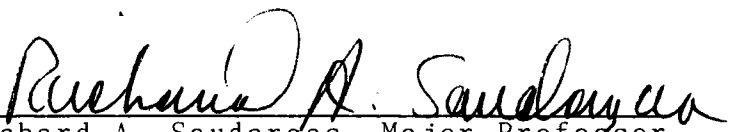
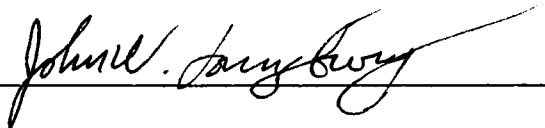


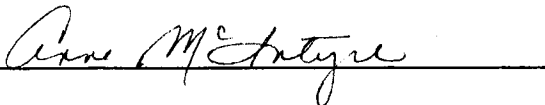
To the Graduate Council:

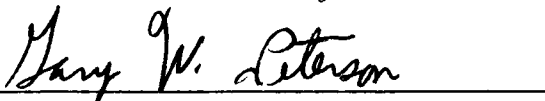
I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Melinda Dukes entitled "The Impact of the Learning Disabilities Label upon Teachers' Evaluations." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Psychology.


Richard A. Saudargas, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:







Accepted for the Council:


Vice Provost
and Dean of The Graduate School

THE IMPACT OF THE LEARNING DISABILITIES
LABEL UPON TEACHERS' EVALUATIONS

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Melinda Dukes

June 1987

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my parents, Mr. and Mrs. John H. Dukes, and to my husband, Dr. Jafar Alavi. Their continuous support and bountiful love gave me the motivation to complete this project.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I thank each member of the dissertation committee for their guidance and support in the completion of this dissertation. Dr. Anne McIntyre, Dr. John Lounsbury, and Dr. Gary Peterson were instrumental in providing me with feedback and advice. To my mentor and Major Professor, Dr. Richard A. Saudargas, I extend respect and appreciation for his expertise, direction, and friendship. Although the assistance of my committee members was vital for the completion of this dissertation, I maintain complete responsibility for its contents.

Throughout this past year, many individuals have unselfishly given of their friendship, time, and energy to help me with the dissertation research. Laura Wadlington, Gayle Fellers, and Dr. Betty Noble helped me synthesize my understanding of the research literature and gave me invaluable feedback for conducting the experiment. Linda Hoopes graciously gave to me the statistical assistance which was necessary for understanding the research data.

The actual experiment could not have taken place without the data collection assistance of Dr. Saudargas, Ms. Wadlington, Ms. Fellers, Rod Vaughn, Karen Fulmer, Gina Willbanks, Susan Rich, Michelle McLeary, Sandy Elder, Ruth Brower, John Davis, and my husband, Jafar. To each of these kind souls I am forever grateful.

I also thank Dr. John McCook of the Knoxville City School System for his assistance in recruiting schools. The principals of each school were helpful and supportive, and great appreciation is extended to the teachers who took precious time to participate in the experiment.

Three special friends have facilitated my personal growth in many areas including psychology, provision of services to special needs persons, and child development. Dr. Della Hann and Mr. Bob Castino have given their love and knowledge of psychology and children to me over the last four years. I will always remember our late night conversations, battles with the cats, doughnut hunts, and spontaneous adventures. To Dr. Debra Martin Petty, I extend thanks for her warm friendship, the sharing of her home and family, and the sharing of her knowledge about the needs of the exceptional person.

Finally, to Sosha I give thanks for her companionship during the many hours I spent in my office.

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the impact of teacher and child classroom behaviors upon teacher bias generated by the learning disabilities (LD) label. Eighty elementary school teachers were randomly assigned to three different independent variables in a crossed design: 1) Test Sensitization (pretest/posttest vs. posttest only); 2) Expectation (LD vs. normal); and 3) Instructional Mode (large group teacher-led vs. individual seatwork). After watching one of two videotapes which showed six children and a teacher in a classroom setting, the teachers completed two dependent measures. These were the Classroom Behavior Inventory, a global child characteristic measure, and the State Event Classroom Observation System - Teacher, a precise retrospective observation measure.

The results clearly demonstrated that the teachers who were given the LD expectation did not significantly rate the identified child on either videotape more negatively than did those teachers who were given the normal expectation. It was the instructional mode variable, instead of the expectation variable, which did significantly influence the teachers' responses on both measures. The influence of the instructional mode variable suggests that the teachers were sensitive to the child's behavior and evaluated the child accordingly. In conclusion, the results of the current

study suggest that teachers, when exposed to teacher and child classroom behaviors, are not necessarily biased by the LD label. The data also illustrate that the bias did not negatively influence a precisely worded retrospective observation measure nor a global child characteristic measure.

These conclusions indicate that future research should focus on how teacher training and the characteristics of various student evaluation procedures influence the impact of bias. Further research should also be conducted to identify and investigate those child and teacher classroom behaviors which may influence bias. The present study illustrates that in certain circumstances the LD bias can be attenuated; however, replication with intact classrooms and certified LD children is necessary before specific conclusions can be made about label generated bias and its influence upon teachers and students.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

SECTION	PAGE
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Literature Review	4
Summary	20
Purpose	22
II. METHOD	25
Experimental Design	25
Subjects	25
Independent Variables	27
Dependent Variables	30
Procedure	34
III. RESULTS	40
Data Analysis	40
Dependent Variable 1: CBI	44
Dependent Variable 2: SECOS-T	50
IV. DISCUSSION	60
LIST OF REFERENCES	73
APPENDICES	79
APPENDIX A. CASE SUMMARIES FOR LEARNING DISABLED AND NORMAL EXPECTANCIES	80
APPENDIX B. CBI	83
APPENDIX C. SECOS-T FOR LARGE GROUP AND INDIVIDUAL SEATWORK SETTINGS	86
APPENDIX D. PRETEST INSTRUCTIONS	91

SECTION	PAGE
APPENDIX E. POSTTEST INSTRUCTIONS	100
APPENDIX F. EVALUATION INSTRUMENT	103
APPENDIX G. SECOS-T FREQUENCIES FOR LARGE GROUP INSTRUCTIONAL MODE TAPE	106
APPENDIX H. SECOS-T FREQUENCIES FOR INDIVIDUAL SEATWORK INSTRUCTIONAL MODE TAPE ...	110
APPENDIX I. COMPARISONS BETWEEN SECOS-T RESPONSES AND CRITERIA DATA FOR THE LARGE GROUP AND INDIVIDUAL SEATWORK INSTRUCTIONAL MODES	114
VITA	129

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		PAGE
1.	Number of Participating Subjects by Grade Taught	26
2.	Number of Subjects Per Cell for the Instructional Mode, Expectation, and Test Sensitization Variables	35
3.	Frequency Count of Teachers' Responses to Item 3 of the Evaluation Instrument	38
4.	Average Number of "0" Responses per CBI Pretest and Posttest Scales	42
5.	Number and Percent of Subjects with Usable Data for Pretest and Posttest CBI Scales	43
6.	Matched-Pairs t Tests for CBI Scale- Distractibility	48
7.	Matched-Pairs t Tests for CBI Scale- Orientation to Task	48

I. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this research was to investigate the impact of labeling upon teachers' evaluations of student behavior. Specifically, this study investigated the impact of the learning disabilities (LD) label upon teachers' evaluations of a student's behavior. Two research questions were pursued. The first question investigated how normal classroom behavior influences teacher bias, and the second investigated the differential impact of the LD label upon two methods of evaluating student behavior.

Concern about labeling involves the potential negative impact of special education labels upon a child's behavior. One body of research has shown that special education labels such as LD (Jacobs, 1978; Sutherland & Algozzine, 1979) contribute to the negative attitudes and/or lowered expectations of teachers (Taylor, Smiley, & Ziegler, 1983). An example of how a label could have negative impact upon a child's behavior is represented by the self-fulfilling prophecy model (Dunn, 1968; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968). In this model a child's behavior becomes consistent with that expected of him/her by a teacher. Foster, Ysseldyke, and Reece (1975) proposed that teachers form expectancies of children based upon test scores, labeling, etc. The labeling, which results from special education procedures, lowers the teacher's expectancy of the identified child.

The lowered expectancy is then communicated, via teacher-child interactions, to the child resulting in the child's behavior becoming consistent with the expectations.

Foster et al. (1975) pointed out that even if the lowered expectation is not actually communicated to the child, it may have a deleterious impact upon the teacher's ability to evaluate and interpret objectively the child's behavior. Lacking objective information about the child, the teachers' effectiveness in planning instruction would be diminished. Jacobs (1978) addressed this potential problem and pointed out that objective observations and evaluations are needed to modify educational procedures. A study by Richey, Miller, and Lessman (1981) supported this concern. The authors documented that teachers may actually send "mixed" expectation messages to LD students by praising them for irrelevant aspects of academic behavior (e.g., "You are working real hard.") while punishing appropriate school work behaviors. Richey et al. suggested that this pattern of teacher behavior may lead to students believing they are doing well academically when they are not.

Not all research, however, conclusively illustrates that negative biases are generated by labels. Yoshida and Meyers (1975), along with many others (e.g., Claiborn, 1969; Dusek & O'Connell, 1973; Gozali & Meyen, 1970; Jose & Cody, 1971) have suggested that expectancy biases do not result from special education labeling. These studies were unique

in that they incorporated various cues (e.g., extended teacher-student contact) upon which teachers could base their evaluations. Yoshida and Meyers proposed that the cues contained in the extended teacher-student contact permitted teachers to base expectations upon naturally occurring events rather than upon the label.

In addition to this research showing that a label may not generate lasting expectancy biases, a second branch of research questions the assumption that labels bias all methods teachers use to evaluate students. Several studies (e.g., Fogel & Nelson, 1983; Kent, O'Leary, Diament, & Dietz, 1974) have indicated that certain evaluation methods may be more susceptible to bias than others. Fogel and Nelson (1983) discovered, for example, that global child characteristic measures, but not concurrent behavior observations, are negatively biased by special education labels.

The present study pursued two major research questions. The first was to investigate the hypothesis that labels serve as bias-creating stimuli for teachers, and the second was the investigation of the differential impact of the LD label upon two methods of teacher-employed evaluations -- a global student characteristic measure and a retrospective behavior observation measure. Literature illustrating the current findings on both of these issues will be presented.

Literature Review

Labeling effects have been researched from many different perspectives. Studies have focused upon teacher expectations (e.g., Dusek & Joseph, 1983), attitudes of others toward various behaviors (e.g., Lewin, Nelson, & Tollefson, 1983; Safran & Safran, 1985), impact upon the one labeled (e.g., Schurr, Towne, & Joiner, 1972), and the consistency between teachers' ratings of children with direct observations of childrens' behaviors (e.g., Bolstad & Johnson, 1977; Nelson, 1971). The methodologies of these studies have included naturalistic observations within the classroom (e.g., Bolstad & Johnson, 1977), hypothetical case studies (e.g., Algozzine, Mercer, & Counterline, 1977; Algozzine & Sutherland, 1977; Foster, et al., 1975), and videotaped sequences of simulated child activities (e.g., Foster & Ysseldyke, 1976; Yoshida & Meyers, 1975). The common goal across these approaches has been to investigate the impact of special education labels upon a significant other's, usually the teacher's, perceptions of behavior.

Algozzine and Sutherland (1977) investigated the impact of two categorical labels, LD and emotionally disturbed (ED), upon undergraduate special education majors' ratings of the "disturbingness" of child behaviors and their willingness to accept the behaviors. Using a hypothetical case study of a child's behavioral, developmental, and academic history, subjects were randomly assigned to one of

four experimental conditions (i.e., LD boy, LD girl, ED boy, and ED girl) and were asked to rate how disturbing the child's behavior was to them. Examples of the behaviors included destructiveness, fighting, negativism, and disobedience. These behaviors have been associated with emotionally disturbed children and not with the learning disabled.

Results illustrated that the child's behavior was viewed as more disturbing and less acceptable when the case study was thought to be of an LD child. The authors suggested that since the behaviors were not expected of an LD child they were viewed as less acceptable. The results supported the hypothesis that the labeling process elicits expectations for behavior. Algozzine and Sutherland carried these findings further by asserting that these expectations, "...inhibit objective ratings of a child's specific strengths and weaknesses (p. 296)." Algozzine et al. (1977) addressed similar findings in terms of the "stimulus qualities" of the label. That is, the label had qualities which were stimuli for generating "restrictive tolerances," or expectations, for behavior. The end result being that a child having a particular label was expected to behave in a fashion consistent with the stimulus qualities of the label.

The validity of generalizing the findings by Algozzine and Sutherland (1977) and Algozzine et al. (1977) is limited by several methodological drawbacks. In addition to poor

descriptions of the subject samples and no representation of the population the findings were to represent (i.e., teachers), the studies did not reveal the impact of labels upon teachers' abilities to rate the occurrence of actual behavior. Teacher ability to rate and evaluate child behavior has been researched by studies which have employed videotapes of children. This use of videotapes constitutes an approach to the study of expectancy bias which differs from the case study methodology applied by Algozzine and his colleagues.

Two studies conducted by Foster and several colleagues used videotapes of child behavior in order to study label generated bias. The two studies, Foster, et al. (1975) and Foster and Ysseldyke (1976), used the same videotapes and followed similar research designs. The researchers in both studies randomly assigned their subjects to low and normal expectancy groups. The normal expectancy groups were told that the child they were about to see was normal while the low expectancy groups were told that the child had a special education label. The subjects were then asked to complete a global personality measure and a behavior rating scale for a hypothetical child matching their assigned expectancy. Next, the subjects watched a 12 minute videotape of a normal fourth grade boy engaged in assessment tasks and free play activities. Completing the same instruments after seeing the videotape concluded the experiment.

The two studies differed slightly. The Foster et al. (1975) research used undergraduate special education majors as subjects and investigated only the ED special education label. The Foster and Ysseldyke (1976) study, on the other hand, involved elementary grade teachers as subjects and investigated three different special education labels: educable mentally retarded (EMR), LD, and ED. By using teachers for subjects in the second study, Foster increased the generalizability of the results.

As expected, the findings of the two studies were very similar. Both found that the subjects' responses to the two instruments prior to seeing the tape were influenced by the assigned label. For example, all subjects gave lower scores on the personality measure and lower ratings on the behavioral measure if they had been told the hypothetical child had one of the low expectancy labels (e.g., LD or ED). The Foster and Ysseldyke (1976) study extended this finding by showing that the EMR label generated the most negative ratings on the behavioral measure.

The results of the posttest measures were also similar across the two studies. The ratings of subjects who had been given a special education label for the child were more negative than were those of the subjects who had been told the child was normal. As on the pretest behavior measures, Foster and Ysseldyke (1976) found that the posttest behavioral ratings of the EMR expectancy subjects were more

negative than the ratings of the other special education expectancy groups. Foster and Ysseldyke concluded that teachers are biased in their evaluations of students by special education labels and that special education labels generate different degrees of negative bias.

Another common finding across the two studies was that there was a significant change in the measures from pre- to posttesting. In the Foster et al. (1975) study, the subjects given a special education label were more positive on both measures after seeing the tape. Foster and Ysseldyke's (1976) findings differed somewhat from those of Foster et al. on two accounts. First, they found that only the teachers' behavior ratings became less negative after seeing the tape; the global personality measure did not change. Second, the authors found that teachers who had been given the normal expectancy significantly altered their posttest measures to be more negative than their pretest measures.

The authors concluded that the less negative scores and ratings of the special education expectancy groups after seeing the tape indicated that the subjects were sensitive to the child's normal behavior. However, the fact that these subjects continued to give ratings and scores that were more negative than the normal expectancy subjects documented that the subjects were influenced by the bias and the recognition of "normal" behavior. The change in the

normal expectancy subjects' measures was addressed as being a function of "unrealistically high" ratings by the group during pretesting. The initial high ratings indicated that the teachers viewed a hypothetical normal child as actually being above normal.

The generalizability of these findings is limited by the laboratory nature of the study. Specifically, the studies were limited in their validity because the videotaped sequence was of a single child in an assessment situation. This scenario has little resemblance to that of a classroom situation where the operation of a teacher expectation bias is most likely to occur. Foster and Ysseldyke (1976) proposed that in a real classroom situation involving teachers and children the bias effect might have been substantially reduced. Even though the authors addressed the laboratory weakness of their study, they failed to consider why the behavior checklist ratings, but not the global personality measure, changed significantly from pre- to posttesting.

Jacobs (1978) attempted to replicate Foster and Yesseldyke (1976) by using the same methodology and videotape segment. Jacobs tested the labeling hypothesis with elementary school teachers as subjects. Unlike Foster's research, Jacobs did not find a difference in the personality or behavior checklist ratings from pre- to posttesting; thus, Jacobs asserted that the teachers

attended only to the assigned label when evaluating the child by both procedures. This finding contradicted Foster and Ysseldyke (1976) who concluded that behavior rating measures were more sensitive to child behavior while global personality or characteristic measures were exclusively influenced by label generated biases.

