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# Facet theory and design for the dimensionalization of teaching behaviors.

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FACET THEORY AND DESIGN  
FOR THE DIMENSIONALIZATION  
OF TEACHING BEHAVIORS

A Dissertation Presented

by

GARY L. MORRISON

Submitted to the Graduate School of the  
University of Massachusetts in  
partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

August 1972

Major Subject: Education

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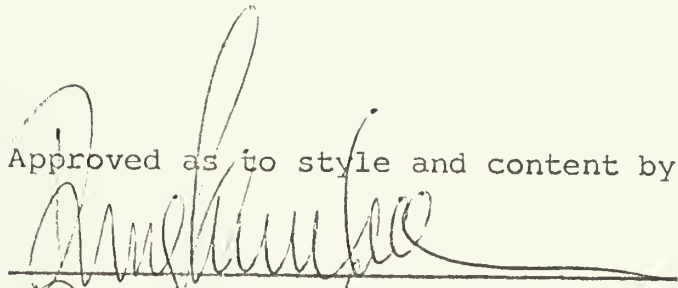
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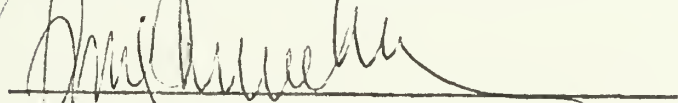
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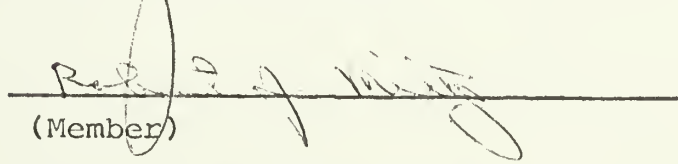
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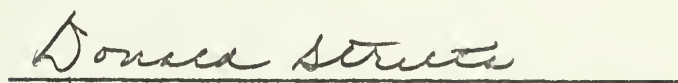
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(Member)

August 1972

Dedicated,

with deepest affection, to my wife Gayle,  
without whom the journey itself matters little;

with great love, to my daughter Jennifer Roshan,  
who awakens light and joy in me in very profound ways;

and to the late Paul Mus, as a small token of my esteem  
and as a reminder of the manuscript that died with him.

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Although I appreciate all the assistance I received over a long period of time, I assume full responsibility for the final dissertation.

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## CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

Educational researchers have for years recognized the need to analyze teaching behaviors and have worked toward the development of teacher observation instruments to isolate and identify those behaviors. They have produced a wide spectrum of theories on classroom observation and have generated a vast number of observable and nonobservable behaviors. But little effort has been exerted either to correlate the studies or to collate the behaviors. Recently, however, a few educational researchers have been trying to direct classroom research away from studies which overlap one another into a wholly new area, the creation of a system that will encompass the objectives of existing observation instruments and of a vocabulary to coordinate the description of classroom behavior. They have suggested that the facet theory and design of Louis Guttman (1954) and Uriel G. Foa (1965) should be applied to the study of classroom behavior to create a model for the development of a category system that will reveal the full dimensions of teaching behavior (Biddle 1967, Snow 1968, Gage 1969).

Facet theory and design are pertinent to the analysis of teaching behavior because of the diffuse character of present classroom behavior studies. Bruce J. Biddle

(1967) has shown how recent studies have dealt with such approaches as teacher performance, audience performance, target performance, teacher-pupil interaction, and external and internal structures. Terminology and concepts have overlapped the resultant observation systems, largely because of a lack of correlation among studies. Biddle proposes that the application of facet design might ensure the comprehensiveness of any list of teaching behaviors and avoid conceptual overlap among observation systems. Richard E. Snow (1968) has written that facet design would be an excellent means by which to define the dimensions of teaching behavior. And most recently Nathan L. Gage has offered that facet design "would help systematize the dimensionalization of classroom behavior"; and, he implies, if facet design were applied to a comprehensive, computer-based item pool of teaching behaviors, "the problems of dimensionalizing and describing teaching methods will become substantially more manageable" (1969: 1452).

Still, only cursory explorations of the use of facet design to dimensionalize teaching behavior have been conducted. M. K. Openshaw and F. R. Cyphert (1966), for example, have developed a taxonomy for the classification of teacher classroom behavior along the lines suggested by facet theory--without, however, in any way adopting a facet design. William J. Gephart (1969) has

attempted to show how facet theory may be applied to generate research methodologies; his study succeeds in explaining clearly the theory itself rather than in creating any useful model. Most recently Dov Elizur (1970) has used facet theory and design to study the behavior changes of public employees in Holland confronted in their work by the introduction of computers. Elizur's study is a veritable textbook on the various steps involved in facet theory and analysis. Thus, although little major work has yet emerged, some classroom researchers are aware of and intrigued by the possibilities of applying facet theory and design to taxonomic studies of teaching behaviors.

This study is an effort to discover the application of facet theory and design to the problem of the classification of teaching behaviors. It is an outgrowth of the work begun at the Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching in 1967 which resulted in the prototype Taxonomy of Teaching Behaviors (Baral, Snow, Allen 1968) and later expanded into the 1970-1972 Task Analysis System for Educational Personnel Development, a project of the University of Massachusetts School of Education funded by a joint grant from Career Opportunities Program and School Personnel Utilization Leadership Training Institutes (COP-LTI, SPU-LTI). Since little work has been done on even the idea of applying facet



theory and design to a universe of teaching behaviors, this study faces all the potential hazards of any pioneering venture in exploring a new area in educational research. A full-fledged and functional facet system for the dimensionalization of teaching behaviors lies in the future. Therefore the central purpose of this dissertation is to demonstrate how facet theory and design can make a universe of teaching behaviors comprehensive and give it a workable organizational structure.

The following chapters deal with four areas of research. First, because the empirical data base evolved within the context of the Task Analysis System for Educational Personnel Development, with the writer serving as principal coordinator (1970-1972), Chapter II reviews the background and developmental history of that project. Then, since work on facet theory and design must take into account previous studies on the categorization of classroom behavior, Chapter III appraises the research on classroom observation and the problems of categorizing teaching behaviors. Chapter IV discusses the small body of work on facet theory and design in order to explain these concepts. Chapter V attempts to apply a facet design to the existing empirical data in an effort to create a model which will be a useful contribution to research on teaching behaviors. The final chapter summarizes the findings and suggests possibilities for further research.

## C H A P T E R    I I

## DEVELOPING A UNIVERSE OF TEACHING BEHAVIORS

## The Stanford Taxonomy Study

The idea for a comprehensive, computer-based item pool of teaching behaviors is relatively recent. In 1966, out of a concern over the inadequacy of the rating instruments then being used in the Stanford Secondary Teacher Education Program, members of the staff of the Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching began a study of the Stanford Teacher Competence Appraisal Guide, the major instrument used for the assessment of intern teachers in the Stanford program. This project, identified as the "Appraisal Guide Revision," concluded that there was a definite need for more specific behavioral analysis of teaching. It suggested a new focus on the collection of items of summary appraisal defining major areas of teacher behavior, with specific appraisal items grouped under these summary items. The project members decided arbitrarily to try to build an item pool of behaviors representing three major domains of classroom teaching behavior--"attention," "participation," and "explanation." As the project moved away from its limited objective of improving a specific teacher evaluation instrument, it became "A Taxonomy of Teaching Behaviors," a study under Stanford's Heuristic Teaching

program, and began to build the beginning stages of a comprehensive system for the description of classroom teaching behavior (Baral, Snow, Allen 1968).

School administrators, teacher educators, and educational researchers have long recognized the need to observe, describe, and assess the teacher's behavior in the classroom. Many attempts to address this need have been made. However, Bruce J. Biddle comments that, "although a wide variety of classroom phenomena has in fact been investigated, it is difficult for both the reviewer and the investigator to understand the relationships between their findings and those of others" (1967:354). A. Simon and E. G. Boyer, in their 1967 anthology of classroom observation instruments Mirrors for Behavior, bring to our attention the many observational techniques and instruments produced prior to that time. Consideration of these instruments leads one to conclude that they mirror their authors' predilections, that any one instrument serves only a few of many possible functions in classroom observation, and that there is obvious conceptual overlap between instruments.

Biddle surveyed a wide selection of current observation instruments dealing with teacher performance and discovered that, "although the concepts utilized appear to cover an enormous conceptual territory, in actuality only three basic teacher characteristics appear to be

dealt with"--teacher action, manners, and characteristic roles (1967:346-47). Comparing lists of teacher action suggested by Ned Flanders (1960), Marie Hughes (1959), Philip Jackson (1965), and Hugh Perkins (1964), Biddle also discovered a "considerable conceptual overlap between items listed as actions, manners, and characteristic roles" (1967:347). Research based upon such instruments is therefore restricted by both the predictions reflected in them and the conceptual overlap between them. Stanford's taxonomy study team concluded that, to incorporate the objectives of all existing instruments and to create a standard vocabulary for the description of classroom behavior, a more comprehensive and flexible observation-assessment system was needed. The team suggested that such a flexible observation system would contribute to integrating the diffuse interests of educational researchers.

Existing observation instruments are largely characterized as either category or sign systems. Donald M. Medley and Harold E. Mitzel have defined category systems as those which "construct a finite set of categories into one and only one of which every unit observed can be classed." Sign systems are those designed "to list beforehand a number of specific acts or incidents of behavior which may or may not occur during a period of observation." The former is intended to be exhaustive

of the type of behaviors to be recorded by the observer or researcher; the latter is selective in its inclusion of only those specific behaviors predetermined as signs or incidents to be observed (Medley and Mitzel 1963:298-99). The Stanford taxonomy study attempted to produce a descriptive behavioral system which would include both the category and sign approaches. In 1970 the University of Massachusetts School of Education task analysis project adopted this objective, envisioning the item pool as "a universe of classroom behavior descriptors. . . from which signs or subsystems of categories can be extracted" (Baral, Snow, Allen 1968:2-3). In this sense the task analysis project, in setting as its first objective the building of a comprehensive item pool, was the direct heir of the earlier Stanford taxonomy study.

The initial taxonomy produced by the Stanford researchers was simply a prototype of a universe of classroom behaviors. The original pool consisted of 1500 item statements, based mainly on summary items from the Stanford Appraisal Guide and specific items from the Performance Criteria of the Secondary Teacher Education Program. Additional items were generated from critiques of these two instruments made by staff members of the Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, from a cursory review of existing observation instruments

such as those collected in Simon and Boyer's Mirrors for Behavior, and from various articles discussing classroom observation. The pool was cross-indexed according to key words in the item statements. One item could appear several times, depending on the number of key words, and the pool of 1500 items could then generate a larger pool of approximately 5000 items. For example, the item "teacher controls student participation through recitation" would appear three times, once under each of the underlined key or control words. The taxonomy also coded each item according to behavior that could be rated, counted, or both. For example, "teacher gives clear and complete instructions for taking test" would be a ratable item; "teacher rephrases or restates student response" would be coded a countable item; and "teacher illustrates main ideas by use of example" would be a ratable or countable item (Baral, Snow, Allen 1968: 6-7).

The entire pool was reviewed and edited to eliminate redundancy, and a standard format for the item statements was adopted. Items were stated in terms of teacher behavior. All ratable and countable items were written in positive terms. Countable items were written in the present tense, singular in number (Baral, Snow, Allen 1968:7).

The final step in the Stanford study was to produce

the prototype of a computer-based item pool for the development of a computerized observation system. Only an elementary coding system was applied. Each item stored in the computer contained three codes--the item number, the item statement itself, and the classification of the item as ratable, countable, or both. Thus two programs resulted. The first allowed a researcher or observer to select only those specific items which he needed to examine or use on a given research project. The second allowed an observer to request the computer to generate a rating form, consisting of up to twenty-five ratable or countable items for a single observation, which he could then use in his classroom observation.

The Stanford taxonomy was relatively successful in its main objective--to create a model for a universe of teaching behaviors and to suggest at least a possible use for this universe in classroom observation--but it was of limited practical use as a fully operational teacher observation system. The item pool was not comprehensive, and it developed without an organizing structure which would have made it manageable. The 1500 items were finally arbitrarily classified in nineteen sections, each given only tentative descriptive labels such as "Personal characteristics of the teacher"; "Speech, voice, gestures, language patterns"; "Lesson planning, goals,

aims"; "Evaluation"; and "Motivation" (Baral, Snow, Allen 1968:25). The researchers attempted further to classify the item pool in terms of other existing category systems, such as those developed by B. Othanel Smith and M. O. Meux (1962) and M. Karl Openshaw and Frederick R. Cyphert (1966). They discovered, however, that none of the category systems used was broad enough to encompass the entire range of items in the Stanford taxonomy. Thus even the attempts to organize the preliminary item pool were merely exploratory.

Furthermore the classification system could only loosely be called a taxonomy. The classes of behaviors and their labels were not determined with any degree of exactness. Benjamin S. Bloom has remarked that "since the determination of classes and their titles is in some ways arbitrary, there could be an almost infinite number of ways of dividing and naming the domains of educational outcomes" (1956:13). But if, as Bloom has suggested, the main purpose in constructing any taxonomy is "to facilitate communication," then one must conclude that the more precise the classes and the more exact the items fitting into those classes, the less room there is for conceptual overlap and the greater the degree of the taxonomy's usefulness in communicating the world of classroom behavior. The Stanford taxonomy terminated with a preliminary classification scheme which suggested a direction to be taken



but stopped short of producing a functional or even a manageable system that might have proved useful to educational researchers.

### Aims and Rationale of the Task Analysis System for Educational Personnel Development

In the summer of 1970, Dwight W. Allen, one of the members of the Stanford taxonomy study group, initiated a project at the University of Massachusetts School of Education designed to extend the original Stanford study. The purpose of the new project was to develop a comprehensive, computer-based item pool of teaching behaviors with potential for serving a variety of educational needs. The project was funded under the United States Office of Education (U.S.O.E.) through a joint grant by the Career Opportunities Program and School Personnel Utilization Leadership Training Institutes (COP-LTI, SPU-LTI). Richard E. Snow (Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching) and later Francis Thomas Sobol (Florida International University) served as chief consultants and theoreticians, and the writer coordinated the research and development activities at the University of Massachusetts School of Education.

The initial rationale for the project, because of the sources of funding, was its usefulness in terms of the

educational personnel development needs of the various COP, SPU, and BEPD (Bureau of Educational Personnel Development of the Office of Education) programs in the country; therefore the project was identified as the "Task Analysis System for Educational Personnel Development."

The task analysis project inherited a host of questions not answered by the earlier Stanford study: how to expand the item pool to make it not only more exhaustive but applicable to all educational personnel; how to keep the items objective, representative of observable behaviors and skills, and not a reflection of subjective bias; how to correct the imbalances in the Stanford item pool; how to avoid limiting the items to the sort which have appeared in previous observation instruments and studies; how to review the pool of behaviors for subtle redundancies; how to organize a universe of teaching behaviors into manageable segments and avoid conceptual overlap; and, finally, how to put the system to uses besides computerized teacher evaluation. The University of Massachusetts project did not begin as a pioneering study. Rather, it was an extension, an outgrowth, and a maturation of the Stanford Taxonomy of Teaching Behaviors.

From the beginning the conception of the project and its usefulness was broader than the earlier study.

Task analysis was adopted as a means by which observable teaching behaviors could be systematically identified, generated, and recorded, computerized, and stored for easy retrieval for multiple educational purposes. It was hoped that the system would be flexible enough to be of use in the determination of specific performance criteria for school personnel, in the design of training programs, and in the evaluation of personnel performance, as well as in the definition of new staffing functions, roles, and patterns, and in the establishment of selection criteria for people in new staffing roles. The system was intended to incorporate all rating and observation instruments and current categorization structures to fit the needs of any individual supervisor or educational researcher.

#### Problems and Procedures in the Task Analysis Project

The University of Massachusetts project recognized from the start the limitations of the Stanford taxonomy and the questions it left unanswered. The project staff members felt that the item pool itself was, in many ways, independent of any projected uses--that indeed to project its possible uses in the beginning might be to create a biased framework or model which would limit the generation

of items. Since the Stanford pool was far from exhaustive and severely limited to the traditional classroom teacher, the staff had to determine first the positions to be included and then the means of collecting data on those positions to make the item pool as comprehensive as the original study had visualized.

A situation-by-position matrix (Appendix A) was developed as the best means to break down an undefinable mass into defined units of observation and analysis. The educational positions along the top line of the matrix represented a continuum from parent volunteer to master teacher; included were various differentiated staffing roles as they are currently defined, support personnel, both school and community-wide educational administrators, community resource volunteers, and paraprofessionals. Thirty-eight educational positions were identified. No division was recognized between nonprofessional and professional; hence no value judgments were made regarding educational personnel.

On the other axis of the matrix were lined up twenty-four situations. Among these were learning management, tutoring, lecturing, small group discussion, large group discussion, teacher training, student diagnosis, and school governance. The matrix was flexible enough for either positions or situations to be deleted, incorporated into others, or added at any time. The

staff produced over a thousand situations by positions and could zero in on any given cell in order to observe and write behavioral items. In this way the University of Massachusetts project was better able than the Stanford taxonomy study to discover those weak areas which needed to be developed.

Before beginning the task of writing behaviors it was necessary to find a way to avoid those items which would merely reflect the bias of a given instrument, author, observer, or resource. Task analysis, as a means of collecting objective observable behaviors, was adopted partly because little work has been done on the application of task analysis to educational research. But, more importantly, it was decided that task analysis was the best means to avoid theoretical positions, predetermined models, and broad generalizations of behaviors, and instead to focus on behaviors in their most elemental form. Moreover it seemed that teacher roles might best be defined in terms of their functions.

Task analysis is essentially simple. Vivian C. Jackson describes it succinctly as "basically the process of dividing a job into its various parts," and as "a systematic procedure for compiling an inventory of comprehensive and mutually exclusive functions and tasks" (1971:ii). Sidney A. Fine and Wretha W. Wiley have stated that "the basic unit which must be understood in

order to describe jobs is the task" and that task analysis is "concerned with what a worker does, and not with the results of the worker's action or what gets done" (1971: 9, 13).

In the context of the University of Massachusetts project task analysis presupposes the collection of only observable behaviors. Great caution was taken to avoid the inclusion of any presumed behavior which was not actually observable. Fine and Wiley point out the dangers of subjectivity:

. . . each person who hears the process name, "counseling," may--and does--subjectively interpret its meaning from his own point of view and experience. But it is likely that each interpretation will be different; and the system runs the risk of breakdown as the trainer trains from one understanding, the supervisor evaluates from another, the recruiter acts from still another, and the worker must--consciously or unconsciously--reconcile all these differing instructions and expectations with his own understanding of what he should be doing (1971:8).

