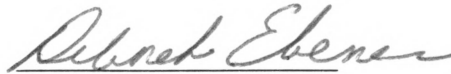THE FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

THE EFFECTS OF COUNSELING TECHNIQUES ON

PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHING EFFICACY
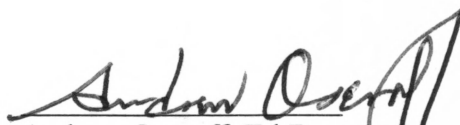

BY

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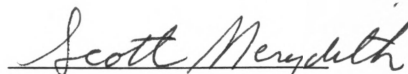
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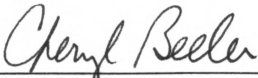
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This dissertation is dedicated to my husband, Charles, whom without his support, assistance and love this project could not have been possible. He has been a continued inspiration despite difficult times.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

viii

LIST OF TABLES

ABSTRACT

Previous research (Armor, Conroy-Osquera, Cox, King, McDonnell, Pacal, Pauly & Zellman, 1976; Berman & McLaughlin, 1977) has shown that teacher efficacy is important in education and classroom effectiveness. This study examined two different counseling interventions to determine the impact on teaching efficacy of degree seeking students who were teaching courses in their respective disciplines. Two counseling interventions were presented in the study. One intervention focused on didactic information and the other on processing of events and emotions (more common with traditional talk counseling). The subject population consisted of "pre-service" teachers and graduate teaching assistants. Using Bandura's Efficacy theory, it was examined whether either of the two counseling interventions would positively impact teacher's efficacy.

The following null hypotheses were assessed: a) the didactic group would have no effect on the subjects' teaching efficacy as measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson, 1983), and b) the processing group would have no effect on the subjects' teaching efficacy as measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson, 1983). It was anticipated that both groups receiving either intervention, didactic or process, would

show a positive increase in their overall score on an instrument measuring teaching efficacy, the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson, 1983). It was further hypothesized that a control group would show no difference in their overall teaching efficacy score. Also, it was hypothesized that the didactic intervention would have a greater positive impact on the subjects' teaching efficacy measure than the process intervention.

The Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson, 1983) was administered to thirty degree seeking students who were teaching at a large, Southern university. This study utilized a pretest-posttest control group design. Two groups received treatment while the third group received no treatment and thus served as a control group. A repeated measures analysis of variance statistics was used with the pretest and posttest interval data in order to determine differences in all the subjects' efficacy scores after either intervention and differences between treatment groups (interaction). The results of the repeated measures ANOVA revealed a significant interaction between experimental group and the pretest/ posttest scores. Pair wise t-tests using the Bonferroni method revealed that the didactic treatment was significant at the .05 level.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Students from the ages of five to eighteen spend approximately seven hours of their day at school. As a result, children are exposed to, and heavily influenced by, school teachers. Older students in pursuit of higher education can also be heavily influenced by their instructors. Teachers provide not only groundwork for academic knowledge but also influence students perceptions of themselves in intellectual, physical, emotional and social realms. Teachers can sway developing value systems of students and provide a basis for how they feel about learning, school and education in general. Therefore, it becomes very important for teachers to provide positive messages and valuable knowledge to students, through both verbal and nonverbal means.

However, through this author's five years of providing psychological services to a public elementary school, observation revealed that many of the same teachers would present many of the same concerns with their students regarding classroom behaviors. These teachers present most of the referrals for psychological services in order to determine if their students qualify for special education services. Also, observation revealed that many of the same teachers were either open to feedback, or were not, regarding problem solving these concerns. These trends in teacher behavior impelled the author to investigate the literature as to the possible reasons why this difference was present.

Programs of studies attempt to provide prospective teachers with the skills, techniques, and methodologies, within the framework of learners' and teachers' characteristics, that are necessary for the development of effective teachers utilizing positive teaching practices. However, research (Blase, 1986; Dembo & Gibson, 1985; Emmer & Hickman, 1991; Greenwood, Olejnik, & Parkay, 1990; Hoy, Tarter & Bliss, 1990; Parkay, Greenwood, Olejnik, & Proller, 1988) on such topics as stress, organizational management, role conflicts, work environment, and classroom management indicates that despite preparation, teachers are experiencing much difficulty within their profession. They are expected to deal with increasing student problems such as: low standardized test scores, increased crime within school settings, disciplinary problems, larger classroom sizes, etc. Coping and persisting with these potentially increasingly negative stimuli varies widely among individual teachers.

There is evidence that teachers' beliefs in their personal ability to instruct students may account for individual differences in effectiveness (Armor, Conroy-Osquera, Cox, King, McDonnell, Pacal, Pauly, & Zellman, 1976; Berman & McLaughlin, 1977). Berman and McLaughlin (1977) found that the most important characteristic determining the effectiveness of change-agent projects was teachers' sense of efficacy. Berman and McLaughlin defined a teacher's sense of efficacy as a belief that teachers can help even the most difficult unmotivated students. Bandura (1977) argued that although locus of control is primarily concerned with causal beliefs about action-outcomes contingencies, or a person's estimate that a given behavior will lead to certain outcomes, personal efficacy is concerned with the conviction that one can successfully execute the behavior required to produce the outcomes, whatever they may be. Teaching efficacy indicates teachers' evaluation of their ability to bring about positive student change (Gibson & Dembo, 1984) or according to Ashton (1985), teaching efficacy is the belief that teachers

2

have in their ability to have a positive effect on student learning.

Statement of Problem

Teachers' efficacy influences the choices they make; their aspirations; how much effort they mobilize in a given activity; how long they persevere in the face of setbacks; whether their thought patterns are positive or negative; and their capability to cope with various demands. Often times, teachers do not feel that their teaching practices can be positive or yield a positive effect on their students, therefore, they feel ineffective. Gibson and Dembo (1984) predicted that teachers who both believed student learning could be influenced by effective teaching and had confidence in their own teaching abilities, should persist longer, provide a greater academic focus in the classroom and exhibit different types of feedback than teachers who had lower expectations concerning their ability to influence student learning.

Research indicated that a number of "personal" factors may contribute to teachers' effectiveness in the classroom. In addition to teacher efficacy, these personal factors included verbal ability and flexibility (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Discriminant analyses in a 1984 study verified the distinction between teacher efficacy and two other constructs (flexibility and verbal ability) identified as present in effective teachers. This led to validation of measuring the construct of teaching efficacy as distinct from other personal factors.

Research from outside the education field suggests other potentially relevant factors (Gallimore, Dalton & Tharp, 1986). For example, Gallimore, Dalton and Tharp suggest that teachers are simply trying to monitor student participation and manage transition rather than tailoring instruction to individuals, or bringing a positive change to

3

student behaviors. They investigated teacher cognition and how self-talk impacts skill acquisition. They concluded that self-speech and thought occupy a point in the later stage of skill development, drop out in the stage of automaticity, and recur during periods of stress. Consequently, teachers trained and encouraged to use self-directed speech at appropriate times should more quickly master the teaching skills and, therefore, move toward mastery.

Research indicates that the concept of teacher efficacy is an important factor in education and classroom effectiveness (Berman & McLaughlin, 1977; Stallings & Kaskowitz, 1974). Berman and McLaughlin found that teachers' sense of efficacy was positively related to the percentage of goals achieved, amount of teacher change, continuation of experimentation with methods and materials, and improved student performance. Also, efficacious teachers may be more likely to have a stronger academic focus in their classrooms. Research also suggest that the amount of time spent directly on instruction is related to gains in student achievement (Stallings & Kaskowitz, 1974).

The importance of teacher efficacy to the education system is also intuitive. If teachers feel that they do not have the skills or abilities to make a positive difference in a child's learning or behavior, will this not impact the student? If teachers feel that they cannot make a difference and students are without guidance, will this not impact the educational system and its effectiveness?

Currently, educational systems are under much scrutiny. Looking at this construct can not only assist teachers in developing increased efficacy, but also impact students and the development of the educational system, both at the elementary and secondary levels. However, studies on methods and interventions which could impact teacher efficacy are very limited; therefore, the need for this study does exist.

4

Purpose of Study/Hypothesis

The primary intent of this study was to identify a means to impact teachers' efficacy. Specifically, it has been documented that higher teaching efficacy leads to a higher percentage of goals achieved and improved student performance (Berman & McLaughlin, 1977; Stallings & Kaskowitz, 1974). The impact of two different counseling interventions on teaching efficacy was examined. Interventions which positively impact teachers' efficacy beliefs will likely benefit students and their educational development, in addition to the overall educational system.

The primary research question investigated what effect two different group counseling interventions have upon teaching efficacy. This approach was used, in part, because counseling approaches have proven successful in other domains such as parent-training (Dinkmeyer & McKay, 1989). It was hypothesized that the counseling approach could also prove successful in impacting the construct of teaching efficacy.

Two specific counseling interventions were utilized in this study. One intervention focused on providing information to teachers that centered on increasing their self-actualization, that is, a didactic approach. The other intervention represents a more traditional approach to counseling (Corsini, 1992) where processing of events and emotions are the focus.

The research question of what effect group counseling interventions have upon teaching efficacy allowed for the development of two different null hypotheses. The first

5

null hypothesis was that the didactic intervention had no significant impact on the subjects' teaching efficacy as measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scale. The second null hypothesis was that the processing intervention had no significant impact upon the subjects' teaching efficacy as measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson, 1983).

It was anticipated that each intervention, didactic or process, would have a positive impact and, therefore, would show an increase in the subjects' overall scores on an instrument measuring teaching efficacy. It was also anticipated that subjects who received the didactic intervention would show more of an increase on the teaching efficacy measure than those who received the process intervention. It was further expected that the teaching efficacy score of the control group would show no difference during the same time period as the counseling interventions.

Definitions

For purposes of this study, it is important for the reader to be aware of the constructs and terminology used in this research project. "Teacher efficacy" refers to how teachers evaluate their abilities to bring about positive student change (Gibson & Dembo, 1985). For the purpose of the study, teaching efficacy was operationalized by a subject's score on the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson, 1983). Subjects consisted of degree seeking students who were currently teaching.

6

The Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson, 1983) consists of two scales: Personal Teaching Efficacy and General Teaching Efficacy. Personal teaching efficacy refers to the belief that one has the skills and abilities to bring about student learning. All items within this scale reflect the teacher's sense of personal responsibility to student learning or behavior. General teaching efficacy is the belief that any teacher's ability to bring about change is significantly limited by factors external to the teacher (i.e., home environment, socio-economic conditions, family background, type of parenting, etc). This dimension reflects the teacher's beliefs about the general relationship between teaching and learning. An overall score on the Teacher Efficacy Scale will represent a perceived standard in both of these components.

Also, it is necessary to define the two types of interventions that were used for this study. Each intervention utilized a group leader. One group, the "didactic group", was presented with information, by the group leader, designed to increase self-actualization. This information was presented in the form of modules. These modules were designed to teach teacher efficacy by addressing those components that affect teaching efficacy. These components would include: understanding one's value system and knowing how the value system then drives job satisfaction, assertiveness, developing social supports, etc.

The second group, the "process group", was presented with a group counseling type of environment. No specific information was presented. The group met and

7

discussed topics and situations relative to their student teaching. The group leader suggested topics, including dealing with difficult students, administrative issues, evaluation, etc. The group processed these issues and aided one another in formulation of answers and coping mechanisms through conversation and verbal problem solving.

Lastly, the subjects, degree seeking students who are teaching, needs to be clarified. The subjects are individuals who are actively engaged in teaching at the time of the intervention. Pre-service teachers were utilized. Pre-service teachers are those students who are currently enrolled in a program of study that is training them to become classroom teachers at the elementary school level. The pre-service teachers have some classroom teaching experience, but have not engaged in teaching on a full-time basis. Graduate teaching assistants were also utilized. Teaching assistants are those students who are currently enrolled in a graduate program of study that is training them in an academic discipline. The teaching assistants have attended a teacher training workshop and have all had classroom experience at the college level. As used herein, the term "subject" refers to a person who agreed to participate in the study and then engaged in teaching activities at the time the inventions were introduced. For purposes of this study, it was necessary that the subjects have some construct about themselves as teachers.

Limitations

Due to the design of this study, several limitations were present.

1) Selection - This study examined differences between teaching efficacy scores of three groups. Thirty subjects agreed to participate in the study. However, due to scheduling conflicts ten subjects could not participate in the treatments and agreed to be part of the control group. This method may result in systematic differences between the control group and the other two intervention groups. The other twenty subjects were randomly assigned into one of the two intervention groups. Participants in all three groups received a pretest and a posttest.

2) Instrumentation- A pretest/posttest study is a threat to validity. The pretest may have a potential sensitizing effect pertaining to external validity. It is unclear if any changes found at posttest might be due to the groups being sensitized by the pretest. The repeated measures design of the statistical analysis was conducted in order to minimize this effect, however, the generalizability of the study was slightly compromised by this threat.

3) The Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson, 1983)- This instrument was originally used with 208 elementary school teachers. The population from the current study varies considerably from the Gibson study in which the instrument was designed. A Cronbach alpha coefficient was utilized in order to minimize the potentially poor generalizability

issues from the different research samples.

4) Maturation - All subjects involved in the study were expected to participate in many of the same activities in which full-time teachers engage. Normal developmental changes within these student teachers may have taken place during the intervention period. The nature of teaching and dealing with students may have impacted the construct of teaching self-efficacy. Therefore, variations in teaching efficacy may have been the result of normal development rather than the result of one of the interventions. This limitation should be counteracted by the addition of a control group into the research design.