Additional studies have attempted to resolve this conflict by investigating the differential impact of bias upon various evaluation methods. Work conducted by Fogel and Nelson (1983) directly investigated how special education labels differentially influence teacher-employed methods of evaluating students. The study was conducted along procedures very similar to those employed by Foster and his colleagues. Primary level teachers were assigned to one of five expectancy conditions: ED, LD, EMR, normal, and no expectation. The experimental manipulation was accomplished by written summaries describing a second grade boy. All summaries were similar except for key phrases and test scores included to establish the independent variable. For example, the LD expectation subjects read in their summaries that the child, "...was placed in [a] learning disability classroom during the morning and [a] regular classroom situation in the afternoon (p.243)." The groups viewed a 12 minute videotape of the identified child and a confederate who were doing various activities in a classroom setting.

Prior to the study, the tape was coded by trained observers using the O'Leary classroom behavior coding system (O'Leary, Kaufman, Kass, & Drabman, 1970) which provided data documenting the boys' behaviors on the tape.

The dependent variables of the study consisted of three methods teachers might use for collecting information about students. These were: 1) observational data on three behaviors the teachers were taught to code; 2) the scoring of a written paragraph supposedly produced by the identified child; and, 3) a child characteristic checklist. The checklist items described either LD, MR, or ED children.

Procedures included explaining to the subjects the observation code and giving them instructions for reading the case summaries. All subjects practiced coding the tape for three behaviors: playing, orienting, and out of seat. After five minutes to review the case summaries, the subjects twice viewed a 12 minute segment of the tape which had not been used for practice and concurrently coded the three behaviors during the second viewing.

The expectancy condition did not produce biased observational data for the three behaviors nor biased scoring of the written paragraph. Results, however, for the checklist measure showed that the teachers given a special education label for the child marked more items on the child characteristic checklist than those who were told the child was normal and those given no expectation. For the various

checklist scales, each group marked more items on the scale which matched the group's label. The authors stated that the findings documented the existence of special education labels' biasing impact upon teachers' checklist scores. The observations and gradings, on the other hand, were not biased by the labels.

The authors presented several explanations for why the bias affected checklist scores without influencing the observations and academic scorings. First, the subjects were aware that their accuracy on the concurrent behavior observation code would be checked; awareness of accuracy checks improves observer accuracy (Reid, 1970). The next two reasons presented by Fogel and Nelson have the greatest implications for the current research. The authors pointed out that their subjects had been trained to code the observed behaviors but had not been trained to use the checklist. Work done by Madle, Neisworth, and Kurtz (1980) found that training reduces checklist bias; therefore, lack of teacher training could have been a factor in the checklist being biased by the labels. The fact that the observation code was precisely defined while the checklist items were less precise was presented as the last reason for why the bias had differential impact upon the two evaluation methods. Similar research conducted by Siegel, Dragovich, and Marholin (1976) revealed that when a rating scale with very specific items was used, a label of hyperkinesis did

not bias an observation code or rating scale. The authors summarized their work by stating that special education labels do not bias concurrent behavior observations or academic grading but do bias global child characteristic measures or checklists. Based upon their laboratory study, Fogel and Nelson suggested that teachers should collect evaluation data by using concurrent behavior observations or academic grades.

Fogel and Nelson's recommendation may have been hasty because the laboratory nature of the study did not necessarily represent what teachers in the classroom deal with as they evaluate students. In a classroom, teachers have more than two children (only two were included on Fogel and Nelson's videotape) at any given time, and the complexity and frequency of child and teacher behaviors may not be conducive to the use of concurrent observation methods. Teachers and children engage in a multitude of behaviors and activities throughout every day as classroom management and instruction are accomplished. This leaves little time for teachers to stop these activities to conduct a concurrent observation of a single child.

The major criticism of the studies reviewed thus far is that none of them have appropriately addressed classroom functioning and its impact upon label generated biases. Despite the fact that several studies have used videotapes, the tapes have lacked classroom ecological validity. For

most of the studies (e.g., those headed by Foster), only a single child engaged in assessment activities was portrayed in a 11 or 12 minute tape segment. This short portrayal of child behavior has little similarity to the dynamic student-student and student-teacher interactions experienced in classrooms. On a day-to-day basis, teachers and students interact with each other in a changing fashion. Unfortunately, no study has been conducted to date which investigates these issues within a classroom setting; however, a project by Bolstad and Johnson (1977) was conducted which investigated similar concerns within a classroom setting.

Bolstad and Johnson's (1977) study examined the relationship between teacher assigned rankings and proportions of actual behavior in order to investigate the claim that labels inhibit objective assessment of classroom behavior. The design and procedures used by Bolstad and Johnson differed significantly from the work reviewed previously. The authors asked teachers to pick from their classes boy/girl pairs who fit the labels: 1) least well-behaved, 2) average behaved, and 3) best behaved. Classroom observations of the selected students were made to determine if their behaviors were consistent with the teacher assigned labels, and teachers were asked to estimate retrospectively the frequency of the students' classroom behaviors.

Observation results confirmed the rank ordering of the teachers' labels (i.e., the best behaved did display the most amount of appropriate behavior while the least well-behaved displayed the least amount of appropriate behavior). This finding was presented as evidence of teachers' ability to judge accurately students' behaviors; however, the authors failed to address the large discrepancies found between the teachers' frequency estimations of appropriate behavior and the observed proportions of appropriate behavior for the least well-behaved children. Data documented that the teachers underestimated the proportion of appropriate behaviors for the least well-behaved group by up to 43%. The underestimation of appropriate behavior for the best behaved group was less than 10%. Thus, it appears that the fact that the teachers saw one group as "least well behaved" may have negatively influenced their evaluations of those students. As previously stated, these discrepancies were not addressed by the authors.

There were several differences between this study and the others previously reviewed. These differences may account for both the ranking similarities that led Bolstad and Johnson to conclude that teachers can make accurate judgements and the quantification discrepancies interpreted here as evidence of teacher bias. First, the study was entirely based in the field utilizing a sample of the population the findings were to represent. Second, the

teachers, themselves, assigned the labels to children they knew well. This feature truly differentiated this investigation from those in which teachers were given labels for children they did not know. Third, the labels utilized were more global than special education nosological labels. Fourth, Bolstad and Johnson's teachers used a retrospective, not concurrent, behavior observation measure. Several studies (e.g., Cunningham & Tharp, 1981; Fogel & Nelson, 1983; Kent, et al., 1974; Wahler & Leske, 1973) have found that concurrent observation codes are not influenced by bias, but no other studies have investigated the impact of bias upon retrospective measures. It could be that training would reduce the influence of bias upon retrospective measures as has been demonstrated with global checklist measures (Madle et al., 1980). In summary, these four differences may account for the manner in which bias influenced the teachers' evaluations. That is, while applying global labels to children they knew the teachers produced accurate comparison rankings of the children; however, the teachers' own use of these labels apparently biased their retrospective frequency estimations of the children's behaviors.

The overall consensus of the literature reviewed has been that special education labels produce a bias which in some situations negatively influences teachers' evaluations of student behavior. Specifically, it was found that bias

influences global child characteristic measures but does not influence concurrent behavior coding measures. The research (i.e., Bolstad & Johnson, 1977) available on retrospective observation methods suggests that they, too, are influenced by bias. Despite these general findings supported by several studies (e.g., Foster & Ysseldyke, 1976; Fogel & Nelson, 1983), experimental works which have disconfirmed the bias effect of special education labels exist and will now be discussed.

Yoshida and Meyers (1975) tested the hypothesis that portrayal of extended teacher-student contact would attenuate a label generated bias. Regular education teachers and teachers of the educable mentally retarded were randomly assigned to either a normal expectancy group or an EMR expectancy group. Both groups watched a 30 minute videotape of a male child responding to four sets of concept formation tests administered by an adult. With each successive test, the child responded correctly to an increasing number of items. After each test segment, the teachers were asked to predict how well the child would perform on the next test. The passage of time was simulated by furniture rearrangement and clothing changes for both the adult and child confederates.

Analyses indicated that the EMR expectancy teachers did not yield lower mean estimates of the child's correct responses than did the normal expectancy teachers. There

was found an increasing trend in mean scores for both groups across successive trials. No differences were found between teachers who taught the mentally retarded and those who taught nonhandicapped children. The authors presented their findings as evidence against the bias stimulus quality of labeling when teachers have extensive behavioral data available to them.

According to Yoshida and Meyers, other studies have found evidence for bias effects because the short contact (i.e., 12 minute film used in Foster studies) between teacher and student prohibited teachers from forming expectancies on anything other than the provided label. They also pointed out that the lack of differences between the EMR and regular education teachers could have been due to the relatively high degree of contact both sets of the teachers had had with both regular and EMR students. The data showed that 31 of the 40 EMR teachers had taught regular education at one time. While recognizing the limitations of their videotaped procedures, Yoshida and Meyers concluded that special education labels do not carry an inherent detrimental impact as long as other cues are available on which to base evaluations and expectations. The authors argued that a real classroom situation provides sufficient information for teachers to base their evaluations upon without being limited to the student's label.

A study by Kurtz, Harrison, Neisworth, and Jones (1977) tested the hypothesis that labels serve to promote positive behaviors on the part of those interacting with the labeled child rather than promoting negatively biased evaluations. Kurtz et al. tested this hypothesis by examining the effect of the MR label on the nonverbal behavior of student teachers toward a preschool child. Twelve education majors were randomly assigned to either the experimental or control group, and one of 12 normal preschool children was randomly assigned to each subject. The experimental manipulation was achieved by giving each subject, prior to meeting the child, similar descriptions with the exception that only the experimental subjects had descriptions which said their children were mentally retarded. After reviewing the descriptions, each subject spent "a few minutes" playing with the child. Following this warm-up session, each subject read a story to the child which was videotaped. Trained observers coded each tape for the frequency of subjects' body leans toward the child.

The major finding was that the experimental subjects had significantly more body leans toward their child than did the control subjects. The authors proposed that this finding indicated that teachers may react in a positive manner to labeled children "...in an effort to overcome the child's handicap... (p.205)." There are a few problems with this study which render the results questionable.

For example, although the study was an improvement over those which did not investigate real interactive behaviors in an academic setting, the authors reduced the generalizability of their findings by not using teachers as subjects.

Summary

The reviewed research suggested that Ysseldyke and Algozzine (1982) were oversimplifying the labeling issue by considering it to be a "straightforward" matter. Some of the research reviewed (e.g., Foster et al., 1975; Jacobs, 1978) clearly indicated that in a well controlled lab setting a special education label influenced teachers' evaluations while other works (e. g., Yoshida & Meyers, 1975) showed that label generated biases may not be so pervasive. A summary of the major conclusions in the literature review will now be presented.

The literature review revealed that there are two sets of variables which may attenuate the biases generated by special education labels. First, bias in teachers' evaluations of students may depend upon what type of evaluation procedure is used. Foster and Ysseldyke (1976) found that the behavioral measure used in their study was influenced by the normal behavior portrayed on the videotape while the global personality measure was exclusively influenced by the special education labels.

Jacobs' (1978) research was conducted in a similar fashion as that of the Foster studies; but failing to replicate this finding, he concluded that all teacher evaluation methods are negatively influenced by bias.

Work conducted by Fogel and Nelson (1983) extended the findings of these works by researching the impact of bias upon three different methods of evaluating students (i.e., teacher grading, concurrent observations, and global checklist measures). They found that when trained to use a concurrent behavior observation measure teachers' evaluations of student behavior were not biased by a special education label; however, these authors also found that the teachers' use of a less precise global characteristic measure was influenced by the special education label given to the teachers.

Second, the literature revealed that events which naturally occur in a classroom setting may serve to decrease the negative impact of a label generated bias. The numerous studies (e.g., Foster et al., 1975, Jacobs, 1978) which did confirm the negative impact of special education labels employed videotapes which were very limited in similarity to actual classrooms and the amount of available classroom information; therefore, these tapes failed to incorporate a variety of dynamic events or cues that teachers in typical classrooms may use to form evaluations of students. On the other hand, Yoshida and Meyers (1975) included in their

videotape various cues (e.g., increasing student accuracy on a task) which teachers could utilize when forming their evaluations of students. As expected by the authors, the teachers' evaluations were not influenced by the child's label. The authors addressed these findings as support for the existence of naturally occurring cues in a classroom which would override the negative impact of a special education label.

Purpose

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the ability of naturally occurring classroom variables to mediate or attenuate the influence of a learning disabilities bias upon teachers' evaluations of student behavior. Unlike the Foster studies and Jacobs (1978) work which employed a film of single children engaged in assessment activities, this study corrected the lack of ecological validity by utilizing films depicting 6 children and a certified special education teacher engaged in simulated classroom activities. The use of these films increased the overall ecological validity of the study while maintaining the control of a laboratory experiment. To explore further the results of Fogel and Nelson (1983), two teacher-employed evaluation methods were the dependent measures -- a retrospective behavior rating scale and a global student characteristic measure.

The two measures differed in their respective degrees of specificity with the former being a precise behavior rating scale and the latter being a more global behavior characteristic measure.

Six hypotheses were generated for the purposes of the present study. The hypotheses were:

- 1) The pretest ratings of those teachers who were told the child was LD would be more negative than the pretest ratings of those who were told the child was normal.
- 2) The posttest ratings of those teachers who were told the child was LD would be more negative than the posttest ratings of those who were told the child was normal.
- 3) Those teachers who were told the child was LD would have more discrepant responses on the retrospective behavior observation instrument from the criterion data than would those who were told the child was normal.
- 4) Those teachers who were told the child was LD would have posttest ratings that were less negative than their pretest ratings.
- 5) Those teachers who were told the child was normal would have posttest ratings that were less positive than their pretest ratings.

6) The global child characteristic measure, and not the retrospective behavior observation measure, would be significantly influenced by the LD label.

II. METHOD

Experimental Design

There were eight experimental groups in the completely crossed factorial design, Test Sensitization (2) X Expectation (2) X Instructional Mode (2). For test sensitization, the levels were the two data collection formats employed. One format was the collection of pretest and posttest data while the second was collection of posttest data only. The two levels of the expectation variable were LD and normal. The last variable consisted of the two instructional modes; the first was large group instruction while the second was individual seatwork. All three variables were assessed for their influence upon two dependent measures, the Classroom Behavior Inventory and the State Event Classroom Observation System - Teacher.

Subjects

The subjects were 80 elementary (grades K-5) public school teachers from eight schools in a local school system. All of the teachers were certified in elementary education, and 63% had bachelor degrees while 34% had master degrees. The remaining 3% did not indicate their highest completed degree. In addition, all of the teachers were teaching in a regular education classroom. Table 1 provides a breakdown of the number of teachers per grade. The teachers averaged

TABLE 1
Number of Participating Subjects
By Grade Taught

Grade	Number
Kindergarten	14
First	14
Second	9
Third	11
Fourth	17
Fifth	13
Total	78*

*Two teachers did not indicate which grade they were teaching.

13 years of regular education teaching experience, and five reported having special education teaching experience. Although only five reported teaching experience in special education, 91% of the sample reported having had experience working with certified handicapped as well as nonhandicapped students in regular education classrooms.

Independent Variables

Three variables were manipulated in the experiment. Each of the following will be described in greater detail: 1) test sensitization; 2) expectation; and 3) instructional mode.

Test Sensitization. This variable was included due to concern over potential pretest sensitization. Sensitization effects upon the posttest scores were possible because the pretests and the posttests were separated by only a short amount of time (i.e., an 11 minute videotape). In order to evaluate the impact of the pretests, half of the subjects received the pretest while half did not. According to Campbell and Stanley (1966), this format, two randomly equivalent subgroups each experiencing one of two formats, should give an adequate evaluation of testing and testing by treatment effects.

Expectation. The expectation given to the teacher made up the second independent variable. All subjects were randomly assigned to one of the two expectations, LD or normal. The manipulation was accomplished by having each teacher read a short case study which described the identified child as being either LD or normal (Appendix A). Attempts were made to keep the case studies equivalent in all ways except for the key descriptors depicting the child as LD or normal.

Instructional Mode. The last independent variable examined was the instructional mode, either individual seatwork or large group teacher-led activity. This variable was manipulated at two different points in the study. The initial manipulation was accomplished by the pretest instructions which contained a description of the hypothetical child as participating in a large group teacher-led activity or an individual seatwork activity. The second manipulation was accomplished by showing one of two tapes to the subjects. One portrayed the identified child and a group of children engaged in individual seatwork classroom activities while the other had the same children engaged in a large group teacher-led activity. As with the other two variables, the teachers were randomly assigned to the instructional modes.