They also suggest that avoiding process words like interviewing and counseling for the use of "explicit action verbs" to describe behavior not only helps to differentiate what the worker does from the outcome of the behavior but contributes later to a common language used by the recruiter, the supervisor, and the worker (1971:8). From the outset similar conclusions guided the project staff,

and behaviors were written with positively stated action verbs; the use of the forms of the verb to be was severely restricted. Even the item "teacher exhibits rapport with students" represents a composite of behaviors, all of which task analysis would itemize separately. This level of specificity has not been approached in previous studies. It has positive implications for the eventual determination of the psychological requirements of jobs with respect to personnel selection specifications, training development, and job evaluation. The importance of this psychological dimension, however, has only relatively recently been recognized.

A set of simple procedures was developed as an approach to producing a comprehensive item pool. The Stanford taxonomy was a starting point. Whole sections were deleted; for example, the category "Personal characteristics of the teacher" was seen to reflect the specific value judgments of the observer, and certain items under "Speech, voice, gestures, language patterns" which appeared to harbor class, race, or other subjective biases were taken out. Other items had to be rewritten in more specific behavioral terms. Most of the items were relevant only to the classroom teacher, and the matrix demanded increased differentiation.

Job descriptions were collected according to the

situation-by-position matrix, which included the job activities and behaviors of teachers, paraprofessionals, aides, administrative and school personnel in a variety of situations--classroom, planning and preparation, extracurricular, teacher supervision, research, professional, parent conference, student supervision, and so on. Behavioral items on these jobs were gathered by four means. First, the existing literature on conceptions of differentiated staffing, taxonomies and other categorizations of teaching behavior, speculative discussions of future changes in human educational roles and functions, and classroom teaching behavior were reviewed. Second, a sample population of those who perform the various job activities was asked to respond to a questionnaire, developed by David Berliner (currently of the Far West Laboratory), by describing what they do, first in global terms and then in terms of specific activities or tasks (Appendix B). Third, raw descriptions from selected informants, collected by tape and transcription, were added to this pool of data. Finally, actual educational situations were observed and items were generated on the spot.

The information collected was gradually distilled or synthesized into items of behavior, because of computerization usually limited to from sixty to eighty computer characters in length, and in turn coded and incorporated



into the main descriptor item pool. Coding was fairly elementary, although more sophisticated than it had been in the Stanford taxonomy. Each item was automatically coded according to situation and position and then given an additional code specifying whether it was a general behavior or a behavior specific to the situation and position. There was no attempt at quality control in the writing of items during the initial stage; a systematic review to eliminate redundancies was seen to be a process which could be handled better and faster by computer at a later stage.

At the end of Phase I, in the summer of 1971, the task analysis project had produced a pool of over 5000 descriptors of job activities and teaching behaviors. It had a set of computer programs which insured flexibility, since items could be added, modified, or deleted from the pool at any time. It could generate lists of job-task statements according to position, situation, or key word, general or specific behaviors; moreover it had an instructional observation category and could generate an observation-rating form.

Although the item pool represented a considerable advance over the Stanford taxonomy, it still was not an exhaustive collection of behavioral descriptors. During Phase II (1971-1972), therefore, the item pool was doubled to nearly 10,000 descriptors of teaching behavior. While

as many items of teaching behavior as possible were generated, it was a major goal of Phase II to apply a form of quality control to the entire item pool in order to obtain discrete behaviors. Under Phase II the complete item pool was reviewed and edited. A program was written to retrieve all items according to every major term in each item (a "keyword-in-context" index) in order best to compare the many possible nuances between items. This produced a list of approximately 50,000 items (more than 1200 pages of standard computer output) which then had to be thoroughly explored. By eliminating, rewriting, and combining items, redundancy was greatly reduced. The refined item pool contains approximately 7000 discrete items of teaching behavior.

As a result of Phase II expansion, refinements, and programming, a system now exists for programming alternative organizational systems using a common data base of teaching behaviors to meet the needs of educational personnel at all levels. As such the task analysis system has stretched far beyond its modest beginnings. Besides meeting the practical needs of COP, SPU, and other BEPD projects, it provides a data bank of teaching behaviors which can serve as an empirical base for objective and flexible observation and supervision systems. It has become the behavioral universe to which facet theory and design can be applied in order to open up new areas of educational

research in the dimensionalization of teaching behavior.

C H A P T E R    I I I  
C A T E G O R I Z A T I O N   O F   T E A C H I N G   B E H A V I O R S :  
A P P R A I S A L S   O F   M A J O R   S T U D I E S

Introduction

The categorization of teaching behaviors has been discussed in studies of major importance by Benjamin S. Bloom and others (1956), Donald M. Medley and Harold E. Mitzel (1963), and Bruce J. Biddle (1967). These studies, in calling attention to the inadequacies of many observation systems developed in the past, indicate that a comprehensive system must be regarded as a significant advance in educational research. They cast light on the development of a comprehensive system in several other ways. First, they suggest some of the problems inherent in the creation of an item pool of teaching behaviors and some of the challenges to be faced in any new study of classroom teaching behavior. Furthermore they reveal and synthesize the concerns of past researchers, which must be considered before taking a new direction in research on teaching. Finally the studies lead directly to the current consideration of facet theory as one of the most notable developments in educational research.

Donald M. Medley and Harold E. Mitzel

Donald M. Medley and Harold E. Mitzel have produced one of the best reviews of empirical research on classroom interaction and behavior in their 1963 study "Measuring Classroom Behavior by Systematic Observation." Previously little scholarly work had been done on correlating the various research projects and studies in classroom interaction. Medley and Mitzel point out that the dominant feature of classroom observation techniques has been the tendency to describe in quantitative terms whatever happened in the classroom, whether or not the behaviors had anything to do with teacher effectiveness or psychological theory (1963:274). They argue that "the strengths and weaknesses of an observational technique inhere mainly in the items of which it is composed" (1963:277). Therefore there is an ever-present danger of recording, in retrospect, the observer's impressions of a teacher's behavior rather than specific incidents, unless observers have adequate observational instruments to use in the classroom which reflect a range of possible behaviors to be observed. They note, however, that there existed "no well-established, organized theory or methodology for the measurement of classroom behavior" (1963:297) which would reduce the tendency to record everything that went on in the classroom and would help to create an instrument

composed of only those behaviors relevant to actual classroom incidents.

Most previously used classroom observation instruments, Medley and Mitzel have discerned, are either category systems or sign systems. Category systems "limit the observation to one segment or aspect of classroom behavior, determine a convenient unit of behavior, and construct a finite set of categories into one and only one of which every unit observed can be classified." Sign systems "list beforehand a number of specific acts or incidents or behaviors which may or may not occur during a period of observation" (1963:298). Category systems are meant to be exhaustive of the type of teacher behaviors recorded; within any given category of behaviors the observer is expected to record every behavior the observed teacher exhibits. In sign systems, by contrast, an observer checks off only predetermined behaviors of the teacher.

Observation instruments, Medley and Mitzel indicate, are usually limited and tend to express their authors' narrow conceptions or biases. This is particularly true of category systems. Medley and Mitzel divide category schemes into those which are governed by some kind of theory and those which are not (1963:298). Among the systems governed by a theory, for ex-

ample, Ned Flanders (1960) views teaching behaviors as exhibiting either direct or indirect teacher influence; John Withall (1949) sees teacher behaviors within the confines of three distinct areas--teacher-, pupil-, or learning-centered. Instruments with no theory to determine what behaviors to look for resulted in random recordings of classroom behaviors.

Category systems, consisting of a few categories into which all observed behaviors are somehow classed, thus usually reflect the specific viewpoint or relatively narrow theoretical conception of the designer. Sign systems, consisting of lists of teacher behaviors which may or may not be observed in particular settings, are meant to be broadly inclusive, unrestricted by predetermined theories.

A cursory consideration of these types of systems leads one to conclude that their usefulness is limited. Category systems provide only a small set of categories. Medley and Mitzel point out that few systems of this type employ more than ten; they conclude that, in order to be more comprehensive, it is probably "preferable to err by having too many categories than too few" (1963:300). Sign systems, emphasizing predetermined behaviors and incidents, obviously cannot be as complex as is teacher behavior; therefore they tend to allow many significant statements of teacher behavior to go unrecorded. One can conclude,

moreover, that any one of these classification systems must compromise between a designer's predilections and the multifarious functions in classroom observation, as well as between desired data and the resources to obtain it.

Medley and Mitzel's own work in developing the OScAR (Observation Schedule and Record) system in the late 1950's was an attempt to find a means to employ items from both the category and sign systems. The purpose of OScAR was to allow an observer to record as many aspects of what goes on in the classroom as possible, regardless of whether the incidents were related to any category, scale, or dimension (1963:280-81). But OScAR did outline three dimensions of classroom behavior representing "what are probably the most obvious differences among classes--how orderly and relaxed they are, in what ways the pupils are grouped, and the general content of the lessons being taught" (1963:286). This instrument represents a significant advance toward a comprehensive system that will encompass multiple observation techniques and objectives.

Medley and Mitzel's study remains today an important review of classroom interaction studies and instruments. It identifies the principal strengths and weaknesses of classroom observation techniques, and it brings organization to a somewhat chaotic area of educational research,



suggesting thereby new directions in classroom observation studies. It indicates the complex nature of classroom behavior, and, finally, it argues for the application of systematic observation procedures in measuring the many dimensions of classroom behavior.

Bruce J. Biddle

Bruce J. Biddle's 1967 study "Methods and Concepts in Classroom Research" builds upon the foundation of Medley and Mitzel's earlier work. Biddle analyzes the problems related to the multiplicity of teacher observation systems by focusing on five specific aspects of classroom research--coverage, methods of data collection, units of analysis, conceptual posture, and concepts employed by the researchers. In the process he is able to bring together a wide array of research studies and to specify their exact aims and areas of attention. His work sums up many of the concerns of present researchers.

By dealing with the problem of coverage Biddle attempts to show the limited focus in classroom research. The areas of interest he identifies in all major investigations before 1967 are concerned with grade level, subject matter, the social class of pupils, pupil achievement, pupil adjustment, variables related to the age and sex of the teacher, teacher training, nationality

differences, and the phases of the school year. Most of the studies were unique to the type of classroom investigated, and only a few variables were dealt with. As a result our understanding of classroom interaction in general is limited (Biddle 1967:337-338). By isolating what is covered in a classroom study, Biddle suggests that we can predict a study's limitations, and he therefore concludes that "any reasonably complete study of classroom phenomena should cover a wide variety of classroom conditions and variables" (1967:338).

Biddle goes on to explore the wide variation in methods of data collection in classroom studies. He defines two separate processes of analysis: behavioral recording, which occurs "when behavior events are 'frozen' into a permanent record such as sound or visual recording, and behavioral encoding, which occurs when behavioral events or records are converted "into a form suitable for counting and tabulation" (1967:338). Biddle terms the three main methods of data collection nonparticipant observation, observer rating, and behavioral recording, within which the analytical processes of behavioral recording or encoding may be employed.

Nonparticipant observation is obviously the most commonly used method of data collection; this occurs when "the behavioral scientist enters a new social system unobtrusively to take detailed, nonsystematic notes and to

develop insights about the culture of the system" (Biddle 1967:338). To develop insights is to preclude the use of behavioral recording or encoding; insights are in the mind of the observer, mixed with processes of data analysis and synthesis, and do not produce replicable results. Thus Biddle concludes that, although nonparticipant observation offers the best means for discovering new concepts and relationships in classroom behavior and interaction, its usefulness is limited because it produces no replicable results for testing hypotheses (1967:338).

Observer rating employs the systematic encoding of behaviors. Medley and Mitzel identify three varieties of observer rating--postsession rating, in which the impressions of a teacher's behavior are recorded in retrospect rather than on the spot, sign observation, and category observation (1963:277, 298-99). Biddle sees postsession rating systems as useless in the study of classroom interaction because they rely solely on impressions recalled by the observer rather than on actual events. Sign observation systems are highly unreliable in their encoding process because the predetermined lists are too frequently composed of arbitrary incidents, and the systems are designed to take ratings in arbitrarily fixed units of time. Category observation systems, Biddle indicates, are reliable and useful for the study of classroom behavior because they are more flexible than

sign systems and can be applied to a greater variety of classroom events. But he concludes that all observer rating systems suffer from "observer loading," since, regardless of the overall extent of the observation instrument itself, any observation will reflect the restricted number of classroom events on which a given observer is able to focus (1967:338-40).

Classroom studies are shaped not only by the type of classroom environment selected for observation and the methods of data collection adhered to, but also by the specific unit of analysis chosen by an observer. Biddle identifies at least four units of analysis employed in the majority of classroom interaction studies: arbitrary units of time, selected naturally occurring units, phenomenal units, and analytic units.

Many of the principal classroom investigators, among them Ned Flanders and Medley and Mitzel, have chosen arbitrary units of time as the basis for their analyses. Observer judgments should be made every three seconds, according to the Flanders technique, or, according to Medley and Mitzel's system, a record of signs should be made every three minutes. The main defect of basing analysis on units of time, Biddle observes, is that "however long or short the unit chosen, classroom events may be operating at another rhythm, and encoding

is different when the events 'break' on or between the arbitrary unit boundaries" (1967:341).

Selected naturally occurring units, by contrast, are "not only distinct from one another in time but also evidence an internal envelope; they have initiatory, con-summatory, and closing phases" (Biddle 1967:341). By this method observers can focus on entire units, like the lecture. This form of unit, however, appears to have been used rarely; Biddle refers to only one study, which focused on deviancy-control units--that is, when a teacher identified and followed through with a problem related to an unruly student. He believes this form of unit will remain limited as long as it avoids "the ongoing stream of classroom events" (1967:342).

Biddle describes the phenomenal unit as the natural break "in the stream of classroom processes that may reasonably be assumed to be recognized by classroom participants" (1967:343). Phenomenal units evidently differ from what he terms selected naturally occurring units in that the latter can be identifiable units within the broader phenomenal unit; a phenomenal unit may be seen, for example, as a segment and "classroom segments are marked by the gross breaking points in daylong classroom activities, as when a teacher shifts subject matters, or when the collection of milk money is replaced by show

and tell" (1967:343). This kind of division suggests the need for describing social processes, but, as Biddle implies, we require a common vocabulary to describe these processes unambiguously (1967:343).

Analytic units most frequently reflect the conceptual assumptions of the investigators. Such units of behavior are defined analytically, according to the way investigators conceptualize them and provide rules for their identification. For example, an episode is one or more exchanges between two or more speakers which constitute a completed verbal act; a reciprocal episode is an exchange between a teacher and a student on a single subject; or an exchange between a teacher and several pupils may be variously termed a coordinate episode, an incident, a teaching cycle, or a teaching episode (Biddle 1967:342). These units are expressed in abstract terms; they "may or may not be recognized as 'natural' units of classroom discourse by participants" (Biddle 1967:342).

Biddle, on the one hand, cautions that the analytic unit--applied only to interaction, which is only one form of teaching behavior, and expressed in terms that only researchers can grasp--"entails the risk of moving away from phenomenal reality and the problem of having to translate results into some convenient form usable by educators" (1967:342). On the other hand, Biddle suggests

that the analytic unit may be the most fruitful unit to use if it is not adopted as a single unit for one type of behavior but if several separate analytic units are used for different types of data desired. Moreover, the analytic unit may be the type most compatible with the use of the computer in educational research, as the computer will be able to generate complex sequences of behaviors or analytic units to reflect the complexity of classroom behavior; and this will help to create an "analytic vocabulary of concepts for describing classroom processes" (Biddle 1967:344).

Biddle's contribution to the discussion of methods to be applied in classroom research lies in this suggestion that analytic units, and the subsequent development of a synthetic, empirically-based vocabulary of concepts, should be employed to describe classroom processes and behaviors. This has significant implications for the application of facet theory and design in educational research, which will be discussed later. Biddle argues persuasively that using analytic units will help in expanding classroom research studies if they are released from their previously narrow focus on classroom interaction. They also have the potential of being unrestricted to any single model. But Biddle goes beyond these modest suggestions on units of analysis to raise a host of questions related to the use of concepts in classroom studies.

The first of these questions is both obvious and fundamental in any kind of behavioral analysis. Biddle asks, "What should be observed--the intent of behavior, its objective characteristics, or its effects?" (1967: 344-45). Concerning the implications of assuming a conceptual posture in classroom observation, he writes,

At the individual level, it is legitimate to code intent, objective characteristics, or effect of behavior. If one is interested only in the determinants of teacher behavior, for instance, then judgments of teacher intent are appropriate. If one is solely concerned with teacher competence, judgments of the effect of teacher behavior on pupils would be more appropriate. If, however, one's concerns are broad and one is interested in testing competing models of interaction or in studying both individual and social determinants of behavior, it would be wise to emphasize the study of objective characteristics of behavior. Indeed, it may be argued that although our vocabulary is replete with intentional and effectual words, the cues by which we make these judgments are drawn from overt performance characteristics (1967:345).

The problem of conceptual posture in classroom studies is complex. For example, on the social level it is indeed true that "inductive assumptions" can determine to a large extent the data received from observation and rating instruments (Biddle 1967:345). The effects of teaching behavior are difficult to note because they can often be seen only outside the classroom. Moreover, conceptual posture tends to lead an observer to infer be-



haviors which are not actually observed, the inferred behaviors being only manifestations of the observer's preoccupations. Thus data may be unreliable as well as limited. Biddle's direct contribution to the University of Massachusetts task analysis system, therefore, was to influence the decision to collect only observable behaviors by concentrating on the objective characteristics of teaching behavior.

Another problem illuminated by Biddle, to which we referred briefly in Chapter II, is that of conceptual overlap in classroom studies. He takes the example of teacher performance to show how, "although the concepts utilized appear to cover an enormous conceptual territory, in actuality only three basic teacher characteristics appear to be dealt with"--teacher action, i.e., "concepts describing the immediately observable activities of the teacher"; manners, i.e., "the way in which teachers conduct their behavior"; and characteristic roles, i.e., "the relatively stable patterns of behavior exhibited by teachers in various classroom situations" (1967:346-47). Furthermore he analyzes the several existing lists intended to be exhaustive of teacher performance behaviors, only to discover that "additional concepts for teacher performance are found in any given list that do not appear on other lists"; he identifies conceptual overlap between items educational researchers had listed as actions, man-

ners, and characteristic roles (1967:347). This, of course, suggests the need for an analysis of the underlying conceptual structures used to define categories in order to relate encoded teacher behavior to the full range of classroom data collected thus far. "Indeed," Biddle concludes, "the proliferation of similar but not identical lists for categorizing teacher performance suggests that the investigators themselves do not know what to make of findings that are presented for these lists" (1967:348). It appears that Biddle would move in the direction of creating a common vocabulary useful in relating one researcher's findings to another.

