manipulates it with his hands. Poking holes in workbook. Cleaning nails with pencil. Drawing on self. Manipulating pencil in such a manner as to make the behavior incompatible with learning, e.g., showing pencil back and forth on desk; waving pencil through air as an airplane. Picking scabs, nails, or nose if the desired "object" is separated from the body and manipulated. Looking into desk and moving arms, but does not come out with a task-related object. Working with or reading non-task related material, e.g., reading page 25 when told to read page 1, doing math when told to do spelling, etc.
- Excludes: Touching others' property. Playing with own clothes.
- Note: Include if article is removed from body, e.g., shoes, tie, buttons, scarf, etc., and is manipulated.

Lifting desk or chair with feet (rate N if this creates audible noise). Random banging of pencil on desk (rate N if audible). Simple twiddling pencil if it is not seen as being incompatible with learning.

Note: Rate twiddling pencil, banging pencil, or putting pencil in mouth, hair, behind ear, etc., if child attends to such behavior and ceases attending to assigned task. Operational definition of attending: child either looks at manipulated object or begins to manipulate object in non-random patterns for more than 5 seconds.

Picking scabs, nails, or nose if the desired "object" is not separate from the body.

Orienting Response--symbol = 0

Purpose: Orienting is intended to monitor the gross motor behavior of turning around from the designated point of reference. Such behavior is distracting to child since it usually precludes attending to assigned task, and is often distracting to others.

Description: Child turning more than 90 degrees from point of reference while seated.

Critical Points: The child must be in his seat; he may be in a modified position; and orienting includes both the horizontal and vertical axis.

Includes: Turning to the person behind. Looking to the rear of the room. Turning around in chair or turning chair around. Leaning back in chair more than 90 degrees.

Note: Point of reference is typically child's desk, but may be the teacher if the children are directed to attend to her. If child should turn desk at some angle, point of reference becomes where desk was originally, not to where the child has moved it. Also, the child's chin

should be used as the indicator of how far he has turned. Therefore, orienting is noted when child's chin has turned more than 90 degrees from point of reference.

Excludes:

Orienting during class discussion when the teacher directs (either implicitly or explicitly) the class to attend to a child's explication of an answer. Orienting while picking up a task related object. When child is in corner or otherwise out of his chair.

Time limits on the following beginning with teacher's permission. Allow 15 seconds for a child to get from the teacher's desk to his seat. Allow 15 seconds for a child to return to his own seat after completing a task (i.e., placing a work card on the wall). Facial sharpening - 15 mins. Making a drink - 15 mins. Mountain in school. Getting a book - 15 mins. Time limit starts from the second that the child gets out of seat. Going to the bathroom (A) 2 min. limit. (B) 30 sec limit begins when child leaves bathroom.

Notes: If the child returns to the chair after 15 (or 30) mins. where applicable, but during the 10 sec inter-interval period, the "0" will be recorded in the 20 sec interval just prior to the 15 sec interval.

Going to get a reading book during a math lesson. When child is fully standing and the back of legs touch chair, or child is fully standing and is touching back of chair with hands. Going

Out of Chair--symbol = C

Purpose: Out of chair is intended to monitor the gross motor behavior of the child removing himself from his seat entirely. Such behavior (when not permitted) may interfere with the child's learning and is potentially distracting to others, e.g., running around the room.

Description: Observable movement of the child from his chair when not permitted or requested by teacher. None of the child's weight is to be supported by the chair, but the child may be in physical contact with the chair.

Critical Points: None of the child's weight is to be supported by the chair.

Includes: Child is leaning on desk and has either lost all contact with the chair or none of his weight is actually being supported by the chair.

Time limits on the following beginning with teacher's permission. Allow 15 seconds for a child to get from the teacher's desk to his own. Allow 15 seconds for a child to return to his own seat after completing a task (i.e., placing a word card on the wall). Pencil sharpening - 1½ mins. Getting a drink - 1½ mins. (fountain in room). Getting a book - 1½ mins. (time limit starts from the second that the child gets out of seat). Going to the bathroom: (A) 2 min. limit, (B) 30 sec limit beginning when child leaves bathroom.

Note: If the child returns to the chair after 1½ (or 2 mins. where applicable), but during the 10 sec inter-interval period, the "0" will be recorded in the 20 sec interval just prior to the 10 sec interval.