Videotapes. The two videotape segments came from videotapes of a simulated classroom. On both of the 11 minute segments, six elementary school children and a certified special education teacher were engaged in a variety of classroom activities. The tape illustrating the large group instructional mode consisted of a teacher-led science discussion. During the discussion on frogs, the children were seated in a semicircle while the teacher lectured and asked questions about frogs. The children engaged in various behaviors including listening to the teacher, responding to questions, playing with the demonstration frogs, talking to each other, etc. The second tape, illustrating the individual seatwork instructional mode, consisted of the children seated in desk rows completing language arts assignments. The teacher monitored the children, gave instructions, and checked their work. Similar to the large group tape, the children participated in a variety of behaviors including school work, walking about the room, talking with the teacher, etc.

Prior to the experiment, both tapes were viewed by trained observers using handheld computers. The computers were equipped with the State Event Classroom Observation System, or SECOS (Saudargas & Creed, 1980), for the purpose of generating criteria measures of the child and teacher behaviors on the tapes. The behaviors were coded as either event behaviors for which the duration or bout length is

extremely brief or state behaviors for which the duration or bout length is longer (Saudargas & Lentz, 1986). Used in this capacity, SECOS functions as a real time measure (Saudargas & Lentz, 1986) of behavior yielding comparison data for teacher estimated behavior frequencies and durations.

Dependent Variables

Two rating scales, the Classroom Behavior Inventory (Schaefer, Edgerton, & Aronson, 1977) and the State Event Classroom Observation System - Teacher (Dukes & Saudargas, 1986) were the dependent measures. Both teacher rating scales consist of items which measure child behavior; however, they utilize different approaches to behavior measurement. The difference between the scales is that the Classroom Behavior Inventory is a global behavior characteristic measure (McKinney & Feagans, 1983) while the State Event Classroom Observation System - Teacher is a retrospective behavior observation measure composed of specific items to be rated for frequency or duration.

Classroom Behavior Inventory (CBI). The CBI (Appendix B) is comprised of 42 behaviorally oriented child descriptors. Each item is scored on a 5-point numerical rating scale which ranges from not at all like to very much like. For this study, the scale was modified by adding a

sixth response category, not observed/ not appropriate, since it was possible that the behavior specified in any one item may not occur on the tape. Each item contributes to the score of one of the 10 scales on the measure. Eight of the scales represent four bipolar dimensions of behavior. These are: Extraversion vs. Introversion, Distractibility vs. Task Orientation, Independence vs. Dependence, Hostility vs. Consideration. The other two scales are Verbal Intelligence and Creativity and Curiosity.

Psychometric information has been supportive of the structure, reliability, and validity of the CBI. McKinney, McClure, and Feagans (1982) reported that the CBI taps the three dimensions of academic competence, social competence, and affective adjustment. These dimensions were recently supported by factor analytic results generated by a large sample of kindergarten children (Schaefer, Edgerton, & Hunter, 1983). Schaefer et al. also found that internal consistency reliabilities were above .80 for the 5-item scales and were in the moderate range for the 3-item scales. Four month stability coefficients for the 10 scales (Schaefer et al., 1983) as well as interrater reliabilities (McKinney & Forman, 1982) were in the moderate to high range.

For the purpose of assessing the internal consistency of the CBI scales for the present study, Cronbach's coefficient alpha (Thorndike, 1982) was computed.

The following alpha's resulted for each of the scales:
Extraversion = .74; Creativity and Curiosity = .63;
Distractibility = .64; Independence = .82; Hostility = .61;
Verbal Intelligence = .70; Orientation to Task = .87;
Introversion = .66; Consideration = .65; and Dependence = .65.

Construct validity of the instrument has been supported by both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies. These studies have demonstrated adequate predictive validity for child achievement, ability and adjustment (McKinney & Feagans, 1980; Schaefer, 1980). In addition, the CBI has been shown to differentiate normal samples from various handicapped samples (Feagans & McKinney, 1981; Kohn, 1977; McKinney & Clifford, 1975; McKinney & Feagans, 1980). Several studies have consistently shown that learning disabled students are differentiated from others by the academic competence factor (McKinney & Feagans, 1983). For example, McKinney, McClure, and Feagans (1982) found that LD students were rated as being less task oriented, more distractible, and less creative and curious than their nonhandicapped peers.

State Event Classroom Observation System - Teacher (SECOS-T). The second dependent measure, SECOS-T, was adapted from SECOS which is a behavior coding system designed to assess classroom interactions and student

behaviors (Saudargas & Lentz, 1986). Several studies have demonstrated the ability of SECOS to discriminate among learning disabled, seriously emotionally disturbed, and normal children in the regular classroom (Fellers & Saudargas, in press; Slate & Saudargas, 1986a, 1986b; Slate & Saudargas, in press). SECOS-T (Appendix C) includes the same behaviors as those recorded by SECOS. However, on SECOS-T teachers indicate either how often or how long a child participates in a particular behavior during a specified class period.

Reliability estimates were not calculated for the SECOS-T because adequate data for stability estimates were not available. Cronbach's alpha was not calculated because the items represent discreet behaviors which do not combine readily into subscales. A correlation matrix, however, was computed between three items of the SECOS-T (i.e., School Work, Look, and Other Activity) and two scales of the CBI (i.e., Distractibility and Orientation to Task) to determine the extent to which the two measures assessed the same constructs. Moderate, but significant, correlations were found between the School Work item and the Orientation to Task scale (i.e., .69) and between the Look item and the Distractibility scale (i.e., .31).

Procedure

Data collection. Data from all teachers were collected by trained volunteers who took the videotapes to the teachers' schools. Each school had two to four experimental groups which were defined by assigning a test sensitization format, either pre- and posttest or posttest only, and an instructional mode, either large group or individual. Anywhere from two to five teachers were randomly assigned to an expectancy level, LD or normal, as well as to an experimental group. The teachers in each group differed with respect to their expectancy level; however, all teachers in each group saw the same tape and experienced the same test sensitization format. Table 2 shows the resulting groups and cell sizes.

For those receiving both the pre- and posttests, the subjects were given the CBI and SECOS-T pretests and were asked to fill them out for a hypothetical LD or normal child participating in either a large group activity or individual seatwork (Appendix D). After completing and returning the pretests, the subjects were given the case study matching their assigned expectancy and were asked to read it silently. The case studies were collected after they were read, and the assigned videotape was shown.

TABLE 2

Number of Subjects Per Cell for the
Instructional Mode, Expectation, and Test Sensitization
Variables

I. M.*	Expectation	Pretest/Posttest N	Posttest Only N
Large Group	LD	10	11
Large Group	Normal	9	10
Individual Seatwork	LD	11	10
Individual Seatwork	Normal	10	9
Total		40	40

*I.M. = Instructional Mode

After viewing the tape, the subjects were given instructions to complete the posttests in reference to what occurred on the tape (Appendix E).

Those subjects taking the posttests only began the session by receiving the appropriate case study to be read. After returning the case study to the volunteers, the subjects viewed the assigned videotape. The teachers then completed the posttests according to the same instructions as those teachers who completed both the pre- and posttests.

After all of the groups completed the sessions, the teachers were asked to complete a brief evaluation instrument (Appendix F). The purpose of this instrument was to assess the validity of the classroom ecology portrayed by the tapes, materials, and procedures utilized in the study. A total of 75 teachers completed the evaluation instrument, and 72% of them felt the project was completed in a professional manner. Only four (5%) teachers responded that the project was not conducted professionally while the rest responded that they were undecided. As for the case summary used to create the expectancy manipulation, 70% of the responding teachers indicated that the summaries had at least some similarity to the reports or summaries they had access to in the schools. Regarding the degree of resemblance the tapes had to classroom experiences, 47% of the respondents indicated that the tapes had some to complete resemblance to a typical classroom experience; and

46% replied that the tapes had no to little resemblance to a classroom experience. Table 3 provides a frequency count of how the teachers responded to the issue of the tapes' resemblance to a classroom experience.

To determine if there were response differences between those teachers who responded that the tapes did resemble a classroom experience and those who said the tapes did not, t tests were conducted. Two CBI scales (i.e., Orientation to Task and Distractibility) and one SECOS-T item (i.e., School Work) were analyzed. For the teachers who saw the large group instructional mode film, there were no significant differences in their responses. The teachers who saw the individual seatwork film, however, did differ significantly ($p < .025$) on the Distractibility scale. Those who responded that the tape was similar to a classroom experience had a significantly higher mean score on the Distractibility scale than did those who responded that the tape did not resemble a classroom experience. In conclusion, although 46% replied that the tapes had little resemblance to classroom experiences, the t test results indicate that the lack of perceived resemblance had little impact on how most of the teachers completed the measures. Verbal and written comments received from the teachers also indicated that the lack of perceived resemblance had to do with the smaller group of children and the seating arrangements used.

TABLE 3

Frequency Count of Teachers'
Responses to Item 3 of the
Evaluation Instrument

Resemblance		Frequency	% of N
None	1	17	21.2
	2	20	25.0
Some	3	32	40.0
	4	5	6.3
Complete	5	1	1.2
No Response		5	6.3
Total		80	100.0

The teachers did not indicate that the academic activities or behaviors on the tapes were unlike those seen in a classroom.

Following completion of the evaluation instrument, all subjects were debriefed concerning the true purposes of the project. The teachers' comments on the evaluation sheets, as well as their comments during the debriefings, indicated that the tapes and procedures were relatively similar to the ecology of a classroom.

III. RESULTS

Data Analysis

The CBI and the SECOS-T were analyzed to answer several questions:

1. What was the impact of the three independent variables--instructional mode, test sensitization, and expectation--upon the pre- and posttest scores?
2. How were the pretests and posttests related?
3. How accurate were the teachers' posttests?

The focus of the analysis of the SECOS-T differed from that of the CBI in that concern centered on the comparison of the posttest ratings with behavioral criteria instead of concern over pre- to posttest changes. The analysis for each of the above questions will be briefly discussed prior to the presentation of results.

CBI. As mentioned previously the CBI was modified for this study by adding a sixth response category to the rating scale. The added category, not observed/ not appropriate (0 response), served two purposes. On the pretests, it gave teachers the opportunity to respond that the item was not appropriate for describing the hypothetical child; and second, it gave teachers completing the posttests the opportunity to respond that the behavior had not been observed on the tape.

Prior to proceeding with any statistical analyses of the CBI, an evaluation was conducted of how often the 0 response category was utilized. Table 4 lists the mean number of 0 responses given per scale for both the pretests and the posttests. Given the extensive use of this category on the posttests, it was decided that the 0's would be substituted with the mean scale response of each subject. Tabachnick and Fidell (1983) state that when faced with missing data, the mean value is the "best guess" for that variable. Two decision rules were followed which governed the substitution of the 0's with the subject's mean response. These rules were: (1) For all three item scales, at least two of the three items must have valid responses in order to substitute the mean response for the missing item; (2) For all five item scales, at least three of the five items must have valid responses in order to substitute the mean response for the missing items. Table 5 gives the resulting percentage of usable data for both the pre- and posttests following the substitution of the mean responses. Only those scales with at least 90% usable data were to be used in the analyses.

The CBI pretest data were analyzed by a 2 X 2 Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) via SPSS-X (SPSS-X Inc., 1986) which assessed the impact of the instructional mode and expectation variables on all 10 of the pretest CBI scales. Because of the lack of valid data on the posttests,

TABLE 4

Average Number of "0" Responses per
CBI Pretest and Posttest Scales

Scale	Number of Items	Average "0's" for Pretests	Average "0's" for Posttests
Extraversion	5	.60	30
Creativity & Curiosity	5	0	30
Distractibility	3	0	14
Independence	5	.20	18.80
Hostility	3	1.67	58.67
Verbal Intelligence	5	.40	36.80
Task Orientation	5	.20	9
Introversion	3	1.67	24.33
Consideration	5	.40	31.60
Dependence	3	.33	46.66

TABLE 5
Number and Percent of Subjects With
Usable Data for Pretest and Posttest
CBI Scales

Scale	Pretest N	Pretest %	Posttest N	Posttest %
Extraversion	40	100	64	51
Creativity & Curiosity	40	100	50	62.50
Distractibility	40	100	72	90
Independence	40	100	63	78.75
Hostility	39	97.50	17	21.25
Verbal Intelligence	38	95	40	50
Task Orientation	38	95	73	91.25
Introversion	37	92.50	58	72.50
Consideration	38	95	50	62.50
Dependence	38	95	31	38.75

only the Distractibility and the Orientation to Task scales for the posttest CBI data were analyzed by a 2 X 2 X 2 MANOVA which assessed the impact of the test sensitization variable in addition to the other two variables. A 2 X 2 Analysis of Covariance on the posttests for the Distractibility and Orientation to Task scales was conducted to assess the relationship of the pretests to the posttests. In addition, matched-pair t tests were run to assess the significance of pretest to posttest changes on the Distractibility and Orientation to Task scales.

SECOS-T. The SECOS-T data were analyzed by descriptive and inferential techniques. Frequencies were calculated to evaluate how teachers completed the instrument, and graphic comparisons of median item responses to the behavioral criteria were made to check the teachers' accuracy. In addition, a series of 2 X 2 X 2 MANOVA's were utilized to evaluate the impact of the independent variables upon the pretest and posttest data.

Dependent Variable 1: CBI

Three statistical analyses were conducted on the CBI following the initial descriptive analysis presented under the Data Analysis section. The first investigated the impact of the expectancy and instructional mode variables on the pretest CBI scores while the second investigated the

impact of these same variables, plus the test sensitization variable, upon the posttest scores. The last analysis assessed the impact of the expectancy and instructional mode variables upon the observed change in the pre- to posttest scores.

All of the CBI scales were included in the 2 (Expectancy) X 2 (Instructional Mode) MANOVA since the pretest scores were not characterized by a large number of 0 responses as were the posttest scores. The interaction was not significant, but the main effect for the expectancy variable was ($F_{10,22} = 5.66, p < .001$). Followup univariate analyses revealed that the expectancy effect was significant for five of the 10 scales, i.e., Creativity & Curiosity, Distractibility, Verbal Intelligence, Orientation to Task, and Introversion. For the positive oriented scales--Creativity & Curiosity, Verbal Intelligence, and Orientation to Task--the teachers receiving the LD expectancy gave the child lower scores than the normal expectancy teachers. The exact opposite was true for the negative oriented scales, Distractibility and Introversion. On these two scales, the teachers who had been given the LD expectancy gave the child higher scores than did those who had been given the normal expectancy.

The posttest scores were analyzed with the MANOVA procedure in a 2 (Expectancy) X 2 (Instructional Mode) X 2 (Test Sensitization) analysis. The large number of posttest

0 responses necessitated the deletion of eight scales as dependent variables from the analysis. As a result, only the Distractibility and Orientation to Task scales were included as dependent variables in the MANOVA. Neither the three-way nor the two-way interactions were significant. One main effect, instructional mode ($F_{2,58} = 7.31, p < .001$) was significant; followup univariate analyses documented significance for the Orientation to Task scale ($p < .001$) and for the Distractibility scale ($p < .048$). Teachers in the large group instructional mode, as indicated by the results, rated the target child as being more distractible and less on task; whereas, those in the individual seatwork instructional mode completed the scales oppositely by rating the child as less distractible and more on task.

Following the investigation of the impact of the three variables on the pretest and posttest scores, further analyses were conducted to examine two more concerns: (1) the relationship of the pretest scores to the posttests scores, and (2) the significance of the observed change in pre- to posttest scores. A 2 X 2 Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was employed to investigate the first concern and matched-pairs t tests were used for the second.

The ANCOVA was conducted on the posttest scores of the scales Distractibility and Orientation to Task. The independent variables for both analyses were instructional

mode (large group, individual seatwork) and expectancy (LD, normal). The covariate for each analysis was the pretest score of the respective scale. The instructional mode variable was the only significant main effect for the Distractibility scale ($F_{1,31} = 4.453, p < .05$) and the Orientation to Task scale ($F_{1,29} = 6.938, p < .05$). Consistent with the MANOVA's findings, this analysis documented that the child was rated as more distractible and less task oriented when seen in the large group instructional mode. In addition, the results further illustrated that the pretest ratings of the teachers had little relationship to their posttest ratings.