#### Benjamin S. Bloom

Benjamin S. Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives--The Classification of Educational Goals (1956) provides what many consider to be a definitive taxonomy which helps to establish a common vocabulary. But the taxonomy is designed "to be a classification of the student behaviors which represent the intended outcomes of the educational process"; it does not attempt "to classify the instructional methods used by teachers, the ways in which teachers relate themselves to students or the different kinds of instructional materials they use," but only to classify "the intended behaviors of students--the

ways in which individuals are to act, think, or feel as the result of participating in some unit of instruction" (Bloom 1956:12). Thus Bloom's taxonomy can be seen as an early attempt to find a useful categorization scheme for classroom research. As such, however, it is not exhaustive of teacher or classroom behaviors and raises another major problem brought out by Biddle and as yet untouched by educational research--how to create an exhaustive list of teaching behaviors which can contribute to the evolution of an analytic vocabulary for educational research and the analysis of teaching.

#### Summary

In sum, what has the work of Medley and Mitzel, Biddle, and Bloom contributed to our present state of classroom research? Medley and Mitzel and Biddle have cogently summarized the strengths and weaknesses of classification and observation systems. Medley and Mitzel have furthermore pointed the way toward systematic observation of classroom behavior, emphasizing the importance of the behavioral items themselves as indicators of the strengths or weaknesses of observation instruments and suggesting the use of explicit behavioral descriptors in classroom research. Biddle, by focusing on specific problems of classroom research, indicates

the complexity of any would-be comprehensive behavioral system. He points out the need to concentrate on the objective characteristics in the observation of teacher behavior. He also implies the need for a comprehensive item pool of teaching behaviors and is one of the first educational researchers to propose the application of facet theory to the creation of such an exhaustive system as a solution to the current multiplicity of observation instruments. Bloom impresses upon us the necessity of creating a common language of teaching behaviors and a category system that adheres to basic taxonomic principles in order to ensure a concise and common vocabulary. Finally, all the writers under review either tacitly or overtly lead us to the current consideration of the application of facet theory and design to a universe of teaching behaviors as a means both to make that universe exhaustive and to give it a manageable structure.

C H A P T E R    I V  
FACET THEORY AND DESIGN

Theoretical Studies

One of the major conceptual problems in research on teaching, as indicated in the preceding chapters, is that of defining the dimensions of teaching. Category systems are one way of discovering those dimensions. Since simply to have a vast pool of teaching behaviors is insufficient and of little benefit to anyone, categories can give meaning to whole blocks of behaviors, reducing them to groupings of manageable units. But category systems are inadequate for multiple educational purposes if the behaviors overlap the categories and the categories themselves, because of imprecise language employed, fail to reflect accurately the various areas of behavior. To be able to define the dimensions of teaching, categories of teacher behavior must be, as Nathan L. Gage has pointed out, "mutually exclusive and yet reasonably exhaustive of the domain of significant teacher behaviors" (1969: 1451). Thus Gage sees the facet design and analysis developed by Uriel G. Foa (1965) and promoted by Bruce J. Biddle (1967) as a "promising approach" to the problem of dimensionalizing teacher behavior.

Louis Guttman. Uriel G. Foa's work on facet design and analysis is built on the theoretical premises of Louis Guttman (1954). "Recognizing that differential relations exist within and between varieties of behavior," Guttman has recently stated, "the challenge to the social psychologist is to reveal what structural system, if any, underlies all these relations" (1970:57). The significance of Guttman's work lies mainly in his conception of "order among variables" (1954:340). Once a universe of content on a specified problem is defined, Guttman posits the existence of a minimum number of irreducible principal components, or what we might call exclusive dimensions; within these, by the principle of contiguity or neighboring, the combinability-separability of discernible elementary components will reflect a functional interdependence among the variables in that universe of content (1954:340). In short, he puts forward the concept of "ordered-bonds" (1954:345-46). A fixed, small number of principal components are viewed as facets, different in kind and by degree from one another (1954:340). Within these there exists an infinite number of elementary components which can combine or separate; clusters of all these discernible components can help to define the dimension itself (1954:348, 337-39).

For our purposes, the real importance of Guttman's work is that, once a universe of teaching behaviors is

defined and a mathematical notation coding system is designed to recognize the elementary components making up the principal components, the underlying order itself will be revealed mathematically; the combinability or separability of the behaviors, the component elements, will define the variables. Thus the two steps he suggests are defining the world of content and discovering the order among the variables which can be proved mathematically. Hence Guttman reveals a direction in creating an item pool exhaustive of teacher behaviors and a way of dimensionalizing those behaviors.

Uriel G. Foa. On the basis that "a necessary criterion . . . for a good theory is that it should lead systematically to the correct prediction of empirical results," Uriel G. Foa attempted to test facet design and analysis (1965). He first explains the term facet as introduced and used by his predecessor. Guttman had suggested that the defining of variables could be formalized by adopting the notation of the Cartesian product; he used the term facet for a component set of the product. Foa, relying on W. Stephenson's example of Jungian types from The Study of Behavior (1953), explains Guttman's theory graphically, as seen in Table 1.

TABLE 1.--Guttman's Facet Theory as Applied by Foa to Jungian Personality Types

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<u>FACETS</u>	<u>ELEMENTS</u>
A (Attitudes)	a <sub>1</sub> introversion
	a <sub>2</sub> extraversion
B (Mechanism)	b <sub>1</sub> conscious
	b <sub>2</sub> unconscious
C (Function)	c <sub>1</sub> thinking
	c <sub>2</sub> feeling
	c <sub>3</sub> sensation
	c <sub>4</sub> intuition

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The Cartesian product ABC comprises all possible combinations in a set of sixteen types, such as a<sub>1</sub>b<sub>1</sub>c<sub>1</sub> (conscious introvert thinking) and a<sub>1</sub>b<sub>2</sub>c<sub>1</sub> (unconscious introvert thinking) (Foa 1965:263). Different definitions will produce different facets which will turn out different similarity patterns. However, facet design "does not tell, a priori, which facets should be spelled out in the definition," Foa points out, "as the choice of facets is a substantive rather than a methodological problem"; what facet analysis can do is to permit "a test whether a particular facet design produces similarity patterns



which are confirmed by empirical results" (1965:264).

Foa proposes two new concepts to advance facet theory. The first is the principle of contiguity, by which he explains "that variables which are more similar in their facet structure will also be more related empirically" (1965:264). Thus Foa would predict that, in Table 1,  $a_1b_1c_1$  (conscious introvert thinking) and  $a_1b_1c_2$  (conscious introvert feeling) are more related than  $a_1b_1c_1$  (conscious introvert thinking) and  $a_2b_2c_2$  (unconscious extravert feeling). He concludes that the empirical relationship is predicted from the similarity pattern of the facet elements (1965:264); hence his first contribution to facet theory is to indicate the predictive power of facet design and analysis to identify variables rather than, as Guttman would use it, simply to explain relationships among variables.

But Foa goes beyond this to suggest a second hypothesis, that "variables having more facet elements in common will be more related than variables having fewer facet elements in common" (1965:264). Variables can be ordered into a kind of hierarchy establishing certain relationships. For example, Table 2 shows what would happen to the initial ordering if this principle were applied to the facets seen in Table 1.

TABLE 2.--Empirical Relationships Among Variables Based on the Principle of Contiguity

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$a_1b_1c_1$	(conscious introvert thinking)
$a_1b_2c_1$	(unconscious introvert thinking)
$a_1b_2c_2$	(unconscious introvert feeling)
$a_2b_2c_2$	(unconscious extravert feeling)

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From Table 2 we see that the first variable is most similar or contiguous to the second, which differs only in the element of facet B; the second equally close to the first and to the third, which differs from the first variable in the element of facet B and facet C but from the second only in the element of facet C. Briefly, Foa suggests that the principle of contiguity establishes empirical relationships among variables, that variable 1 will relate most to variable 2, less to variable 3, and so on; and that variable 2 will relate most to variables 1 and 3, less to variable 4, and so on (1965:265).

However, when a series of variables is defined by dichotomous facets, a specific order cannot be predicted unless and until "the principal component of each facet and the first variable of the order" are identified (Foa 1965:268). To explain this Foa uses the example of

interpersonal behavior defined as "the Cartesian product of the observer by the perceptual and behavioral facets" (1965:268), as indicated in Table 3.

TABLE 3.--Concept Differentiation by Facets When Principal Components of Each Facet are Defined

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<u>Perceptual Facets</u>		<u>Elements</u>
Facet A (the person doing the action, or the <u>actor</u> )	a <sub>1</sub>	the other (nonobserver)
	a <sub>2</sub>	the self (observer)
Facet B (the level)	b <sub>1</sub>	actual (what is done)
	b <sub>2</sub>	ideal (what ought to be done)
Facet C (the person from the point of view of whom the action of a given actor is perceived, or <u>alias</u> )	c <sub>1</sub>	the other (nonactor)
	c <sub>2</sub>	the self (actor)
<u>Behavioral Facets</u>		
Facet D ( <u>content</u> of behavior)	d <sub>1</sub>	acceptance or giving
	d <sub>2</sub>	rejection or taking away
Facet E ( <u>object</u> of behavior)	e <sub>1</sub>	the other (nonactor)
	e <sub>2</sub>	the self (actor)
Facet F ( <u>mode</u> of behavior)	f <sub>1</sub>	social or status
	f <sub>2</sub>	emotional or love

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As we see in Table 3, the Cartesian product ABC defines eight perceptual types, and the Cartesian product DEF defines eight behavioral types. According to Foa's theory, to predict the eight perceptual types when the behavioral type is constant, and vice versa, it is necessary to know the principal component of each facet. Foa decided the principal components on the basis that "these facets of interpersonal behavior develop at different stages of the process of socialization in the child" (1965:268). And he adds,

Among perceptual facets it is suggested that differentiation between actors will develop first, followed by differentiation between levels and then between aliases. In the behavioral facets the suggested sequence of development is content, object, mode. Each successive differentiation is obtained by a subdivision of the previous concept according to the new facet. In the behavioral facets, for example, the first differentiation is, by content, into acceptance and rejection. At the second stage each one of these concepts splits into two new concepts according to object: acceptance of other and self, rejection of self and other. In the next stage each one of these four concepts is again dichotomized by the mode facet into social and emotional acceptance (or rejection) of self (or other). This three-stage dichotomization suggests a circular order of the variables in which the first facet of the sequence behaves as the first principal component, the second facet as the second component. . . . The sequence of concept differentiation by facets corresponds to the order of the components (1965:269).

Thus, defining the principal component is integral to concept differentiation by facets, and this remains "a substantive rather than a methodological problem" (1965: 264). Accordingly, the order in Table 3 can be predicted as demonstrated in Table 4. This table reflects the relationships between a variable and every other variable within the set labeled interpersonal behavior.

TABLE 4.--Predicted Order of Variables from Table 3

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<u>Perceptual Types</u>	<u>Behavioral Types</u>
$a_1b_1c_1$	$d_1e_1f_1$
$a_1b_1c_2$	$d_1e_1f_2$
$a_1b_2c_2$	$d_1e_2f_2$
$a_1b_2c_1$	$d_1e_2f_1$
$a_2b_2c_1$	$d_2e_2f_1$
$a_2b_2c_2$	$d_2e_2f_2$
$a_2b_1c_2$	$d_2e_1f_2$
$a_2b_1c_1$	$d_2e_1f_1$

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Source: Foa 1965:267

Another problem emerges, however, when we try to

establish the relationships between a variable and the set as a whole (Foa 1965:270). Foa sees the set "interpersonal behavior" as a subset of the larger dimension of "behavior," under which a second subset "personal behavior" also appears. He defines personal behavior as that "which does not require the actual or potential participation of more than one person in order to occur" (1965:270). Hence variables can belong to an interpersonal set or a personal set. Foa explains,

Thus in the actor, alias, object facets the element other defines variables belonging to the interpersonal set only, while the element self defines variables which also belong to the personal set.

Likewise, the element social of the facet mode defines variables belonging to the interpersonal set only, while the element emotional indicates variables belonging to both sets.

A partition of the interpersonal set is suggested by the elements of the remaining two facets, content and level. Variables with elements acceptance and actual must occur in interpersonal behavior, while variables with the elements rejection and ideal may or may not occur. Rejection and ideal are not necessary for the occurrence of interpersonal behavior (1965:270).

Foa labels those facet elements belonging to only the interpersonal set as specific and assigns them the subscript 1. Facet elements belonging to the personal set, on the other hand, while they are significant to

personal behavior, are less significant to interpersonal behavior under consideration and are therefore labeled nonspecific and assigned the subscript 2 (1965:271).

Foa proposes that this type of classification of the elements of facets leads to the prediction of multiple correlations between a variable and the other variables in a set (1965:271). From his own empirical studies, he concludes that "variables containing the specific element are more strongly related to the set than those which do not contain it" (1965:271). He implies, however, that further study of nonspecific facet elements may lead to a greater understanding of the relationship between different areas. And he suggests that "the nonspecific elements may be seen as a link between a particular area and other neighboring areas" (1965:271).

Thus Foa shows us how to predict relationships and thereby to establish an order among facet elements. By the principle of contiguity variables similar in their facet structure can be ordered according to the commonality in the facet elements. Variables in dichotomous facets can be ordered by defining the principal component of each facet and the first variable of the order and then by applying the principle of contiguity. Moreover Foa indicates how sets of variables in dichotomous facets can be part of a larger dimension, in which case the variables can be ordered by assigning subscripts to the

facet elements as specific or nonspecific, relative to the set under consideration, and then by applying the principle of contiguity. The empirical results of these facet designs are various mathematical or conceptual structures, which can prove the correctness of a given facet design or show those facet elements that need to be altered, revised, or eliminated. Foa cautions that systematic facet design does not itself guarantee that data will sustain any hypothesis, as alternative designs are possible (1965:272-273).

From Foa's extension of the formalization of facet theory several ideas emerge which have particular relevance to the problems of dimensionalizing teaching behavior. It is evident from Foa's work that facets contain a fixed number of component elements; that the facet is defined in terms of its component elements; and that all the possible combinations of the facet elements define the domain of content or interest. Facets, then, may be seen as "a set of categories into which phenomena may be placed and for which there is a clear basis for placing each event into one and only one category of the system" (Biddle 1967:347). Hence Biddle cautions that in constructing a coding system the designer should make certain "that any given set of coding categories contributes but a single facet" (1967:347). Biddle simplifies the



idea by stating that "varieties of apples form a facet, but varieties of apples, oranges, and elephants do not" (1967:347). Richard E. Snow indicates, by example, that in regard to test construction "test content" is a facet while "figural," "symbolic," and "semantic" are category or facet elements; "item form" is another facet with "recall" and "recognition" as two facet elements (1968:485). The facets are defined by their elements, and all possible combinations of the facet elements in turn define the larger domain or dimension of inquiry, test construction.

Richard E. Snow. Facet design seems to be, as Biddle, Snow, and Gage have suggested, a productive approach to the construction of a comprehensive, computer-based item pool of teaching behaviors and to the problem of dimensionalizing teacher behavior. Concerning the facet design approach, two problems raised by Snow (1968) are particularly intriguing. The first is that a facet approach to a comprehensive, computer-based item pool aims "not at categories into which observed signs can be classed but rather out of which signs or cue variables can be selected or constructed" (Snow 1968:485). This means in effect that research should shift away from a preoccupation with devising category systems into which behaviors can be classed and toward the generation and collection of those behaviors which, as the component

facet elements, will lead to the definition of the facet or category. This approach leads to an empirical system covering a much wider range of classroom behaviors than in previous studies and is not hampered by vocabulary restrictions.

The second problem raised by Snow is that the vocabulary employed in research on teaching has largely grown out of and been limited to classroom observation use. Snow proposes "the construction of a vocabulary far more extensive than anything a classroom observer could be expected to use" (1968:486) to discover the dimensions of teaching behavior. The construction of a vocabulary and of variables thus may be seen as interconnected and directly related to facet analysis and design.

Foa, too, suggests that language be dealt with in future studies. Foa discovered that "the problem of inventing a satisfactory facet design appears to be closely related to the psychology of concept formation," that language influences category formation, and that perhaps more study should be undertaken on language use in concept formation in order to find those words which could adequately convey the component elements of the facet-concept (1967:273). In the meantime, as Snow concludes, "the construction of variables from a kind of

universal taxonomy of signs to fit various theoretical or practical purposes seems preferable to premature commitment to any particular category system or theoretical vocabulary" (1968:486). It appears that the results of such an undertaking would be both comprehensive and flexible.

### Applications of Facet Theory

Research subsequent to the work of Foa contributes to our increasing general understanding of the practical application of facet theory. Although it is not an explicit facet model, the taxonomy produced by M. Karl Openshaw and Frederick R. Cyphert (1966) approximates a facet model in many ways and warrants our attention. In addition William J. Gephart (1969) applies facet analysis to the research process to indicate the tremendous flexibility and predictive power of facet design. Gephart's study is worthy of mention if only because it clearly sets out facet theory and explains its application to a practical problem. Dov Elizur's work (1970) reveals the basic steps to follow in applying facet theory and design to a universe of behavioral elements. And the yet unpublished work of Ehud Bar-On and Aryeh Perlberg (1971) and Bruce W. Tuckman (1970) offers clear insights into the possible application of facet theory

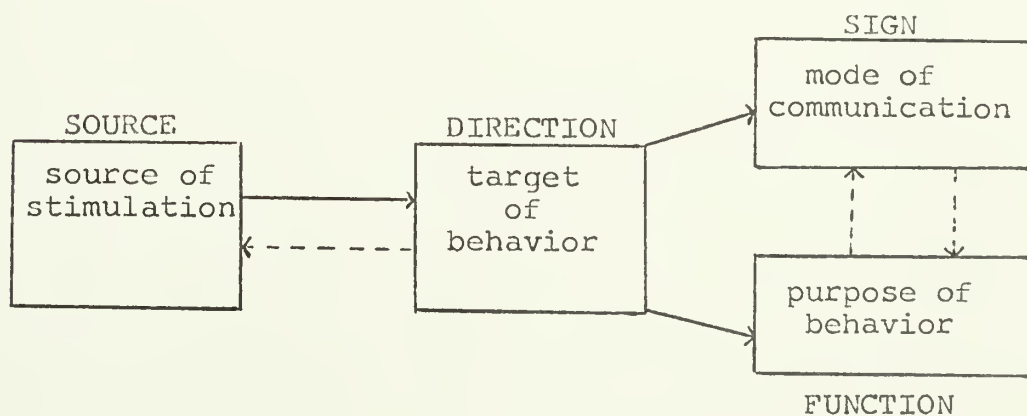
to the world of teaching behavior.