Going to get a reading book during a math lesson. When child is full standing and the back of legs touch chair, or child is fully standing and is touching back of chair with hands. Going

to teacher's desk when not permitted. Throwing away papers. Stretching (if child actually leaves seat).

Excludes:

Retrieval of an accidentally dropped task-related object. Leaning forward to pick up an object even if all contact with the chair is momentarily lost, providing the child is not standing fully erect on feet. Include if child begins crawling around on floor after retrieving object, also, include if child is moving from desk in a crouched position, so as not to let the teacher see him, etc.

Following are the results of intelligence and achievement

tests administered in the first grade:

Wichitan Intelligence Scale for Children-revised (WISC-R)

Full scale IQ score Range: Average (100-120)

Wide Range Achievement Test (WRAT)

Subject	Grade Equivalent
Reading	8.7
Spelling	8.8
Arithmetic	8.7

APPENDIX F

Cumulative Folder Summary Report

Wade has just entered the second grade in a local school. He moved to Greensboro with his parents, two brothers, and one sister. He attended kindergarten and first grade in Jacksonville, Florida, where he was placed in a special class for emotionally disturbed children. His classroom performance was very erratic but usually below grade level compared to other children of his own age.

Following are the results of intelligence and achievement testing administered in the first grade.

Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Revised (WISC-R):

Full Scale IQ Score Range: Average (90-109)

Wide Range Achievement Test (WRAT):

<u>Subtests</u>	<u>Grade Equivalent</u>
Reading	Kg. 7
Spelling	Kg. 8
Arithmetic	Kg. 7

Cumulative Folder Summary Report

Wade has just entered the second grade in a local school. He moved to Greensboro with his parents, two brothers, and one sister. He attended kindergarten and first grade in Jacksonville, Florida, where he was placed in a Learning Disability classroom during the morning and regular classroom situation in the afternoon. His classroom performance was below grade level compared to other children of his own age.

Following are the results of intelligence and achievement testing administered in the first grade.

Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Revised (WISC-R):

Full Scale IQ Score Range: Average (90-109)

Wide Range Achievement Test (WRAT):

<u>Subtests</u>	<u>Grade Equivalent</u>
Reading	Kg. 5
Spelling	Kg. 6
Arithmetic	Kg. 9

Cumulative Folder Summary Report

Wade has just entered the second grade in a local school. He moved to Greensboro with his parents, two brothers, and one sister. He attended kindergarten and first grade in Jacksonville, Florida, where he was placed in a self-contained EMR classroom situation. His classroom performance was below grade level compared to other children of his own age.

Following are the results of intelligence and achievement testing administered in the first grade.

Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Revised (WISC-R):

Full Scale IQ Score Range: Borderline (70-79);

Educable Mentally Retarded (EMR) (50-75)

Wide Range Achievement Test (WRAT):

<u>Subtests</u>	<u>Grade Equivalent</u>
Reading	Kg. 1
Spelling	Kg. 1
Arithmetic	Kg. 2

Cumulative Folder Summary Report

Wade has just entered the second grade in a local school. He moved to Greensboro with his parents, two brothers, and one sister. He attended kindergarten and first grade in Jacksonville, Florida, where he was placed in a regular classroom situation. His classroom performance was on grade level compared to other children of his own age.

Following are the results of intelligence and achievement testing administered in the first grade.

Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Revised (WISC-R):

Full Scale IQ Score Range: Average (90-109)

Wide Range Achievement Test (WRAT):

<u>Subtests</u>	<u>Grade Equivalent</u>
Reading	1.5
Spelling	1.6
Arithmetic	1.5

Cumulative Folder Summary Report

Wade has just entered the second grade in a local school. He moved to Greensboro with his parents, two brothers, and one sister. He attended kindergarten and first grade in Jacksonville, Florida. Since all of his records have not yet arrived from Florida, no information is available at this time regarding his history of classroom performance, results of previous intelligence testing, and results of achievement testing.

- Mentally Retarded
- Learning Disabled
- Specific Learning Disability
- Other
- I was not given a label for this child.

2. What do you think was the purpose of this study?

APPENDIX G

Teacher Questionnaire

Teacher's Name _____

Date _____

1. Please place a check () beside the category which applies to the information given to you before viewing the last video tape.