Although the results of both prior analyses consistently documented the significant impact of the instructional mode variable on the posttests, the question remained as to whether or not any significant change occurred in the scores from pre- to posttesting. Tables 6 and 7 present the results of the matched-pairs t tests for the Distractibility and Orientation to Task scales. As illustrated, significant pre- to posttest changes occurred on both scales for those teachers who saw the large group instructional mode and who were given the normal expectancy. That is, these teachers increased their Distractibility scores and decreased their Orientation to Task scores on the posttests. In contrast, the teachers who saw the individual seatwork film and were given the LD expectancy significantly

TABLE 6
Matched-Pairs t Tests for CBI Scale-
Distractibility

Instructional Mode	Expectancy	N	Pretest		Posttest		
			Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t
Large	LD	10	11.40	3.89	12.40	1.84	-1.15
Large	Normal	8	7.25	2.61	11.50	2.20	-5.67**
Individual	LD	10	13.10	1.10	9.80	3.01	2.74*
Individual	Normal	8	9.25	2.82	11.00	2.51	-1.13

TABLE 7
Matched-Pairs t tests for CBI Scale-
Orientation to Task

Instructional Mode	Expectancy	N	Pretest		Posttest		
			Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t
Large	LD	6	11.67	7.01	8.83	3.87	1.22
Large	Normal	9	16.67	2.60	7.11	2.26	7.52**
Individual	LD	10	10.20	3.01	12.20	4.52	-1.58
Individual	Normal	9	15.33	3.74	10.78	4.30	1.89

* $p < .05$
** $p \leq .001$

decreased their scores on the posttests of the Distractibility scale. These teachers also increased their posttests scores on the Orientation to Task scale; however, this change did not reach statistical significance.

In summary, the analysis of the CBI revealed three major findings. The first was that the teachers, given instructions to complete the scale for a hypothetical child, were significantly biased in their ratings by the LD label. The teachers given the LD expectancy described the child as being more distractible and less task oriented than the normal expectancy teachers. Second, the LD bias did not significantly influence the teachers' posttest ratings. The only variable to influence the posttest ratings significantly was that of instructional mode. That is, the teachers who saw the large group instructional mode film rated the child as being more distractible and less on task than did those teachers who saw the individual seatwork instructional mode film.

The last finding involved the change in the teachers' ratings from pre- to posttesting. Significant pre- to posttest changes were found for the Distractibility and Orientation to Task scales. Regardless of expectancy, the teachers who saw the large group instructional mode film increased their Distractibility scores and decreased their Orientation to Task scores. The pattern differed for the individual seatwork film according to the expectancy of the

teachers. The normal expectancy teachers increased their Distractibility and decreased their Orientation to Task scores; however, the change was not enough to reach statistical significance. Finally, the LD conditioned teachers who saw the same film did change their scores significantly by decreasing their Distractibility scores at posttesting.

Dependent Variable 2: SECOS-T

The analyses for the SECOS-T were conducted in a manner similar to those of the CBI by employing both descriptive and inferential techniques. The MANOVA procedure, for instance, was used with both scales to assess the impact of the three independent variables on the pre- and posttest scores. The difference in the analyses of the two instruments occurred when addressing the issue of teacher accuracy. For the CBI this was approached indirectly by examining the changes in the pre- to posttest scores; however, the availability of criteria data for the SECOS-T enabled direct investigation of teacher accuracy via comparison of their responses to actual measures of the behaviors. A description of how teachers completed the SECOS-T, MANOVA results, and posttest score to criteria data comparisons will be presented in this section.

The initial analysis addressed how the subjects completed the first eight items (Appendix C) of the SECOS-T. The instructions for these items asked the subjects to give an estimate of the percent of time the student performed each of the activities. Because the behaviors were mutually exclusive, the instructions stated that the teachers' estimated percentages should total 100%. Results showed that over 97% of all subjects completed the first two items, In Seat and Out of Seat, for both the pre- and posttests with no difficulty. The teachers were not as successful with the task for the next six items: Does Assigned School Work, Looks Away from Assigned Activity, Talks with Another Child, Engages in Other Activity, Talks with Teacher about School Work, and Talks with Teacher about Another Activity. On these items, 75.61% of the teachers at pretesting and 77.50% of them at posttesting completed the items correctly.

In addition to checking on how many subjects were able to complete the first eight items correctly, posttest frequencies for all 18 items were calculated to show the response range of each item. Of the first eight items, results (Appendix G) showed that teachers seeing the large group instructional mode film had the largest range of responses for the first through fourth items. The majority of other items, including those on the individual seatwork instructional mode film (Appendix H), had rather restricted response ranges.

The inferential statistical procedure for the SECOS-T was the same MANOVA model as that used for the CBI. The MANOVA's were conducted on conceptually similar pre- and posttest items. For example, the child state behaviors were included as the dependent behaviors in one analysis while the teacher event behaviors were in a separate analysis. In addition, a new variable for any two items which tapped the same basic behavior was created by mathematically calculating the mean for the items, e.g., $(\text{item 1} + \text{item 2}) / 2$. The child state behaviors of Talk with Teacher about School Work and Talk with Teacher about Another Activity were combined in this manner to produce the dependent variable Talk with Teacher. The results of each of the pretest and posttest MANOVA's will now be presented.

The pretest scores were analyzed by a series of 2 (Instructional Mode) X 2 (Expectancy) MANOVA's. The first analysis was conducted on the four child state behaviors-- In Seat, School Work, Talk with Child, and Talk with Teacher. As mentioned above, the Talk with Teacher variable was the mathematical mean of the two items Talk with Teacher about School Work and Talk with Teacher about Another Activity. The two-way interaction was not significant; one main effect, expectancy ($F_{4,33} = 14.65, p < .001$), reached significance. The univariate analysis revealed significance for both the In Seat ($p < .001$) and School Work ($p < .001$) behaviors.

The teachers who were given the LD expectancy gave significantly lower estimates for these two behaviors than did those who were given the normal expectancy.

The second pretest MANOVA was conducted on two dependent variables which had been calculated from child event items. Child Solicitation of Teacher Attention was the first dependent variable and was the mean of the items Call Out to Teacher and Raise Hand. The second was Child Interaction which was the average of the two items Approach Child and Other Child Approach. The two-way interaction was significant ($F_{2,32} = 4.53, p < .05$). The univariate analysis found that only the Child Solicitation of Teacher Attention variable reached significance ($p < .05$). Analysis of the simple mean effects F 's revealed that the normal conditioned teachers saw fewer solicitations of the teachers' attention on the individual seatwork instructional mode film than did the normal conditioned teachers who saw the large group instructional mode film. The opposite was true for those teachers who had been given the LD expectation. These teachers gave lower estimates of the child's solicitation of the teacher's attention if they had seen the large group instructional mode film. Neither of the main effects reached significance.

The last MANOVA conducted on the pretest results included two teacher event behaviors as dependent variables. These were: Teacher Initiates Contact while Student Does

School Work and Teacher Initiates Contact while Student Does Another Activity. Neither the main effects nor the interactions reached significance in this analysis.

Included in the first 2 (Instructional Mode) X 2 (Expectation) X 2 (Test Sensitization) MANOVA for the posttest scores were the same four child state behaviors used as dependent variables for the initial pretest MANOVA. These were: In Seat, School Work, Talk with Child, and Talk with Teacher. Neither the three-way nor the two-way interactions were significant; one main effect, instructional mode ($F_{4,66} = 14.84, p < .001$), reached significance. The univariate statistics illustrated that the effect was significant for the In Seat ($p < .001$) and School Work ($p < .001$) behaviors only. These results demonstrated that the teachers who saw the large group instructional mode film gave lower estimates of the duration the child sat in his seat and did school work than did the teachers who saw the child in the individual seatwork instructional mode film.

The second MANOVA, investigating the same independent variables as the first, included the dependent variables which had been calculated from child event behaviors as for the second pretest MANOVA. The two dependent variables were Child Solicitation of Teacher Attention and Child Interaction. Results were consistent with those of the first posttest MANOVA. The three-way and two-way

interactions did not have overall significant F 's while the main effect for instructional mode did ($F_{2,62} = 11.75, p < .001$). The univariate statistics for Child Interaction ($p < .001$), but not Child Solicitation of Teacher Attention, were significant documenting that the large group instructional mode teachers rated the child as having fewer child interactions than did teachers seeing the individual seatwork mode.

After investigation of the child behaviors, a MANOVA was conducted on two teacher event behaviors as was done for the pretests. The dependent variables were Teacher Initiates Contact while Student Does School Work and Teacher Initiates Contact while Student Does Another Activity. Once again the three-way interaction was not significant; however, the two-way interaction of expectation by test sensitization did reach significance ($F_{2,61} = 6.34, p < .003$). The interaction was significant for Teacher Initiates Contact while Student Does Another Activity ($p < .003$) and not the other behavior. Analyses of the simple mean effects F 's disclosed that the LD expectancy teachers who completed the pretests and posttests rated less Teacher Initiates Contact with Student Doing Another Activity than did LD teachers who completed only the posttests.

The exact opposite was true for the normal expectancy teachers who rated the teacher higher on this variable if they had completed both the pretests and posttests.

The instructional mode variable, in accordance with prior results, was the only main effect to reach overall significance ($F_{2,61} = 7.83, p < .001$). The Initiate Contact with Student Doing School Work variable reached significance in the univariate analysis while the other behavior did not showing that the large group instructional mode teachers rated the teacher higher on this variable than did the individual seatwork teachers. Although the expectancy variable did not reach overall significance, the univariate for Initiate Contact with Student Doing Another Activity was ($F_{1,62} = 5.11, p < .027$). It is suggested by this finding that LD expectancy teachers rated the teacher lower on this variable than did the normal expectancy teachers.

Comparisons of teacher posttest median responses to the criteria measures of the SECOS-T items were made to conclude the analyses with a picture of the accuracy of the teachers' responses. In order to facilitate the comparisons, the subjects were collapsed across the test sensitization variable. This was done based upon the MANOVA results which indicated that test sensitization had little impact upon the teachers' ratings. The comparisons for each item are illustrated in Appendix I, as well as Appendices G and H. Certain response trends become apparent when conceptually

related items are grouped together. For the three child state behaviors, School Work, Look, and Other Activity, all teachers on both films underestimated the amount of time the child spent doing school work and overestimated the amount of time the child spent looking about the room.

A significance test for proportions (Agresti & Finlay, 1986) was calculated for each of these three item/criterion comparisons. Results documented that on the School Work item, all of the teachers who saw the large group instructional mode film significantly ($p < .025$) underestimated the amount of time the child engaged in school work. Only those teachers who were given the LD expectancy significantly ($p < .05$) underestimated the amount of time the child did school work on the individual seatwork film. For the Look item, only those teachers who saw the individual seatwork film and who were given the LD expectancy significantly ($p < .001$) overestimated the amount of time the child looked about the room. For the last behavior, Other Activity, those teachers who saw the large group film and who were given the normal expectancy failed to yield estimates significantly different from the criteria. All of the other teachers significantly ($p < .025$) overestimated the amount of time the child performed some activity other than that assigned.

For the child state behaviors Talk with Child, Talk with Teacher While Doing Other Activity, and Talk With

Teacher While Doing Schoolwork, teachers on both films were accurate in their duration estimates. The teachers' ratings did not differ with respect to their expectancy grouping or with respect to which film they saw. A similar trend is seen in the child event behaviors which include Raise Hand, Approach Child, Other Child Approach, and Call Out. Although not extremely discrepant from the criteria, both expectancy groups of teachers underestimated the number of times the child on the large group instructional mode film raised his hand and called out to the teacher. The estimates of those teachers who saw the individual seatwork film were accurate for the Raise Hand behavior but exceeded the criterion for the Call Out behavior.

The two teacher event behaviors, Initiate Contact with Child While Doing Schoolwork and Intitiate Contact with Child While Doing Other Activity, illustrated that both groups of teachers on the large group film had difficulty estimating these teacher behaviors. For the first behavior, both groups overestimated the frequency while both groups underestimated the frequency for the second. A pattern for the individual seatwork instructional mode film is not as evident. Neither group of teachers were extremely discrepant from the criteria, and the two groups did not differ in their ratings.

Two major findings resulted from the analyses of the SECOS-T. The initial finding illustrated the lack of

influence the LD label had on the SECOS-T posttest ratings. The only variable to significantly influence any of the analyses was that of instructional mode. As with the CBI findings, the teachers who saw the large group instructional mode film rated the child less positively by giving lower estimates of the amount of time the child did schoolwork. The second finding dealt with the teachers' abilities to estimate and rate behavior. The SECOS-T findings suggested that teachers have difficulty estimating the amount of time a child engages in particular behaviors. For instance, the teachers-- regardless of their assigned expectancy and instructional mode--inaccurately estimated the amount of time the child spent doing school work, looking about the room, and performing another activity. This inaccuracy was not evidenced by the teachers' frequency ratings of the event behaviors. The teachers' estimates of how many times the child raised his hand, called out to the teacher, approached a child, and was approached by a child were not as discrepant from the criteria measures as were their duration estimates of the state behaviors.

IV. DISCUSSION

Bias generated by the learning disabilities label was the topic of investigation in this study. Specifically, the purposes of this project were twofold: first, to research the influence of bias upon two student behavior evaluation methods, and second, to study the role of classroom variables in attenuating bias. Data were collected from regular education teachers who had been told that a videotaped child was either normal or LD. The teachers completed two different evaluation instruments both before and after seeing videotapes of the child in a classroom setting. Analyses were conducted to determine if the LD label influenced either of the measures, if the classroom ecology of the instructional mode depicted by each film influenced either of the measures, and if the influence of the bias changed from pretesting to posttesting.

The first finding of this study was that the LD label significantly influenced the teachers' CBI and SECOS-T pretests which were completed for a hypothetical child. The teachers had a definite preconceived idea of LD children's characteristics and behaviors. Their preconceptions of LD children were that they are more distractible and less task oriented than normal children. The SECOS-T pretests documented that the teachers also expected LD children to spend little time engaged in school work.

This finding was not surprising and is consistent with earlier research (e.g., Foster et al., 1975; Foster and Ysseldyke, 1976; Jacobs, 1978) which found that special education labels negatively influence teachers' ratings and scores of hypothetical children.

Contradictory to the findings of Foster et al. (1975) and others was the result illustrating the lack of influence the LD label had on both posttest measures. Fosters' studies and Jacobs' (1978) research found that special education labels influenced their posttest results significantly. This was not the case in this research which found that the LD label had no influence upon the teachers' posttest CBI nor SECOS-T responses. For both of these measures, the teachers were influenced more by the child behaviors portrayed by the two instructional mode settings than by the child's label.

The influence of the behaviors portrayed by the two instructional mode films was evidenced in the way in which the teachers completed the posttests. For instance, the ratings of the large group instructional mode teachers on both measures were more negative than were the ratings of the individual seatwork instructional mode teachers. The SECOS-T criteria behavior measures of both tapes documented that this difference in teachers' posttests was justified. For the School Work and Look behaviors, the criteria measures showed that the child's behavior was less

appropriate on the large group instructional mode tape. Thus, the teachers who saw the large group instructional mode tape appropriately rated the child more negatively. This was evidence that the teachers' perceptions of the behaviors negated the influence of the LD label.

Yoshida and Meyers (1975) found that by incorporating a temporal (i.e., the appearance of two months time passage) factor and the appearance of child improvement on a task, teachers were not influenced by the MR label when evaluating a videotaped child. The present study similarly included the instructional mode variable to investigate whether or not it would negate the LD label's influence on the posttests. The findings documented that the teachers were influenced by the behaviors embedded in the classroom ecology portrayed by the instructional modes; therefore, the instructional mode variable functioned to attenuate the bias as did Yoshida and Meyers' temporal and child improvement variables. The consistency of the current findings with those of Yoshida and Meyers extends the hypothesis that teachers rely on numerous classroom cues and events to form their evaluations of a child.

The fact that the bias had insignificant impact upon either of the posttests was contradictory to the studies reviewed (e.g., Fogel & Nelson, 1983). Fogel and Nelson's work suggested that bias differentially influences teachers' methods of evaluating students. The results of their study

indicated that a concurrent observation code would be bias-free while more global child characteristic checklists would be vulnerable to bias. Although the CBI had been determined to be a global behavior characteristic measure (McKinney & Feagans, 1983), the lack of significant influence by the label on the CBI contradicted Fogel and Nelson. These results suggested that when a teacher can see a student in a setting which provides an opportunity for student-student and student-teacher interactions, the student's label played an insignificant role in the teacher's evaluations of the student's behavior even when a global behavior characteristic measure was used.

The pre- to posttest comparisons made on the CBI confirmed that the label, as well as the pretest ratings, of the subjects had little influence on the posttest ratings. This comparison also replicated a finding previously illustrated by the work of Foster and his colleagues. These studies found that teachers' hypothetical low expectancy ratings were more negative than their posttest ratings suggesting that teachers are sensitive to normal behavior (Foster & Ysseldyke, 1976; Foster et al., 1975). The results of this study indicated the same conclusion. For instance, LD expectancy teachers who saw the individual seatwork instructional mode film responded with very negative ratings of the hypothetical child at pretesting. That is, the hypothetical LD child was described as being

distractible and off task. These teachers then responded less negatively at posttesting with higher ratings of the child's orientation to the task and lower ratings of his distractibility. The teachers' less negative responses indicated that they were sensitive to the normal behaviors of the child portrayed on the tape.