5) Research Design - The original intent of the study was to randomly assign all participants into one of the three treatment groups. Thirty subjects agreed to participate in the study. Due to scheduling conflicts, ten subjects could not participant in the intervention groups but agreed to participate as control subjects. However, they were not randomly assigned to that control group. This selection process could be a possible threat to internal validity and impact the generalizability of the results.

6) Sampling - The subject pool that was used for the intervention impacted the generalizability of this study. Thirty degree seeking students who are teaching from a large, Southern university participated in the study. All of the subjects recruited have gone through a rigorous selection process in order to be accepted into their program of studies. All subjects must have met the strict enrollment guidelines of the university

which included a high score on a standardized instrument such as the Graduate Records Examination (GRE) or the ACT/SAT. Also, all subjects had to meet specific guidelines at the departmental level. The undergraduate students were involved in a thorough interviewing process whereby many students compete for limited openings. Based on these requirements, the subject pool utilized was exceptional in scholastic ability. The generalizability of these results to teachers working in a school system or university setting were minimal. However, the results shed light on how best to impact degree seeking students who are teaching so that they may enter their profession with feelings of high personal efficacy and teaching efficacy.

7) Group Leader Experience - The treatment groups were led by two master's level students from the Department of Human Services and Studies. The group leaders had taken the Group Counseling course and had practical counseling experience. The graduate student teaching assistants that were subjects in the study had more practical experience and a broader theoretical knowledge base in the field of psychology than the group leaders. It was possible that with the subjects being "more experienced" than the group leaders, unexpected outcomes could arise. The difference in experience level could impact the generalizability of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of the literature was conducted to provide a context for the present study and to identify issues in teaching efficacy. Literature was reviewed in the following areas: a) Bandura's efficacy theory; b) teaching efficacy and classroom behavior; c) teaching efficacy and impact on students; d) teaching efficacy and stress; e) teaching efficacy and organizational health; f) models of self-regulation theory; g) research on the outcome studies of educational and counseling interventions; and h) brief group therapy.

Theory

In Bandura's social cognitive theory (1991), human behavior is motivated and regulated by the ongoing activity of self-influence. Self-regulation operates through a set of psychological subfunctions that must be developed for self-directed change. The major self-regulative mechanism operates through three principle subfunctions including

12

self-observation, judgmental process and self-reaction. Self-observation serves two important functions in the process of self-regulation. It provides the information needed for setting realistic goals and for evaluating one's progress toward them. Observing one's pattern of behavior is the first step toward doing something to affect it. Actions give rise to self-reactions through a judgmental function that includes development of personal standards, social referential comparisons, valuation of activities, and perceived performance determinants. Self-reactions provide the mechanism by which standards regulate courses of action. A social cognitive theory of self-regulation encompasses the mechanism of self-directedness that exerts a strong impact on human thought, affect, motivation and action. This self-efficacy mechanism plays a central role in the activity of personal agency.

Bandura (1977) stated that people's beliefs about their capabilities to exercise control over their own level of functioning and over events that affect their lives are a central mechanism of personal efficacy. Self-efficacy beliefs function as an important set of adjacent determinants of human self-regulation. People's beliefs in their efficacy influence the choices they make, their aspirations, how much effort they mobilize in a given activity, how long they persevere in the face of setbacks, whether their thought patterns are positive or negative and their coping with demands. Self-beliefs of efficacy partly determine how the various subfunctions of a self-regulatory system operate.

Bandura's theory (1977) is based on the principal assumption that cognitive

procedures, whatever their form, serve as means to creating and strengthening expectations of personal efficacy. Within this analysis, efficacy expectations are distinguished from response-outcome expectancies. An outcome expectancy is defined as a person's estimate that a given behavior will lead to certain outcomes. An efficacy expectation is the conviction that one can successfully execute the behavior required to produce the outcomes.

Expectations of personal mastery affect both initiation and persistence of coping behavior. The strength of people's convictions in their own effectiveness is likely to affect whether they will even try to cope with a given situation. Efficacy expectations determine how much effort people will expend and how long they will persist in the face of obstacles and aversive experiences. Bandura states that given appropriate skills and adequate incentives, however, efficacy expectations are a major determinant of people's choice of activities, how much effort they will expend, and of how long they will sustain effort in dealing with stressful situations.

Bandura (1977) states that efficacy expectations vary on several dimensions that have important performance implications. They differ in magnitude (expectations of the individual based on the level of task difficulty expected), generality (level of task mastery in specific and/or general situations) and strength (perseverance of expectations despite disconfirming experiences). Bandura also believed that expectations of personal efficacy are based on four major sources of information: performance accomplishments (e.g.,

14

participant modeling), vicarious experience, verbal persuasion (i.e., suggestion, self-instruction), and physiological state (i.e., attribution, relaxation). The impact of all these information sources on efficacy expectations will depend on how it is cognitively appraised.

Self-efficacy is a more specific construct than self concept or self esteem, because it describes the individual's self-conception of performance capability, rather than a more global self-evaluation (Emmer & Hickman, 1991). The greater specificity of the construct may permit better and more direct prediction of behavior. Assuming that an outcome of a behavior is desirable, then an individual who possesses high self-efficacy was more likely to attempt to execute the behavior than an individual with low efficacy.

Theory as it Applies to Teacher Efficacy

If Bandura's theory were applied to the construct of teacher efficacy, outcome expectancy would essentially reflect the degree to which teachers believed the environment could be controlled. Self-efficacy beliefs would indicate teachers' evaluations of their abilities to bring about positive student change. Bandura's theoretical predictions of initiation and persistence of coping behavior suggest that persons high on both variables will respond with active, assured responsiveness and persons low on both variables will not persist if they do not get results. One would predict that teachers who

believe student learning can be influenced by effective teaching and who also have confidence in their own teaching abilities, should persist longer, provide a greater academic focus in the classroom and exhibit different types of feedback than teachers who have lower expectations concerning their ability to influence student learning (Gibson and Dembo, 1984).

Self-efficacy beliefs might influence numerous aspects of thinking, decision-making and behavior. For example, teachers who believe that they have little impact on student achievement may reduce their attempts to try new teaching techniques; conversely, a teacher with high self-efficacy might try a variety of strategies to reach a low achieving student. This research investigated how efficacy beliefs could help account for differences in teacher effort, preference for particular discipline strategies, or choice of instructional goals, student achievement, student feelings of success, level of perceived stress and organizational health.

The Construct of Teacher-Efficacy

Early research involving teaching efficacy involved a simple questionnaire that was produced by the Rand Corporation (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990). A total score was obtained from two items: 1) "When it comes right down to it, a teacher really can't do much because most of a student's motivation and performance depends on his or her home environment," and 2) "If I really try hard, I can get through to

even the most difficulty or unmotivated students" (Gibson & Dembo, 1985, pg. 174).

In 1983, Ashton and Webb developed multidimensional models of teacher efficacy that were influenced by Bandura's conceptualization of self-efficacy. Ashton, Webb and Doda (1983) conceptualize teachers' sense of efficacy in a hierarchically organized, multidimensional model that also emphasized the differing dimensions of teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy. They define teaching efficacy as the way teachers view the general relationship between teaching and learning. Personal teaching efficacy is represented by an integration of teaching efficacy and personal efficacy, a more general sense of effectiveness not specific to a particular situation. They view personal teaching efficacy as the best predictor of teacher behavior.

Ashton, Webb and Doda (1983) predict different cognitive and affective outcomes depending on whether low sense of efficacy is attributable to teachers' general beliefs of teachers' ability to motivate students or to a personal sense of incompetence in motivating students. The former type of efficacy leads to a negative expectation and doubt that teachers can motivate certain students. However, the researchers believe that such low efficacy produces little stress or dissatisfaction, since the teacher is likely to believe that all teachers are unable to do much to motivate certain students. The second type of efficacy, personal teacher efficacy, also leads to negative expectations but is due to a sense of personal helplessness in motivating students. This type of low efficacy is likely to produce high stress and guilt. This distinction between types of efficacy is important

because efforts to influence teachers' sense of efficacy could be approached differently based on whether the low efficacy was generated out of a general belief of the teacher's ability to motivate students or a personal belief of competence.

Gibson and Dembo (1984) designed the Teacher Efficacy Scale, in which, they too, found two substantial factors in the construct of teacher efficacy. Factor 1 appeared to represent a teacher's sense of personal teaching efficacy, or belief that one has the skills and abilities to bring about student learning. Factor 2 represented a teacher's sense of teaching efficacy, or belief that any teacher's ability to bring about change is significantly limited by factors external to the teacher. This instrument clearly conformed to Bandura's conceptualization of self-efficacy and supported Ashton and Webb's 1982 model of teacher efficacy.

Related Research

Teacher Efficacy and Classroom Behaviors

Much has been done to look at the relationship between teacher efficacy and classroom behavior. There is evidence that teachers' beliefs in their abilities to instruct students may account for individual differences in effectiveness (Armor et al., 1976; Berman & McLaughlin, 1977). Berman and McLaughlin (1977) found that teachers' sense of efficacy was positively related to the percentage of project goals achieved, amount of teacher change, continuation of both project methods and materials, and

improved student performance. Research on teacher use of time and direct instruction may provide some possible linkage between teacher efficacy and student learning. The description of efficacious teachers indicates that they may be more likely to have a stronger academic focus in their classrooms. There is evidence from teacher effectiveness research that the amount of time spent directly on instruction is related to gains in student achievement (Dembo & Gibson, 1985). In addition, efficacious teachers may tend to use elements of direct instruction that include a pattern of behavior: structured academic activities supervised by the teacher, extensive content coverage, monitoring students performance and use of large group instruction (Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

In a study by Gibson and Dembo (1984), it was found that low-efficacy teachers spent almost one half of their observed time in small group instruction, whereas high-efficacy teachers spent 28% of their time in small groups. High efficacy teachers spent more time in whole-group instruction and spent more time monitoring and checking seatwork. It was also found that when students gave an incorrect response to low-efficacy teacher questions, 4% of these interactions resulted in teacher feedback in the form of criticism. However, no criticisms were observed in any of the high-efficacy teachers. Also, low-efficacy teachers were observed to appear flustered if there was any interruption of their routine while they were engaged with small groups, whereas the high-efficacy teachers seemed to utilize this format with more ease and flexibility.

Ashton et al. (1983) reported similar findings regarding the behavior of high and low-efficacy teachers. More high- than low-efficacy teachers maintained high academic standards, had clear expectations, concentrated on academic instruction, maintained students' on task behavior, and demonstrated "withitness." In a high school sample of teachers, personal teaching efficacy was positively related to a secure, accepting climate that supported student initiative and was concerned with meeting the needs of individual students.

There is support for the relationship between teachers' expectancy behavior and their sense of efficacy. Cooper and Good (1983) found that teachers with a strong need to control their environment may be more likely to transmit expectations to students. That is to say, teachers who perceive that they have little control over the content, timing and duration of interactions with students whom they perceive as low performers, are most likely to communicate low expectations regarding academic performance for those students. As a result, these low expectations influence student behavior and performance.

In a study by Saklofske, Michayluk and Randhawa (1988), personal teaching efficacy showed small but significant positive correlations with ratings of lesson presenting, classroom management and questioning behaviors. Teaching interns that were rated in the high-efficacy range had higher ratings in lesson presenting, classroom management and classroom questioning behaviors when rated by a supervising teacher and vice versa with low-efficacy range interns.

Emmer and Hickman (1991) examined the relationship between classroom management/discipline efficacy and personal teaching efficacy. The researchers utilized supervisors' ratings to operationalize classroom management/discipline efficacy and the TES (Gibson, 1983) to measure teaching efficacy. Results of the study indicated high ratings on both management/discipline efficacy and teaching efficacy were positively correlated with preference for positive teaching strategies such as talking with the student to encourage more effort, praise, modifying the assignments or teaching approach, giving extra attention, and having the student develop a plan for change. Also, personal teaching efficacy ratings were positively correlated with preference for external strategies in classroom dealings. Teachers having high personal teaching efficacy were more likely to use external support such as attempts to obtain more information, to refer the student, and to enlist peer support for the student. This last outcome was not anticipated because low efficacy or beliefs in one's skills and abilities was thought to be inversely related to preference for use of external sources to deal with student problems.

Teacher Efficacy and Impact on Students

Research has indicated that teacher efficacy can impact classroom management and behaviors. Therefore, it stands to reason that teacher efficacy can impact specific students and the quality of education they receive. Webb's 1982 study indicated that students exposed to low-efficacy teachers suffer a distinct disadvantage in the classroom.

21

This is because high-efficacy teachers are more successful and are assigned more demanding academic courses, while low-efficacy teachers are assigned more basic classes.

Eccles, Lord and Midgley (1991) focused on students changes in teachers and how the change in teacher efficacy among those teachers impacted the students themselves. To assess the impact of change in teacher efficacy on student beliefs, the students were divided into four groups on the basis of median splits of their sixth and seventh grade teachers' ratings of their personal teaching efficacy. The students who moved from high-efficacy to low-efficacy teachers over the transition ended their first year in junior high school with lower expectancies for their own performance and lower perceptions of their actual performance than students who experienced either no change in teacher efficacy or who moved from low- to high-efficacy teachers. Also, by the end of the junior high school year, the confidence that the low-achieving students who had moved from high- to low- efficacy teachers had in their own performance and competence still declined dramatically (Eccles, Lord & Midgley, 1991).