The Openshaw and Cyphert Model. Openshaw and Cyphert's Development of a Taxonomy for the Classification of Teacher Classroom Behavior (1966) attempts to outline a means for describing all observable teacher behaviors. Their work follows in the path laid out by Medley and Mitzel and Biddle and leading toward objective observation and recording of behaviors. The authors tried to keep any conceptions about the nature of teaching and systems of categories for viewing teaching as "value-free" as possible. They avoided using any specific hypotheses or effectiveness constructs; instead they sought from the beginning only to develop a system of categories which would allow "the classification, i.e., the description, of all observable classroom behaviors--good or bad, logical or illogical, directive or integrative" (1966:44). As originally conceived, then, their taxonomy was meant to be "a synthesis of previous approaches to the description and categorization of teacher classroom behavior." In the process, however, Openshaw and Cyphert met with "complete frustration" and settled finally on a "compromise approach" (1966: 149). Although the authors did not consider the facet theories of Guttman and Foa, their compromise approach

approximates a facet model.

Openshaw and Cyphert specify four major dimensions of teaching behavior--source, direction, function, and sign. These are seen as dimensions of teaching which can be observed and quantified and the analysis of which provides the empirical data to explain what a teacher does and how a teacher behaves while teaching (1966:44-45). Figure 1 shows how they schematize the various dimensions.

FIGURE 1.--The Four Dimensions of Teaching Behavior Specified in the Openshaw and Cyphert Model



Notes:

Solid arrows denote controlling relationships while broken arrows signify influential relations not sequentially determined.

Source: Openshaw and Cyphert 1966:47

Openshaw and Cyphert identify two actors in the teaching process: the teacher, or projector entity, and the student, or the receptor entity (1966:45); roles can alternate depending on who is performing and who is perceiving the activity. Intending "to emphasize the concept that a teacher's behavior has meaning to the degree that such behavior is perceived and acted upon by another person," the student, they call the basic component of teacher behavior the "encounter," which they define as "a unit of teacher behavior that serves a discernible function within a teaching situation" (1966:52). They then explain that the four dimensions of teacher behavior can change in sequence--that is, pattern and order--during teacher performance and that each change in dimension indicates a new encounter; the critical dimension is the function dimension, since "each encounter must have a function" (1966:52). Moreover, they state,

A given encounter is categorized in each of the four dimensions. . . . each encounter may have shifts within the Sign dimensions. Furthermore, a given encounter may be classified in more than one category of the Function dimension. Any change in the Source and Direction dimensions indicates a new encounter (1966:53).

The instrument Openshaw and Cyphert produced contains areas which may be seen as facet elements, thus

indicating how closely theirs approximates a facet model. The instrument outlined in Table 6 shows the facet elements.

TABLE 5.--The Openshaw and Cyphert Model of the Dimensions of Teaching Behavior

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I.	Source Dimension	-	Indicates the origin of an encounter
	A. Originate	-	The source of the behavior is undiscernible within the classroom setting
	B. Respond	-	The source of the behavior is some discernible aspect of the classroom setting
II.	Direction Dimension-		Indicates the target to which the behavior is directed
	A. Individual	-	Behavior focused on one person
	B. Group	-	Behavior focused on more than one person but less than the total class
	C. Class	-	Behavior focused on the whole class
	D. Object	-	Behavior focused on inanimate element in physical environment
III.	Sign Dimension	-	Indicates the mode of communication of an encounter
	A. Speak	-	Behavior characterized by spontaneous speech

TABLE 5--Continued

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B.	Read	- Behavior characterized by oral reading of (printed) written matter
C.	Gesture	- Behavior characterized by purposive body movement
D.	Perform	- Behavior characterized by demonstration, nonverbal illustration, singing, etc.
E.	Write	- Behavior characterized by chalkboard presentation, writing on a chart, or overhead projector foil, etc., but excluding drawing
F.	Silence	- Behavior characterized by an absence of other signs
G.	Laugh	- Behavior characterized by inarticulate sound of mirth or derision
IV.	Function Dimension	- Indicates the purpose of the behavior within an encounter
A.	Structure	- Set the context and focus of subsequent subject matter and/or process
	1. Initiate	- Introduce and launch an activity, task, or area of study
	2. Order	- Arrange elements of subject matter and/or process in a systematic manner
	3. Assign	- Designate required activity
B.	Develop	- Elaborate and extend within an established structure
	1. Inform	- State facts, ideas, concepts, etc.



TABLE 5--Continued

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2.	Explain	- Show relationship between ideas, objects, principles, etc.
3.	Check	- Request information concerning understanding
4.	Elicit	- Solicit a verbal response that states, facts, ideas, concepts, etc.
5.	Test	- Conduct a written quiz or examination--dictate questions, supply answers, without explanation
6.	Reinforce	- Confirm or sustain an idea, approach, or method through reiteration
7.	Summarize	- Restate principal points in brief form
8.	Stimulate	- Foster student involvement and participation
C.	Administer	- Execute tasks of classroom routine and procedure
1.	Manipulate	-- Arrange elements of the classroom environment, personal and physical (cause others to do something)
2.	Manage material	- Provide or coordinate use of media, supplies, or materials
3.	Routine	- Request information regarding compliance with individual, class or school expectations (regulations)
4.	Proctor	- Monitor classroom during group activity, testing, student teacher performance, etc.

TABLE 5--Continued

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D. Regulate	-	Establish and maintain inter-personal relations
1. Set standard-		Impose or guide development of standards of behavior
2. Support	-	Express confidence, commendation, or empathy
3. Restrict	-	Reprimand, threaten punish, etc.
4. Assist	-	Provide personal help; do for
5. Inquire	-	Ascertain student involvement
6. Monitor-Self-		Recognize and interpret teacher's behavior (check own understanding)
E. Evaluate	-	Ascertain the relevance or correctness of subject matter and/or process
1. Appraise	-	Verify by appeal to external evidence or authority
2. Opine	-	Judge on the basis of personal values and belief
3. Stereotype	-	React without stated reference to criteria or person

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Source: Openshaw and Cyphert 1966:53-55

The Openshaw and Cyphert model has serious shortcomings. The system is limited in its comprehensiveness, as it restricts the classification of all teacher behavior. Only those behaviors which are "purposeful in

nature" are included, and those behaviors of a personal nature and not directly related to the role of the teacher in a classroom are excluded (Openshaw and Cyphert 1966:46). "The assumption is made that the teacher's purpose in the classroom is to teach something," Openshaw and Cyphert state, and "behaviors categorized are those that fulfill a teaching function" (1966:46). It can be argued, however, that this leads to value judgments in recording behavior and that some behaviors not directly related to the role of the teacher as teacher in a classroom, such as random tapping on the desk or clearing the throat, may have meaning to the overall act of teaching and should therefore be classified. Moreover the model is not broad enough to encompass the entire range of an item pool as extensive as that produced by the University of Massachusetts task analysis project. Thus, existing empirical data suggest additional facets.

Although the Openshaw and Cyphert model takes into consideration the interrelatedness of a teacher's behavior and permits the classification of an encounter in various ways (1966:87), Openshaw and Cyphert make no attempt to create a formal structure which would allow the prediction of behaviors--based on the combinability or separability of facet elements. In other words, without a coding system, the user is unable to obtain related

elements if he does not immediately perceive relationships among the variables.

In brief the system falls short of being a facet model. It depicts exclusive dimensions which appear to be explicit facets, but Openshaw and Cyphert only suggest the kinds of elements the dimensions might encompass. Furthermore the model lacks the formal facet design necessary to predict or produce behaviors based on all the possible combinations of the various facet elements; therefore its capability to generate an exhaustive taxonomy of teaching behaviors is limited. Moreover, the system aims at creating those categories into which observed behaviors, or signs, are classed rather than finding other forms of recall which would allow, as a facet model would, the construction of teaching behaviors or signs. Nevertheless, the Openshaw and Cyphert model is not only the nearest approximation of a facet model but must be considered thoughtfully in the development of any proposed facet model.

Gephart's facet analysis of the research process.

William J. Gephart's The Eight General Research Methodologies: A Facet Analysis of the Research Process, although it is not the kind of ambitious study that Openshaw and Cyphert present, demonstrates on a modest scale the predictive power of facet theory and design. Gephart

shows with great clarity how facet theory and design can be used to develop a conceptual universe on a specific problem before the generation of all possible empirical data. Relying on the work of Guttman, as interpreted and explained by Philip Runkel (1965), and with the assistance of Bruce Bartos, Gephart attempts to provide a structure for research methods by which all possible methods of research can be isolated and identified.

Gephart first identifies four general research methods--historical, descriptive, experimental, and quasi-experimental--outlined in Table 6.

TABLE 6.--The Four General Research Methods Defined by William J. Gephart

- 
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1. Historical: The determination of truth about events, developments, and conditions of the past. It uses as measurements observations recorded by others to interpret what happened to whom or what. It involves the establishment of the population which experienced a set of events and the delineation of the nature of the experience.
  2. Descriptive: The determination of the manner in which a population is distributed on a variable or variables, and/or the degree of association among variables. It uses measures designed to validly and reliably collect the data. It focuses on a specific sample and/or population because of things that may or may not have happened to them.
  3. Experimental: The determination of the cause and effect relationship among two or more variables. It involves the administration of specified treatments to a population or a sample of a population and the valid and reliable measure of the effects of the treatment.

TABLE 6.--Continued

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- 
4. Quasi-experimental: The estimation of the cause and effect relationship among two or more variables in natural settings. It involves the administration of specified treatments to an unselected group and the valid and reliable measure of the effects of the treatment.
- 

Source: Gephart 1969:5

He extracts three common yet variable aspects of the four definitions: a population or a sample, identified in Table 6 by a broken line; measurement, identified by a solid line; and treatment, identified by a dotted line (1969:6). Thus, for example, the historian must be concerned with the who or what; the descriptive researcher with the boundaries of the population he studies; the experimental researcher with the representativeness of the population sample; and the quasi-experimental researcher with a given population. The historian is interested in the "treatment" experienced by a group or the effects of a treatment on a group, and the descriptive researcher is interested in a common set of experiences (treatment). The historian has to establish the credence of his sources (measurement fidelity); but the descriptive, experimental, and quasi-experimental researchers all select established means of measuring that will develop the required data,

or they develop their own measures to get the required data. From this, Gephart postulates three facets: (1) the representativeness of the units, given the code R; (2) the content of the treatment experienced, given the code T; and (3) measurement fidelity, assigned the code M (1969:6-7).

These variables alternate according to whether or not the researcher can control them. Gephart assigns the subscript 1 if the variable is not under the direct control of the researcher and the subscript 2 if the variable is under control. Thus four research profiles emerge, as seen in Table 7.

TABLE 7.--Four Research Profiles in Gephart's Facet Design

Research method	Measurement fidelity	Representative-ness of units	Treatment administration
Historical	M <sub>1</sub>	R <sub>1</sub>	T <sub>1</sub>
Descriptive	M <sub>2</sub>	R <sub>2</sub>	T <sub>1</sub>
Quasi-Experimental	M <sub>2</sub>	R <sub>1</sub>	T <sub>2</sub>
Experimental	M <sub>2</sub>	R <sub>2</sub>	T <sub>2</sub>

Source: Gephart 1969:9

In other words, the historian has no control, as the records he uses were made by others, as evidence of a treatment he never administered, and in terms of a sample he did not select originally. The researcher using descriptive methodology has control over the selection and the measurement of his sample but not over the treatment administered. The experimental researcher has control over all the variables, and the quasi-experimental researcher has control over measurement and treatment but not over the representativeness of his sample population (Gephart 1969:9). The design therefore places the four profiles into a neat scheme: (1) all control, i.e., experimental; (2) all noncontrol, i.e., historical; (3) and (4) mixed, with two facet elements at the control level and one at the noncontrol level, that is, the descriptive and quasi-experimental. In this arrangement it is easy to deduce four additional mathematical possibilities-- $M_2R_1T_1$ ,  $M_1R_2T_1$ ,  $M_1R_1T_2$ , and  $M_1R_2T_2$ --making a complete set of eight types, depicted in Table 8.

Applying the Guttman-Foa concept that facets are defined by the facet elements, Gephart then studied the facet elements to determine definitions for the new facets predicted by the facet design. Facets B, C, and D (Table 8) are variations of the concept of the case study; B might represent a research proposal to doctoral students by a professor who leaves only control



over the sources to the students, and facet D might be a particular kind of candid camera study in which the researcher has control only over the reactions of the subject (1969:10).

TABLE 8.--Research Profiles Predicted by Gephart's Facet Analysis

Method	Measurement fidelity	Representative-ness of units	Treatment administration
A. Historical	M <sub>1</sub>	R <sub>1</sub>	T <sub>1</sub>
B.	M <sub>2</sub>	R <sub>1</sub>	T <sub>1</sub>
C. Case Study	M <sub>1</sub>	R <sub>2</sub>	T <sub>1</sub>
D.	M <sub>1</sub>	R <sub>1</sub>	T <sub>2</sub>
E. Descriptive	M <sub>2</sub>	R <sub>2</sub>	T <sub>1</sub>
F. Quasi-Experimental	M <sub>2</sub>	R <sub>1</sub>	T <sub>2</sub>
G. Unobtrusive measure experiment	M <sub>1</sub>	R <sub>2</sub>	T <sub>2</sub>
H. Experiment	M <sub>2</sub>	R <sub>2</sub>	T <sub>2</sub>

Source: Gephart 1969:10

Although Gephart appears to understand the predictive power of facet theory and design, he nevertheless fails to grasp or apply fully the facet theories of Foa. In Table 8 above there appears to be no specific order to the facet elements except that the all-noncontrol facet is placed at one end and the all-control facet at the other. If Foa's principle of contiguity were followed, after defining  $M_1$  as the principal component, all other facets sharing the same principal component would go together. But, because he does not follow Foa's system of defining the principal component, Gephart cannot order the types according to the principle of contiguity; and it is not clear what organizing principle he has used, if any.

The validity of Gephart's definitions or ordering principles aside, one can conclude that the significant contribution of his attempt to apply facet theory to research methodology is to show how facet design can predict or generate behaviors before the empirical data is received to support a given hypothesis. His methods approximate those suggested by Guttman and Foa. He designates his problem area and its known elements, giving precise definitions to those elements. He examines the elements for common facets and determines the levels of those facets. He then lists the universe of profiles which exists through the possible combinations of the

facet levels, and finally he determines the relationships among the universe of profiles.

Gephart's work cannot be compared to Openshaw and Cyphert's; his purpose stopped far short of outlining a system with wide ramifications for educational research. Nonetheless he demonstrates a practical application of facet theory and design for the prediction of component facet elements.

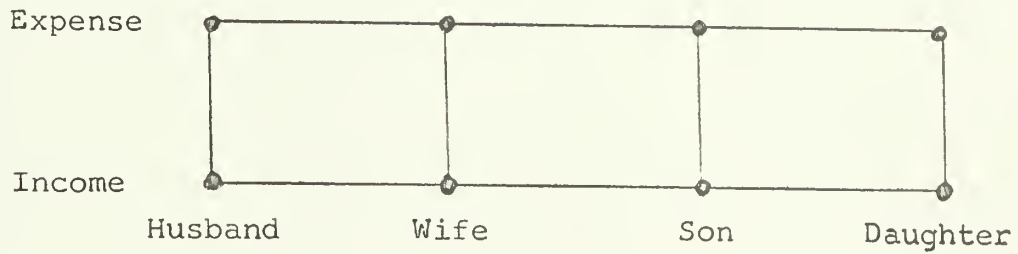
Elizur's facet analysis. Dov Elizur (1970), Louis Guttman's protégé, is the first researcher fully to employ facet theory and design in a major published study. Elizur studied approximately 450 Dutch public employees to determine what behavioral variations resulted from the introduction of computers to various jobs. Although Elizur's work is not in the field of education, it reveals the basic steps in applying facet theory and design to a universe of behavioral content. To find some order relation among the variables seen or to discover the empirical correspondence among the behavioral components in the universe of content, Elizur outlines two steps in facet design: (1) define the basic sets of elements, called facets; and then (2) define new sets of elements which are the Cartesian products of the facets, each element of the new set being a combination

of the facets known as an attribute, a subuniverse, or a variable (1970:45).

The first step, Foa has pointed out, is a substantive and not simply a methodological problem. Applied to the universe of teaching behaviors, this means that each facet, as Biddle suggests, must be mutually exclusive and exhaustive of the domain of teaching behaviors. At this stage we "become aware of the variables which are important in circumscribing the domain which we want to study" (Runkel 1965:3). The distinct advantage of facet theory and design lies in the formalization of the process, the second stage, so that, in testing for structural relations among the variables, accuracy and objectivity are assured (Elizur 1970:46).

By being able to illustrate the structural relations among the variables in the world of content under investigation, a much clearer picture emerges. Elizur offers a simple graph to show the potential of facet theory and design. He takes two facets, A (husband, wife, son, daughter) and B (income, expense), to show how all possible combinations of the elements of the two facets can be presented in a graph, as shown in Figure 2.

FIGURE 2.--Graph Illustrating Combinations of the Elements of Two Facets



Source: Elizur 1970:46

Thus  $A \times B$  produces the set or Cartesian product illustrated in Table 9.