The normal expectancy teachers watching the same tape followed a complimentary pattern which also confirms Foster's work. These teachers rated the hypothetical child very positively with low ratings on the Distractibility scale and high ones on the Orientation to Task scale. On the posttests the means for these two scales increased and decreased, respectively, showing that the teachers rated the taped child less positively. As Foster and Ysseldyke (1976) concluded, the teachers had an "unrealistically high" expectation for the normal hypothetical child. Although this finding on the individual seatwork film was consistent with previous work, the case was different for the large group instructional mode film.

The teachers' ratings of the child on the large group instructional mode film did not coincide with the above pattern. These teachers, regardless of their assigned expectancy, rated the taped child more negatively than the hypothetical child. Both sets of teachers increased their ratings on the Distractibility scale and decreased their ratings on the Orientation to Task scale from pre- to

posttests. Consequently, the taped child on the large group instructional mode film was rated as less well behaved than was the hypothetical child. As discussed previously, the child's behavior on the large group instructional mode tape was less adequate, and the teachers were sensitive to the behavior resulting in the lower posttest ratings.

Unlike previous work (e.g., Bolstad & Johnson, 1977; Fogel & Nelson, 1983), the present findings indicated that teachers' checklist scores, as well as their retrospective behavior ratings, were not subject to bias when additional information was inherent in the setting where the evaluations occurred. Whether or not the teachers could complete such measures accurately, however, was another issue. The issues of accuracy and the influence of bias have been linked to the specificity of items on a measure and the availability of training. For example, Siegel et al. (1976) found that rating scales with precisely defined items were not negatively influenced by the label of hyperkinesis, and Madle et al. (1980) found that training in the use of characteristic scales reduced the bias effects of the hyperkinetic label. Bolstad and Johnson (1977), employing a precisely defined retrospective behavior observation measure, found that teachers' rank orders of children were accurate but their duration estimates of classroom behaviors were not.

Similar to Bolstad and Johnson (1977), the teachers in this study were not totally accurate in their SECOS-T estimates of the child's behavior. The teachers' accuracy varied according to the type of behavior estimate they were asked to give. That is, when asked to estimate the duration of a behavior (e.g., School Work) the teachers were inaccurate in their estimates; however, when asked how many times the child raised his hand or called out their estimates were more accurate. This inconsistency in accuracy could be due to the teachers not having received training in the use of the measure. Bolstad and Johnson's teachers were not trained to use the retrospective behavior measure, and they experienced the same difficulty estimating the duration of behaviors. It could be that training the teachers, in this study, would have increased the accuracy of their duration estimates.

As with every research project, this study contained elements which could attenuate the validity of the findings. A potential lack of experimental manipulation would be one example. It could be argued that the experimental manipulation was not strong enough or realistic enough to generate a bias; hence, the bias was not evidenced in the posttest ratings. In particular, it could be concluded from the evaluation results and the results of the CBI and SESOS-T that the teachers were not convinced by the case studies that the child they were to see on the videotape was LD.

In addition, the teachers' low ratings of the degree of similarity the videotapes had with a classroom suggests that they may not have believed that they were actually seeing an LD child in a classroom setting. Similar problems were attributed to the research of Yoshida and Myers (1975) as well as Kurtz et al. (1977). The best way to avoid these threats to validity in future research would be to utilize videotapes of intact, real classrooms. For the present findings, there is little that can be done to directly assess the impact of the teachers' evaluation of the videotapes upon their responses; however, because the teachers' responses to the issue of videotape/classroom similarity was related to few significant differences in the teachers' responses to the dependent measures, lack of experimental manipulation does not seem to have been an insult to the validity of the findings.

The validity of these findings are limited to the particular tape segments utilized. The finding that the teachers were inaccurate giving duration estimates of behaviors but were less inaccurate giving frequency estimates of other behaviors is possibly due to the quality of the tape segments used. Specifically, the teachers' accuracy when estimating the frequency of event behaviors could be due to the low occurrence of the behaviors on the tape.

This issue needs further research because various conditions (e.g., number of children present, variety of behavior, and frequency of behavior) could possibly influence the accuracy of teachers' retrospective observations.

A third problem in generalizing these results to classroom functioning is simple and straightforward - actual classroom settings were not investigated. Not until a similar study is applied to actual classroom settings would it be known if the results of this project are valid. The fact that this study utilized videotapes with more ecological validity than did past research (e.g., the Foster studies using tapes of single children doing assessment tasks) contributes to the strength of generalizing these findings to a classroom. Replication, however, in a real classroom setting is necessary before these findings can be judged socially valid.

Related to the problem of not having used real classroom settings is the lack of LD children confederates in the study. Because the literature has focused total attention upon the issue of potential bias, none of the studies have investigated the problems LD children actually face. This research does not tell us if teachers evaluate the LD child differently because of the fact that the child is labeled or because of some elusive characteristic, as yet undetermined, of LD children. Only research projects which investigate the impact of the LD label upon identified

children would answer this question. A study conducted with the same methodology as the current research but utilizing LD students on the videotapes could provide answers about teacher bias toward identified LD children.

Two other areas of future research are suggested by the findings of this study. The first area deals with the use of various student evaluation methods by teachers. Fogel and Nelson (1983) recommended that teachers use concurrent observation methods, rather than global characteristic checklists, to collect data because they found that the concurrent measure, but not the checklist, was insensitive to bias. This study did not confirm Fogel and Nelson's checklist finding. Instead, the results suggest that when faced with an ecological representation of classroom behavior neither global measures nor retrospective behavior observations are biased by a special education label. This study also found that the retrospective observation measure, despite resiliency to bias, lacked accuracy. Without accuracy and objectivity, no method of collecting student data is useful for instructional planning. A study conducted to investigate the use of concurrent observation methods, retrospective observation methods, and global characteristic measures should address the issues of accuracy and sensitivity to bias. Conducting such a study with intact classrooms would yield the most ecologically valid results.

A second issue which should be incorporated in future research is the training of teachers to use evaluation methods so that objective student information is obtained. Research has found that training teachers to use global characteristic scales reduces the influence of bias (Madle et al., 1980). This study, however, found that even without training the global measure was not influenced by bias, and the comparison of the global ratings to the criteria measures of the taped behaviors suggested that the teachers were fairly objective in their CBI responses.

It could be that the nature of the items on the CBI was a factor in reducing the influence of the bias. Even though the CBI had been used as a global measure, the items were worded rather precisely (e.g., "Tries to do things for himself"). Similar research by Siegel et al. (1976) has found that item precision is a factor in reducing bias. Global checklist measures are commonly used by classroom teachers, and many lack precisely defined items. Without precise items, it is most likely that such measures would fail to produce objective, bias-free student information.

Some global checklists may need to have a training component in order to yield objective, nonbiased data while others may not. Future research should address the question of to what extent teacher training is needed and how such training may interact with item precision.

The ability of both of these factors to prevent the collection of biased information from global checklist measures needs to be investigated in more detail.

A related issue to training is that of feasibility. Fogel and Nelson's (1983) suggestion that student information be collected by concurrent behavior observations may be appropriate for gaining objective information; however, is it feasible to expect teachers to employ concurrent behavior observation measures? Few teachers have the luxury of taking time from instruction to observe a child. A more appropriate alternative may be to provide teachers training in the use of global characteristic scales and retrospective behavior observation codes. The reviewed research (e.g., Madle et al., 1980; Siegel et al., 1976), along with the findings of this study, suggest that with training and the use of precisely worded measures teachers should be able to complete these instruments accurately and without bias. In addition, these methods free teachers from having to use class instruction time to collect student data.

The initial major conclusion of this research suggests that teachers do have set expectations or preconceptions of how LD, as opposed to normal, children behave. Furthermore, these preconceptions are negative in nature and include the idea that LD children are distractible and spend little time on task. Second, the results indicate that under certain

conditions preconceptions are attenuated by normal behavior. Specifically, the LD label does not have long lasting negative consequences for teachers' evaluations of student behavior when teachers have access to additional information concerning the child and his behavior in a classroom setting. Jacobs' (1978) warning that teachers are incapable of effective instruction because of bias appears to be an unwarranted generalization of the bias issue when considering the current findings. These results suggest, instead, that teachers may base their expectations and evaluations of students upon reasonable and appropriate information (Dusek & Joseph, 1983) if that information is available to them. In conclusion, the present study supports the idea that the operation of bias generated by the LD label is a complicated issue. Most likely a variety of interdependent factors influence the function of LD bias within a classroom. Such interdependent factors may include teacher behavior and expectations, student behavior and characteristics, and the various events and elements incorporated within the academic setting. Future research should move into the classroom and incorporate multivariate assessments of these factors to further determine the nature and impact of bias generated by the LD label.

LIST OF REFERENCES

LIST OF REFERENCES

- Agresti, A. & Finlay, B. (1986). Statistical methods for the social sciences (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Dellen Publishing Company.
- Algozzine, B., Mercer, C. D., & Counterline, T. (1977). The effects of labels and behavior on teacher expectations. Exceptional Children, 44, 131-132.
- Algozzine, B., & Sutherland, J. (1977). The "Learning Disabilities" label: An experimental analysis. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 2, 292-297.
- Bolstad, O. D., & Johnson, S. M. (1977). The relationship between teachers' assessment of students and the students' actual behavior in the classroom. Child Development, 48, 570-578.
- Campbell, D. R., & Stanley, J. C. (1966). Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research. New York: Rand McNally.
- Claiborn, W. L. (1969). Expectancy effects in the classroom: A failure to replicate. Journal of Educational Psychology, 60, 377-383.
- Cunningham, T. R., & Tharp, R. G. (1981). The influence of settings on accuracy and reliability of behavioral observations. Behavioral Assessment, 3, 67-78.
- Dunn, L. (1968). Special education for the mildly retarded--Is much of it justifiable? Exceptional Children, 35, 5-22.
- Dukes, M., & Saudargas, R. (1986). State-event classroom observation system-teacher. Unpublished form. University of Tennessee, Knoxville.
- Dusek, J. B., & Joseph, G. (1983). The bases of teacher expectancies: A meta-analysis. Journal of Educational Psychology, 75, 327-346.
- Dusek, J. B., & O'Connell, E. J. (1973). Teacher expectancy effects on the achievement test performance of elementary school children. Journal of Educational Psychology, 65, 371-377.

- Feagans, L., & McKinney, J. D. (1981). The pattern of exceptionality across domains in learning disabled children. Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 1, 313-328.
- Fellers, G., & Saudargas, R. A. (in press). Classroom behaviors of learning disabled and nonhandicapped girls. Learning Disabilities Quarterly.
- Fogel, L. S., & Nelson, R. O. (1983). The effects of special education labels on teachers' behavioral observations, checklist scores, and grading of academic work. Journal of School Psychology, 21, 241-251.
- Foster, G., & Ysseldyke, J. (1976). Expectancy and halo effects as a result of artificially induced teacher bias. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 1, 37-45.
- Foster, G. G., Ysseldyke, J. E., & Reese, J. H., (1975). "I wouldn't have seen it if I hadn't believed it." Exceptional Children, 41, 469-473.
- Gozali, J., & Meyen, E. L. (1970). The influence of the teacher expectancy phenomenon on the academic performances of educable mentally retarded pupils in special classes. Journal of Special Education, 4, 417-424.
- Jacobs, W. R. (1978). The effect of the learning disability label on classroom teachers' ability objectively to observe and interpret child behaviors. Learning Disability Quarterly, 1, 50-55.
- Jose, J., & Cody, J. J. (1971). Teacher-pupil interaction as it relates to attempted changes in teacher expectancy of academic ability and achievement. American Educational Research Journal, 8, 39-49.
- Kent, R.N., O'Leary, K.D., Diament, C., & Dietz, A. (1974). Exception biases in observational evaluation of therapeutic change. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 42, 774-780.
- Kohn, M. (1977). Social competence, symptoms and underachievement in childhood: A longitudinal perspective. Washington, D. C.: V. J. Winston.
- Kurtz, P. D., Harrison, M., Neisworth, J. T., & Jones, R. T. (1977). Influence of "mentally retarded" label on teachers' nonverbal behavior toward preschool children. American Journal of Mental Deficiency, 82, 204-206.

- Lewin, P., Nelson, R. E., & Tollefson, N. (1983). Teacher attitudes toward disruptive students. Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, 17, 188-193.
- Madle, R. A., Neisworth, J. T., & Kurtz, P. D. (1980). Biasing of hyperkinetic behavior ratings by diagnostic reports: Effects of observer training and assessment method. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 13, 35-38.
- McKinney, J. D., & Clifford, M. (1975). Academic and behavioral consequences of mainstreaming mildly retarded children. Proceedings of the National Association of School Psychologists, 2, 173-174.
- McKinney, J. D., & Feagans, L. (1980). Learning disabilities in the classroom. Final report: Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Grant No. G00-76-0 5224, Washington, D.C.
- McKinney, J. D., & Feagans, L. (1983). Adaptive classroom behavior of learning disabled students. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 16, 360-367.
- McKinney, J. D., & Forman, L. (1982). Classroom behavior patterns of EMH, LD and EH students. Journal of School Psychology, 20, 271-279.
- McKinney, J. D., McClure, S., & Feagans, L. (1982). Classroom behavior of learning disabled children. Learning Disability Quarterly, 5, 45-52.
- Nelson, C. M. (1971). Techniques for screening conduct disturbed children. Exceptional Children, 37, 501-507.
- O'Leary, K. D., Kaufman, K. F., Kass, R. E., & Drabman, R. S. (1970). The effects of loud and soft reprimands on the behavior of disruptive students. Exceptional Children, 37, 145-155.
- Reid, J. B. (1970). Reliability assessment of observation data: A possible methodological problem. Child Development, 41, 1143-1150.
- Richey, D., Miller, M., & Lessman, J. (1981). Resource and regular classroom behavior of learning disabled students. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 14, 163-166.

- Rosenthal, R., & Jacobson, L. (1968). Pygmalion in the classroom. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.
- Safran, S. P., & Safran, J. S. (1985). Classroom context and teachers' perceptions of problem behavior. Journal of Educational Psychology, 77, 20-28.
- Saudargas, R., & Creed, V. (1980) State-event classroom observation system. Unpublished observation manual. University of Tennessee, Knoxville.
- Saudargas, R. A., & Lentz, F. E. (1986). Estimating percent of time and rate via direct observation: A suggested observational procedure and format. School Psychology Review, 15, 36-48..
- Schaefer, E. S., Edgerton, M., & Hunter, W.M. (1983). Unified model for academic competence, social adjustment, and psychopathology. Paper presented at American Psychological Association Annual Meeting at Anaheim, California.
- Schaefer, E. S., Edgerton, M., & Aronson, M. (1977). Classroom Behavior Inventory. Unpublished form.
- Schurr, K., Towne, R., & Joiner, L. (1972). Trends in self-concept of ability over two years of special class placement. Journal of Special Education, 6, 161-166.
- Siegel, L. J., Dragovich, S. L., & Marholin, D. (1976). The effects of biasing information on behavioral observations and rating scales. Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 4, 221-233.
- Slate, J. R., & Saudargas, R. A. (in press). Classroom behaviors of learning disabled, seriously emotionally disturbed, and average children: a sequential analysis. Learning Disabilities Quarterly.
- Slate, J. R., & Saudargas, R. A. (1986). Differences in the classroom behaviors of behaviorally disordered and regular class children. Behavioral Disorders, 12, 45-53.
- Slate, J. R., & Saudargas, R. A. (1986). Differences in Learning Disabled and Average Children's Classroom Behaviors. Learning Disabilities Quarterly, 9, 61-68.
- SPSS-X User's Guide. (1986) (2nd ed.). Chicago, IL.

- Sutherland, J., & Algozzine, B. (1979). The learning disabled label as a biasing factor in the visual motor performance of normal children. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 12, 17-23.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (1983). Using multivariate statistics. New York: Harper & Row.
- Taylor, R. L., Smiley, L. R., & Ziegler, E. W. (1983). The effects of labels and assigned attributes on teacher perceptions of academic and social behavior. Education and Training of the Mentally Retarded, 18, 45-51.
- Thorndike, R. L. (1982). Applied psychometrics. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Wahler, R. G., & Leske, G. (1973). Accurate and inaccurate observer summary reports. Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease, 156, 386-394.
- Yoshida, R. K., & Meyers, C. E. (1975). Effects of labeling as educable mentally retarded on teachers' expectancies for change in a student's performance. Journal of Educational Psychology, 67, 521-527.
- Ysseldyke, J. E., & Algozzine, B. (1982). Critical issues in special and remedial education. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

CASE SUMMARIES FOR
LEARNING DISABLED AND NORMAL
EXPECTANCIES

CASE SUMMARY

6-10-85

NAME: Chris Stevens

PARENTS: Mr. & Mrs. D.L.
Stevens

BIRTHDATE: 12-10-76

ADDRESS: East Tennessee

AGE: 8

GRADE: 3

HANDICAPPING CONDITION: Learning Disabilities

Chris has lived in the Knoxville area since birth. He lives with his parents and brother. Chris has attended the same elementary school since enrolling in kindergarten. Chris participated in the summer school program at the request of his parents because of continued difficulty in school.