Results of an investigation, by Soodak and Podell (1993), indicated that teachers' sense of efficacy has a significant bearing on their judgments regarding the appropriateness of regular education placement for students with learning and/or behavior problems. They found that regular educators with a greater sense of personal efficacy, as measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson, 1983), are more likely to perceive the

regular education placement as more appropriate for the student having difficulties, whereas regular educators with a lesser sense of personal efficacy tend to perceive the regular education placement as less appropriate. Apparently, those regular educators who do not perceive themselves as being able to influence student outcomes believe that students with special problems should not be placed in the regular classroom. They concluded that their findings indicated that both personal efficacy and teaching efficacy need to be sufficiently high for teachers to judge regular class placements appropriate for atypical students.

Podell and Soodak (1993) also found that when a child with mild learning problems is from a low SES family, teachers with low personal efficacy are less likely than teachers with high personal efficacy to consider regular education to be an appropriate placement for the child. In other words, teachers' decisions about low SES children are susceptible to bias when teachers perceive themselves as ineffectual. The presence of teacher bias indicates that students may be treated inequitably with regard to special education referral.

Teacher Efficacy and Stress

Research (Parkay, Greenwood, Olejnik & Proller, 1988) has investigated the relationship between teacher stress/burnout and teacher efficacy. Parkay et al. (1988) determined that teachers who took responsibility for student success tended to indicate

23

low levels of stress in several dimensions. In this study, stress was measured by the Wilson Stress Profile for Teachers (Wilson, 1979). They determined that teachers who took responsibility for student success also had high internal locus of control scores. Locus of control was measured by the Internal-External Locus of Control Scale (Rotter, 1966). They also found that teachers who took responsibility for student success also had a high sense of teaching efficacy. Teaching efficacy was measured by the Rand questionnaire (Berman et al., 1977). These teachers also had less difficulty with student behavior, more positive relations with both school administrators and their colleagues, and fewer symptoms of psychological and emotional stress. It was found that teachers, who perceived low levels of stress at their schools, reported fewer physical symptoms of job-related stress and fewer psychological/emotionally symptoms of stress. Teachers at high stress schools, with low efficacy ratings, often feel powerless to control events around them and, therefore, respond to job-related stress in ways that are dysfunctional.

In 1987, a study revealed that the number of stressful events reported by teachers was found to significantly predict emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. In the same study, researchers indicated that social support received from supervisors (positive feedback given to the teacher regarding her teaching abilities) was found to be the only significant predictor of burnout. Teachers with supportive supervisors reported less emotional exhaustion, more positive attitudes toward students and greater personal accomplishment. They continue to report that teachers who indicated that other people

respected their skills and abilities reported less emotional exhaustion, more positive

interactions with students, and fewer feelings of depersonalization (Russell, Altmaier, &

Van Velzen, 1987).

The purpose of Greenwood, Olejnik and Parkay's (1990) study was to examine

relationships between four teacher efficacy belief patterns and teachers' feelings of stress.

To determine teacher efficacy belief patterns the Rand questions were utilized (Berman,

et. al., 1977). Teachers' feelings of stress were measured by the Wilson Stress Profile for

Teachers (Wilson, 1979). They grouped teachers into high teaching efficacy, high

personal efficacy (Pattern 3); high teaching efficacy, low personal efficacy (Pattern 2);

low teaching efficacy, high personal efficacy (Pattern 4); and low teaching efficacy, low

personal efficacy (Pattern 1). The exploratory study yielded several findings. Pattern 3

teachers evidenced less stress than Pattern 1 teachers. That is, teachers experience less

stress when they have confidence in their abilities and believe that they, as well as

teachers in general, can make a difference. Pattern 3 teachers not only experience less

stress but are more internally oriented than Pattern 1 teachers in attributions regarding the

impact of teacher behavior on both successes and failures.

The concern with teacher stress stems from mounting evidence that stress may

significantly impair a teacher's ability to display effective instructional behaviors and

good working relationships with students. French (1993) stated this as his justification in

looking at elementary teacher stress and class size. This study examined the relationship

between 223 elementary teachers' perceptions of class size as stressful circumstance and the pupil-teacher ratios. The subjects taught in 197 different elementary schools. None of the teachers in schools with pupil-teacher ratios below 15:1 reported high levels of stress associated with class size. Teachers who reported that class size was a source of little or no stress taught in schools with smaller pupil-teacher ratios and reported less use of certain undesirable teaching behaviors (assigning busy work to students to catch up on paperwork, disengagement with students, burnout, reduced tolerance with students).

Schwab, Jackson and Schuler (1986) investigated sources of burnout and the consequences on teachers' behaviors. Sources of burnout were found to include a combination of the individual's unmet expectations and job conditions such as low participation in decision making, high levels of role conflict, a lack of freedom and autonomy, absence of social support networks, and inconsistent reward and punishment structures. The results did support the hypothesized effects of burnout for both the quality of service delivery by the organization and the quality of the affected individual's life outside of teaching. Burnout consequences included intention to leave teaching, absenteeism, lessened effort in the classroom (low teaching efficacy) and low quality of personal life.

Blase (1986) determined that teachers perceived a wide range of individual stressors that were associated with time availability. First, sources of stress were perceived as directly interfering with the instructional time of teachers. Second, stressors

26

indirectly affected instructional time by requiring extra work on the part of teachers. As a result of dealing with chronic work stress in relatively ineffective ways, teachers tended to develop a common behavioral and attitudinal perspective on work. This perspective represents a major negative departure from the qualities, attitudes, and behaviors perceived as essential to effective classroom instruction. The teachers believed that they did not possess the abilities to bring about positive student change, a low sense of teaching efficacy. The findings in Blase's study strongly suggest that teachers' adaptations to work stressors contribute not only to the overemphasis on rote learning but also to the mediocrity of instructional programs in schools nationwide. Positive attitudes and behaviors essential to good teaching seem to be difficult to maintain over the long run.

Teacher Efficacy and Organizational Health

Hoy and Woolfolk (1993) stated that school health is comprises six aspects of climate - three that help the organization meet instrumental needs (institutional integrity, academic emphasis and resource support), two that support expressive or interpersonal relations needs (morale and principal consideration) and principal influence with the dual function of serving both expressive and instrumental needs. They stated that teachers' sense of both personal and general teaching efficacy would be most closely related to aspects of organizational health that support the accomplishment of teaching goals and

thus the meeting of instrumental needs (institutional integrity, academic emphasis, resource support and principal influence).

The results from the 1993 study revealed principal influence, academic emphasis, experience and educational level were significantly related to personal teaching efficacy. Institutional integrity, academic emphasis and experience predicted general teaching efficacy. Schools promoted personal teaching efficacy when teachers perceived that their colleagues set high but achievable goals, create an orderly and serious environment and respect academic excellence. Further, principals who were perceived as having influence with their superiors were also likely to effect a situation where teachers felt more personally efficacious (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993).

In a 1990 study, Short and Spencer suggested the relationship of certain principal instructional leadership job dimensions and classroom environmental variables. Principal involvement in the supervision and evaluation of the school's instructional program were related to students' sense of well-being, relationships with fellow students and relationships with the teacher in the classroom environment. Principal involvement in protecting instructional time and providing incentives to teachers for superior performance was related to student perceptions of classrooms in which there is an emphasis on completing activities. That is to say, principals that are seen as addressing and wanting to positively affect teachers' teaching efficacy were related to students' perceptions of classrooms.

Conley, Bacharach and Bauer (1989) stated that if we can discover the organizational work characteristics of schools that are associated with teacher career dissatisfaction and feelings of not being effective, we may have a basis for changing the work environment of schools to ensure more continuous career satisfaction for teachers. In their findings, role ambiguity and routinization are associated with career dissatisfaction. Also, professionals are willing to accept bureaucratization to the degrees that it clarifies their role in the organization. However, the findings concerning routinization suggest that if bureaucratization makes work routine and mundane, dissatisfaction will result. Both lack of appreciation of teachers' activities and a critical attitude toward teachers are important in accounting for the level of teacher dissatisfaction in secondary schools.

Models Of Self-Regulation Theories

According to Bandura (1991), self-regulation encompasses self-efficacy and self-efficacy exerts a strong impact on human thought, affect, motivation and action. Since self-regulation encompasses self-efficacy, it is theorized that if there were a way to impact or influence self-regulation development then self-efficacy would be influenced. If individuals had a positive impact on their self-efficacy, then there would be a strong impact on human thought, affect, motivation and action. Self-regulation operates through

29

a set of psychological subfunctions that must be developed and mobilized for self-directed change. These psychological subfunctions would include an individual's needs, values and motives, goals and intentions, self-efficacy, performance rewards and satisfactions. If self-regulation can be developed, then self-efficacy can be improved and thus teachers, school systems and students can be positively impacted.

Locke (1991) has developed a multi-dimensional model to positively impact one's self-regulation behavior (See Figure 1). His model begins with need theory and is based in part on Maslow's (Maslow, 1987) hierarchy of needs. This theory is based on the concept that basic needs have to be met prior to awareness and satisfaction of other needs.

The Motivation Core   The Motivation Hub

Needs → Values & Motives → Goals & Intentions → Performance → Rewards → Satisfaction

Self-Efficacy

Volition
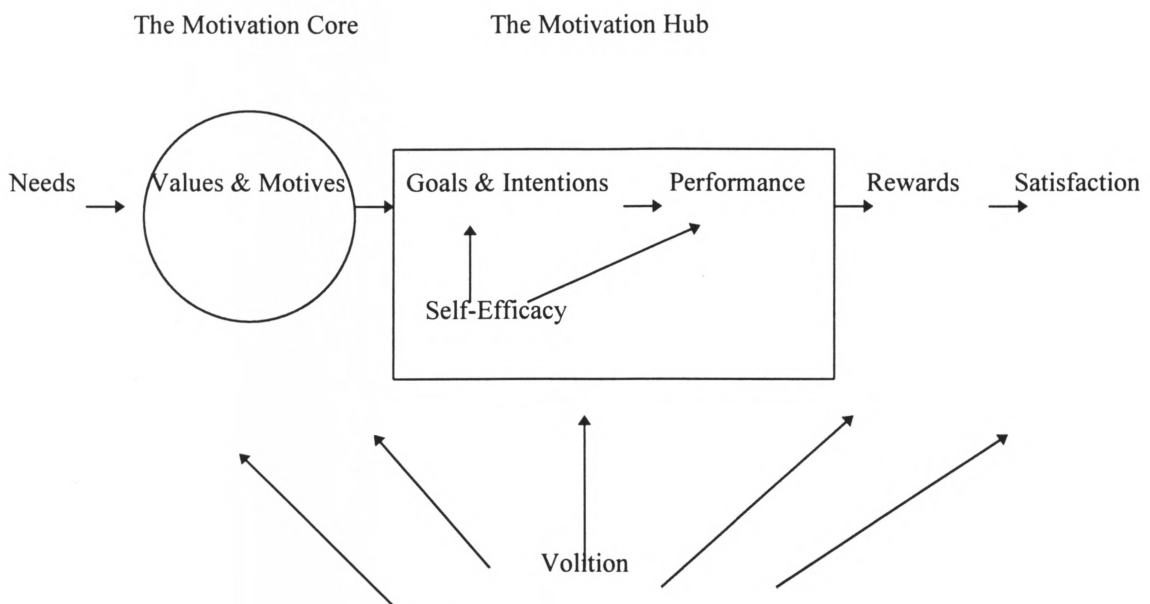
Motivation Sequence
Figure 1

Locke states that needs are the fundamental reason why people act and thus are essential to a full understanding of motivation and self-regulatory behavior. Locke also

30

incorporates Deci and Ryan's (1985) need theory which asserts that people have innate needs for competence and self-determination.

Locke also encompasses values and motives into his theory. People have to discover the knowledge their survival requires, including a code of values to guide their choices and actions. Rather than being innate, they are acquired. Values can be viewed as the link between needs and action. They bridge the gap between what is required to live and what the person actually does. Locke incorporates achievement theory and expectancy theory. The relation of goals to values is the relation of the general to the specific. Goals can be viewed as applications of values to specific situations. However, expectancy and self-efficacy affect the goals people choose, but they also have powerful direct effects on performance. One's self-efficacy beliefs are important to motivational consequences. Locke includes a goal component and self-efficacy beliefs in his self-regulation model.

Locke focuses on Weiner's (1986) attribution theory which looks at the attributions people make about their performance and how such attributions affect subsequent emotions and actions. To focus and address performance issues is to impact the overall self-regulation of individuals. People can experience rewards and punishments as consequences of their actions or performance. Specifying the effects of rewards on subsequent action has been the domain of behavior modification or reinforcement theory. Equity theory (Adams, 1965) also focuses on rewards, especially

31

the degree to which people believe them to be equitable. This theory assumes that most people value equity or fairness and goes on to delineate the way in which people decide what is fair and unfair. Locke also includes rewards as a component in his model. Lastly, Locke identifies satisfaction as the final component in the model. He focuses on satisfying characteristics of environments as impacting one's motivation and self-regulatory behaviors. Locke's model incorporates many different theories and components which indicates that the concept of self-efficacy and self-regulation is not a simplistic one. To impact people's self-efficacy is to address and develop many aspects of the person's psychological make-up. Locke's model provides a logical, reasonable method to address and develop self-efficacy.

Self-Regulation Theory in Practice

Self-regulation is a complex mechanism that encompasses multiple components, some of which are difficult to assess. A crucial issue for examining self-regulation is the selection of a task that provides the opportunity to access multiple self-regulatory components. Few researchers have taken on this rather complex task. In a 1993 study by Bouffard-Bouchard, Parent, Sophie, and Larivee, the construct of self-regulation was addressed. They examined the differences in spontaneous self-regulation on a concept identification task between gifted and non-gifted students. Their study provides some support for the idea that the higher performance obtained by gifted students cannot be

reduced to their superior cognitive ability. The gifted students performed better primarily because they engaged themselves more actively in the problem-solving process and seemed more motivated to work harder.