TABLE 9.--Cartesian Product of Facets  $A \times B$

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	Husband's income	Husband's expense
$A \times B =$	Wife's income	Wife's expense
	Son's income	Son's expense
	Daughter's income	Daughter's expense

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Source: Elizur 1970:46

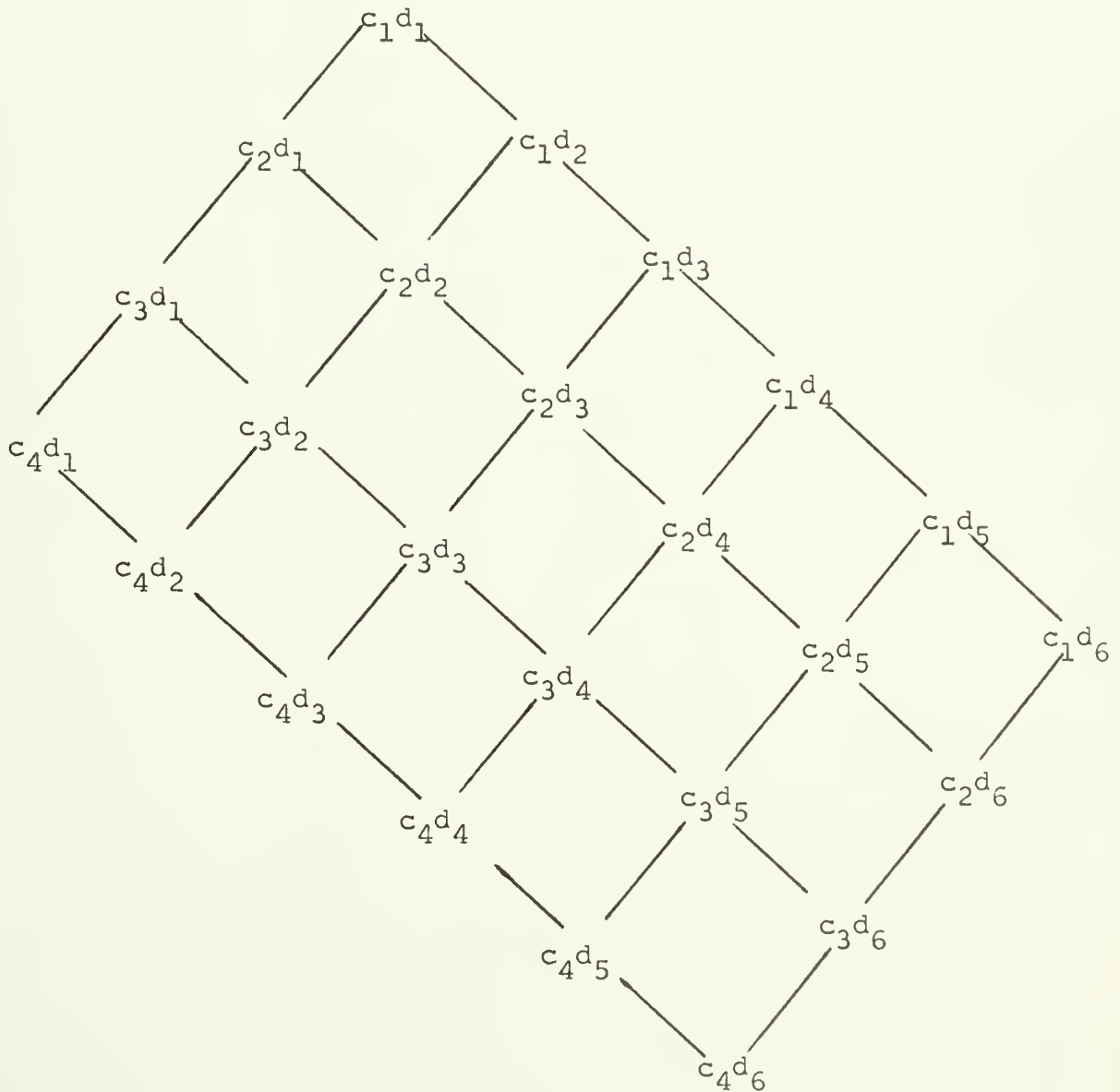
The complexity of the graphs produced is determined by the complexity of the variables or facet elements involved. Any number of facet elements can be created,

although as the number increases it becomes increasingly more difficult to derive hypotheses that may be checked empirically (Bar-On and Perlberg 1971:28). Thus Bar-On and Perlberg illustrate how a structure more complex than Elizur's example is produced. Figure 3 shows the structure resulting from a facet with four elements being combined with a facet having six elements. It also demonstrates the principles of contiguity as explained by Guttman and elaborated by Foa.

Tuckman's Domain-Process-Object Model. Bruce J. Tuckman's model of conceptualizing at least one aspect of teaching behavior shows the possibility of combining three facets or domains of teaching behaviors to produce forty-eight cells ( $4 \times 4 \times 3$ ) of varying behaviors in order to explore their functional properties. Tuckman's model is designed "to classify educational objectives into units or clusters for teaching purposes which have more intrinsic comparability than those grouped by subject matter" (1970:2).

Tuckman's model indicates a direction worth exploring in the use of facet theory and design. Applying facet theory and design to the universe of teaching behaviors should result in empirical structures which will render fairly accurate and objective models of teaching behavior.

FIGURE 3.--Structure Produced by Combining Two Facets  
with Complex Facet Elements



Source: Bar-On and Perlberg 1971:21

FIGURE 4.--Tuckman's Domain-Process-Object Model for Classifying Behavioral Objectives

Domain Process	Things	Ideas	People
Perceptual	Acquisition	Application	Evaluation
Cognitive	Communication		
Affective	Sensing Attending Resolving Distinguishing Recognizing	Detecting Monitoring Scanning Tracking	Comparing Kinesthe- sizing
Psychomotor	Memorizing Associating Conceptualizing Processing Creating	Computing Ordering Troubleshooting Decision-making Problem-solving	Diagnosing
	Experiencing (Introspecting) Orienting Valuing (Cathecting) Integrating	Intrapersonal Managing Empathizing Self-motivating	Acting
	Reacting (Effecting) Adjusting (Modifying) Coordinating Habituating	Anticipating Manipulating Adapting	Transmitting

Source: Tuckman 1970:3



## Summary

A multiplicity of classroom observation systems compounds the problem of analyzing the dimensions of teacher behavior. With the existence of perhaps well over a hundred such systems, a welter of competing, conflicting, overlapping, and often narrowly focused concerns exists in research on teaching. No one has yet devised an inclusive system that will encompass the objectives of all previous observation systems. Very few researchers have even discussed the possibilities of using the computer to create such a comprehensive and flexible system. As a result no one has yet been able to create a comprehensive, computer-based pool of teaching behaviors by which to fractionalize classroom behavior in order to understand the wide dimensions of teaching and by which to provide a coordinated vocabulary for the description of the many-faceted dimensions of teaching behavior.

Furthermore, of those educational researchers who recognize these needs, only a handful are even aware of the immense possibilities of applying facet theory to the problem. Guttman and Foa have offered a theoretical approach of great potential. Snow, for one, has sensed in it a unique power to generate constructed behaviors through the combinability of facet component elements.

Biddle sees a facet model as essential to the clarification of the dimensions of teaching. And Gage recognizes the power of a facet model in analyzing instruction. It seems evident, therefore, that a facet model--concentrating not on theoretical category construction but on those behaviors that, as facet elements, serve to define the categories--would represent a significant advance in the analysis of teaching. This approach would be more empirical than the observation systems of the past, and it would provide a base for the development of a comprehensive system capable of incorporating the multiple concerns and differing organizing viewpoints of previous systems. The following chapter suggests the first steps in how facet theory and design may be applied to and work in a comprehensive item pool of teaching behaviors in order to increase understanding of the dimensions of teaching behavior.

C H A P T E R   V  
A PROPOSED FACET STRUCTURE  
FOR THE ANALYSIS OF TEACHING BEHAVIOR

In the previous chapter we explored the various studies by the proponents of facet theory and design. These studies reveal the steps essential to the creation of a facet structure for a universe of teaching behaviors. Briefly, these steps are (1) defining the content to be explored (Guttman 1954; 1970); (2) specifying the facets and ordering the elements comprising each facet, both of which are substantive and not methodological choices (Guttman 1954; Foa 1965; Elizur 1970); and, (3) devising the mathematical testing to discover the ordered structures among the variables (Guttman 1954; Foa 1965). This chapter will show how facet theory and design are applied to create a model facet structure for the dimensionalization of teaching behavior. Creating a facet model is not dependent on the mathematical testing; the facet model is a hypothesis, the validity of which will be discovered in the subsequent stage of testing. Devising and carrying out the mathematical testing of the model is the subject of future research studies, which are discussed in the concluding chapter of this work.

Procedures in Creating the Model Facet Design  
for a Universe of Teaching Behaviors

In designing the present facet structure, the basic steps in facet theory outlined and elaborated by Guttman, Foa, Runkel, Bar-On and Perlberg, and Elizur have been followed. The creation of a world of content to be explored, the universe of observable teaching behaviors, was discussed in Chapter II. It should be noted, however, that merely having an item pool of 7000-10,000 discrete teaching behaviors poses the problem of manageability. In facet analysis the world of content must be reduced to a language form easily lending itself to a notation system. Thus an index of keywords appearing in the behavioral item pool was generated. Keyword descriptors serve as a kind of shorthand to reduce the items of behavior to readily comprehensible facet elements. Keywords also provide an extensive vocabulary based on the language of teachers and educational personnel generally, and not simply derived from past research or classroom observation use (Foa 1967; Snow 1968).

As an additional step in the development of the keyword index, a frequency count was taken on each facet element, or keyword, to indicate its frequency of appearance in the behavioral pool. The frequency of a keyword indicates the relative significance of the behavior in

an analysis of the universe of teaching behavior. The keyword index, seen in Appendix C, forms the world of content in our model facet structure.

Subsequently this world of content was analyzed for similarity patterns revealing facet elements. For example, appraises, opines, assesses, diagnoses, evaluates, and judges seem to share common behavioral territory, to which we might attach the general descriptive label evaluation. Another larger cluster appears to include: elaborates, defines, informs, states, explains, emphasizes, generalizes, checks, elicits, tests, reinforces, summarizes, stimulates, clarifies, describes, illustrates, interprets, relates, and reviews. This cluster apparently defines a facet element which closely approximates what Openshaw and Cyphert have labeled "development" (1966:53-55).

Various clusters emerge as we explore the keyword index. Helps, involves, motivates, prescribes, suggests, and stimulates seem to share the area we might describe as "motivation." Frequently negative behavior terms are found, such as admonishes, accuses, avoids, criticizes, denigrates, depreciates, disagrees, disapproves, ignores, reproves. These share the properties of being negative response behaviors. Their opposites from the positive response cluster include approves, affirms, assists,

assures, empathizes, encourages, guides, praises, rewards, supports, and reassures. Table 10 shows various clusters of descriptors which emerged from a preliminary analysis of the item pool of teaching behaviors.

TABLE 10.--Sample Clustering of Descriptors of Teaching Behaviors

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appraises		helps	
opines		involves	
assesses	= evaluation	motivates	= motivation
diagnoses		prescribes	
evaluates		suggests	
judges		stimulates	
admonishes		approves	
accuses		affirms	
avoids		assists	
criticizes		assures	
denigrates	= negative	empathizes	= positive
depreciates	response	encourages	response
disagrees		guides	
disapproves		praises	
ignores		rewards	
reproves		supports	
		reassures	
plans/prepares		lectures	
analyzes		planned	
researches		repetition	= application
initiates		tutoring	
presents	= structure	discussing	
introduces		using	
orients			
acquaints			
assigns			

TABLE 10.--Continued

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elaborates		coordinates	
defines		directs	
informs		leads	
states		manages	= managerial
explains		orders	skills
emphasizes		organizes	
generalizes		records	
checks		schedules	
elicits		supervises	
tests	= development		
reinforces			
summarizes			
stimulates			
clarifies			
describes			
illustrates			
interprets			
relates			
reviews			

---

Once the clusters are discerned and labeled, they are in turn analyzed for similarity patterns. At this stage, facets are hypothesized, and facet elements are specified and ordered. The facets are given descriptive designations based on their component elements; it becomes important to define them as clearly as possible in order to avoid having facet elements overlap. The ultimate objective is to create mutually exclusive dimensions or facets, within which the elements will be exhaustive of the domain of teaching behavior. Assuring that the

categories are exhaustive of the domain and mutually exclusive should not be over-emphasized, however, as Bar-On and Perlberg have found that this requirement is "generally useful, but is not essential for facet theory" (1971: 14). Table 11, showing the facet Functions, demonstrates how clusters of facet elements have been analyzed, to be grouped in and to define a separate facet or dimension of teaching behavior; a list of facets thus far developed appears in Appendix D.

TABLE 11.--The Facet Functions

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## H. FUNCTIONS

### $h_1$ Structure

plans/prepares  
analyzes  
researches

acquaints  
begins  
initiates  
introduces  
orients  
presents

assigns

### $h_2$ Development

defines  
informs  
relates  
states  
describes



TABLE 11.--Continued

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explains  
 elaborates  
 illustrates  
 emphasizes  
 generalizes  
 interprets  
 clarifies  
 reinforces  
 summarizes  
 stimulates  
 elicits  
 checks  
 reviews  
 tests

$h_3$  Evaluation

appraises  
 assesses  
 diagnoses  
 evaluates  
 opines  
 judges  
 tests  
 grades  
 scores

---

A standard notation system has been followed, as seen in Table 11. A capital letter signifies the facet or dimension. Small letters are used for the facet elements and subscripts for ordering within the facet. This constitutes an advance over the Openshaw and Cyphert model (Table 5) discussed in Chapter IV, which does not attempt to facetize in any formal way the various dimen-

sions of teaching behavior investigated. Without a formal facet design, the model cannot be tested systematically for validity.

It is evident from the facets in Appendix D that a facet of teaching behavior consists of several facet elements. Each facet element represents a subuniverse of behaviors. And all the elements are grouped to reflect a universal dimension of teaching behavior. In the past, categories were frequently devised out of simple elements of teaching behavior--for example, praises, initiates, positive response, nonverbal cues--with no attempt systematically and empirically to bring behaviors together in order to analyze the larger dimensions of teaching behavior. Thus, some categories previously used by educational researchers have not remained inviolate but have been subsumed, because of the nature of their component elements, into facets.

#### Analysis of the Facets in the Proposed Model

The eleven facets which appear in Appendix D exhibit a fairly wide but tightly defined spectrum of teaching behaviors. The range extends from the Actor (Facet A), or professional positions teachers assume, and the various Roles teachers perform (Facet B) as

actors, to the behaviors performed by a teacher interacting with students in various teaching Processes (Facet K). The facets and facet elements were analyzed for similarity patterns and order and were subsequently compared to descriptive labels as defined and used by educational researchers. An attempt has been made to isolate the facets logically and semantically so that they are mutually exclusive and represent only one dimension of teaching behavior.

The first six facets are relatively unambiguous. The facet Actor (Facet A) is as yet undeveloped but potentially includes what is currently thought of as a "position"--i.e., a master teacher, staff teacher, student teacher, instructional aide, among others; this coincides with the line of positions in the situation-by-position matrix (Appendix A) originally used to help generate teaching behaviors for the behavioral item pool, discussed in Chapter II. Roles (Facet B) are considered to be "the relatively stable patterns of behavior exhibited by teachers of various classroom situations" (Biddle 1967:346-47) that do not include general teaching behaviors. Roles are performed within the full context of an actor's area of activity. Hence the roles included are those of the classroom manager, the monitor, the discipliner, and the counselor.

The Target Group (Facet C) is what Openshaw and Cyphert have called the "direction dimension," indicating "the target to which the behavior is directed" (1966:53-55). This facet includes large and small classroom groups, the individual student, other teachers, the students' parents, or the community.

The following three facets, Setting (Facet D, Areas of Knowledge (Facet E) and Levels (Facet F), are currently being explored in a project to develop teacher training protocol materials by the State of Florida Department of Education (Kincaid 1971). Setting simply indicates the context in which the behavior occurs--the classroom, school, peer group, family, or community. Eventually, as the facet is further investigated, setting might include various units of analysis such as the episode (Smith and others 1964), the segment (Gump 1967), or, on a more sophisticated level, the arbitrary time units suggested by Flanders (1960) and Medley and Mitzel (1963).

Areas of Knowledge (Facet E) refers to classes of arts and sciences such as "symbolics," "arts," and "biological sciences" (Kincaid 1971:73-75). As the facet structure is revised and expanded, it may have the capability of delineating subfacets of individual subjects.

Levels (Facet F) exhibits the stages of a student's general development. This facet includes early childhood, middle childhood, preadolescence, adolescence, and adult levels (Kincaid 1971:73-75). The present model differentiates various levels of complexity of materials and presentation.

The seventh facet is Activities (Facet G). Biddle suggests that activities are similar to teaching methods and somehow include a wide range of classroom behaviors such as large group instruction and lectures (1967:352). It was found in a preliminary analysis of the facet design, however, that Biddle's conception of "activities" was too broad and allowed for overlap among facet components. Thus in this model the facet designation Activities more nearly approximates the term "activity" as employed by the Stanford Research Institute (1970). This facet includes behaviors related to language development, material resources, arts and crafts, and recreation. Administration related to a teacher's involvement in school governance activities has been included in this facet and is distinguished from the administration component of Facet B (Roles), as the latter relates to classroom routine administration chores. But in the future these two "administration" elements may be more closely analyzed for similarity, either to show a connecting link between Facets B (Roles), D (Setting),

and G (Activities) or eventually to incorporate them in one or another of the facets.

Because of their complexity, the last four facets lend themselves to a fuller discussion in this chapter. Functions, Modes of Communication, Manners, and Processes are more tightly defined than the rest of the facets and show significant interrelationships among facet elements.

Functions (Facet H), seen in Table 11, emerges from the Openshaw and Cyphert model (Table 5) with slight modifications. The three basic facet elements derived from the empirical base in the proposed model are structure, development, and evaluation. Paul V. Gump (1967) has hypothesized three similar elements--preparations, consummations, and evaluations. These three elements appear to define best the facet Functions. But Openshaw and Cyphert (1966:53-55) include under Functions two additional facet elements, administer and regulate. In the present model these have become elements of other facets. The subelements of administer are manipulate, manage material, routine, and proctor, all of which have been incorporated into managerial skills, administrator, and monitor--elements of Facet B (Roles). Likewise, subelements of regulate are sets standards, supports, restricts, assists, and inquires; sets standards is included in classroom manager as a part of Facet B (Roles), supports

and assists help to define the positive response cluster, and restricts is subsumed by the negative response cluster of Facet J (Manners). Neither the administer nor the regulate elements of the Openshaw and Cyphert model contributes to defining functions as a distinct dimension exclusive of behaviors which overlap or pertain more directly to other facets.

Modes of Communication (Facet I) is seen in Table 12. This facet attempts to adhere to those areas which Biddle has called "doing," "information exchange," and "intellectualization" (1967:353). The facet elements are: application, which includes teaching methods such as lecturing, planned repetition, tutoring, and discussing, and communication, which includes both verbal and nonverbal responses and cues.

TABLE 12.--The Facet Modes of Communication

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I. MODES OF COMMUNICATION

- $i_1$  Application
- lecturing
  - planned repetition
  - tutoring
  - discussing
  - using (teaching machines, etc.)
- $i_2$  Verbal communication
- $i_3$  Nonverbal communication
-

Distinct from Activities (Facet G), Modes of Communication (Facet I), and Processes (Facet K), is Manners (Facet J), as shown in Table 13.