During the second grade, Chris was certified by his school's M-Team as a learning disabled student in reading and language arts. School records indicate that Chris's IQ score was in the average range while achievement scores for reading, spelling, and arithmetic varied between the kindergarten and first grade levels. Classroom observations and teacher reports document that Chris has had some difficulty with his classroom behavior which tends to be poorer in less structured activities but improves somewhat as activities become more structured. Chris's academic program consisted of regular classroom placement with daily resource assistance in the areas of his certification.

ID _____

CASE SUMMARY

6-10-85

NAME: Chris Stevens

PARENTS: Mr. & Mrs. D.L.
Stevens

BIRTHDATE: 12-10-76

ADDRESS: East Tennessee

AGE: 8

GRADE: 3

HANDICAPPING CONDITION: None

Chris has lived in the Knoxville area since birth. He lives with his parents and brother. He has attended the same elementary school since enrolling in kindergarten. Chris participated in the summer school program at the request of his parents.

Chris's intelligence is within the average range while his achievement in reading, spelling, and arithmetic varies within the third grade level. Teacher reports indicate that Chris has had no difficulty with his behavior in the classroom. His behavior has been consistently adequate across various classroom activities. Records also show that Chris's academic program consists of regular classroom placement.

APPENDIX B

CBI

CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR INVENTORY

	NOT OBSERVED/ APPROPRIATE	NOT AT ALL LIKE	VERY LITTLE LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	MUCH LIKE	VERY MUCH LIKE
1 Laughs and smiles easily and spontaneously in class.	0	1	2	3	4	5
2 Says interesting and original things.	0	1	2	3	4	5
3 Tries to do things for himself.	0	1	2	3	4	5
4 Ridicules and mocks others without regard for their feelings.	0	1	2	3	4	5
5 Understands difficult words.	0	1	2	3	4	5
6 Works earnestly; doesn't take it lightly.	0	1	2	3	4	5
7 Has a low, unsteady or uncertain voice when speaking to a group of students.	0	1	2	3	4	5
8 Awaits his turn willingly.	0	1	2	3	4	5
9 Does not wait for other children to approach him, but seeks them out.	0	1	2	3	4	5
10 Thinks up interesting things to do.	0	1	2	3	4	5
11 Often can't answer a question because his mind has wandered.	0	1	2	3	4	5
12 Works without asking teacher for help.	0	1	2	3	4	5
13 Tries to get even with a child with whom he is angry.	0	1	2	3	4	5
14 Has a good fund of information for a child his age.	0	1	2	3	4	5
15 Stays with a job until it is finished, even if it is difficult for him.	0	1	2	3	4	5
16 Tries not to do or say anything that would hurt another.	0	1	2	3	4	5
17 Asks for help from teacher when it's not really needed.	0	1	2	3	4	5
18 Likes to talk or socialize with classmates before or after class.	0	1	2	3	4	5
19 Asks questions showing interest in ideas.	0	1	2	3	4	5
20 Is quickly distracted by events in or outside the classroom.	0	1	2	3	4	5
21 Keeps busy for long periods of time without the teacher's attention.	0	1	2	3	4	5

TURN OVER

	NOT OBSERVED/ APPROPRIATE	NOT AT ALL LIKE	VERY LITTLE LIKE	SOME WHAT LIKE	MUCH LIKE	VERY MUCH LIKE
22 Uses a large and varied vocabulary.	0	1	2	3	4	5
23 Works carefully and does his best.	0	1	2	3	4	5
24 Tends to withdraw and isolate himself, even when he is supposed to be working in a group.	0	1	2	3	4	5
25 Is agreeable and easy to get along with.	0	1	2	3	4	5
26 Asks the teacher to do even simple things for him.	0	1	2	3	4	5
27 Is almost always light hearted and cheerful.	0	1	2	3	4	5
28 Uses materials in imaginative ways.	0	1	2	3	4	5
29 Tries to figure things out for himself before he asks questions.	0	1	2	3	4	5
30 Gets angry quickly when others do not agree with his opinion.	0	1	2	3	4	5
31 Grasps important ideas without having every detail spelled out.	0	1	2	3	4	5
32 Pays attention to what he is doing and is not easily distracted.	0	1	2	3	4	5
33 Is usually sad,solemn and serious looking.	0	1	2	3	4	5
34 Respects the rights of other children.	0	1	2	3	4	5
35 Tries to be with another child or group of children.	0	1	2	3	4	5
36 Wants to know more about things that are presented in class.	0	1	2	3	4	5
37 Sometimes pays attention; other times must be spoken to constantly.	0	1	2	3	4	5
38 Can look out for himself; doesn't usually ask for help.	0	1	2	3	4	5
39 Can draw reasonable conclusions from information given him.	0	1	2	3	4	5
40 Attends to the task to be done.	0	1	2	3	4	5
41 Gives other children an opportunity to express their views.	0	1	2	3	4	5
42 Wants the teacher's help for problems he could solve alone.	0	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C

SECOS-T

FOR LARGE GROUP AND INDIVIDUAL SEATWORK SETTINGS

SECOS-T

Please indicate approximately what percentage of a 10 to 15 minute time period of group activity the student is engaged in each of the following activities. Indicate your responses by writing in the blank. As a guide for answering, your total percent should equal 100%.

		<u>Percent</u>
1	Sits in his seat	_____
2	Is out of his seat	_____
	TOTAL	100%
3	Does assigned school work	_____
4	Looks away from assigned activity	_____
5	Talks with another child	_____
6	Engages in an activity other than that assigned (Doesn't include talking to a child)	_____
7	Talks with teacher about assigned activity	_____
8	Talks with teacher about other than assigned activity	_____
	TOTAL	100%

Now please indicate approximately how many times the student is engaged in each activity within a 10 to 15 minute group work period. Please circle your response.

9	Raises hand	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	>11
10	Approaches another child	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	>11
11	Is approached by another child	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	>11

- 12 Drops or throws
an object 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 >11
- 13 Calls out question
or unsolicited
response to
teacher 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 >11

For this last section, please indicate approximately how many times the teacher does each of the following during a 10 to 15 minute period when the class is engaged in a group activity. Please circle your response.

- 14 Initiates contact
with student
while engaged
in school work. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 >11
- 15 Initiates contact
with student
while engaged in
an activity other
than school
work. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 >11
- 16 Redirects the
student back
to appropriate
school work
activities. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 >11
- 17 Approves of the
students' behavior
or school work. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 >11
- 18 Disapproves of
the students'
behavior or
school work. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 >11

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND HELP.

SECOS-T

Please indicate approximately what percentage of a 10 to 15 minute individual seatwork period the student is engaged in each of the following activities. Indicate your responses by writing in the blank. As a guide for answering, your total percent should equal 100%.

		<u>Percent</u>
1	Sits in his seat	_____
2	Is out of his seat	_____
	TOTAL	100%
3	Does assigned school work	_____
4	Looks away from assigned activity	_____
5	Talks with another child	_____
6	Engages in an activity other than that assigned (Doesn't include talking to a child)	_____
7	Talks with teacher about assigned activity	_____
8	Talks with teacher about other than assigned activity	_____
	TOTAL	100%

Now please indicate approximately how many times the student is engaged in each activity within a 10 to 15 minute individual seat work activity. Please circle your response.

9	Raises hand	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	>11
10	Approaches another child	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	>11
11	Is approached by another child	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	>11

- 12 Drops or throws
an object 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 >11
- 13 Calls out question
or unsolicited
response to
teacher 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 >11

For this last section, please indicate approximately how many times the teacher does each of the following during a 10 to 15 minute period when the class is doing individual seatwork. Please circle your response.

- 14 Initiates contact
with student
while engaged
in school work. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 >11
- 15 Initiates contact
with student
while engaged in
an activity other
than school
work. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 >11
- 16 Redirects the
student back
to appropriate
school work
activities. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 >11
- 17 Approves of the
students' behavior
or school work. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 >11
- 18 Disapproves of
the students'
behavior or
school work. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 >11

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND HELP.

APPENDIX D

PRETEST INSTRUCTIONS

CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR INVENTORY

Earl S. Schaefer, Marianna Edgerton & May Aronson

January 1978

INSTRUCTIONS

Please describe as accurately as possible how a learning disabled boy who is around eight years of age would behave in a 10 to 15 minute class period while participating in a group activity. In this situation the teacher is present and is actively engaged with the group, for example, the teacher may be leading the group in a discussion about a lesson.

Please give a response to every item by circling one of the five responses to each question and BASE YOUR RESPONSE UPON YOUR PERSONAL OBSERVATIONS AND EXPERIENCE. Please do not confer with anyone about how you have completed the referral form.

ID _____

CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR INVENTORY

Earl S. Schaefer, Marianna Edgerton & May Aronson

January 1978

INSTRUCTIONS

Please describe as accurately as possible how a normal boy who is around eight years of age would behave in a 10 to 15 minute class period while participating in a group activity. In this situation the teacher is present and is actively engaged with the group, for example, the teacher may be leading the group in a discussion about a lesson.

Please give a response to every item by circling one of the five responses to each question and BASE YOUR RESPONSE UPON YOUR PERSONAL OBSERVATIONS AND EXPERIENCE. Please do not confer with anyone about how you have completed the referral form.

ID _____

CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR INVENTORY

Earl S. Schaefer, Marianna Edgerton & May Aronson

January 1978

INSTRUCTIONS

Please describe as accurately as possible how a typical learning disabled boy who is around eight years of age would behave in a 10 to 15 minute class period while doing individual seatwork. In this situation the teacher is present but is not actively engaged with the whole class, for example, the teacher may be working at her desk.

Please give a response to every item by circling one of the five responses to each question and BASE YOUR RESPONSE UPON YOUR PERSONAL OBSERVATIONS AND EXPERIENCE. Please do not confer with anyone about how you have completed the referral form.

ID _____

CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR INVENTORY

Earl S. Schaefer, Marianna Edgerton & May Aronson

January 1978

INSTRUCTIONS

Please describe as accurately as possible how a normal boy who is around eight years of age would behave in a 10 to 15 minute class period while doing individual seatwork. In this situation the teacher is present but is not actively engaged with the whole class, for example, the teacher may be working at her desk.

Please give a response to every item by circling one of the five responses to each question and BASE YOUR RESPONSE UPON YOUR PERSONAL OBSERVATIONS AND EXPERIENCE. Please do not confer with anyone about how you have completed the referral form.

ID _____

SECOS-T

January 1986

Instructions

The following referral form asks you to describe how a learning disabled boy who is around 8 years of age would act during a 10 to 15 minute class period while participating in a group activity. In this situation the teacher is present and is actively engaged with the group; for example, the teacher may be leading the group in a discussion about a lesson.

Please give a response to every item and BASE YOUR RESPONSE UPON YOUR PERSONAL OBSERVATIONS AND EXPERIENCE. Please do not confer with anyone about how you have completed the referral form.

ID _____

SECOS-T

January 1986

Instructions

The following referral form asks you to describe how a normal boy who is around 8 years of age would act during a 10 to 15 minute class period while participating in a group activity. In this situation the teacher is present and is actively engaged with the group; for example, the teacher may be leading the group in a discussion about a lesson.

Please give a response to every item and BASE YOUR RESPONSE UPON YOUR PERSONAL OBSERVATIONS AND EXPERIENCE. Please do not confer with anyone about how you have completed the referral form.

ID _____

SECOS-T

January 1986

Instructions

The following referral form asks you to describe how a learning disabled boy who is around 8 years of age would act during a 10 to 15 minute class period while doing individual seatwork. In this situation the teacher is present but is not actively engaged with the class; for example, the teacher may be working at her desk.

Please give a response to every item and BASE YOUR RESPONSE UPON YOUR PERSONAL OBSERVATIONS AND EXPERIENCE. Please do not confer with anyone about how you have completed the referral form.

ID _____

SECOS-T

January 1986

Instructions

The following referral form asks you to describe how a normal boy who is around 8 years of age would act during a 10 to 15 minute class period while doing individual seatwork. In this situation the teacher is present but is not actively engaged with the whole class; for example, the teacher may be working at her desk.

Please give a response to every item and BASE YOUR RESPONSE UPON YOUR PERSONAL OBSERVATIONS AND EXPERIENCE. Please do not confer with anyone about how you have completed the referral form.

ID _____

APPENDIX E

POSTTEST INSTRUCTIONS

CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR INVENTORY

Earl S. Schaefer, Marianna Edgerton & May Aronson

January 1978

INSTRUCTIONS

Please describe as accurately as possible the child on the videotape you have just seen.

Please give a response to every item by circling one of the five responses to each question and BASE YOUR RESPONSE UPON YOUR PERSONAL OBSERVATIONS AND EXPERIENCE. Please do not confer with anyone about how you have completed the referral form.

ID _____

SECOS-T

January 1986

Instructions

The following referral form asks you to describe the child you have just seen on the videotape.

Please give a response to every item and BASE YOUR RESPONSE UPON YOUR PERSONAL OBSERVATIONS AND EXPERIENCE. Please do not confer with anyone about how you have completed the referral form.

ID _____

APPENDIX F

EVALUATION INSTRUMENT

EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

ID: _____

DATE _____

This questionnaire asks for your opinions concerning the experiment you participated in. Please respond as completely as possible to each question.

Q 1 What do you think the purposes of this study were?

Q 2 In your opinion was the project conducted professionally and effectively? (CIRCLE ONE)

1 YES 2 NO 3 UNDECIDED

If no, please explain what could have been done better.

Q 3 To what degree do you think the videotape resembled a typical classroom experience?(CIRCLE THE NUMBER OF YOUR RESPONSE)

NO RESEMBLANCE		SOME		COMPLETE RESEMBLANCE
1	2	3	4	5

Q 4 The child you watched on the tape had been described in the case summary as being:(CIRCLE ONE)

1 LEARNING DISABLED	2 MENTALLY RETARDED
3 GIFTED	4 NORMAL
5 DON'T KNOW/NOT SURE	

Q 5 To what degree was the case summary you read similar to reports or summaries you, as a teacher, would usually have access to when checking information about a child? (CIRCLE THE NUMBER OF YOUR RESPONSE)

NO
SIMILARITY

1

2

SOME
SIMILARITY

3

4

VERY
SIMILAR

5

If not similar, what differences did you notice?

IF YOU HAVE ANY OTHER COMMENTS, PLEASE FEEL FREE TO USE THE SPACE ON BACK OF THIS SHEET. THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP AND TIME. M. Dukes #974-6846.

APPENDIX G

SECOS-T FREQUENCIES FOR
LARGE GROUP INSTRUCTIONAL MODE TAPE

Frequencies of Teacher SECOS-T Responses
Compared With Criteria Measures of Behaviors
on Large Group Instructional Mode Film

Child State Behaviors		Number of LD Expectancy Teachers									
Item	Criterion Measure	<10%	11-20%	21-30%	31-40%	41-50%	51-60%	61-70%	71-80%	81-90%	>91%
1.In Seat	3.6%	4	2	3	0	4	0	0	4	1	1
2.Out Seat	96.4%	2	3	1	0	4	0	2	3	3	1
3.School Work	45%	13	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1
4.Look	43%	1	3	3	3	3	2	2	1	1	2
5.Talk with Child	0%	20	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
6.Another Activity	14%	10	4	4	2	2	1	0	0	0	0
7.Talk with Teacher-SW*	3%	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
8.Talk with Teacher-OT*	4%	20	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

* Talk with Teacher-SW = Talk with Teacher about School Work.
Talk with Teacher-OT = Talk with Teacher about Other Activity.

Child State Behaviors

Item	Criterion Measure	Number of Normal Expectancy Teachers									
		<10%	11-20%	21-30%	31-40%	41-50%	51-60%	61-70%	71-80%	81-90%	>91%
1.In Seat	3.6%	7	0	0	3	2	0	1	2	0	4
2.Out Seat	96.4%	4	2	1	0	2	1	2	0	4	3
3.School Work	45%	12	0	2	1	2	0	0	0	1	0
4.Look	43%	0	1	4	2	2	0	1	3	5	0
5.Talk with Child	0%	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6.Another Activity	14%	10	5	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
7.Talk with Teacher-SW*	3%	15	1	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0
8.Talk with Teacher-OT*	4%	18	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

*Talk with Teacher-SW = Talk with Teacher about School Work.
 Talk with Teacher-OT = Talk with Teacher about Other Activity.