<u>Research on Educational and Counseling Interventions</u>

Counseling psychology has been devoted to the remediation and rehabilitation, prevention, and the education and development of clients (American Psychological Association, 1981). Morrill, Oetting, and Hurst (1974) characterized remediation, preventions and development as the various purposes of intervention and described various targets and methods. Their work aided the specialty in defining its functions as "alleviating intellectual, emotional, psychological and behavioral disability and discomfort" (pg. 164). Therefore, many counseling psychologists have turned to "educating" the client rather than or along with "counseling" the client. There are lessons to be learned from the rapidly growing literature on educational counseling (Morrill, et. al., 1974).

Outcome studies cite success rates that are truly impressive within the educational counseling literature. Kirschenbaum and Perri (1982) reported fifty percent and fifty-two percent success rates for studies of test anxiety and study attitudes among adults that were involved in their didactic intervention. Pickering and Vacc (1984) reported seventy-nine percent success rate for short-term career development interventions and ninety-three for long-term didactic interventions. Spokane and Oliver's (1983) meta-analysis

33

demonstrated an average effect size of .85. This means that those studies that utilized didactic interventions had an effect 85% of the time. This study provided even more evidence that didactic interventions are effective.

Favorable outcome studies involving counseling or process type interventions are not as unanimously positive. Some studies fail to corroborate favorable outcomes (Kaul & Bednar, 1986). In some studies, Kaul and Bednar (1986) found group treatments to be more effective than individual psychotherapy or drug treatment. In other studies, similar results were not found. They state that the differences are not unexpected given the history and complexity of psychotherapy research and the current state of the many different philosophies. Kaul and Bednar (1986) conclude that group treatments can be associated with client improvement, at least some of the time. In the thirteen studies evaluated by Kaul and Bednar, nine of those studies (67%) revealed that some type of counseling intervention showed a significant improvement. However, those studies that observed experimental comparisons yielded no significant differences. For example, Rogerian encounter groups did not yield significant findings over a Gestalt sensory-awareness group. This allows this researcher to conclude that the type of counseling intervention is not as significant as simply conducting some type of intervention.

In conclusion, the research seems to reveal that those studies that involve didactic interventions are consistently more significant in impacting change than those studies that involve talk therapy interventions. However, most of the studies used in the comparison

of didactic vs. traditional talk therapy interventions were based on the counseling process being fairly long-term (over fifteen sessions). Studies that have utilized brief interactive group therapy and then compare the outcome to some educational intervention are scarce.

Brief Therapy

Due to increasing cutbacks from insurance companies and the fast nature of life itself, it has become imperative to find effective ways to provide the best treatment for each mental health dollar spent. Short-term therapy has been the answer that most professionals have turned to. Brief therapy is defined in terms of a planned narrow focus and brief duration, usually eight or fewer visits of an hour per visit (Pedarik, 1994). Brief therapy produces clients who report more satisfaction with treatment and therapists who feel more effective (Pekarik, 1994). Brief interactive group counseling has also become popular. In brief group counseling, the therapist's main tasks are to provide the therapeutic structure and establish and reinforce group norms (Yalom & Yalom, 1990). Therapists must assist patients in setting realistic goals and track these goals with the patients throughout the therapy sessions. In doing so, both therapists and clients realize that the goals act as catalysts for further exploration and growth (Yalom & Yalom, 1990).

The literature reviewed, in the areas of: Bandura's efficacy theory, teaching efficacy and classroom behavior, teaching efficacy and impact on students, teaching

efficacy and stress, teaching efficacy and organizational health, models of self-regulation theory, research on the outcome studies of educational and counseling interventions and brief group therapy; does fully document the significance of teaching efficacy and the importance of positively impacting this construct. This study was developed to assist teachers in developing increased efficacy.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Research has established that teacher efficacy is a construct that effects classroom management, student achievement, student feelings of efficacy, organizational health and the effectiveness of education delivery (Berman & McLaughlin, 1977; Stallings & Kaskowitz, 1974; Conley et al., 1989; Parkay et al., 1988). However, few research studies have examined possible interventions that may positively impact teacher efficacy. This study examined the effect of two different counseling interventions on teaching efficacy. This chapter is a presentation of the methodology that was utilized in conducting the study. The following topics will be presented: research design, subjects, instruments, data collection, treatment integrity, and statistical analysis.

Research Design

The purpose of this study was to test the effect that two counseling interventions have on teaching efficacy. The study utilized didactic information and processing groups

37

as the counseling interventions to be examined for positive impact. The two following null hypothesis were examined:

a) The didactic intervention would have no significant impact upon student teacher's teaching efficacy as measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scale; and

b) The processing intervention would have no significant impact upon student teacher's teaching efficacy as measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scale.

The study utilized a pretest-posttest control group design. The design is represented in Figure 2 (Kerlinger, 1973).

	Pre-test Score Y_1	Post-test Score Y_2
Treatment Group 1 (A)	M_{A1}	M_{A2}
Treatment Group 2 (B)	M_{A2}	M_{A2}
Control Group (C)	M_{C1}	M_{C2}

Figure 2

This study was designed using three treatment groups: Treatment Group One (didactic intervention), Treatment Group Two (processing intervention) and Treatment Group Three (control group). Due to the fact that data collection was conducted over two different time periods, there was a total of six different groups (two subgroups of treatment group one, two subgroups of treatment group two and two subgroups of the control group). For statistical purposes, the subgroups were collapsed to form one group

for each treatment. Two groups received treatment while the third group received no treatment and thus served as a control group.

The independent variables of this study were the treatment (didactic, process and control intervention groups) and scholastic level (graduate and undergraduate). The dependent variable was teaching efficacy as measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson, 1983). Potential subjects were recruited through a brief informational presentation. The original intent of the study was to randomly assign all participants into one of the three treatment groups. A total of thirty subjects agreed to participate in the study over the two different recruiting periods. However, due to time management issues, ten subjects could not participate in the three week intervention groups and thus agreed to be control group subjects.

<div align="center">Subjects</div>

The subjects' population and participatory sample group are described in the following sections.

Population

The population represented in this study consisted of degree seeking students who are currently teaching either as "pre-service" teachers in elementary schools or as "teaching assistants" in a college setting. These potential subjects were similar in that they are both familiar with the teaching process and duties required of teachers and have

developed some efficacy beliefs about themselves as teachers.

Sample

Initially, potential subjects were recruited through Early Childhood Education, Elementary Education, Special Education and Secondary Education departments within the College of Education. Recruitment of subjects for this study proved to be difficult. A presentation was made by the researcher to six different classes within the College of Education in order to recruit subjects. Despite financial incentives and, in some cases, course credit for participation, only eleven students were willing to participate in the three week intervention group. Four other subjects were willing to participate in the study but due to time conflicts agreed to be part of the control group.

The next semester, the researcher again made a presentation to four different classes within the College of Education in order to recruit subjects and no students volunteered for the study. The original scope was then broadened to include degree seeking graduate teaching assistants. Graduate teaching assistants were considered appropriate for inclusion in the sample because of their teaching experience and the development of a concept of themselves as a teacher. Graduate teaching assistants were only considered for the sample if they had recently (within the last semester) taught or were currently teaching a course within the university system. A total of fifteen graduate students volunteered for the study and were randomly assigned to one of the intervention groups.

Thirty subjects attending classes at a large Southern university participated in the study. The subjects were obtained through the Departments of Early Childhood Education, Elementary Education and Human Services and Studies in the College of Education, along with the Department of Clinical Psychology in the College of Arts and Sciences. The sample comprised 56.6% (n=17) undergraduate students from Early Childhood Education and Elementary Education and 43.3% (n=13) graduate students from Counseling Psychology and Clinical Psychology programs.

Subjects from the Early Childhood Education program are trained to deliver educational services for children age three through third grade. Those students enrolled in Elementary Education are trained to deliver services for children in the first through sixth grade. The graduate students from the psychology programs have not received formal training in teaching but have participated in a training seminar and assisted in teaching college level course work.

Overall, all of these programs from which subjects were recruited require training and practical experience necessary to train degree seeking students for future professions. Undergraduate subjects were being trained to become classroom teachers. Graduate students were being trained to become psychologists and/or professors in psychology. Potential participants had to have some recent or on-going teaching experience in the classroom in order to provide them with some concept of themselves as teachers. Their teaching experiences included: teaching, planning lectures, dealing with administrative

duties, grading, service delivery evaluations, etc.

Subjects varied in teaching experience. However, all subjects had met the necessary requirements in their department in order to teach at the elementary or college level. The undergraduate subjects from Early Childhood Education or Elementary Education had completed coursework and practicum hours in order to become "pre-service teachers". The graduate teaching assistant subjects from the psychology programs had completed a university teaching assistant workshop in order to become eligible to teach college students.

Potential subjects were recruited through a presentation delivered to several different classes in the aforementioned colleges or through professors who oversee the student teaching experience. The potential subjects attended a "briefing" session that explained the purpose of the study and level of involvement expected. Potential subjects were then asked to volunteer for the study and received a monetary incentive for continued participation throughout the study.

All of the subjects recruited have gone through a rigorous selection process in order to be accepted into their program of studies. All subjects must have met the strict enrollment guidelines of the university which included a high score on a standardized instrument such as the Graduate Records Examination (GRE) or the ACT/SAT. Also, all subjects had to meet specific guidelines at the departmental level. The undergraduate students were involved in a thorough interviewing process whereby many students compete for positions. Based on these requirements, the subject pool utilized was exceptional in scholastic ability.

42

Instruments

Participants in this study were required to complete two separate instruments. The first was a demographic questionnaire and the second was an instrument designed to measure the construct of teaching efficacy, The Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson, 1983).

Demographic Questionnaire

A brief demographic form was completed by all subjects participating in the study. Subjects were required to fill out the form at the time they completed the pretest. The demographic questionnaire (see Appendix F) asked for the subject's age, sex, years of education, and major. This information was gathered to better understand the population participating in the study.

Teacher Efficacy Scale

The Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson, 1983) is a 30 item paper and pencil instrument of Likert scale type (ranging from a score of 1=strongly disagree to 6=strongly agree). (See Appendix A for the Teacher Efficacy Scale. See Appendix G for author authorization of the TES.) Teacher efficacy was defined as how teachers evaluate their abilities to bring about positive student change (Gibson, 1983). The development of the Teacher Efficacy Scale began in a pilot study where 53 sample items were administered to 90 teachers.

The initial item pool of 53 items was based on teacher interviews and an analysis of the literature that reported characteristics of teachers identified by previous researchers as having a high sense of efficacy. Preliminary data analysis of pilot items involved principal components factor analysis, elimination of items with poor variability, and maintenance only of those items that loaded clearly on one of the substantial factors (Gibson & Brown, 1982). These remaining items were revised to clarify ambiguities and assure proper item construction. Further factor analysis was utilized in order to determine different dimensions of teaching efficacy, how those dimensions related to Bandura's theory of self-efficacy and the internal consistency of the teacher efficacy measure. Two factors were extracted . The scale yielded an overall teaching efficacy score that addresses both personal teaching efficacy and general teaching efficacy issues.

Scores on the Teacher Efficacy Scale can range from 30 to 180. Scoring the Teacher Efficacy Scale involves adding up the indicated Likert points for each item. A low score on the Teacher Efficacy Scale correlates to teachers feeling that their ability to bring about positive student change is low. A high score on the Teacher Efficacy Scale correlates to a teacher feeling that their ability to bring about student change is high. A median score is considered to be between 100-115.

The scale has not been standardized on a large population and requires additional validation and reliability studies. The instrument was originally given to 90 teachers and then later given to 208 elementary school teachers selected from 13 elementary school in

Central California with varying years of experience. Factor analysis with a significance of factor loadings of >.45 yielded two separate factors: Personal Teacher Efficacy and General Teacher Efficacy. Analysis of internal consistency reliabilities yielded Cronbach's alpha coefficients of .78 for the Personal Teacher Efficacy factor, .75 for the General Teacher Efficacy factor and .79 for the total overall score.

A more detailed literature review was performed in order to determine if other reliability studies had been performed on the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson, 1983). The Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES) has been used in several studies. In a 1988 study conducted by Saklopske, Michayluk and Randhawa, the psychometric properties of the TES were examined to determine whether differences occur between samples of education students on the efficacy scales. However, for purposes of their study, they modified the original Teacher Efficacy Scale to develop Self and Ideal forms of the instrument.

In 1990, research conducted by Hoy and Woolfolk utilized the TES; however, they modified the instrument slightly, using only 20 of the items. They performed a factor analysis of the instrument and two independent dimensions of general and personal teaching efficacy were produced. In a sample of 191 liberal arts majors who were teaching at different levels and settings, alpha coefficients of reliability were .84 for personal teaching efficacy and .72 for general Teacher efficacy. They reported that Gibson and Dembo (1984) performed a multitrait-multimethod analysis that supported

45

both convergent and discriminant validity of the scale. In 1993, they conducted additional research using the modified TES on 179 elementary school teachers. Alpha coefficients of reliability were .77 for personal teaching efficacy and .72 for general teaching efficacy.

For purposes of this study, the subjects' scores on either factor will not be presented; only the overall total score will be discussed. Because this study utilized a different sample than the original internal consistency population, a Cronbach alpha coefficient was run on the population used in this study. Analysis of internal consistency reliabilities yielded coefficients of .75 for the total overall score on the Teacher Efficacy Scale.