TABLE 13.--The Facet Manners

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---

J. Manners

j<sub>1</sub> Positive Response

affirms  
 approves  
 assists  
 assures  
 empathizes  
 encourages  
 guides  
 praises  
 rewards  
 supports  
 reassures

j<sub>2</sub> Negative Response

accuses  
 admonishes  
 avoids  
 criticizes  
 denigrates  
 depreciates  
 disagrees  
 disapproves  
 ignores  
 reproves

j<sub>3</sub> Nonauthoritarian

j<sub>4</sub> Authoritarian

---

Biddle suggests that "manners" is the way a teacher's behavior is conducted (1967:347). In the present model,



Manners appears to be defined by a teacher's positive and negative response behaviors and by authoritarian or nonauthoritarian behaviors. Future analysis may focus on comparing the component elements of Manners to the element "communication" in Facet I (Modes of Communication) and to Facet K (Processes).

Table 14 shows Processes (Facet K). This facet is similar to Manners (Facet J). It should be noted that Manners (Facet J) incorporates behaviors directed by the teacher to the student in a positive or negative, authoritarian or nonauthoritarian way, regardless of student reaction or resultant behavior. Processes (Facet K), however, are those behaviors which imply "actual face to face interaction in the classroom" (Bjerstedt 1967:345). The emphasis is on observable interaction. Thus Processes is also distinguished from the development and evaluation behavioral elements defining Functions (Facet H), which are one-directional rather than interacting behaviors.

TABLE 14.--The Facet Processes

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K. Processes

k<sub>1</sub> Motivation

helps  
involves

TABLE 14.--Continued

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---

	motivates
	prescribes
	suggests
	stimulates
$k_2$	Interaction
	questions
	answers
	participates
	relates
	listens
	suggests

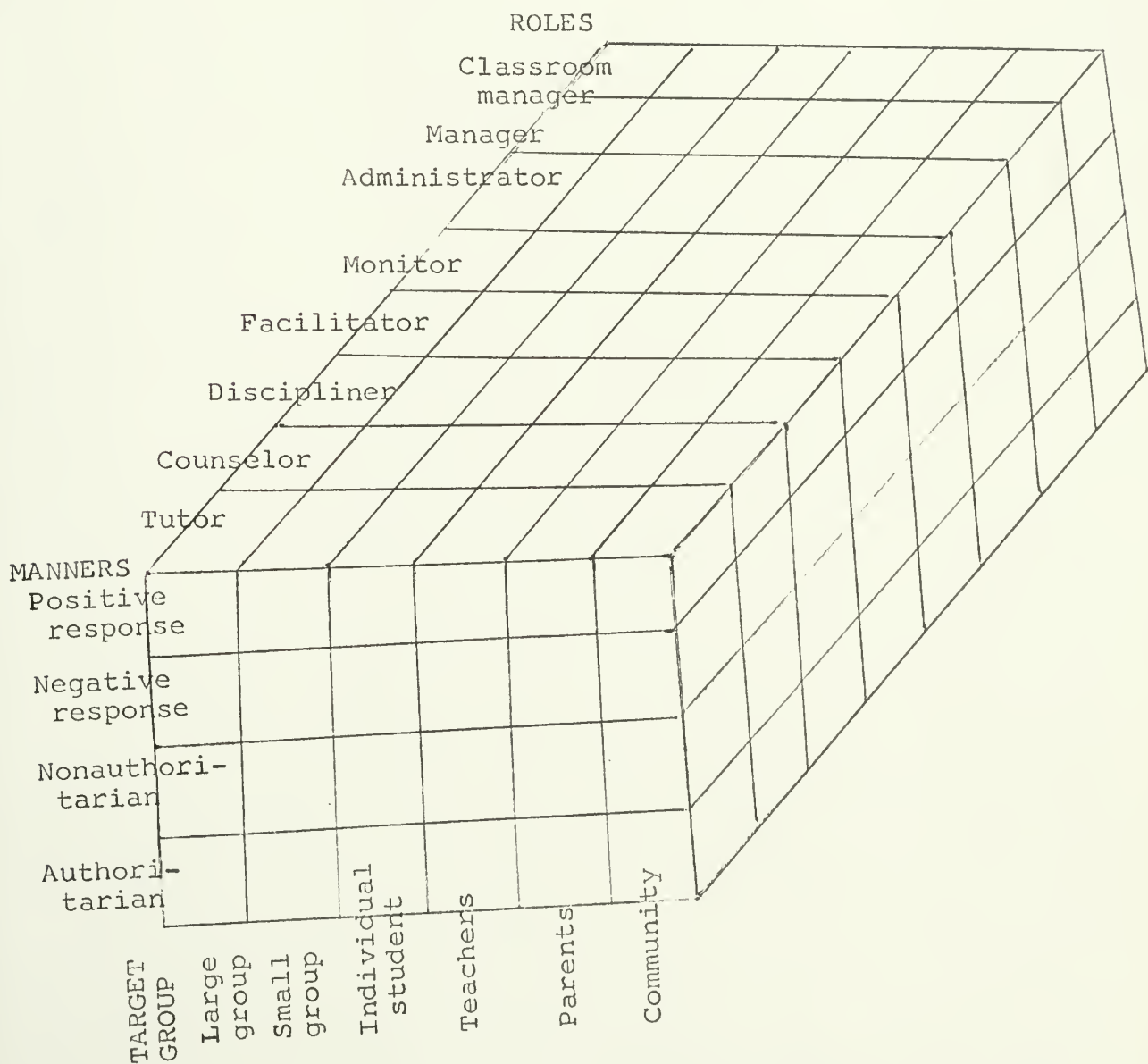
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### Summary

The present proposed facet structure (Appendix D) allows us to make empirically based graphic representations and comparisons of the various dimensions of teaching behavior. The structures depend upon the number of facets employed. Any number of facets can be used (Bar-On and Perlberg 1971:28); therefore structures may range from simple to highly complex. Because they are empirically based, the structures should reflect fairly objective views of reality and serve as starting points in our analysis of the variables in and thereby the larger dimensions of teaching behavior. We may visualize, for example, the Cartesian product of BCJ

(Roles, Target Group, and Manners), as Figure 5 illustrates.

FIGURE 5.--A Graphic Representation of the Cartesian Product of Facets B (Roles), C (Target Group), and J (Manners) from the Proposed Model Facet Structure



The Cartesian product represented in Figure 5 is only one example of the innumerable combinations possible for depicting and comparing segments of the domain of teaching behavior. Foa's work suggests that all possible combinations of the facet elements will not only help to define the domain of content or interest but will allow us to analyze each combination as a separate entity or sequence of behaviors. These possible combinations will be analytic units which, as Biddle has indicated, will reflect both the complexity of classroom behavior and an analytic common concept vocabulary with which to describe those complex behavioral processes (1967:344). Fully computerized, this model will be able to generate any number of complex sequences of behaviors.

The limitations of space prevent the inclusion of a list of teaching behaviors generated from the existing item pool of behaviors according to facets; a facet element alone may contain 1000 or more behavioral items. It should be remembered in this context that the exhaustiveness of elements or categories is not an essential requirement of facet theory and design (Bar-On and Perlberg 1971:14). Facet analysis, as Foa has pointed out, simply permits "a test whether a particular facet design produces similarity patterns which are confirmed by

empirical results" (1965:264). The purpose of this study is to propose a model facet structure for a universe of teaching behaviors. The empirical testing of the present model may serve as the basis for a future study.

C H A P T E R    V I  
P R O B L E M S   A N D   P R O S P E C T S

Several problems are evident in the present proposed facet structure for the dimensionalization of teaching behavior. This chapter will explore some of the questions related to the behavioral item pool, the coding of the items, the facet designations, language use, and the future testing of the facet model. It is hoped that recognizing and discussing a few of the problems will serve to clarify the prospects for extending research on the facet system.

Continued analysis of the existing behavioral item pool and the coding of the behavioral items to fit a facet structure is in itself the basis for future studies. This research problem is central to the computerization of the facet structure. Behaviors associated with each facet element must be carefully analyzed to assure that they relate directly to that facet element and do not overlap other facets. A computer coding system must be developed to guarantee the retrieval of behavioral items in a sophisticated way, so that items within one facet element will be coded according to their association in other facets. For example, behaviors such as "T plans content objective to show cause-effect relationships" and "T plans introductory lesson for unit" from the facet

element structure in Facet H (Functions) must be coded to be associated with the facet element staff teacher in Facet A (Actor). Behaviors such as "types lesson plans" and "plans field trips for S," also from the facet element structure in Facet H (Functions), must be coded to be associated with the facet element instructional aide in Facet A (Actor). In other words, although the keyword index is a reliable way of discovering facet elements to define a facet structure, as discussed in Chapter V, it cannot be relied upon as the chief means for retrieving behavioral items to fill in the facet structure. It must be used with the facet structure devised as an approach to component parts of teaching behavior which can then be further analyzed and coded to make the subuniverses of the facet elements as discrete as possible.

The facets, too, must be further analyzed to make sure that the facet elements are complete. Facet A (Actor) includes component elements related to differentiated staffing positions. These positions are in a state of flux with new ones very likely to be added as the differentiated staffing model gains wider acceptance. Facets C (Target Group) and D (Setting) should be studied for additional elements perceived in the teaching-learning environment. Facet E (Areas of Knowledge) is at present intended to have elements typifying general classes of arts and sciences. This facet might be ex-

plored to find ways to incorporate either facet elements or subfacets of elements to delineate individual subject areas; it is recognized, however, that this would create an extremely large facet. Facets H (Functions), I (Modes of Communication), J (Manners), and K (Processes) should be compared and analyzed to establish mutual-exclusiveness and to discover shared behavioral areas. This is a significant step in the definition of the dimensions of teaching behavior.

Furthermore the testing of the model facet structure might serve as the basis for a future research study. The facets should be tested for validity. This will show the areas in the model which need to be revised, facet elements which need to be developed, and facet elements which ought to form separate facets. For example, methods, presently an element of Facet I (Modes of Communication), may in fact be a facet with its own facet elements. At the moment it appears to be better classed as a mode of communication, but testing the structure--for conceptual or mathematical patterns--will show whether or not this is the case. This example indicates why testing and further work on the proposed facet structure must continue in the future.

Testing is also relevant to the expansion of the facet structure. The predictive power of facet theory



and design was discussed in Chapter IV. Once a facet structure is formed, testing will bring various facets together, and in some instances it will be easily seen that the combination of certain facet elements in fact defines entirely new facets. This capability of a facet structure to suggest totally new facets is extremely significant in the exploration of the dimensions of teaching behavior. It is, however, dependent upon formal testing.

In any future analysis and testing of the facet model, the possibility of designing a formal system for the subuniverses of the facet elements should be considered. This is a wholly new area of research and one which may have great potential for the dimensionalization of teaching behavior. The study of information science may yield interesting results to be applied to the computerization of the facet model (Fairthorne 1961; Becher and Hayes 1963; Howerton 1963; Jonker 1964). During the research on the present study, individuals suggested that the facet organization of the behavioral item pool was comparable to the Dewey Decimal System or to similar systems. While there are some general similarities, particularly in the ordering of the elements of each facet, it should be remembered that facet analysis is basically a formalized system that can be tested and can produce predictable mathematical or conceptual structures;

it is not merely a categorization or storage-retrieval system. Nevertheless information science may have relevance to the designation of facet elements in a facet structure.

More attention in the future must be given to the use of language in the facet structure. The terms presently used have been suggested mostly by the keywords from the item pool of teaching behaviors, which is composed of items of behavior largely derived from the language of teachers and educational personnel. The item pool, employing the language of many sources, offers a more empirical base than any previously used from which to draw key facet-concept words. The suggestions of Foa (1965) and Snow (1968) to use a far more extensive language than that which had grown out of classroom observation use have therefore been followed. However, because language does influence category formation (Foa 1965:273), further analysis of the language in the facet structure should be conducted to refine and revise the vocabulary to obtain the clearest terms for the component elements of the facets. This will help to eliminate conceptual overlap among variables, to make the facets mutually exclusive, and eventually to construct an empirical vocabulary based on the facets themselves.

A fully functional facet system is still in the future. At least four more steps, indicated above, must

be taken--an analysis and coding of the behavioral item pool, a full-scale testing of the present proposed facet structure, a revision of the system based on the results of the testing, and further work on the formalization of the subuniverses of the facet structure. But the present facet model represents a beginning.

Continuing work on a facet system for the analysis of teaching behavior is highly important. Its benefits are manifold. First, a facet system can help us to describe the full range of teaching behaviors, and, by combining and comparing facets and facet elements, to approach areas of teacher behavior previously unseen. A facet system can easily cluster behaviors into relevant units for analyzing, integrating, or fractionalizing teacher behavior, to demonstrate relationships among behavioral variables and to serve as the basis for teacher training and preparation in various guises. In this sense a facet system has immediate significance in the educational development of both teachers and students. In sum, a facet system warrants our continuing attention; it is a means empirically to create and describe the dimensions of teaching behavior, and thus a contribution toward the formation of the domains of teaching and of a common vocabulary which will advance the science of teaching.

APPENDIX A

SITUATION-BY-POSITION MATRIX



APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRES FOR OBTAINING  
TEACHING PROTOCOLS  
with sample responses

## JOB ANALYSIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions

This questionnaire is designed to give us information about the different tasks educational personnel perform. It is a unique job which we are trying to do, to carefully specify the functions performed in various situations. You are the people who will give us the raw material for us to do this kind of job analysis. Your responses will be kept anonymous and will not be used for comparisons or evaluation of any kind.

We will specify the title of a position, perhaps define it for you, and give you a situation which you might find yourself working in. We will then ask you to describe what you would do in that situation.

If we ask you to describe what you do as a small group discussion leader, working with about 10 students, we would like you to first give us a written running account of how you conduct an instructional meeting.

## Example:

I prepared for the meeting by listing some important questions to discuss. When I entered class, I asked for questions from the students about the material. I answered a few questions and referred some questions back to the students, for them to dig out the answers for us. When the questions about the material were over, I asked the first of my discussion questions, etc...

This running account we will call the global description of your teaching. When we ask you to write up this account, please give us a complete and detailed account of how you might perform this particular job.

After you write up your description, we will ask you to look at each sentence, which was purposely global in your descriptions, and extract the key sub-tasks of that description. This will give us the

detailed information we need for our analysis, and is done in the following way.

Sentence 1 of the global description was "I prepared for the meeting by listing some important questions to discuss." A breakdown of this single global description might include:

- I read the material assigned;
- I looked for questions to ask that were specific to the content;
- I looked for questions to ask that had wide-ranging consequences;
- I write down the most important questions;
- I sketched out the answers to the questions;
- I noted some examples to illustrate important points;
- I picked some references to refer students to;
- I listed students who I might want to ask certain questions;
- Etc.

You can see that a single global statement allows for an almost endless enumeration of sub-tasks, which more completely define the task. Each teacher, of course, would probably describe a different set of sub-tasks, while most might include the global description "prepare for class."

Since the breakdown of sub-tasks can be quite extensive, use some judgment about what is important. List those sub-tasks that to you are very important. If at all in doubt, include the statement of the sub-task.

We need as detailed a description of the important sub-tasks as you can provide us.

Thank you.



In the space below, please give us an extensive global description of what you do in performing the role of Master Teacher.

Now please go back to your global description and number the sentences. Begin below to break down the global descriptions into important sub-tasks. Start with Sentence #1 and continue until you have completed analyzing your description.

1. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

In the space below, please give us an extensive global description of what you do in performing the role of Staff Teacher.

Now please go back to your global description and number the sentences. Begin below to break down the global description into important sub-tasks. Start with Sentence #1 and continue until you have completed analyzing your description.

1. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

In the space below, please give us an extensive global description of what you do in performing the role of Team Leader in a team teaching situation.

Now please go back to your global description and number the sentences. Begin below to break down the global descriptions into important sub-tasks. Start with Sentence #1 and continue until you have completed analyzing your description.

1. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

In the space below, please give us an extensive global description of what you do if you are performing as a supervisory teacher (a teacher with the responsibilities for training one or more interns, student teachers, teacher aides, etc.) when teaching a class of about 25 students.

Now please go back to your global description and number the sentences. Begin below to break down the global descriptions into important sub-tasks. Start with Sentence #1 and continue until you have completed analyzing your description.

1. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_



4. Please give us an extensive global description of what you would do when you were performing as a curricular developer developing a curricular unit package or program for the kind of instruction you associate with teaching a class of 25 students.

1. Identify the learner for whom the instructional package is being designed.
2. List instructional objectives which students are intended to meet upon completion of the package.
3. Survey available instructional materials which relate to the topic and select those which are appropriate.
4. Assess available facilities to be utilized during the period of instruction.
5. Assess available human resources and schedule personnel in an appropriate way.
6. Design instructional activities which will assist students in developing the necessary skills to meet the stated objectives.
7. Design pre and post test instruments.

Now please go back to your global description and number the sentences. 117  
Begin below to break down the global descriptions into important subtasks.  
Start with Sentence #1 and continue until you have completed analyzing your  
description.

1. a. Examine achievement test data.  
b. Review student performance rating given by previous teachers.  
c. Interview students personally.  
d. Assess student performance on previous instructional units.
2. a. Develop broad goals.  
b. State general terminal objectives.  
c. Develop enabling objectives.  
d. Determine an acceptable performance level for each objective.  
e. List means by which student performance will be measured.  
f. Submit goals and objectives to other team members for reality testing.
3. a. View available filmstrips and select those which are appropriate.  
b. Listen to tapes and select those which are appropriate.  
c. Review programmed materials and select those which are appropriate.  
d. Review textbooks and select appropriate pages or chapters.  
e. Review other instructional packages or unpublished materials and select those which are appropriate.  
f. Examine commercially prepared or teacher developed aids such as geometric models, number lines, measuring devices, computer programs, etc.  
g. Review and select any other available materials such as film loops, 16mm films, transparencies, etc.

4. a. Determine availability of media center for independent study activities.
  - b. Utilize available space in resource center for viewing, listening and performing lab activities.
  - c. Determine whether classroom facilities needed will be available.
5. a. Develop teaching assignments appropriate to individual teacher strengths and interests.
  - b. Utilize instructional assistants to supervise independent study activities and distribute appropriate materials.
  - c. Schedule other staff members or citizens to provide instruction related to their particular talents or interests.
  - d. Provide for availability of personnel to provide tutorial assistance when needed by students.
6. a. Write necessary programmed instruction.
  - b. Write worksheets.
  - c. Write discovery activities.
  - d. Write activity sheets to accompany filmstrips, tapes and other such materials.
  - e. Write activities to utilize manipulative materials.
  - f. Write appropriate textbook assignments.
  - g. Prepare a teacher guide sheet which relates learning activities to specific objectives.
  - h. Prepare self tests for student use.
  - i. Develop plans and materials for classroom presentations and activities.
  - j. Develop instruments to monitor student progress in the instructional unit.