Child Event Behaviors

Item	Criterion Measure	# of LD Expectancy Teachers				# of Normal Expectancy Teachers			
		0-3	4-7	8-11		0-3	4-7	8-11	
9.Raise Hand	2	20	1	0		18	0	1	
10.Approach Child	0	20	1	0		19	0	0	
11.Other Child Approach	0	21	0	0		19	0	0	
12.Drop Object	1	20	0	1		18	1	0	
13.Call Out	3	18	0	1		14	0	0	

Teacher Event Behaviors

Item	Criterion Measure	# of LD Expectancy Teachers				# of Normal Expectancy Teachers			
		0-2	3-5	6-8	9-11	0-2	3-5	6-8	9-11
14.Initiate Contact-SW*	1	7	6	4	2	4	7	2	1
15.Initiate Contact-OT*	3	14	5	0	0	7	3	3	0
16.Redirect	2	8	9	0	1	1	13	0	0
17.Approve	4	14	2	2	1	10	3	0	1
18.Disapprove	2	6	9	1	3	1	12	1	0

*Initiate Contact-SW = Initiate Contact While doing School Work.
Initiate Contact-OT = Initiate Contact While doing Other Activity.

APPENDIX H

SECOS-T FREQUENCIES FOR
INDIVIDUAL SEATWORK INSTRUCTIONAL MODE TAPE

Frequencies of Teacher SECOS-T Responses
Compared with Criteria Measures of Behaviors
on Individual Seatwork Instructional Mode Film

Child State Behaviors		Number of LD Expectancy Teachers									
Item	Criterion Measure	<10%	11-20%	21-30%	31-40%	41-50%	51-60%	61-70%	71-80%	81-90%	>91%
1.In Seat	92%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	5	9
2.Out Seat	8%	14	6	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3.School Work	71%	5	0	4	2	3	1	2	1	3	0
4.Look	16%	8	2	4	5	2	0	0	0	0	0
5.Talk with Child	1%	19	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6.Another Activity	6%	6	4	1	1	6	1	1	0	0	1
7.Talk with Teacher-SW*	.5%	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
8.Talk with Teacher-OT*	2%	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

*Talk with Teacher-SW = Talk with Teacher about School Work.
Talk with Teacher-OT = Talk with Teacher about Other Activity.

Child State Events		Number of Normal Expectancy Teachers									
Item	Criterion Measure	<10%	11-20%	21-30%	31-40%	41-50%	51-60%	61-70%	71-80%	81-90%	>91%
1.In Seat	92%	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	6	8
2.Out Seat	8%	14	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1
3.School Work	71%	1	3	1	3	6	1	0	2	1	1
4.Look	16%	8	3	5	0	3	0	0	0	0	0
5.Talk with Child	1%	17	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6.Another Activity	6%	6	3	5	2	2	0	0	1	0	0
7.Talk with Teacher-SW*	.5%	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
8.Talk with Teacher-OT*	2%	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

*Talk with Teacher-SW = Talk with Teacher about School Work.
 Talk with Teacher-OT = Talk with Teacher about Other Activity.

Child Event Behaviors

Item	Criterion Measure	# of LD Expectancy Teachers				# of Normal Expectancy Teachers			
		0-3	4-7	8-11		0-3	4-7	8-11	
9.Raise Hand	0	21	0	0		19	0	0	
10.Approach Child	3	19	2	0		13	6	0	
11.Other Child Approach	2	21	0	0		19	0	0	
12.Drop Object	1	14	7	0		12	7	0	
13.Call Out	0	17	1	2		17	1	0	

Teacher Event Behaviors

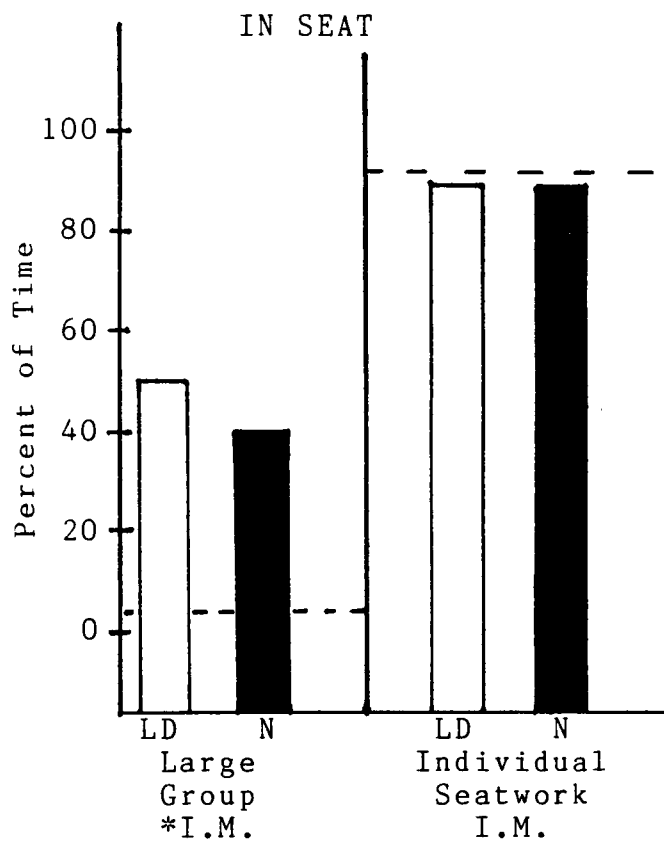
Item	Criterion Measure	# of LD Expectancy Teachers				# of Normal Expectancy Teachers			
		0-2	3-5	6-8	9-11	0-2	3-5	6-8	9-11
14.Initiate Contact-SW*	1	15	5	0	0	11	7	0	0
15.Initiate Contact-OT*	1	16	4	0	0	11	7	0	0
16.Redirect	0	13	6	1	0	10	8	0	0
17.Approve	1	17	1	1	0	11	7	0	0
18.Disapprove	1	15	5	0	0	13	5	0	0

*Initiate Contact-SW = Initiate Contact With Student While Doing School Work.

Initiate Contact-OT = Initiate Contact With Student While Doing Other Activity.

APPENDIX I

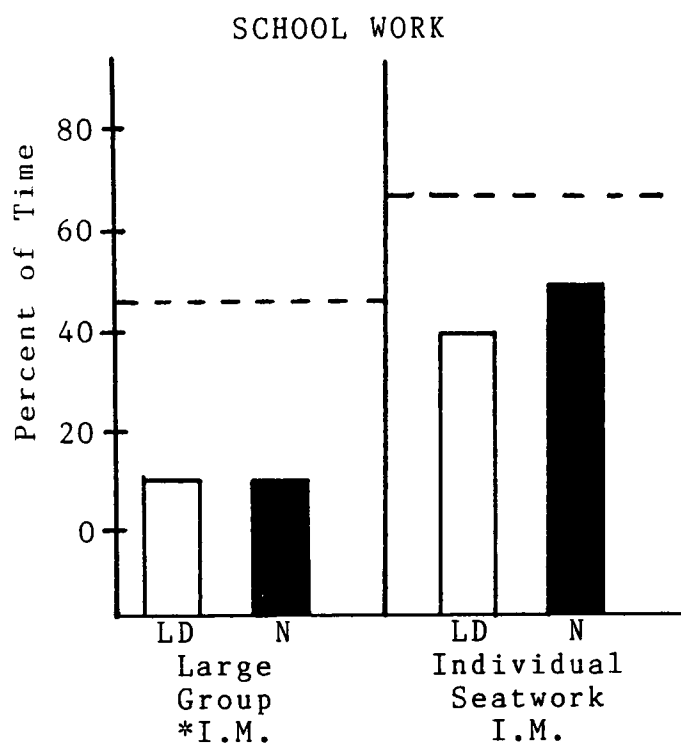
COMPARISONS BETWEEN SECOS-T RESPONSES AND CRITERIA DATA
FOR THE LARGE GROUP AND INDIVIDUAL SEATWORK
INSTRUCTIONAL MODES



Median comparison of IN SEAT.

— — — — Criterion Measure

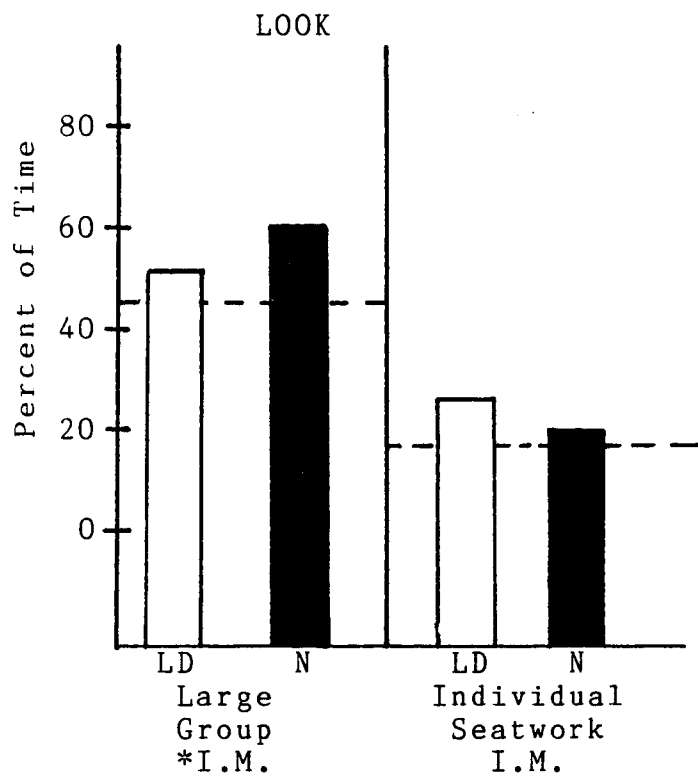
*I.M. = Instructional Mode



Median comparison of SCHOOL WORK.

— — — — Criterion Measure

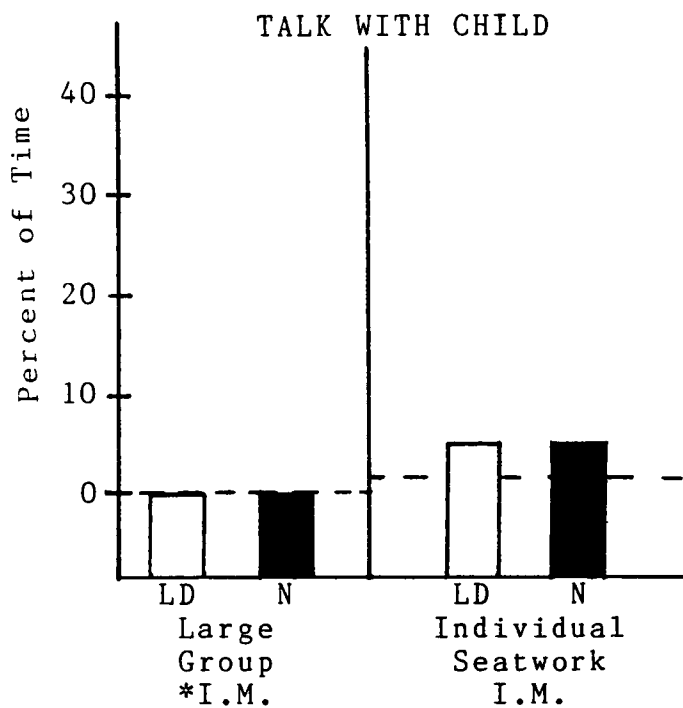
*I.M. = Instructional Mode



Median comparison of LOOK.

— — — — Criterion Measure

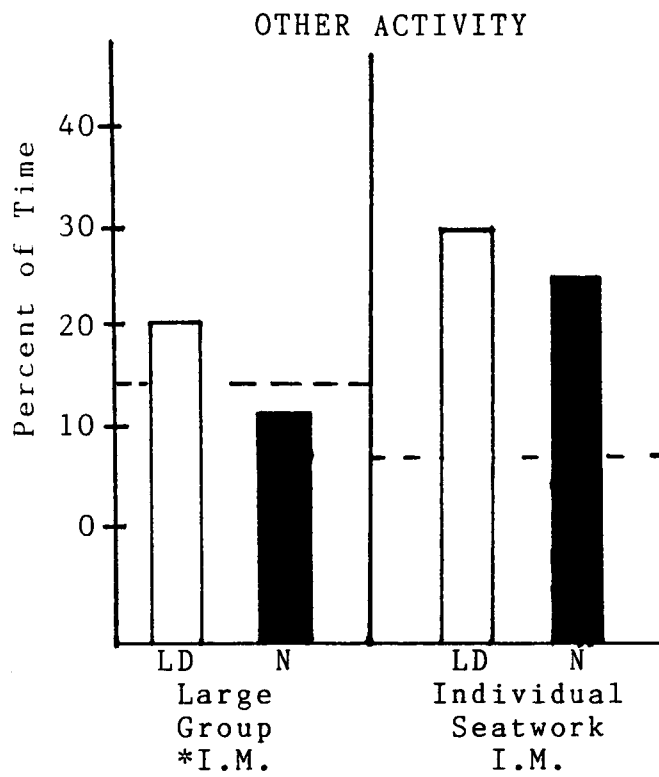
*I.M. = Instructional Mode



Median comparison of TALK WITH CHILD.

— — — — Criterion Measure

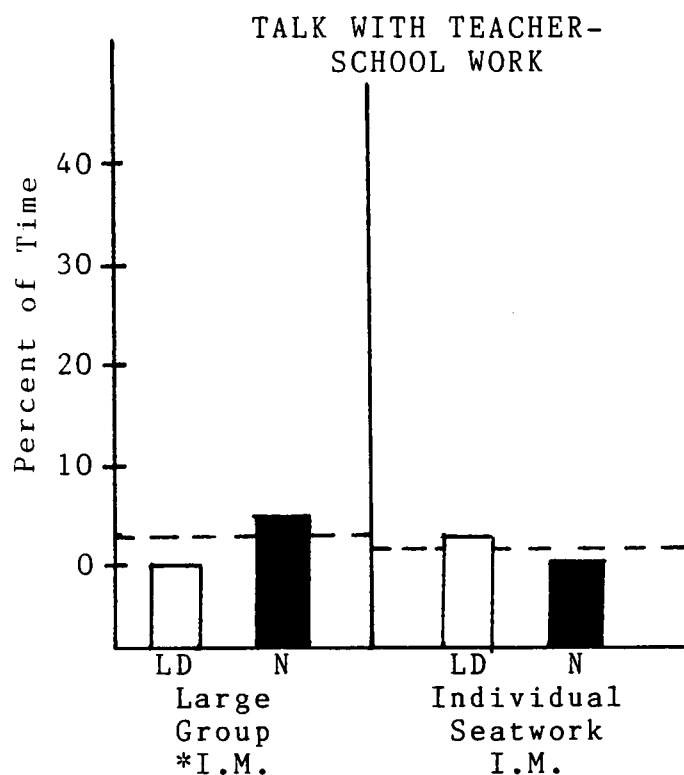
*I.M. = Instructional Mode



Median comparison of OTHER ACTIVITY.

— — — — Criterion Measure

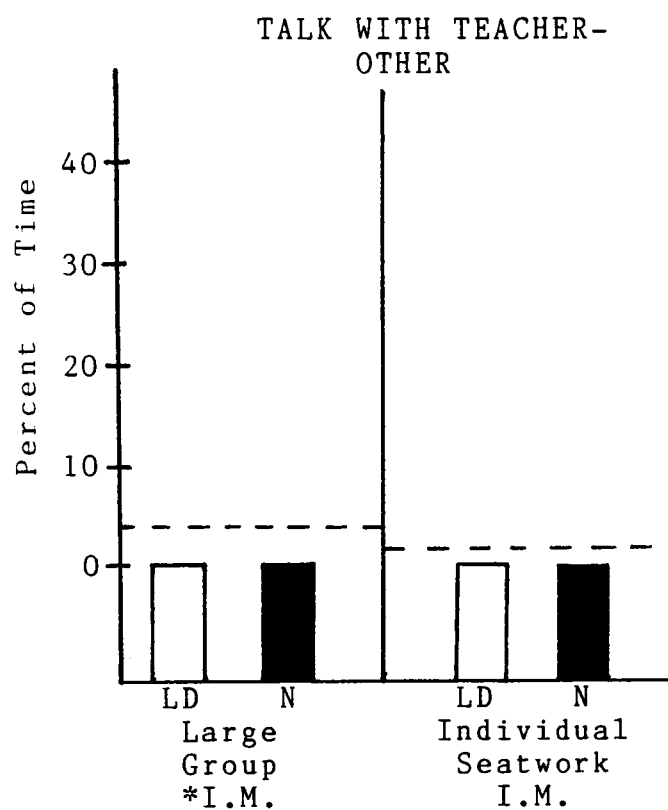
*I.M. = Instructional Mode



Median comparison of TALK WITH TEACHER-
SCHOOL WORK.