Data Collection Procedure

The following data collection procedure includes descriptions of subject recruitment, group leaders, and the three treatment groups.

Subject Recruitment

Potential subjects were recruited through a presentation delivered to several classes in the different programs of studies previously described or through those professors who oversee student teaching and graduate teaching assistantship experiences.

Potential subjects were then asked to volunteer for the study. Those interested were told of the scheduled "briefing session" and the monetary incentive for continued participation throughout the study. The briefing session consisted of a short introduction, explanation of the group breakdowns, obtaining informed consent, gathering of demographic information and administration of the Teacher Efficacy Scale. The subjects were then randomly assigned into one of the two intervention groups. Control group subjects were recruited from those who attended the large informal session but could not participate in the three week intervention due to schedule conflicts or other personal matters. These subjects agreed to be part of the control group.

Due to difficulty recruiting subjects, the study was completed over two different intervention time periods. The first phase of data collection utilized 15 undergraduate students, from which five were assigned to treatment group one, six assigned to treatment group two and four assigned to treatment group three. The second phase of data collection utilized fifteen graduate students, from which five were assigned to treatment group one, four to treatment group two and six to treatment group three. All candidates were invited to the "debriefing session" where explanation and statistical results of the study were presented.

Confidentiality of the subjects was maintained throughout the study. All forms that the participants filled out were identified through a subject code number. No names appeared on any of data collected. No individual responses were reported. The only

person involved in data collection was the researcher. The informed consent form (see Appendix E) was submitted to and approved by the Florida State University Human Subjects Review Committee. The process of subject recruitment, all intervention materials, and intervention process were also submitted and approved by the Committee.

Group Leaders

Potential group leaders were recruited through the master's level Group Counseling course. A brief presentation was developed and presented to graduate students enrolled in the Group Counseling course. The counseling and didactic groups were led by two master level students who completed the group counseling and master's level practicum coursework. Each leader was given the appropriate modules or discussion materials (see Appendix B & C) several weeks in advance to examine and prepare for the upcoming interventions. A one hour training session was provided to both leaders. Both leaders were financially compensated for their participation.

Treatment Groups

This study utilized three types of treatment groups: Treatment Group One (didactic intervention), Treatment Group Two (processing intervention) and Treatment Group Three (control group).

Treatment group one. Treatment Group One consisted of participants randomly

chosen from a master list of subjects attending the briefing session. The subjects

assigned to this group were expected to participate two hours per week for three

consecutive weeks. The groups were exposed to Locke's "motivation sequence" theory

in the form of three, two hour didactic/teaching type sessions. As stated earlier (see

pages 25-27), Locke (1991) developed a "motivation sequence" that would address and

impact many personal factors including efficacy. Six modules were designed by the

author, focused on the following topics: a) Need Identification, b) Values and Motives,

c) Goal Setting, d) Self-Efficacy, e) Reinforcement, and f) Satisfaction. Each module

consisted of specific objectives, group activities and questions to be answered at the end

of each session (see Appendix B for the six modules). The two groups that received

Treatment One were lead by a master's level graduate student within the Human Services

and Studies department. The leader was required to present the module information in an

orderly, competent manner. The group was conducted in a classroom within the

university setting.

Treatment group two. Treatment Group Two consisted of participants randomly

chosen from a master list of subjects attending the briefing session. The subjects

assigned to this group expected to participate two hours per week for three consecutive

weeks. The groups participated in an interpersonal process that stressed conscious

thoughts, feelings, and behavior regarding their student teaching experiences. The

processing groups allowed the subjects to share common experiences, offer support, to

develop possible solutions for problems, and create their own support systems. The processing of experiences and emotions rather than didactic information was the focus of this group. The group counseling was carried out in a clinical setting that is typically used for a university mental health clinic.

The two groups that received Treatment Two were lead by a master's level graduate student within the Human Services and Studies Department. The role of the group counselor was to facilitate interaction among the members, help them learn from one another, assist them in establishing personal goals, and encourage them to translate their insights into concrete plans that involve taking action outside the group (the counseling plan has been detailed in Appendix C).

Treatment group three. Group three consisted of those students who attended the briefing session but who through time conflicts or other responsibilities could not participate in the three week intervention. However, they did agree to participate as control subjects. These ten participants did not receive any didactic and/or counseling interventions. The two control groups were involved in the briefing session where the Teacher Efficacy Scale was administered. After a three week time period, the instrument was readministered. These participants were also informed of the debriefing session where an explanation for the study was given.

Treatment Integrity

Many methodological improvements in psychotherapy outcome research have

50

been made in the past 20 years. One way to improve the outcome of any research is to perform a manipulation check, or an assessment of treatment integrity. This will assess whether the independent variable of interest has been successfully manipulated. In this study, treatment integrity was maintained in the didactic information group if the leader adhered to the designed modules seventy-five percent of the time. Treatment integrity was maintained in the processing group if the leader allowed the group to discuss whatever topics were relative to the student teaching experience and the processing of feelings, thoughts and situations seventy-five percent of the time.

Treatment integrity was monitored by a beginning master level student from the Human Services and Studies Department. Both treatment groups were audiotaped. The "rater" listened to the tapes for each intervention and followed a checklist with the specifics that were to be covered within each intervention. (See Appendix D for the rating checklists for each intervention). The rater went through a "practice" audiotape training session with the researcher to ensure interrater reliability.

The rater was instructed to listen to the audiotape and at fifteen minute intervals stop the tape and report whether the appropriate information was adequately presented and addressed. If so, the rater put a "Y" for yes under that fifteen minute time block. This fifteen minute evaluation continued through both interventions for all three sessions.

In the case of Experimental Group One, the rater was evaluating whether the didactic modules were being followed. In the case of Experimental Group Two, the rater was evaluating whether the topics of discussion were relative to the group's teaching experiences. At the end of the interventions, six different evaluation forms were completed (three for the didactic intervention, three for the processing intervention).

Statistical Analysis

This study utilized three types of treatment groups: Treatment Group One (didactic intervention), Treatment Group Two (processing intervention) and Treatment Group Three (control group). Data collection was conducted over two different time periods; there was a total of six different groups (two subgroups of treatment group one, two subgroups of treatment group two and two subgroups of treatment group three). For statistical purposes, the subgroups were collapsed to form one group for each type of treatment.

The purpose of the study was to examine the effect of two different counseling interventions on subjects' teaching efficacy as measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson, 1983). Two null hypotheses were tested: a) that the didactic intervention had no significant impact upon the subjects' teaching efficacy as measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scale and b) that the processing intervention had no significant impact upon subjects' teaching efficacy as measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scale.

In order to test those null hypotheses, a separate test for each of the two factors (didactic and processing interventions) and a test for the interaction was needed. This was accomplished by a form of the two way analysis of variance (Keppel, 1982). Scores on the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson, 1983) are interval, ranging from 30-180. A repeated measures analysis of variance was used with the pretest and posttest data in order to determine differences in all the subjects' efficacy scores after either intervention

and differences between treatment groups (interaction).

This blending of within-subjects and between-subjects designs is often called a mixed factorial design. The mixed design represents a combination of the two generic types of designs: independent groups, constituting the levels of one factor; and repeated measures, constituting the levels of the other factor.

Repeated measures designs are used when subjects are measured repeatedly over time periods and temporal change in average score is meaningful. Repeated measures designs are also used when subjects can be tested under all treatment conditions without fear of transfer effects (Fletcher, 1996). In mixed designs, subjects are used as their own control under all conditions, hence the usually large "between subject" error variance is eliminated from tests of the repeated measure treatment effect. Due to these benefits, the repeated measures ANOVA was used for the statistical analysis.

The complexity of this mixed two factor design is due to the simultaneous effect of two independent variables (didactic and processing interventions) and the combined effect, or interaction, on the dependent variable. This interaction along with the repeated measures effect is tested. The main effects, or the effects due to the factors themselves, were examined. The effect of the two factors, over and above the main effects, known as the interaction, were tested. Descriptive statistics on the participants were provided.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

This study utilized three types of treatment groups: Treatment Group One (didactic intervention), Treatment Group Two (processing intervention) and Treatment Group Three (control group). Because data collection was conducted over two different intervention time periods, there was a total of six different groups (two subgroups of each treatment group type). For statistical purposes, the subgroups were collapsed to form one group for each treatment type.

The research question of what effect group counseling interventions had upon the subjects' teaching efficacy allowed for the development of the two following null hypotheses:

a) The didactic intervention had no significant impact upon subjects' teaching efficacy as measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scale

b) The processing intervention had no significant impact upon subjects' teaching efficacy as measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scale.

In response to the stated research question, between and within group differences were examined. The analysis included a mixed factorial design with repeated measures for three different groups:

Treatment Group I (didactic intervention),

Treatment Group II (processing intervention), and

Treatment Group III (control).

The data were analyzed using repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine whether the pretest to posttest difference in teaching efficacy scores of the subjects varied due to didactic, processing or no intervention. The subjects' standing as university students (graduate or undergraduate) was also included in the ANOVA to determine if subjects' scholastic level affected teaching efficacy scores.

Characteristics of the Sample

A demographic questionnaire was completed by all subjects participating in this research. Table 1 is a report of the demographic information gathered on the thirty subjects participating in Treatment Groups One, Two and Three. Table 1 indicates that both undergraduate (n=15) and graduate students (n=15) participated in the study. The undergraduate participants had three different majors: Special Education (n=3), Early Childhood Education (n=5) and Elementary Education (n= 7). All those who were

undergraduate students were also female, under the age of 21 and had less than 16 years of experience. The graduate students who participated in the study were students in either Counseling Psychology (n=12) or Clinical Psychology (n=3). All ten males that participated in the study were graduate students, over the age of 21 and had more than sixteen years of education. Five females of graduate student status also participated in this study.

Table 1

Demographic Information

		N
Sex:	Male	10
	Female	20
Student Status:	Undergraduate	15
	Graduate	15
Age:	Under age 21	15
	Over age 21	15
Yrs of Education:	Under 16 years	15
	Over 16 years	15

Internal Consistency of the Teacher Efficacy Scale

Due to the fact that this study used a different sample than the original internal consistency population, a Cronbach alpha coefficient was needed. Analysis of internal consistency yielded Cronbach's alpha coefficients of .75 for the total overall score on the Teacher Efficacy Scale. This is compared to the original internal consistency reliability

of .79 from the original sample of 208 elementary school teachers (Gibson, 1983). This result indicates that the current population, although different in demographics, yielded a fairly consistent Cronbach's alpha coefficient when compared to the original data set.

Treatment Integrity

One way to improve the outcome of any research is to perform a manipulation check, or an assessment of treatment integrity, to determine whether the independent variable of interest has been successfully manipulated. In this study, treatment integrity was maintained in the didactic information group if the leader adhered to the designed modules seventy-five percent of the time. Treatment integrity was maintained in the processing group if the leader allowed the group to discuss whatever topics were relative to the student teaching experience and the processing of feelings, thoughts and situations seventy-five percent of the time.

Treatment integrity was monitored by a master level student from the Human Services and Studies Department. Both treatment groups were audiotaped. Results from the treatment integrity analyses indicate that each intervention maintained integrity to the original design intended. The forms completed by the rater for each session of each group intervention (didactic and processing) revealed that the intervention design was maintained throughout the entire study. No departures from the design existed in either

the didactic or processing groups. Therefore, with 100% treatment integrity, no deviation from the intended treatment existed.

Research Question

The research question investigated was what effect two different group counseling interventions have upon the subjects' (degree seeking students who are teaching) teaching efficacy. Two specific counseling interventions were utilized in this study. One intervention focused on didactic information and the other focused on processing of events and emotions. Table 2 provides mean scores on the Teacher Efficacy Scale for subjects categorized by treatment and scholastic level (graduate or undergraduate).

Mean scores on the Teacher Efficacy Scale shown in Table 2 indicate an increase in teaching efficacy for both graduate and undergraduate students who participated in the Treatment Group I (didactic group). For the undergraduate participants (n=5) in Treatment Group I, there was an overall increase of 11 points on the Teacher Efficacy Scale, from M= 126.4 to a M= 137.4. For the graduate participants (n=5) in Treatment Group I, there was a 9.4 point difference, from M=129.2 to M=138.6. Overall, Treatment Group I demonstrated an overall increase of approximately ten points on the Teacher Efficacy Scale after the intervention was completed. The standard deviation of 8.25 indicates that the increase in mean scores for Treatment Group I was significant.

Table 2

Mean Scores for Subjects

		Pretest	(SD)	Postest	(SD)	n
Treatment Group I	Undergraduate	126.4	(2.4)	137.4	(6.8)	5
	Graduate	129.2	(16.1)	138.6	(10.7)	5
	Group Total	127.8	(10.9)	138.0	(8.5)	10
Treatment Group II	Undergraduate	126.8	(5.2)	128.8	(9.7)	6
	Graduate	128.5	(9.3)	115.5	(11.8)	4
	Group Total	127.5	(6.7)	123.5	(12.1)	10
Treatment Group III	Undergraduate	127.0	(8.9)	125.5	(7.9)	4
	Graduate	127.5	(9.9)	129.2	(8.6)	6
	Group Total	127.3	(9.0)	127.7	(8.1)	10
	Population Total	127.5	(8.7)	129.7	(11.2)	30

Overall Mean = 128.6   Standard Deviation = 8.25

In the Treatment Group II (processing group), teaching efficacy mean scores *increased slightly (two points) for undergraduate students (n=6), from M=126.8 to* M=128.8. However, mean scores decreased for graduate students (n=4) by thirteen points, from M=128.5 to M=115.5. This decrease of thirteen points was considered significant. The overall group total teaching efficacy mean scores on the Teacher Efficacy Scale for the Treatment Group II decreased by four points.