7. a. Design test questions to measure student performance as it relates to the stated objectives.
- b. Develop rough draft of test.
- c. Obtain recommendations for revisions from teachers who will utilize the tests.
- d. Develop final draft of tests.
- e. Develop scoring techniques and minimum levels for acceptable performance.
- f. Prescribe recycling activities for students who did not pass the post test.

3. In the space below please give us an extensive global description of what you do if you are performing as a teacher aide/intern (paraprofessional) when teaching in a class of about 25 students.

After discussing the class level and objectives with the master teacher, I developed my own set of objectives for the class. I prepare for the class lesson through a block of the unit with no. of lessons per unit, etc. With a class of 25, I organize the class structure for the lesson & activity and convey the beginning materials to the students in an organized fashion whole-part-whole. This is done thru lecture, demonstration and question-answer discussion. There is a period of time when the students have a chance to put into practical application the concepts just discussed. (Also a lab experience) The lesson is concluded with a review discussion, questions to be answered by the students, individual help for difficulties.

The lesson is followed by an evaluation with master teacher regarding effectiveness of techniques and meeting of objectives.

Now please go back to your global description and number the sentences. Begin below to break down the global descriptions into important subtasks. Start with Sentence #1 and continue until you have completed analyzing your description.

1. Discuss with Master Teacher

Establish objectives of unit (e.g. basketball)

-knowledge of game

-skills & their uses

-strategy of game

Add my own object. -- safety rules

- class behavior & organization

Prepare for lesson -- unit: no./lessons

- lesson: material to be covered

- how to arrange students

- lectures to cover

Actual work with class --convey concepts

~~whole-part-whole lecture~~

-demonstration

-pointed questions to student  
and answers

-students go to area to  
put into action new

concepts (game situation  
or skill drills)

Review - questions

- individual help to those who need it

- preview of next meeting

2. Evaluate with Master Teacher

-- what worked?

-- what didn't?

-- how to better organize

-- did I meet ind. & class  
objectives?

-- was class really responsible?

-- was method as effective

-- how could I improve lesson  
content & method for future  
use?

5. Please give us an extensive global description of what you would do as a guidance counselor in providing guidance and counseling for a class of 25 students.

I would ask each student to briefly list his major concerns related to his particular area of interest-- after each student has listed his specific area I would attempt to outline those in areas of interest such as personality, class assignment, occupational goals, health concerns, life time ambitions, grades, problems in the home, in the school, with teachers, with parents, grades, personal problems in general -- I would set a time for each student to briefly meet with me and go over the goals and problems he had listed. I would attempt to review all the data that the student has listed about himself and also the permanent records, cumulative, health records, test scores, past performance, etc. I would meet with each student attempting to follow through his courses that are preventing him from success in his academic studies-- meet with his teachers, parents -- meet in small groups of specific interests.



Now please go back to your global description and number the sentences. Begin below to break down the global descriptions into important sub-tasks. Start with Sentence #1 and continue until you have completed analyzing your description.

1. --List all areas of concern

---

outline these and attempt to group them  
students may later meet as a group

---

-- personality  
occupations  
health  
ambitions

---

grades

---

parents

---

teachers  
subjects

---

personal problems

---

2. Meet with each student individually

---

discuss all aspects

---

what he wants to talk about

---

review with him all data

---

3. Review all test data

---

scores  
grades

---

past performance

---

teacher comments

---

samples of work

---

specific problems

---

4. Conference

---

parents  
teachers, etc.

---

---

---

APPENDIX C

KEYWORD-IN-CONTEXT INDEX  
OF A BEHAVIORAL ITEM POOL



4	APPROPRIATENESS	10	APPROVAL	5	APPROVED	19	APPROVES	1	APPROXIMATELY
1	APPROXIMATIONS	7	APTITUDE	1	APTITUDES	55	ARE	91	AREA
2	AREA-BASED	40	AREAS	1	AREAS	1	ARGUES	8	ARGUMENT
2	ARGUMENTS	33	ARISE	1	ARISES	7	ARRANGING	1	ARRANGEMENT
4	ARMS	22	AROUND	7	AROUSES	2	ARRANGE	1	ARRANGED
13	ARRANGEMENTS	98	ARRIVING	1	ARRANGING	1	ARRIVAL	1	ARRIVED
5	ARRIVES	2	ART	13	ART	5	ARTICLE	17	ARTICLES
3	ARTICULATE	2	ARTICULATES	15	ARTIST	1	ARTS	296	ASK
1	AS-NEEDED	1	ASCERTAIN	271	ASCERTAINED	14	ASPECTS	4	ASPIRATIONS
3	ASSEMBLE	8	ASSEMBLES	3	ASSEMBLES	7	ASSEMBLING	7	ASSEMBLY
1	ASSESS	20	ASSESS	2	ASSESSMENT	2	ASSIGN	26	ASSIGNED
4	ASSIGNING	33	ASSIGNMENT	2	ASSIGNMENT	41	ASSIGNMENTS	74	ASSIGNS
9	ASSIST	15	ASSISTANCE	6	ASSISTANT	2	ASSISTED	1	ASSISTING
191	ASSISTS	9	ASSOCIATE	1	ASSOCIATIVE	4	ASSURE	53	ASSUMES
1	ASKING	11	ASSURANCE	1	ASSURE	6	ATTAIN	184	AT
1	ATLETIC	1	ATMOSPHERE	1	ATTACKS	21	ATTAIN	2	ATTAINING
1	ATTAINMENT	1	ATTAINMENTS	39	ATTEMPT	42	ATTEND	2	ATTENDU
20	ATTENDANCE	14	ATTENDING	18	ATTENDS	2	ATTENTION	2	ATTENTIVE
5	ATTENTIVELY	3	ATTITUDE	1	ATTITUDES	1	ATTRACT	2	ATTRACTIVE
1	ATTRIBUTES	6	AUDIENCE	1	AUDIRLY	1	AUDIENCE	2	AUDIO
2	AUDIT	24	AUDITORY	1	AUTHENTICITY	1	AUTHORITARIAN	1	AUTHORITATIVE
2	AUDITORIUM	1	AUTHORITY	1	AUTHORIZED	7	AUTHORIZES	1	AUTHORS
1	AUTOMATICALLY	2	AUTONOMY	33	AUXILIARY	11	AVAILABILITY	79	AVAILABLE
1	AUTOCORRECTIVE	1	AVOID	9	AVOIDS	1	AWARDING	17	AWARE
1	AUTOCORRECTIVE	1	AWARENESS-APPROV	124	AWAY	1	BABYSITTER	10	BACK
7	AVERAGE	6	BACKGROUNDS	2	BACKS	5	RAD	1	BACKFLING
19	BACKGROUND	2	PALANCES	8	RANK	1	RANKS	2	BANKERS
2	BAD	1	PASSE	124	RASED	5	RASES	27	BASIC
39	BARRIERS	1	RATTLES	3	BE	1	BEARS	1	BEAR
1	BASIS	35	RECAUSE	12	BECOME	15	BECOMING	2	BECOMING
5	BEANS	1	REFORM	67	BEHIN	28	BEING	2	BELIEF
1	BEHAVIORALLY	1	BEHAVIOR	5	BEHIND	1	RESIDES	22	BEST
1	BEHAVIORALLY	3	BEHAVIORS	1	BENEFITS	1	BI-LINGUAL	1	BIAS
2	BELT-SHAPED	42	BETWEEN	6	BEYOND	4	PIBLIOGRAPHY	2	BIDDING
9	BETTER	2	BIDLOGRAPHIC	2	BIBLIOGRAPHIES	2	RINDS	10	BLACKBOARD
1	BIBLES	1	BIG	1	BIBLIODALLY	1	RLOCKS	1	BLOODS
1	BIG	1	PLANKS	1	BLEND	9	BOARDING	13	BOOY
1	BANK	21	POARD	1	ROOKLET	1	ROOALETS	31	BOOKS
1	BANKNESS	21	ROCK	2	ROED	1	RORING	1	BURGLARY
2	BAND	1	FOOTS	2	BOTH	1	ROUND	1	BOUNDARIES
2	BANDS	1	POSSY	3	BREADTH	6	PRIEFER	1	BREAKAGE
2	BANDS	9	PREINSTORMING	3	BRIEF	1	BROADER	1	BRIEFLY
14	BANDS	1	BREVITY	3	BROAD	3	BROADCASTING	1	BROADWAY
9	BANDS	13	BROTHERS	3	BROUGHT	19	RUDGET	2	BUDGETARY
1	BANDS	4	BUILDING	1	BUILDS	12	HULLETTIN	2	BULLETINS
5	BANDS	7	BUSINESS	3	BUSY	8	HUT	212	BY
1	BANDS	11	CABINETS	2	CALL	27	CALL	4	CALENDAR
5	BANDS	12	CALL	1	CALLED	3	CALLING	35	CALLS
1	BANDS	2	CAMERA	1	CAMERAS	1	CAMP	2	CAMPALION
1	BANDS	2	CAMPUS	32	CAN	1	CAN'T	3	CANVALES
2	BANDS	1	CANVASSES	5	CAPABILITIES	1	CAPABILITY	1	CAPACITIES
4	BANDS	1	CAPITALIZE	6	CARE	10	CARD	1	CARD-BOX
1	BANDS	31	CARDS	6	CARE	6	CAREER	3	CAREFUL
4	BANDS	11	CASE-STUDY	7	CARRIES	1	CARRY	3	CARRYING
5	BANDS	1	CASE-STUDY	1	CASES	1	CASUALLY	1	CAT
12	BANDS	1	CATALOG	11	CATALOGS	1	CATEGORIZES	1	CATEGORY
			CATALOG-REFLECT	3	CAUSES	2	CAUSING	2	CAUTIONS

3	CATALOG	11	CATALOGS	1	CATCH	1	CATEGORIZES	1	CATEGORY
1	CAUSE	2	CAUSE-EFFECT	2	CAUSES	2	CAUSING	2	CAUTIONS
25	CENTER	2	CENTERED	9	CENTERS	11	CENTRAL	21	CERTAIN
1	CERTAINTY	1	CERTIFICATED	3	CHAIR	2	CHAIRMAN	14	CHAIRS
1	CHALK	3	CHALKBOARD	6	CHALLENGE	2	CHALLENGES	21	CHALLENGING
1	CHAMBER	1	CHAMPIONS	8	CHANCE	1	CHANCES	21	CHANGE
28	CHANGES	3	CHANGING	3	CHANNELS	1	CHAOTIC	1	CHAPERONE
3	CHARACTERONES	1	CHAPTERS	4	CHARACTER	5	CHARACTERISTICS	4	CHARGE
1	CHARGED	1	CHARISHA	5	CHART	5	CHARTS	4	CHREATING
10	CHICK	2	CHECK-OUT	4	CHECKING	84	CHECKS	1	CHEERFUL
19	CHIEF	11	CHILD	1	CHILD+S	12	CHILDREN	1	CHIN
16	CHOICE	6	CHOICES	9	CHOOSE	26	CHOOSES	2	CHOOSING
4	CHORES	2	CHOSEN	2	CHOCLE	3	CIRCULARS	3	CIRCULATES
1	CIRCULATION	1	CITIED	1	CITIZENRY	2	CITIZENS	1	CITIZENS+S
3	CITY	1	CIVIC	1	CIVIL	1	CIVIL/LEGAL	4	CLAPS
8	CLARIFICATION	10	CLARIFIES	10	CLARIFY	5	CLARITY	2	CLASH
317	CLASS	22	CLASS-AS-GROUP	22	CLASSES	3	CLASSIFIED	2	CLASSIFIES
174	CLASSROOM	1	CLASSROOMS	1	CLASSWORK	3	CLAUSES	1	CLAY
4	CLAY	1	CLEAN-UP	1	CLEANING	6	CLEANS	4	CLEANUP
12	CLEAR	17	CLEARER	17	CLEARLY	1	CLEAR+WORK	12	CLEERICAL
1	CERICAL/HOUSEKE	1	CLEVER	22	CLIENTS	13	CLIMATE	1	CLIMAX
1	CLINIC	5	CLINICS	2	CLIPS	3	CLIP	2	CLOSE
8	CLOSE	2	CLOSELY	3	CLOSER	3	CLOSES	1	CLOSING
11	CLOSEURE	5	CLUB	3	CLUB+S	5	CLUBS	1	CLUBS
1	CLUSTERS	1	CO-OPERATING	2	CO-WORKERS	2	COACHES	2	COATS
4	CORE	5	CODES	2	CODIFICATION	1	CODING	1	COFFEE
2	CORNITION	5	COGNITIVE	2	COLD	15	COLLABORATES	1	COLLABORATIVE
1	COLLATES	1	COLLAGUE	15	COLLEAGUES	4	COLLECT	3	COLLECTING
5	COLLECTION	2	COLLECTIONS	34	COLLECTS	13	COLLEGE	1	COLLOCATES
3	COLLOQUIAL	2	COLOR	1	COLORFUL	1	COLORS	2	COMBINES
12	COVE	2	COMES	4	COMFORTABLE	1	COMFORTS	3	COMING
2	COVARD	1	COMHANDING	2	COMMANDS	4	COMMENTS	10	COMMENDS
2	COVENSURATE	7	COMMENT	2	COMMENTS	21	COMMENTS	2	COMMENCE
1	COVINCALLY	1	COMMISSION	2	COMMENTARY	3	COMMITMENTS	1	COMMERCE
15	COMMITTEE	23	COMMITTEES	9	COMMIT	3	COMMUNICATE	13	COMMUNITIES
1	COMMUNICATING	26	COMMUNICATION	2	COMMON	134	COMMUNITY	1	COMMUNITY+S
1	COMMUNITYS	1	COMPANIES	2	COMPANY	3	COMPANIBLE	4	COMPANIES
1	COMPULLED	4	COMPETENCE	2	COMPETENCY	3	COMPETENT	4	COMPETITION
4	COMPETITIVE	1	COMPPILE	6	COMPLIES	2	COMPILING	1	COMPLAIN
4	COMPLINT	7	COMPLAINIS	1	COMPLET	1	COMPLEMENTS	12	COMPLETE
5	COMPLETED	1	COMPLETEL	3	COMPLETES	1	COMPLETING	6	COMPLETION
1	COMPLEX	1	COMPLEXITY	2	COMPLIANCE	1	COMPLICATES	1	COMPLICES
1	COMPLEMENTARY	2	COMPLIMENTS	1	COMPONENT	5	COMPONENTS	1	COMPREHENSIVE
15	COMPOSITION	2	COMPOUND	7	COMPREHENDS	7	COMPREHENSION	1	COMPREHENSIVE
2	COMPUTE	7	COMPUTER	1	COMPUTER-ASSISTE	12	COMPUTERIZED	2	COMPUTERS
12	COMPUTES	8	COMPUTERATES	37	CONCEPT	4	CONCEPT/PRINCIPAL	61	CONCEPTS
6	CONCEPTUAL	13	CONCERN	1	CONCEPT/CONTROVE	4	CONCERNED	1	CONCERNING
4	CONCERN	1	CONCERTS	1	CONCISE	2	CONCISELY	6	CONCLUDES
6	CONCLUSION	4	CONCLUSIONS	4	CONCRETE	2	CONDESCENDING	1	CONDESCENDINGLY
12	CONDITION	3	CONDITIONAL	13	CONDITIONS	4	CONJUNCTIVE	6	CONDUIT
43	CONDUCTING	53	CONDUCTS	4	CONFER	26	CONFERENCE	36	CONFERENCES
1	CONFLICTING	3	CONFIDENCE	2	CONFIDENT	2	CONFIDENTIALITY	3	CONFIDENCE
1	CONFUSE	1	CONFLICTS	2	CONFIRMS	1	CONFIRMATIONS	1	CONFIRMS
1	CONGRATULATES	2	CONFUSED	2	CONFUSING	3	CONFUSION	1	CONFUSION
1	CONGRATULATIONS	1	CONJUNCTION	2	CONJUNCTIONS	1	CONNECTORS	2	CONNECTS
2	CONSEQUENCES	8	CONSIDER	1	CONSIDERATE	1	CONSCIOUSLY	1	CONSISTENT
1	CONSISTENTLY	1	CONSOLIDATE	1	CONSONANT	3	CONSIDERS	3	CONSTANTLY