— — — — Criterion Measure

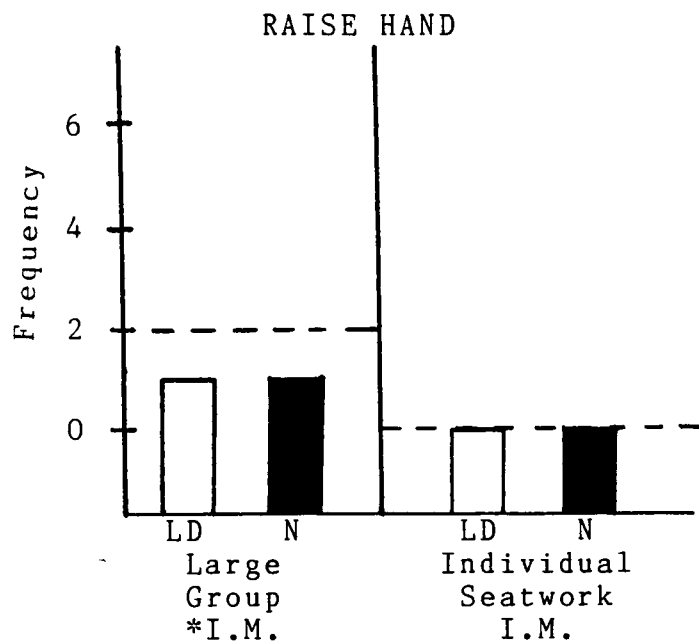
*I.M. = Instructional Mode



Median comparison of TALK WITH TEACHER-OTHER.

— — — — Criterion Measure

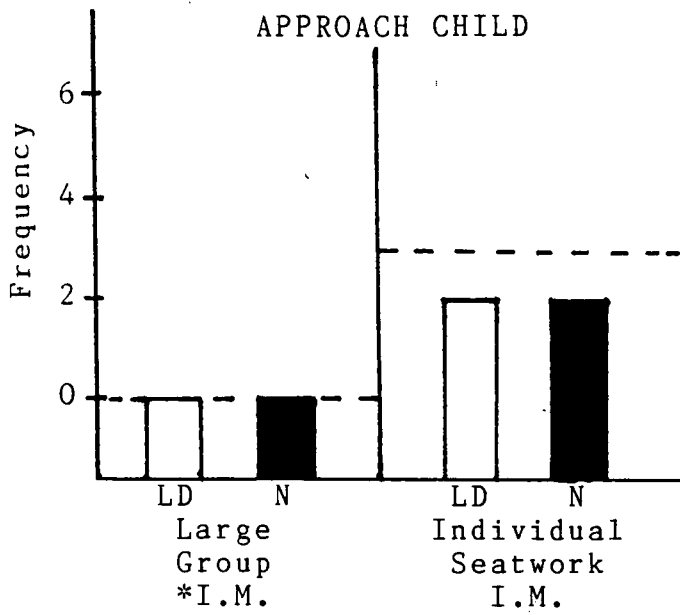
*I.M. = Instructional Mode



Median comparison of RAISE HAND.

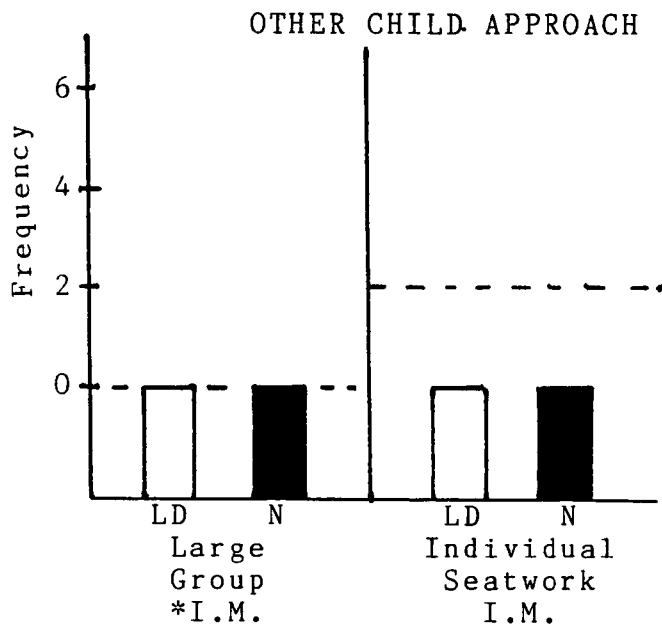
— — — — Criterion Measure

*I.M. = Instructional Mode



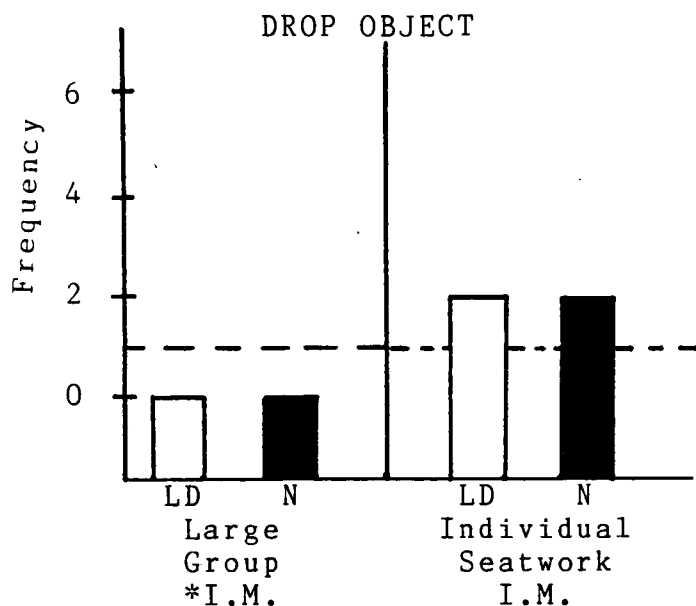
Median comparison of APPROACH CHILD.

- - - - Criterion Measure
*I.M. = Instructional Mode



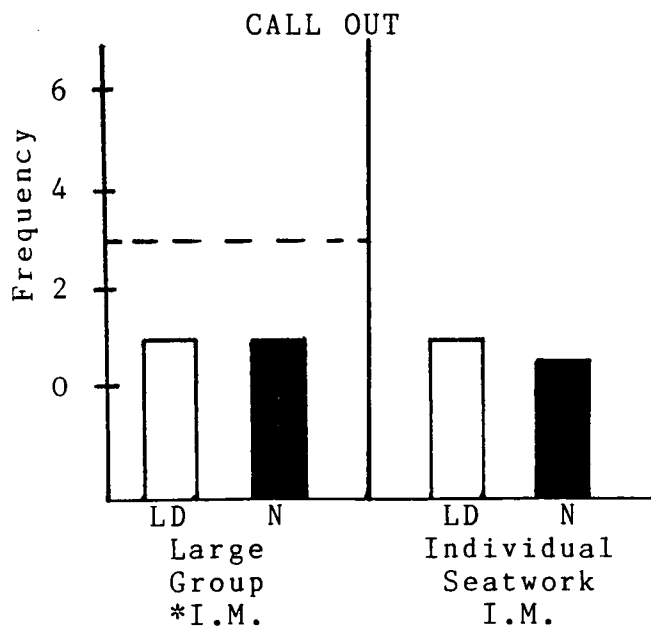
Median comparison of OTHER CHILD APPROACH.

- - - - Criterion Measure
*I.M. = Instructional Mode



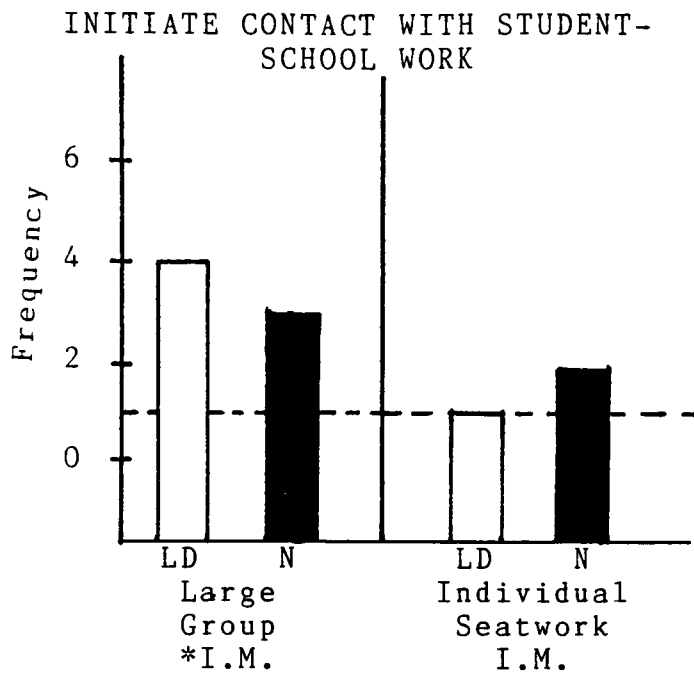
Median comparison of DROP OBJECT.

- - - - Criterion Measure
 *I.M. = Instructional Mode



Median comparison of CALL OUT.

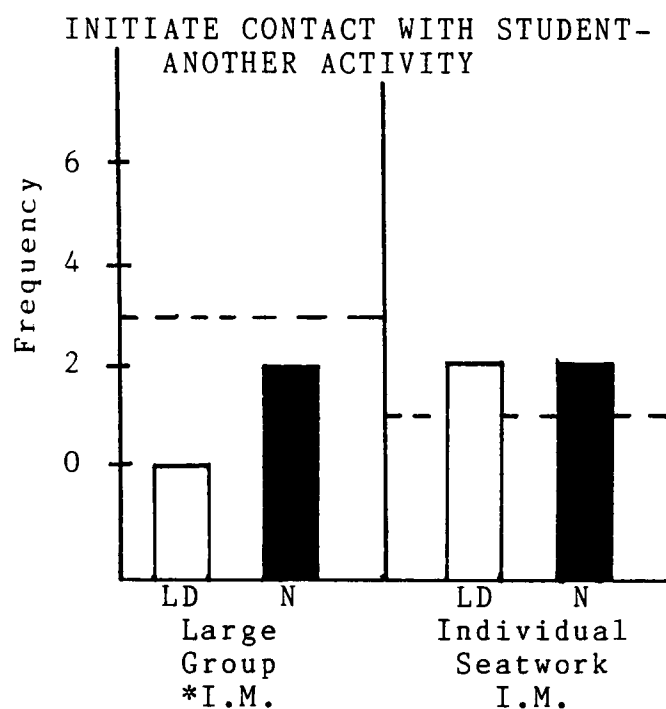
- - - - Criterion Measure
 *I.M. = Instructional Mode



Median comparison of INITIATE CONTACT WITH STUDENT-SCHOOL WORK.

— — — — Criterion Measure

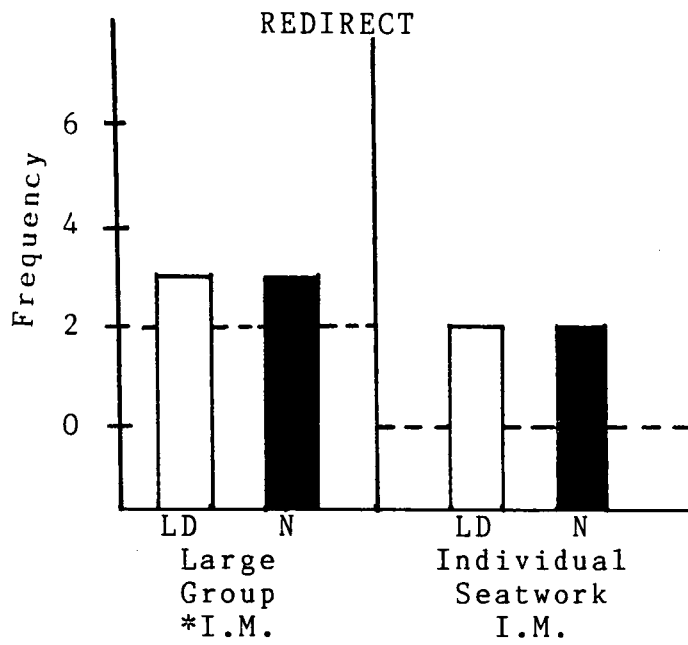
*I.M. = Instructional Mode.



Median comparison of INITIATE CONTACT WITH STUDENT-
ANOTHER ACTIVITY.

— — — — Criterion Measure

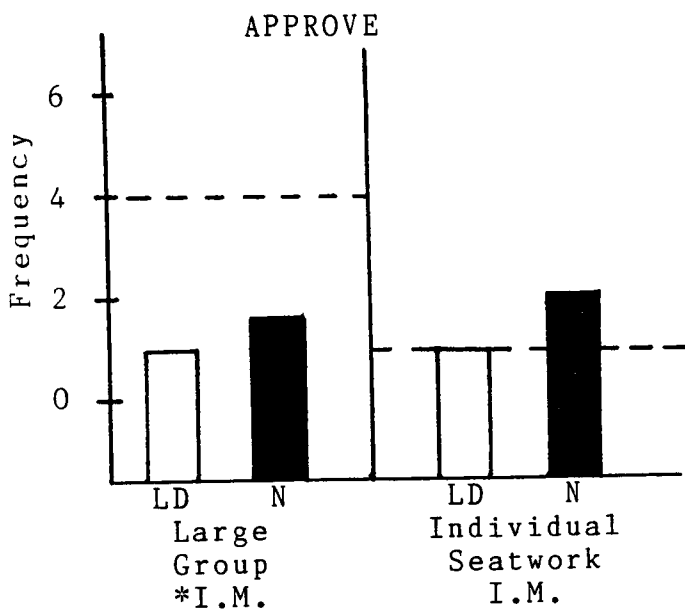
*I.M. = Instructional Mode



Median comparison of REDIRECT.

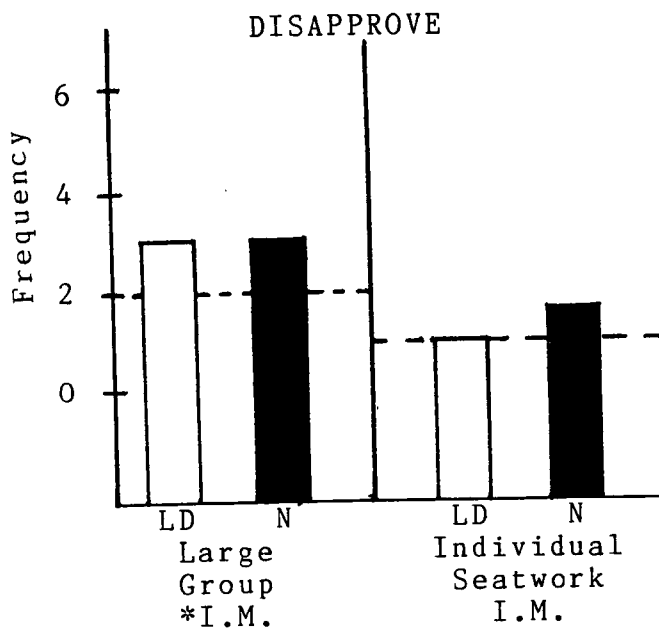
— — — — Criterion Measure

*I.M. = Instructional Mode.



Median comparison of APPROVE.

- - - - Criterion Measure
 *I.M. = Instructional Mode.



Median comparison of DISAPPROVE.

- - - - Criterion Measure
 *I.M. = Instructional Mode

VITA

Melinda Dukes was born in Orangeburg, South Carolina, on March 10, 1958. She attended elementary schools in that city and was graduated from Willington High School in 1976. In the spring of 1980, she was graduated from Clemson University with a Bachelor of Arts degree in Elementary Education and a minor in Special Education. She began her graduate study in the fall of 1981 at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. She was awarded a Master of Arts degree with a major in Psychology in the summer of 1983. She received the Doctor of Philosophy degree with a major in Psychology in June 1987.

Prior to entering graduate school in 1981, she taught special education at Easley Junior High School in Easley, South Carolina. She served as Acting Assistant Director for Daniel Arthur Rehabilitation Center in Oak Ridge, Tennessee, from August to December 1984. From January to May 1985, she was the Project Coordinator of Positive Partnership (a grant supported job training program for the handicapped) at Daniel Arthur Rehabilitation Center.

During her graduate studies at the University of Tennessee, she was a school psychology intern for the Knoxville City School System from August 1982 to June 1983. The following year, she was a school psychology intern for Cherokee Mental Health Center in Morristown, Tennessee.

From August 1985 to June 1986, she was employed as a graduate research assistant in the department of Psychology. Her duties included assisting with research and teaching child development courses.

In the fall of 1986, the author accepted an adjunct assistant professor position at East Tennessee State University in Johnson City, Tennessee. She is a member of the National Association of School Psychologists and holds a Tennessee Education Certificate in School Psychology. In addition, she is licensed by the state of Tennessee as a Psychological Examiner.