I was informed that Wade is:

- Emotionally Disturbed
- Learning Disabled
- Educable Mentally Retarded
- Normal
- I was not given a label for the child.

2. What do you think was the purpose of this study?

Table 1

Means for Observer Accuracy, Objective Behavioral Recordings,
Subjective Behavioral Ratings, and
Scoring of Academic Performance

Group ^a	LDE	NrE	EDE	EMRE	NoE	Mean
Observer Accuracy						
Target Behaviors						
Playing	.93	.97	.91	.97	.91	.94
Out of Chair	.86	.86	.88	.88	.92	.88
Orienting	.87	.86	.74	.84	.89	.84
Mean	.89	.91	.85	.90	.91	
Objective Behavioral Recordings						
Target Behaviors						
Playing	9.333	9.500	7.667	7.500	6.833	8.167
Out of Chair	3.333	3.167	4.000	3.167	3.833	3.500
Orienting	4.333	4.167	5.000	3.833	5.167	4.500
Mean	5.667	5.611	5.556	4.833	5.278	
Subjective Behavioral Ratings						
Rating Scales						
EMR	5.000	1.500	3.833	5.000	1.833	3.433
LD	5.000	1.833	5.167	4.333	3.833	4.033
ED	3.167	2.500	3.833	1.000	2.667	2.633
Mean	4.389	1.945	4.278	3.444	2.778	
Scoring of Academic Performance						
Errors Indicated	109.333	160.500	109.500	91.667	88.833	

^a $\bar{n} = 6$ for each group

Table 2

Summary of Analysis of Variance: Accuracy of Teachers' Behavioral Recordings after Training (Whole Interval)

Source	df	MS	F
Groups (G)	4	0.165	0.789
Subj. w. groups	25	0.208	
Target behaviors (T)	2	0.204	1.017
T x G	8	0.200	1.004
Subj. w. groups	25	0.208	
T x Subj. w. groups	50	0.207	

Table 3

Summary of Analysis of Variance: Accuracy of Teachers'
 Behavioral Recordings after Training
 (Each Behavior Separately)

Source	df	MS	F
Groups (G)	4	0.104	0.314
Target Behaviors (T)	2	0.854	7.197*
G x T	8	0.966	0.814
Subj. w. groups	25	0.331	
T x Subj. w. groups	50	0.119	

* $p < .01$

Table 4
 Summary of Analysis of Variance:
 Teachers' Objective Behavioral Recordings

Source	df	MS	F
Groups (G)	4	2.139	0.294
Target Behaviors (T)	2	181.111	28.125*
G x T	8	4.556	0.707
Subj. w. groups	25	7.287	
T x Sub. w. groups	50	6.440	

* $p < .01$

Table 5
Summary of Analysis of Variance:
Teachers' Subjective Behavioral Ratings

Source	df	MS	F
Groups (G)	4	19.128	2.933*
Ratings (R)	2	14.800	6.043**
G x R	8	7.661	3.128**
Subj. w. groups	25	6.522	
R x Subj. w. groups	50	2.449	