For Treatment Group III (control group), the mean scores for the undergraduate

59

subjects (n=4) decreased slightly, from M=127.0 to M=125.5. However, the graduate subjects (n=6) increased slightly from M=127.5 to M=129.2.

Overall, the group total teaching efficacy mean scores stayed fairly constant. The entire population teaching efficacy mean scores increased slightly. One notable issue is that an average score on the Teacher Efficacy Scale ranges from 100-115. Most of the scores in this sample were slightly above this range, indicating that most of the subjects felt quite positive about their ability to impact student change prior to the intervention.

To determine the treatment groups main effect, the repeated measures ANOVA was conducted. Homogeneity tests of variance were conducted and all assumptions were met with no violations (Tate, 1993). Table 3 indicates the tests of significance for the interaction between the pretest/posttest scores and the treatment group that the subjects were assigned. The results indicate that at least one of the interventions did significantly impact subjects' teaching efficacy scores. The interaction between pretest/posttest scores and subjects' scholastic level were not significant. Also, the interaction between subject scholastic level, treatment group and test scores was not significant.

Table 3
Group by Experimental Group and Testing Scores

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

	SS	DF	MS	F	SigF
Total Independence Score	(4018.87)	(29)			
Subjects (Trt x SL)	3152.63	24	131.36		
Treatment	661.49	2	330.75	2.52	.102
Scholastic Level	4.97	1	4.91	.04	.847
Trt by SL	199.78	2	99.89	.76	.478

Tests of Within-Subjects Effects

	SS	DF	MS	F	SigF
Total Dependence Score	(2048.99)	(30)			
Subjects (Trt x SL x TES)	1102.77	24	45.95		
TES	37.10	1	37.10	.81	.378
Treatment x TES	622.63	2	311.31	6.78	.005
SL x TES	73.16	1	73.16	1.59	.219
Trt x SL x TES	213.33	2	106.67	2.32	.120

Trt = Experimental Group
SL = Scholastic Level
TES = pretest & Postest scores

Due to the significant interaction between treatment group and testing scores, further sub-analyses were required to determine which experimental groups had the desired effect on pretest and posttest scores. Paired wise t-tests were conducted for each treatment group. Table 4 indicates the results of those t-tests using the Bonferroni method (Tate, 1993).

Table 4
T-Test Comparisons for Post-test Scores

	Mean	SD	95% Confidence SEM	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig.(p)
Treatment Group I	10.2	5.25	1.66	6.45	13.95	6.1	9	.000
Treatment Group II	-4.0	16.1	5.12	-15.58	7.58	-.781	9	.455
Treatment Group III	.4	4.33	1.37	-2.69	3.49	.292	9	.777

The results of the t-tests indicated that Treatment Group I, the didactic group, had a significant increase (p<.01) in their pretest and posttest scores as a result of that intervention. Treatment Group II, the processing group (p=.455), and Treatment Group III, the control group (p=.777), did not have any significant impact on the efficacy scores.

The percentage of variance explained (PVE) was calculated in order to further determine the significance of the interaction between testing scores for experimental group one. The PVE for the interaction was .152; approximately 15% of the variance of test scores can be explained through the given intervention.

The statistical analysis indicates that Treatment Group I (the didactic intervention) had a positive impact on teaching efficacy for both undergraduate and graduate level teachers. Subjects that participated in either Treatment Group II (the processing intervention) or III (the control group) had no increase in teaching efficacy as measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scale.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine two different counseling interventions

to determine if they impacted the teaching efficacy of degree seeking students who were

teaching. An intervention which positively impacts teacher efficacy will likely benefit

students' educational development, in addition to the overall educational system. The

study utilized three types of treatment groups: Treatment Group One (didactic

intervention), Treatment Group Two (processing intervention) and Treatment Group

Three (control group). Due to the fact that data collection was conducted over two

different intervention time periods, there was a total of six different groups (two

subgroups of each treatment group type). For statistical purposes, the subgroups were

collapsed to form one group for each treatment.

The first null hypothesis stated that the didactic intervention would have no effect

on teaching efficacy. The p value was significant for the didactic intervention at the .01

level. Thus, this hypothesis was rejected and the results indicate that the construct of

teaching efficacy can be significantly impacted with the didactic modules that were designed. Visual examination of the raw data revealed that among the ten subjects exposed to the didactic intervention, all but one had an increase of at least eight points on the Teacher Efficacy Scale after the three week intervention.

The second null hypothesis stated that the processing intervention would have no effect on teaching efficacy. The p value of .455 for this group was not significant and, therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Visual examination of the raw data revealed that among the ten subjects, four had increases and six had decreases on the scores of the Teacher Efficacy Scale after the three week intervention.

It was anticipated that both groups receiving either treatment, didactic or process, would have a positive increase in their overall scores on an instrument measuring teaching efficacy. However, it was expected that subjects that received the didactic intervention would have higher ratings on the teaching efficacy measure than those who received the process intervention. It was further expected that the control group would demonstrate no difference in overall teaching efficacy scores.

The first anticipated outcome of having a significant increase on the Teacher Efficacy Scale as a result of the didactic intervention was proven. One of the factors believed to contribute to such an outcome was the design of the didactic modules and the use of Lowe's motivation sequence. It is believed that when individuals examine their own values, needs, reinforcers, etc., this provides for greater self-actualization. It is

further surmised that with a greater self-actualization one might have a greater understanding of one's ability to impact others. In this study, the didactic modules allowed the subjects to have a greater understanding of themselves as individuals and as teachers, allowing for a greater understanding of their ability to impact students' behaviors.

Another factor which could contribute to the increase in Teacher Efficacy Scale scores for the didactic group is the structure and formality of the intervention. The presentation of the modules was similar in format to a class lecture. The intervention took place in a classroom where a chalkboard was utilized and where the subjects sat at desks. The surrounding environment was familiar to the subjects who were all degree seeking students. Perhaps this allowed for a comfortable, safe environment in which positive change could occur.

The second anticipated outcome of the processing group demonstrating an increase in the Teacher Efficacy Scale scores was not found. In fact, scores for this experimental group dropped overall by four points. Perhaps this can be explained by the short-term nature of the intervention. It is possible that within the three week period, the groups had evolved to the second stage of group development (Corey, 1990). In this *second stage, the group goes through a transition phase where members deal with* anxiety, resistance and conflict. It is possible, that at the time of the posttest, what was being measured is how the subjects felt about their teaching efficacy through the filter of

this transition stage of the group. Perhaps with more time for processing of events and feelings and the resulting transition through to a higher stage of group development, subjects could have obtained higher scores on the Teacher Efficacy Scale.

The drop in scores of the processing group occurs with the graduate student portion of the population. These individuals were mainly male, had more than 16 years of education and were over the age of 21. It can be hypothesized that since the majority (67%) of the graduate students were males, the nature of the intervention (processing and talking about feelings) had a minimal impact on teaching efficacy. Rubin (1985) concluded that men tended to form less disclosing relationships and frequently avoided speaking about personal matters, so as not to appear vulnerable. If this same finding were true with the processing group population, then the benefit of the processing intervention could have been negated by the individuals lack of disclosing specific teaching experience and the feelings stemming from those experiences. However, Nelson (1993) noted that, because gender accounts for only 1 - 5% of the variance in most meta-analytic investigations, gender alone is perhaps a poor predictor of complex phenomena such as counseling outcome or how one feels about themselves as a teacher. Due to this result, other possible explanations for this outcome were examined.

Treatment Group Two, the processing group, focused on sharing of experiences. It is possible, due to the short nature of this intervention, that all that was shared within the group was negative experiences and situations. Perhaps this "gripe session" made the

subjects feel as if their shared negative experiences were beyond their control and, therefore, futile to try to problem solve. The processing intervention focused on feelings. Discussion but no clear problem resolution was encouraged. Perhaps this type of intervention leads to feelings of anxiety, feelings of ambiguity or an assessment that the result would not be beneficial.

Treatment Group Two, the processing group, was less structured and was conducted in an environment that may have been intimidating to the subjects. The graduate participants were in a room that had sofas and soft sided chairs. The positioning of the chairs was in a circle. The leader lead the intervention much like a leader would lead a group involved in counseling. Perhaps this approach mimicked counseling too closely and the subjects' anxieties were aroused. (The undergraduates involved in this intervention were placed in a circle but their surrounding environment was in a classroom with desks). Also, the group leader had less practical and theoretical knowledge than the subjects participating in the group. These factors could affect the overall generalizability of the results.

Another difference between the graduate and undergraduate groups was that the undergraduate students were interested in pursuing a career in teaching. The graduate student population, despite their teaching experiences, were not necessarily interested in teaching as a major aspect of their future career. Audiotape analyses revealed that the graduate participants wanted to become primarily clinicians or researchers upon receipt of

67

their degree. Perhaps with this goal in mind, they did not see any apparent value in trying to discuss and make a positive impact on how they felt about themselves as teachers.

The decrease in Teacher Efficacy Scale scores may not be due to the sex or the future career aspirations of the subjects, but rather due to the differences in years of education and/or age. Perhaps with an increase in either one of these constructs, it is less likely that interventions can sway the already developed notions of teaching efficacy.

Lastly, the impact of the instrument used to measure teaching efficacy could have affected the outcome of this study. The Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson, 1983) has been utilized in several studies; however, validity and reliability data are poor. The results from this study could be compromised due to the lack of standardization of the Teacher Efficacy Scale.

The control group involved in this study also had needs to be considered. The control group consisted of individuals who could not participate in either intervention. Their overall mean on the pretest score was similar to the other groups. The Teacher Efficacy Scale score remained fairly constant over the three week time period. It is apparent that the Control Group participants did not experience any situation that altered the teaching efficacy construct during the intervention period. It appears that they were not exposed to any outside information or experience that would impact how they perceived their ability to control students' behaviors.

Implications

It is believed that teachers, school systems and universities will benefit from knowledge gained from this study in several ways. First, this study indicates that teaching efficacy, how degree seeking students who are teaching evaluate their abilities to bring about positive student change, can be positively influenced. Bandura's theoretical predictions of initiation and persistence of coping behavior suggest that persons with high scores on both the personal efficacy and Teacher Efficacy Scales will respond with assuredness, while persons with low scores on both scales will not persist in their effort if they do not get results.

Teachers who believe student learning can be influenced by effective teaching and who also have confidence in their own teaching abilities, should persist longer, provide a greater academic focus in the classroom, and exhibit different types of feedback than teachers who have lower expectations concerning their ability to influence student learning (Gibson and Dembo, 1984). Knowing that these constructs can be influenced with the didactic intervention, school systems can support teachers in persisting longer and coping better with "difficult" situations, perhaps allowing for less teaching burn-out, apathy and poor overall job performance.

Also, school systems that are comprised of teachers with higher teaching efficacy report better overall organizational health (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993). Organizational

health is measured by institutional integrity, academic emphasis, and resource support. If teaching efficacy can be positively influenced, then these constructs can be influenced as well. Higher teaching efficacy could lead to higher institutional integrity, emphasis on academics and provide more support for the institution overall. This theory also coincides with Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs which states that if an individual's self-actualization needs are met, then the individual is able to give back to the community. If a teacher's self-actualization needs (understanding one's needs, values, reinforcers, etc.) are met, then they are better able to provide positive outcomes for the environment in which they are associated.

Teachers with higher teaching efficacy feel that they can overcome outside influences to have a positive change in their students. This would include those perceived reasons that teachers may develop to explain students' poor classroom behavior and poor academic performance. Research indicates that teachers with high teaching efficacy have a greater impact on classroom management, have students with higher academic performance and greater advances in reading achievement. Therefore, a method to impact teaching efficacy also impacts students abilities in the classroom.

Additionally, universities may also benefit by implementing such an intervention at the training level. Subjects reported that through their group participation, they learned much about themselves as teachers. They reported that they were not aware that their perceptions and expectations about themselves as teachers could be impacting their

70

overall satisfaction with not just their career choice, but with their level of training, as well.

Recommendations for Further Research

Several questions were raised during this study that deserve further research attention. The following areas are recommended for further investigation.

Due to the significant statistical outcome of the didactic intervention on the subjects' teaching efficacy, replication of the study using full-time teachers is warranted. If a significant increase in teaching efficacy can be reported using full-time teacher populations, then statements regarding the impact of teaching efficacy on education can be made more stridently.

The subjects utilized in this study were of an exceptional nature. They were students enrolled in programs with high recruiting requirements. The subjects also received high scores on the pre-test of the Teacher Efficacy Scale (the overall pre-test M=127.5 on a scale where the median scores range from 100 - 115.). Further research should focus on recruiting a subject pool that is more consistent with the normal distribution of the population being studied.

Also, the processing intervention yielded lower teaching efficacy scores than what was expected. It is assumed that this outcome was due to the short-term nature of the

intervention or the homogeneity of the group. Replication of the study allowing for more in-depth group development is recommended. Perhaps an eight week intervention would allow for more group development and cohesion. This cohesion would bring about feelings of trust and safety among group participants. With greater trust, the group can discuss topics that are more personal in nature and allow for in-depth solutions to the issues being addressed.

In addition to increased group cohesion, an eight week intervention would allow the group to deal with a broader range of topics and feelings. If the group started out as a "gripe session," the leader would have more time to address the group's action of complaining rather than supporting and/or problem solving. With additional time, the underlying issues can be addressed and processed.

Graduate student subjects involved in the processing group had similar years of education and were mostly male. The homogeneity of this group definitely impacted the generalizibility of this study. Further research should utilize subjects that are more diverse in their years of education, age and sex.

Another recommendation for further research involves recruitment of potential subjects. It would be helpful for administration to be supportive and encouraging for research in this area. Administrative encouragement could include special class credit to participate in research, matching of financial incentives or simply verbalizing their support of the project to potential subjects. With this added support, a larger subject pool

could be investigated leading to more significant findings and discussions.

Gibson's (1983) original construct of teaching efficacy included both personal efficacy and teaching efficacy. Further research should examine the impact of the didactic modules on both personal efficacy and teaching efficacy. The modules were designed to bring about a self-actualization which would translate to a higher personal efficacy. It would be interesting to investigate the correlation of self-actualization to both personal and teaching efficacy.

Further investigation into direct correlation between increased teaching efficacy and increased student performance, organizational health and teacher stress is suggested. It is recommended that a study implementing the didactic modules and their direct impact on the aforementioned constructs be conducted.

Lastly, it is suggested that this study be replicated using professions other than teaching. It is believed that the didactic modules can be applied to any professional efficacy construct. The didactic modules were designed to bring about a greater self-actualization for any individual. Self-actualization (understanding one's value system, expectations, self-efficacy, reinforcers, etc.) relates to how we perceive ourselves making a difference in our chosen career field. Teachers were used in this study due to the author's years of observation and the perceived need of impacting the educational system. However, other professional areas may benefit from greater self-actualization of the individuals that make up that profession. It is believed that if you can impact how people

feel about themselves, that this then will correlate to other aspects of their identity.

Summary and Conclusions

This study examined the effect of two different interventions on teaching efficacy of degree seeking students who are teaching. The purpose of the study was to test the effect of the independent variables on teaching efficacy. The independent variables were the three different intervention groups (didactic, process and control) and some demographic information. Scholastic level and sex was the demographic information addressed. The dependent variable was that of teaching efficacy. Two different null hypotheses were examined: a) that the didactic intervention had no significant impact upon the subjects' teaching efficacy as measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scale, and b) that the processing intervention had no significant impact upon the subjects' teaching efficacy as measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scale. It was anticipated that both groups receiving either intervention, didactic or process, would show a positive increase in their overall score on an instrument measuring teaching efficacy. However, subjects that received the didactic intervention would have higher ratings on the teaching efficacy measure than those who received the process intervention. It was further expected that the control group would have no difference in their overall teaching efficacy scores. Teaching efficacy was measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scale pre and post intervention.

Subjects consisted of thirty teachers from a large Southern university ranging in age and major.

Each subject attended an informational meeting. Those interested in the study were assigned to one of the treatment groups. Those not able to participate in one of the two interventions due to time conflicts agreed to be part of the control group. Each subject was given a pretest, informed consent and brief demographic questionnaire at the "briefing session". The two interventions consisted of a didactic and processing group. Both interventions took place over three weeks, meeting for two hours per week. The didactic intervention involved six separate modules that addressed need identification, values and conflicts, goals and intentions, expectancy, performance and rewards, and satisfaction. The processing intervention involved subjects simply talking about their thoughts and feelings on related topics of teaching. After the three week period, subjects were given a posttest, scheduled time for debriefing and financial reimbursement for their time.

A repeated measures analysis of variance was used to test the hypotheses. The results of the repeated measures ANOVA revealed a significant interaction between experimental group and pretest/posttest scores. Based on this significance, pair wise t-tests using the Bonferroni method were conducted. This revealed that the Treatment Group I (didactic) was significant at the .05 level. The other treatment groups did not reveal a significance. The percentage of variance explained by this significant interaction

75

between treatment and test scores was 15%.

Results of this study indicate that teaching efficacy can be positively impacted, thus, allowing degree seeking students who are teaching to feel that they can make a difference in students' learning despite outside influences.

The results of this study can be interpreted in the context of Bandura's theory of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). Bandura's theoretical predictions of initiation and persistence of coping behavior suggest that persons high on both personal and teaching efficacy will respond with active, assured responsiveness and persons low on personal and teaching efficacy will not continue to persist if they do not get results. Teachers who believe student learning can be influenced by effective teaching and who also have confidence in their own teaching abilities, should persist longer, provide a greater academic focus in the classroom and exhibit different types of feedback than teachers who have lower expectations concerning their ability to influence student learning (Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

Knowing that these constructs can be influenced with the didactic intervention, school systems can support teachers in persisting longer and coping better with "difficult" situations, perhaps allowing for less teaching burn-out, apathy and poor overall job performance. Teaching efficacy is a complex variable that is ever evolving; however, research indicates that it impacts organizational health, student learning and teaching attitudes. The ability to positively impact teaching efficacy can have long lasting effects

on students, teachers, and the educational system.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

TEACHER EFFICACY SCALE
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Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement below by circling the appropriate numeral to the right of each statement.

	Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Disagree slightly more than agree	Agree slightly more than disagree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
1. When a student does better than usual, many times it is because I exerted a little extra effort.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. The hours in my class have little influence on students compared to the influence of their home environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. If parents comment to me that their child behaves much better at school than he/she does at home, it would probably be because I have some specific techniques of managing his/her behavior which they may lack.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. The amount that a student can learn is primarily related to family background.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. If a teacher has adequate skills and motivation, she/he can get through to the most difficult students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. If students aren't disciplined at home, they aren't likely to accept any discipline.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I have enough training to deal with almost any learning problem.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. My teacher training program and/or experience has given me the necessary skills to be an effective teacher.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Many teachers are stymied in their attempts to help students by lack of support from the community.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Some students need to be placed in slower groups so they are not subjected to unrealistic expectations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Individual differences among teachers account for the wide variations in student achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. If one of my new students cannot remain on task for a particular assignment, there is little that I could do to increase his/her attention until he/she is ready.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. When a student gets a better grade than he usually gets, it is usually because I found better ways of teaching that student.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. When I really try, I can get through to most difficult students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. A teacher is very limited in what he/she can achieve because a student's home environment is a large influence on his/her achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Teacher Efficacy Scale, *continued*

	Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Disagree slightly, more than agree	Agree slightly, more than disagree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
17. Teachers are not a very powerful influence on student achievement when all factors are considered.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. If students are particularly disruptive one day, I ask myself what I have been doing differently.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. When the grades of my students improve it is usually because I found more effective teaching approaches.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. If my principal suggested that I change some of my class curriculum, I would feel confident that I have the necessary skills to implement the unfamiliar curriculum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. If a student masters a new math concept quickly, this might be because I knew the necessary steps in teaching that concept.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. Parent conferences can help a teacher judge how much to expect from a student by giving the teacher an idea of the parents' values toward education, discipline, etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. If parents would do more with their children, I could do more.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him quickly.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. School rules and policies hinder my doing the job I was hired to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. The influences of a student's home experiences can be overcome by good teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. When a child progresses after being placed in a slower group, it is usually because the teacher has had a chance to give him/her extra attention.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. If one of my students couldn't do a class assignment, I would be able to accurately assess whether the assignment was at the correct level of difficulty.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. Even a teacher with good teaching abilities may not reach many students.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX B

MODULES FOR DIDACTIC GROUPS

Module One

NEED IDENTIFICATION

<u>Learner Objectives</u>:

1. To have participants identify needs that exist for them in the work realm.

2. To demonstrate universality through the recognition of common needs.

3. To think about ways of having needs met under "difficult" conditions.

<u>Information</u>:

To best understand what motivates ourselves and others, we need to understand the needs that drive our behavior. We need to understand what gives us pleasure and why, and what gives us pain and why. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs attempted to explain people's drives and the progression through those drives.

- physiological needs- needs for food, water, air, rest, etc.

- safety needs- need for safety and security, both in physical and psychological sense

- belongingness/love needs- need for attention and social activity

- esteem needs- desire for self-respect, for strength, for achievement, for adequacy, for mastery and competence, for independence and freedom

- need for self-actualization- desire for self-fulfillment, realize one's potential

80

When lower needs begin to be satisfied with increasing ease, they become less important and the individual moves up the ladder through the hierarchy of needs until all basic needs are satisfied. Only at this point can the person turn energies toward self-actualization. The self-actualizing person is creative, self-motivating, tolerant, efficient, spontaneous, and energetic.

Each individual has a different need pattern that can be understood only by studying the individual. The ultimate goal of goal-directed action is need fulfillment.

Discussion:

1. Have the group list all the reasons why they want to become school teachers/ what needs are they getting met through this profession? (Be sure to have them address each stage in Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs).

2. Then lead them to discuss individual differences and the flexibility of our needs (what might be reinforcing on one day, is not reinforcing on another - why is that?).

3. Have group discuss what happens when needs are not fulfilled. Talk about how the individual feels and what behaviors might he/she engage in when needs are not met. Have them address a need in each stage - keep the discussion focused on them and their needs.

4. After discussion in step 3, have group talk about other potential co-workers, children, parents and what might they encounter from others when their needs are not met. Have them speculate on how being aware of their own needs and needs of others could benefit them as teachers.

Module Two

VALUES & CONFLICTS

Learner Objectives:

1. To have participants understand the bridge between needs and actions and how their values motivate them to certain actions.

2. To be aware of some of their values and how that impacts them as teachers.

3. To discuss what happens when our values are in conflict with other.

Information:

Values can be viewed as the link between needs and action. They bridge the gap between what is required to live and what the person actually does. As discussed in the last session, different needs can be satisfied in part by the same value (money) and different values help to satisfy the same need. Nonetheless, we develop certain values because we think that they will meet most of our needs and bring us pleasure and not bring about pain. Values are acquired (not innate) based on our own hierarchy of needs. Values always correspond to a need. The values we hold, then, call us to certain actions and behaviors.

People act to maximize their expected pleasure. People often use foresight to choose among courses of action, based on values they believe each course of action will lead to. However, often times our courses of action that we want to take in order to meet our needs and values are thwarted by outside circumstances. Thus, conflict ensues. Conflict generally is viewed as a tendency to perform two or more incompatible responses at the same time, resulting in emotional, mental and/or physical stress. Conflict

can be functional or dysfunctional.

Some of the advantages of functional conflict are the exposure of issues, improvement of the quality of problem solving, increased emotional involvement, increased creativity, clarification of objectives, and increased cohesiveness. Dysfunctional conflict is characterized by a tendency to isolate, divert energy, weaken morale, obstruct action, increase differences, and cause a delay in growth. There are three types of conflict:

- approach-approach conflict- occurs when an individual is faced with a choice between two positive, equally attractive, but mutually exclusive alternatives

- avoidance-avoidance conflict- involves making a choice between two or more unpleasant or negative alternatives

- approach-avoidance conflict- involves a choice which the individual attaches both positive and negative values to a given future possibility

Discussion:

1. Have group mention at least five values that they have as teachers. Have them mention very specific values, i.e., I need to be fair in disciplinary situations or whatever.

2. From the above list, have them identify how values meet specific needs and what behaviors might stem from it.

Put on the board: Stated Need---------> Value -----------> Behavior/Action

3. Lead a discussion regarding what happens when one's value is in conflict with another. What then happens to our need, our behavior. Does the type of conflict impact our feelings and behaviors?

4. Have participants identify why this information/discussion may be beneficial to them as teachers.

Module Three

GOALS & INTENTIONS

<u>Learner Objectives</u>:

1. To have participants acknowledge the bridge between values and goals.

2. To discuss the characteristics of goals and goal attainment.

3. To identify three specific goals for their current school year. Have them identify the value and need associated with those goals.

<u>Information</u>:

Goals can be viewed as applications of values to specific situations. The relation between goals and values is multifaceted. A given value can affect the choice of a number of different goals and a given goal can reflect the influence of a number of different values. We are constantly setting goals, either consciously or unconsciously. However, if we are conscious of our goals, we tend to be more focused. Goals affect action by affecting the intensity, duration, and direction of action.

Goals have a better chance of being successful if they meet the following criteria:

- conceivable-capable of being put into words

- believable-acceptable and appropriate to your values

- achievable- can be accomplished with your present strengths

- controllable- does not depend upon a specific, unreasonable actions on the part of others

- measurable- can be observed when you've met your goal

- specific- the language used in stating your goals tells of the what, where, when of your goal

84

Discussion:

1. Have participants identify three goals they would like to obtain in the upcoming school year. Have them identify the values and needs associated with those goals.

     Stated Goal----------Value-------------Need being met

2. Have participants go through the criteria of goals and determine if their goals are attainable. Have them brain storm about possible conflicts that could arise and keep them from attaining their goals.

3. Assign homework: have them "daydream" about possible conflicts and imagine themselves solving the conflict is such a way that they meet their goals and others involved are "pleased".

4. Have them discuss why developing and attaining goals may benefit them as teachers.

Module Four

EXPECTANCY & SELF-EFFICACY

Learner Objectives:

1. To have participants understand the relationship between goal attainment and self-efficacy.

2. Discuss ways to improve self-efficacy as it relates to their occupation.

Information:

Self-efficacy is how we feel about ourselves in any given situation (it is very similar to self-esteem and self concept). The degree to which people feel able to cope in a situation will determine three things: whether they will approach or avoid the situation, how much energy they will expend in the face of difficulties and obstacles, and how long they will persist before giving up. When people feel confident about their ability to handle a situation, they will be more likely to persevere and try all possible situations because they feel that they can succeed. This then forms a cycle of behavior. An individual feels that they can succeed, so they approach a situation, they expend energy despite difficulties, they persist and then they succeed and then that reinforces their positive self-efficacy. If we feel good about ourselves, we probably set more goals and achieve more goals then those who do not feel as good about themselves.