*p <.05

**p <.01

Table 6
 Summary of Analysis of Variance:
 Scoring of Academic Performance

Source	df	MS	F
Between groups	4	4973.613	1.493
Within groups	25	4327.535	

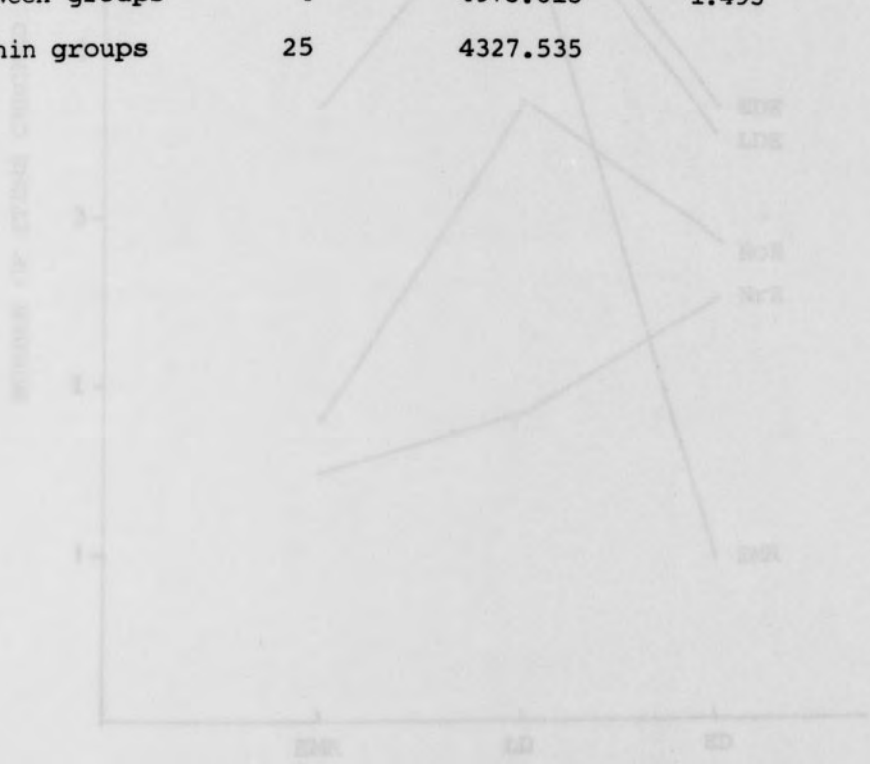


Figure 1. Groups x Rating Scales Interaction.
 Mean number of items checked on the
 three rating scales by each expectancy
 group.

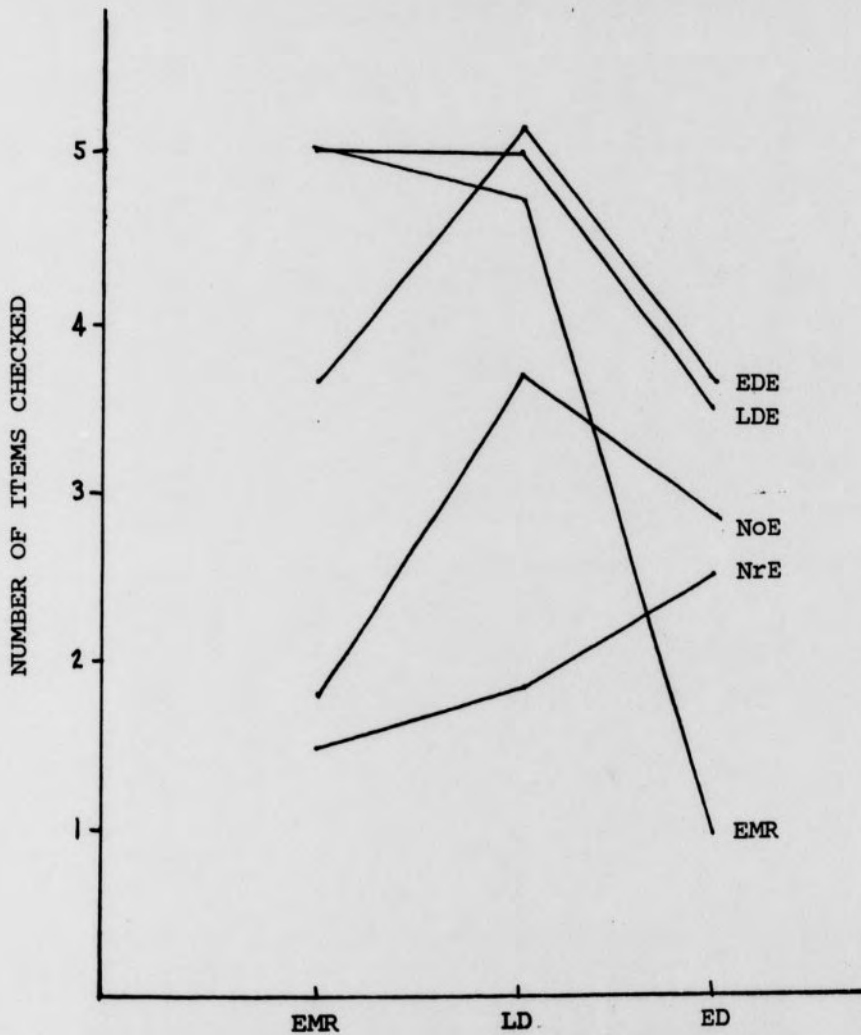


Figure 1. Groups x Rating Scales Interaction. Mean number of items checked on the three rating scales by each expectancy group.