It is important to know how to impact your self-esteem so that there is an increase in self-efficacy. With an increase in efficacy, one feels more powerful, more successful. Some of the guidelines for building self-esteem are:

- control your self-esteem through how you see yourself- focus on strengths and positive characteristics

- set your own standards for evaluating yourself- do not let others set the standards by which you are evaluated

- set realistic goals- do not demand too much of yourself

- modify negative self-talk- make sure you take credit for your successes and make self-enhancing conclusions

- emphasize your strengths- increase your awareness of your strengths

- work to improve yourself

- approach others and projects with a positive outlook

Discussion:

1. Have participants identify three to five positive characteristics that they possess as teachers. If they can not come up with any, have them identify three to five positive characteristics that they possess as humans. Have them list these characteristics on separate pieces of paper.

2. Have the participants break down into small groups of four or five. Have them think of one "difficult" situations that have come up in their classroom and write it out along with their negative self talk that they experienced on a piece of paper. Have each member pick a scenario from the pile and read it aloud. Discuss how hard or easy it is to change the negative self-statements into the positive characteristics that they listed before.

3. Have participants discuss how important it is to learn how to modify the messages they send themselves and how that could impact them as teachers.

Module Five

PERFORMANCE & REWARDS

Learner Objectives:

1. To have participants understand the connection between intentions and self-efficacy and their impact on performance.

2. To understand how their expectations for rewards are tied to their performance.

3. Demonstrate how feelings of equity/inequity motivate their behaviors.

4. To have participants understand and develop coping mechanisms for dealing with feelings of inequity.

Information:

Expectancy and self-efficacy affect the goals people choose, but they also have powerful direct effects on performance. The higher one's self-efficacy, the more developed the goals, the goals are then attained and cycle continues; finally, creating high performance. People make attributions about their performance and those attributions affect subsequent emotions and actions. If people make positive attributions about their performance (I am a positive teacher and that impacts my students and their abilities), then they feel better about themselves and then are more consistent with their actions. Then performance is enhanced and the whole notion is reinforced. However, there does have to be some form of reinforcement for the cycle to continue. Reinforcement can be internal but this can be difficult to do over time. Reinforcement should be some external "reward" for a goal attained or a job well done. (Ask them to name some things that can be reinforcing),

We have expectations that when we put forth a good performance, we will be rewarded either through intrinsic or external means. (Ask them for examples of intrinsic and external rewards.) Individuals form a ration of their inputs in a given situation to their outcomes in a situation. The

88

individuals then compare the value of that ratio to the value of the input/output ratio for other individuals in similar occupations. If the value of an individual's ratio equals the value of the ratio for others, the situation is perceived a equitable and no tension exists. The presence of perceived inequity creates tension and this motivates the individual to eliminate or reduce it. An individual may seek out many different ways to "cope" with these perceived inequities, they are as follows:

- altering one's inputs- increase or decrease level of performance

- altering one's outcomes- seeking more pay or other rewards

- distorting one's inputs and outcomes cognitively- rearranging one's thoughts so as to reduce perceived inequities

- leaving the field

- acting on other persons- including others to lower their inputs

- changing the basis of comparison

Choosing one or all of the above solutions depends on personality, how long the inequity has been going on, receptiveness of others to your situation, etc. However, effective coping will be determined by a number of factors. An individual can be engaged in many different *behavioral coping* skills, such as: social skills, problem-solving, and decision making skills. *Cognitive coping* skills include an ability to deal with the tension (emotional arousal) by being aware of and utilizing one's self-talk and feelings in a constructive and healthy way. Being reasonable and flexible enough in one's beliefs and outlook to be able to accept the unpredictables of life and of other people's behavior is also essential. *Social supports* are a vital security cushion in helping deal with perceived tension.

Discussion:

1. Have participants break down into groups of four or five. Have each one of them discuss a current

89

inequity that they have seen or been a part of at their job. Have them describe the primary coping mechanism that they used and how they reduced their feelings of inequity.

2. Assign homework: have participants "daydream" about future inequities that they may experience and have them fantasy how they would deal with the situation using the above information.

3. Lastly, ask participants to discuss why having this information may benefit them as teachers.

Module Six

SATISFACTION

Learner Objectives:

1. To have participants understand the connection between needs and those "rewards" that bring about job satisfaction.

2. To discuss those elements that make teaching satisfying. Tie in feelings of self-efficacy in order to create a bigger list.

3. To have participants understand the cyclical nature of the occupation process.

Information:

One occupational theory on job satisfaction states that in contemporary society, the lower-level needs described by Maslow have generally been satisfied. Where they are not satisfied, job dissatisfaction is the result. However, the fulfillment of these lower-level needs alone does not produce job satisfaction. There are *motivator factors* which can bring fulfillment of the higher level needs and they motivate the worker to the highest possible level of performance and fulfillment. These factors could include: achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, etc. There also are *maintenance factors* that can bring about dissatisfaction. These could include: school policy, administration decisions, working conditions, national guidelines, etc.

90

In our society, many occupations range from having high motivator factors to low motivator factors while other occupations can range from high maintenance factors to low maintenance factors. (Have participants talk about different occupations and their different motivator and maintenance factors.) Again, what allows us as individuals to find certain things reinforcing and our abilities to overlook the "dissatisfying" parts depends on our specific needs, values, and goals.

Discussion:

1. Have participants list those characteristics of teaching that they find satisfying. Then have them list what need each one of those characteristics meet. Point out how we've circled back around to talking about needs.

     Satisfying element-----------> Need being met

2. Have participants expand their list of satisfying characteristics, have them brainstorm other characteristics that may not have been thought of or included in the previous list. Have them get in touch with feelings of satisfaction that they may experience on a daily and/or on an occasional basis.

3. Ask participants to share a specific feelings of satisfaction that they have encountered in the past week. Have them talk about the need that was met, the value present, and a goal that may have been met. How did this experience impact their teaching efficacy and their personal efficacy?

APPENDIX C

Group Counseling Treatment Plan

At the beginning of each session, ask each member how their week went in regard to their teaching experiences and allow them to elaborate.

State the agenda for that session. (Session 1: Working with the children/administration, Session 2: Problems that come up in teaching, Session 3: Being evaluated). Ask each group member to express their views/experiences within each of these topics.

After discussion, ask each member to set a goal regarding this topic. Allow group to brainstorm solutions to problems and how to go about getting goals met.

Provide an opportunity to role play possible scenarios.

APPENDIX D

Treatment Integrity Ratings

Didactic Group

Directions: Listen to the audiotape sessions. After fifteen minutes, stop the tape and rate the following item. Simply mark a "Y" for yes this item/topic has been addressed and mark "N" for no the item/topic has not been addressed within this fifteen minute time frame. If "N" is marked, provide a brief explanation as to why. After rating is complete, start audiotape and repeat instructions until the end of the tape.

Did the leader present didactic information and adhere to the module outline and plan?

:15   :30   :45   1:00   1:15   1:30   1:45   2:00

If "N", explain briefly:

Treatment Integrity

Processing Group

Directions: Listen to the audiotape sessions. After fifteen minutes, stop the tape and rate the following item. Simply mark a "Y" for yes this item/topic has been addressed and mark "N" for no the item/topic has not been addressed within this fifteen minute time frame. If "N" is marked, provide a brief explanation as to why. After rating is complete, start audiotape and repeat instructions until the end of the tape.

Is the leader allowing the group to discuss whatever topics are relative to the student teaching experience and to process feelings, thoughts and situations?

:15   :30   :45   1:00   1:15   1:30   1:45   2:00

If "N", explain briefly:

APPENDIX E

Human Subjects Approval Letter

Florida State
UNIVERSITY

Office of the Vice President
for Research
Tallahassee, Florida 32306-3067
(904) 644-5260 • FAX (904) 644-1464

RENEWAL MEMORANDUM	September 19, 1996

TO: **Cherri Kelly Seese**   (Human Services & Studies)
2666 Faversham Drive
Tallahassee, FL 32303

FROM: Betty Southard, Chair BSMH
Human Subjects Committee (IRB)

Re: Reapproval of project entitled: **The Effects of Group Counseling and Didactic Information on Student Teacher's Self-Efficacy**

Your request to continue the research project listed above involving human subjects has been approved by the Human Subjects Committee. If your project has not been completed by August 11, 1997, please request renewed approval.

You are reminded that a change in protocol in this project must be approved by resubmission of the project to the Committee for approval. Also, the principal investigator must report to the Chair promptly, and in writing, any unanticipated problems involving risks to subjects or others.

By copy of this memorandum, the Chairman of your department and/or your major professor are reminded of their responsibility for being informed concerning research projects involving human subjects in their department. They are advised to review the protocols of such investigations as often as necessary to insure that the project is being conducted in compliance with our institution and with DHHS regulations.

BS/hh
cc: D. Ebener/3001
human/renewal.hs
APPLICATION NO. 96.266

Informed Consent Letter

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Date: _____

I freely and voluntarily and without any element of force or coercion, consent to be a participant in the research project entitled "Improving Student Teacher Education."

It is conducted by Cherri Kelly Seese, M.S., a doctoral student in Counseling Psychology at Florida State University. I understand the purpose of her research project is to better understand aspect of student teacher's so that education delivery may be improved. I understand that if I participate in the project I will be asked questions about my feelings about teaching and my role as a teacher, as well as general information about myself.

I understand I will be asked to fill out paper and pencil questionnaires. I may also be asked to participate in group type discussions. The total time commitment will be one hour per week for six weeks. Any questions that I may have will be answered by Ms. Seese or she will refer me to a knowledgeable source.

I understand my participation is totally voluntary and I may stop participation at any time. All my answers to the questions will be kept confidential and identified by a subject code number. My name will not appear on any of the results. No individual responses will be reported. Only group findings will be reported.

I understand there is the possibility of a minimal level of risk involved if I agree to participate in the study. I might experience frustration when thinking about current educational practices, my specific experience student teaching or my feelings regarding myself as a teacher. Ms. Seese will be available to talk with me about any emotional discomfort I may experience while participating.

I understand that there are benefits for participating in this research project. First, my own awareness about myself as a teacher and the realization of how much I contribute to students and the educational system. Also, I will be providing educational professionals with valuable insight into teachers feelings and behaviors regarding education. This knowledge can assist them in providing better services to teachers and students.

I understand that I may contact Ms. Cherri Seese, Florida State University, 215 Stone, (904) 644-3854, for answers to questions about the project. Group results will be sent to me upon my request.

I understand that this consent may be withdrawn at any time without prejudice, penalty or loss of benefits to which I am otherwise entitled. I have been given the right to ask and have answered my inquiry concerning the study. I understand I may contact Ms. Cherri Seese at (904) 644-3854 for answers to questions about this research or my rights. I have read and understand this consent form.

_____   _____
Subject   Witness

_____
Date

9 11 96
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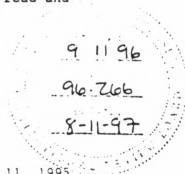
REVIEWED AND APPROVED BY HUMAN SUBJECTS COMMITTEE UNTIL AUGUST 11, 1995

96

APPENDIX F

Demographic Questionnaire

Research Project Subject Information Sheet

Age:

Major:

Sex: M   F
      (circle one)

Years of Education: 13   14   15   16   16+
      (circle one)

APPENDIX G

Permission to Reproduce Copyrighted Material

I, Sherri Gibson, owner of the copyright to the work known as the: Teacher Efficacy Scale hereby authorize Cherri Kelly Seese to reproduce that instrument for use as part of her dissertation submitted to Florida State University.

I further extend this authorization to University Microfilms International, Ann Arbor, Michigan, for the purposes of reproducing and distributing copies of the work.

_____
Signature

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Cherri was born in the middle of the great farming state of Michigan in 1964. Being the first born of a highly educated, independent mother, she learned and was positively reinforced for being good in school. As a result, she obtained a Bachelor's Degree from FSU in August, 1987 in Marketing Management. While working on her first degree, she met and fell in love with Charlie. They married in 1988, a year after she graduated with her B.S. After working a short time in the "business world", she knew that she did not want to be a part of it. So, Cherri went back to school and obtained her Master's Degree in Rehabilitation Services. From there, she went right on to the doctoral program in Counseling Psychology.

Cherri's work experience while working toward the Ph. D. mainly involved working with children. Through her coursework and internship, she logged over 3000 hours of supervised clinical experience. Her psychology internship included: psychological assessment of children and adults, individual counseling of children and adults, group counseling of middle school students, consulting with families and school personnel to develop behavioral intervention programs, parent consultation, training of school psychology practicum students, and presentations for inservice training and seminars. Cherri would like to continue to work with young people, she enjoys their optimism and hope.

Cherri is a Certified Rehabilitation Counselor (No. 26489). She hopes to become a licensed psychologist after a year of post-doc. While at FSU, Cherri taught Psychosocial Aspects of Disability (Fall, 1994), Vocational Aspects of Disability (Spring, 1993 & 1994) and Assessment in Counseling (Spring, 1992). In fact, her main areas of interest are teaching and supervision. She hopes to do more of those type of activities in the future.

Cherri's doctoral program taught her a lot about the field of psychology. But most of all, it gave her great lessons about herself. In the six years that it has taken her to complete the program, she feels that she has grown emotionally and spiritually into the person she's always wanted to become. Cherri is grateful to the program for helping her find the path.