87	DETERMINES	2	DETERMINING	1	DETRACT	18	DEVELOP	3	DEVELOPED
36	DEVELOPER	9	DEVELOPING	85	DEVELOPMENT	3	DEVELOPMENTAL	17	DEVELOPMENTS
96	DEVELOPS	4	DEVIANT	1	DEVIATE	2	DEVICE	3	DEVICES
1	DEVIL'S	4	DEVIATED	10	DEVISES	1	DEVSING	2	DEVEY
3	DIAGNOSE	16	DIAGNOSED	6	DIAGNOSES	9	DIAGNOSIS	6	DIAGNOSTIC
1	DIAGNOSTICALLY	2	DIAGRAM	5	DIAGRAMS	1	DIAL	3	DIALECT
3	DIALOGUE	1	DICTAPHONE	1	DICTATE	4	DICTATES	1	DICTATION
1	DICTATORIAL	2	DICTONARY	2	DID	2	DIFFERENCE	10	DIFFERENCES
30	DIFFERENT	2	DIFFERENTIATED	4	DIFFERENTIATES	2	DIFFERENTIATION	3	DIFFERENTLY
3	DIFFERING	18	DIFFICULT	11	DIFFICULTIES	13	DIFFICULTY	3	DISAPPOINTED
1	DIGRESSES	3	DIGRESSION	9	DIGRESSIONS	16	DIMINISHING	9	DIRECT
17	DIRECTED	3	DIRECTING	3	DIRECTIONS	16	DIRECTIONS	9	DIRECITY
5	DIRECTOR	64	DIRECTS	3	DISABILITY	1	DIRECING	1	DISAGREEMENT
5	DISAGREES	5	DISAPPROVAL	1	DISAPPROVES	1	DISAGREEMENT	1	DISAGREEMENTS
1	DISAGREES	3	DISCIPLINARY	37	DISCIPLINES	4	DISAPPEARS	1	DISAPPEARANCES
7	DISCOURAGES	3	DISCOURTEOUS	10	DISCOVER	2	DISCOVERING	7	DISCOVERS
12	DISCOVERY	2	DISCREPANCIES	10	DISCRETION	1	DISCRIMINATE	1	DISCRIMINATION
33	DISCUSS	7	DISCUSSED	147	DISCUSSES	1	DISCUSSING	144	DISCUSSION
17	DISCUSSIONS	1	DISDAIN	1	DISENGAGES	1	DISGUSTED	1	DISCIPLINE
1	DISJOINTED	1	DISLIKES	2	DISMISSAL	1	DISMISSALS	2	DISORDER
1	DISORDER	3	DISORGANIZED	1	DISPARAGINGLY	21	DISPLAYS	1	DISPLEASED
1	DISPLEASURE	1	DISPOSITION	3	DISPUTE	2	DISPUTES	3	DISPUTING
1	DISRUPT	1	DISRUPTING	1	DISRUPTION	10	DISRUPTIVE	1	DISSATISFIED
1	DISSIMULATE	18	DISSEMINATES	1	DISSEMINATING	1	DISSEMINATION	1	DISSIMILAR
2	DISTINCTLY	6	DISTINGUISHES	2	DISTRACTING	1	DISTRACTINGLY	2	DISTANCE
1	DISTRACTIONS	3	DISTRIBUTE	1	DISTRIBUTE	39	DISTRIBUTES	2	DISTRACTORY
17	DISTRIBUTION	28	DISTRICT	2	DISTRIBUTED	1	DISTRIBUTING	11	DISTRIBUTION
3	DISTURBANCE	6	DISTURBED	5	DISTURRING	1	DISTURBS	1	DISTURBING
3	DIVERGENT	1	DIVERSE	1	DIVERSITY	1	DIVERGING	1	DITTO
2	DIVIDES	4	DIVISION	1	DIVISIONS	1	DIVISIVE	1	DIVIDE
3	DOCTOR	41	DOES	2	DOESN'T	6	DOING	17	DO
1	DOMINANCE	1	DOMINATE	3	DOMINATING	4	DOMINANT	2	DOMAIN
1	DOMINATIONS	13	DONE	1	DOMINORS	4	DOOR	1	DOOR
1	DOUBLE	2	DOUBT	19	DOWN	1	DOWNGRADE	1	DOWNGRADE
1	DRAFT	4	DRAFTS	2	DRAMA	2	DRAMATIC	1	DRAMATICS
1	DRAMATIZE	6	DRAW	1	DRAWERS	8	DRAWING	1	DRAWINGS
3	DRESSES	1	DRAFT	10	DRILL	17	DRILLS	1	DRIVES
1	DROP	1	DROP-OUT	6	DROP-OUTS	1	DRUG	1	DRY
1	DROP	2	DUE	1	DUPPLICATE	5	DURING	2	DUAL
2	DUPPLICATES	2	DUPPLICATOR	1	DUPPLICATORS	138	DYNAMIC	2	DUALITY
2	DUPPLICATING	2	DUTY	2	DYNAMIC	4	DYNAMICS	110	DUALITY
33	DUTIES	4	DUTY	1	DYNAMIC	1	EARN	1	EACH
5	EARTHQUAKE	5	EARTHQUAKE	1	EARN	4	EASILY	4	EARNINGS
1	EARTHQUAKES	1	ECOLOGY	2	EASE	2	EASY	1	EASINESS
2	EATING	1	EDITORIAL	1	ECONOMIC	4	EDUC	1	EDUCATIONAL
2	EDIT	1	EDITORIAL	1	EDITS	4	EDUCATION	19	EDUCATION
60	EDUCATIONAL	1	EDUCATORS	4	EFFECT	7	EFFECTIVE	14	EFFECTIVELY
14	EFFECTIVENESS	3	EFFECTS	2	EFFICIENCY	1	EFFICIENT	4	EFFECTIVELY
6	EFFORT	10	EFFORTS	1	EITHER	6	ELABORATES	1	ELABORATING
1	ELECT	1	ELECTED	3	ELECTION	1	ELABORATION	1	ELECTRICAL
1	ELECTRONIC	1	ELEMENT	7	ELEMENTARY	7	ELEMENTS	5	ELECTRIC
15	ELECTS	3	ELEMENTS	3	EMBARRASSED	1	EMBARRASSED	1	EMERGED
1	EMERGENCIES	11	EMERGENCY	3	EMERGENCY	12	EMOTIONAL	1	EMOTIONALLY
7	EMPHASIS	2	EMPHATIC	13	EMPATHY	13	EMPHASIS	6	EMPHATICALLY
24	EMPHASIZES	1	EMPHATIC	1	EMPLOYED	1	EMPLOYEE	3	EMPLOYEES
11	EMPLOYMENT	1	FN	2	ENABLE	1	ENABLING	1	EMPLOYMENT
14	ENCOUNTER	3	ENCOURAGE	1	ENCOURAGED	6	ENCOURAGEMENT	228	ENCOURAGES
19	END	5	END-PRODUCT	2	ENDEAVORS	5	ENDS	1	ENGLISHED
1	ENFORCE	1	ENFORCEMENT	3	ENFORCES	1	ENGAGE	1	ENGAGED

1	CONSTRAINED	1	CONSTRUCTION	1	CONSTRUCTIVELY	23	CONSTRUCTS	11	CONSULTANT
1	CONSULTATION	1	CONSULTANTS	1	CONTRIAGIOUS	1	CONTAINING	19	CONSULTS
16	CONTACT	16	CONTACT	1	CONTINENTS	1	CONTEXT	1	CONTEMPLATING
61	CONTINGENCY	61	CONTINGENT	1	CONTINUALLY	6	CONTEXT	1	CONTEXTS
4	CONTINUOUS	4	CONTINUAL	2	CONTINUOUSLY	2	CONTINUATION	4	CONTINUE
5	CONTINUOUS	5	CONTINUOUS	2	CONTRADICTION	1	CONTRACT	2	CONTRACTS
2	CONTRADICTORY	2	CONTRADICTORY	1	CONTRADICTORY	1	CONTRADICTS	1	CONTRARY
1	CONTRASTIVE	1	CONTRASTIVE	5	CONTRIBUTE	14	CONTRIBUTES	11	CONTRIBUTION
2	CONTRASTING	2	CONTRASTIVE	2	CONTRIVES	6	CONTROL	1	CONTROLLED
3	CONTRIBUTIONS	3	CONTRIVALS	2	CONTRIVERSAL	2	CONTROL	1	CONTROLLED
3	CONTRIBUTING	3	CONTRIVALS	2	CONVERGENT	3	CONTRIVERSY	1	CONVENTION
1	CONVENTIONAL	1	CONVENTIONS	9	CONVINCE	1	CONVINGES	1	CONVENTION
3	CONVEY	3	CONVEYS	1	COOPERATION	2	CONVINGES	1	CONVERSATION
27	COOPERATES	27	COOPERATING	1	COORDINATING	4	COOPERATIVE	2	CONVERSATION
57	COORDINATE	57	COORDINATES	26	COPE	1	COOPERATION	20	CONVERSATION
2	COORDINATORS	2	COORDINATIONS	4	CORRECT	2	CORRECTNESS	1	CORRECTIVE
1	CORRECTION	1	CORRECTIONS	2	CORRECTLY	2	CORRECTNESS	2	CORRECTIVE
3	CORRELATES	3	CORRESPOND	4	CORRESPONDENCE	2	COST	2	COST-EFFECTIVENESS
3	COSTS	3	CORRESPOND	3	CUSTOMS	2	COT	1	COSTS
4	COULD	4	COSTUME	10	COUNCIL	2	COUNSELOR	10	COUNSELOR
24	COUNSELING	24	COULDN'T	17	COUNSELORS	18	COUNSELOR	10	COUNSELORS
1	COUNTING	1	COUNTY	104	COURSE	3	COURSE-RELATED	18	COURSES
1	COURT	1	COURTEOUS	1	COURTEOUSLY	2	COURTESY	8	COURTESY
18	COVERED	18	COVERING	9	COVERS	1	CRACKERS	1	COVER
2	CRAYON	2	CREATE	1	CREATED	19	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	CREATION	1	CREATIVE	1	CREATED	19	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	CRIPPLED	1	CRISIS	33	CREATIVITY	1	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
5	CRITICALLY	5	CRISIS	33	CRITICIA	1	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	CRITICIZING	1	CRITICISM	1	CRITICISMS	6	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	CRUSH	1	CRITIQUE	4	CROSS	14	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	CULTIVATION	1	CRYING	3	CUE	7	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	CUPBOARD	1	CULTIVATE	3	CULTURAL	47	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
13	CURRICULAR	13	CUPS	1	CURIOSITY	2	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	CURVE	1	CURRICULUM	1	CURRICULUM-RENEW	1	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
4	CYCLE	4	CURRICULUM	2	CUSTODIAN	1	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
25	DATE	25	CURRICULUM	2	DAILY-DEMAND	14	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
2	DEALING	2	DAILY	1	DAUGHTER	1	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	DEALING	1	DAYS	6	DAYS	1	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	DEALING	1	DEALS	1	DEALT	1	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	DEALING	1	DECIDE	1	DECIDED	28	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	DEALING	1	DECISION	2	DECISION-MAKING	7	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	DEALING	1	DECORATE	1	DECORATING	3	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	DEALING	1	DEDUCTIVE	1	DEFATING	2	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	DEALING	1	DEFERS	1	DEFICIENCIES	30	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	DEALING	1	DEFINE	1	DEFINER	3	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	DEALING	1	DEFINITION	1	DEFINITIONS/MEAN	5	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	DEALING	1	DELEGATION	11	DELIBERATE	2	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	DEALING	1	DEMANDING	1	DEMANDS	2	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	DEALING	1	DEMONSTRATIONS	18	DEMONSTRATIVE	2	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	DEALING	1	DEPONENTS	3	DEPARTMENT	2	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	DEALING	1	DEPENDENT	3	DEPENDS	2	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	DEALING	1	DEPRESSED	1	DEPRIVED	2	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	DEALING	1	DERIVE	1	DERIVES	2	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	DEALING	1	DESCRIPTION	2	DESCRIPTIONS	17	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	DEALING	1	DESIGNATE	2	DESIGNATED	47	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	DEALING	1	DESIGNS	2	DESIGNED	1	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	DEALING	1	DESIRE	12	DESIRED	1	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	DEALING	1	DESKS	1	DESTRUCTIVELY	2	CRACKERS	1	COVERS
1	DEALING	1	DETECTIONS	15	DETERMINE	1	CRACKERS	1	COVERS











27	LARGE	1	LARGE-GROUP	7	LAST	1	LATE	2	LATE-BOOK
1	LATER	12	LATEST	2	LAUGH	5	LAUGHS	1	LAUNDERS
5	LAY	8	LAY	2	LAYS	2	LEAD	11	LEADER
6	LEADERS	9	LEADERSHIP	6	LEADING	21	LEADS	1	LEAGUE
14	LEARN	7	LEARN	7	LEARNED	5	LEARNER	1	LEARNER-SUPPORTI
204	LEARNERS	14	LEARNING	7	LEARNING/LISTENI	22	LEARNS	17	LEAST
8	LEAVE	8	LEAVES	3	LEAVING	2	LEAVING	113	LECTURE
7	LECTURED	10	LECTURER	24	LECTURES	10	LECTURING	1	LECTURN
1	LEO	1	LEFT	6	LEGAL	1	LEGIBLY	1	LEGISLATES
1	LEICESTERSHIRE	13	LENGTH	4	LESS	1	LESSON	241	LESSON
1	LESSON'S	20	LESSONS	7	LETS	1	LETTER	6	LETTERS
36	LEVEL	4	LEVELS	9	LEVER	1	LIABILITY	24	LIAISON
12	LIBRARIAN	59	LIBRARY	1	LIFE	1	LIFE-PATTERN	5	LIGHT
7	LINE	1	LINED	1	LINES	3	LIMIT	4	LIMITATIONS
1	LIMITED	18	LIMITS	7	LINE	2	LINES	2	LINGUISTICS
1	LINKS	1	LIPS	33	LIST	1	LIST/CARD	1	LISIEN
16	LISTENING	29	LISTENS	1	LISTLESSNESS	22	LISIS	13	LITERATURE
4	LITTLE	1	LIVE	2	LIVED	2	LIVES	12	LIVING
3	LOAD	1	LOADS	2	LOAN	4	LOANS	14	LOCAL
3	LOCALLY	6	LOCATE	3	LOCATED	6	LOCATES	4	LOCATING
6	LOCATION	2	LOCKED	3	LOCKERS	1	LOCKS	2	LOGIC
4	LOGICAL	1	LOGISTICAL	13	LONG	2	LONGER-INTERVALI	5	LOOK
3	LOOKING	25	LOOKS	1	LOOP	1	LOSE	3	LOSES
1	LOT	3	LOW	1	LOW-ABILITY-GROU	14	LOWERS	1	LUCID
15	MACHINES	25	LUNCH	3	LUNCHROOM	15	MACHINE	5	MACHINERY
8	MAINTAIN	11	MADE	3	LUNCHMAGAZINES	1	MAIL	27	MAJOR
3	MAJORITY	33	MAKE	9	MAINTAINS	10	MAINTENANCE	32	MAKING
1	MANS	1	MANAGEABLE	134	MAKE-UP	132	MAKES	14	MANAGER
2	MANAGES	1	MANAGERY	6	MANAGEMENT	1	MANIFESTS	1	MANIPULATES
1	MANIPULATION	1	MANDATORY	22	MANIFESTED	2	MANIFESTS	3	MANUAL
9	MANY	4	MANIPULATIVE	3	MANNER	5	MARKS	1	MASSE
1	MASSED	27	MATCH	2	MARK	2	MASHERD	1	MASTERY
2	MAT	1	MATCHES	9	MASTER-T	2	MATCHING	1	MATERIAL
379	MATERIALS	1	MATERIALS--ACTIV	2	MATCHES	4	MATH	216	MATERIAL
1	MATRIX	30	MATTER	1	MATH	1	MATH-SCIENCE	1	MATHEMATICAL
1	MATURATION	1	MATURITY	1	MATTER-OF-FACT	2	MATTER/SKILLS	9	MATTERS
1	MAKER	1	MEALS	13	MAXIMIZE	2	MAXIMUM	10	MAY
19	MEANS	3	MEASURABLE	8	MEANING	3	MEANINGFUL	12	MEANINGS
1	MEASURING	3	MECHANICS	89	MEASURE	1	MEASURED	1	MEASURES
4	MEDICAL	1	MEDICATION	1	MEDIA	1	MEDIA-CLASSROOM	2	MEDIATOR
26	MEETING	93	MEETINGS	50	MEDICINE	1	WEEKLY	20	MEDIA
1	MEMBERSHIPS	1	MEMORIZED	2	MEETS	1	MEMBER	31	MEMBERS
6	MENTAL	1	MERIT	1	MEMORIZES	21	MEMORY	3	MEMOS
3	MESSY	4	METHOD	26	MERIT-DEMERIT	1	MESS	2	MESSAGES
57	METHODS	2	MICRO-TEACHING	1	METHOD	1	METHODOLOGIES	4	METHODOLOGY
1	MILES	1	MILK	3	MICROPHONE	2	MIDULE	7	NIGHT
2	MIND	17	MINIMAL	10	MIMEOGRAPH	1	MIMEOGRAPHING	1	PHOTOS
1	MINOR	1	MINORITY	10	MINIMIZE	1	MINIMIZES	3	MINIMUM
1	MISBEHAVIOR	2	MISCONCEPTION*S	1	MINUTES	2	MIRACOR	2	MISBEHAVING
1	MISUNDERSTANDING	2	MIXED	1	MISPRONOUNCES	2	MISTAKE	13	MISTAKES
1	MOBILIZES	1	MOD	3	MIXES	1	MIXTURE	3	MOBILIZE
2	MODELS	1	MODERN	3	MODALITY	12	MODE	2	MODEL
1	MODIFIERS	5	MODIFIES	3	MODS	6	MODIFICATION	2	MODIFICATIONS
1	MODULATES	1	MODULATES	3	MODIFY	1	MODIFYING	2	MODULAR
15	MOONEY	2	MODULATION	3	MODULO	1	MOMENT	1	MODULAY
31	MONTHLY	1	MONTHS	1	MONITOR	2	MONITORIAL	11	MONITORING
1	MONTHLY	4	MONOPOLIZE	1	MONOPOLIZING	1	MONOPOLY	1	MONOTONE
			MOOD	1	MORAL	2	MORALE	20	MORE



16	PARENT	1	PARENT-HOME-COMM	1	PARENT-PARENT	2	PARENT-SCHOOL	2	PARENT-TEACHER
16	PARENT-TEACHING	145	PARENTS	3	PARENTS*	1	PARK	1	PARLIAMENTARY
16	PART	1	PART-TIME	1	PARTIALITY	1	PARTICIPANT	1	PARTICIPANTS
24	PARTICIPATE	1	PARTICIPATED	62	PARTICIPATES	3	PARTICIPATING	28	PARTICIPATION
19	PARTICULAR	1	PARTICULARS	7	PARTIES	3	PARTLY	1	PARTNERS
6	PARTS	1	PARTY	3	PASS	1	PASS-FAIL	2	PASSAGE
2	PASSED	13	PASSES	4	PASSIVE	7	PAST	1	PASTES
2	PATHOLOGY	1	PATIENCE	2	PATIENT	1	PATROLS	7	PATRIEN
9	PATTERNS	1	PAUSE	3	PAUSES	2	PAY	1	PAYS
1	PEDAGOGICAL	1	PEDANTIC	1	PEEP	4	PEER	1	PEERS
1	PEH	14	PENALTIES	14	PEOPLE	4	PER	3	PERCEIVES
2	PERCENT	2	PERCENTAGE	2	PERCEPTIONS	8	PERFORM	98	PERFORMANCE
4	PERFORMANCES	2	PERFORMED	1	PERFORMING	32	PERFORMS	41	PERIQU
10	PERIODIC	26	PERIODICALLY	7	PERIODICALS	13	PERIODS	1	PERIPHERAL
5	PERMANENT	8	PERMISSION	2	PERMISSIVE	13	PERMIT	7	PERMITS
1	PEROGATIVES	1	PERSONALITY	14	PERSON	40	PERSONAL	1	PERSONALITIES
5	PERSONALITY	3	PERSONALTY	47	PERSONNEL	2	PERSONS	1	PERSPECTIVE
1	PERSPECTIVES	1	PETITIONED	3	PETAINEING	2	PETINENCE	17	PERTINENT
1	PESIMISTIC	1	PETITIONED	1	PETS	2	PHASE	1	PHASES
3	PHILOSOPHICAL	1	PHILOSOPHIES	7	PHILOSOPHY	2	PHONE	1	PHONES
1	PHONETICALLY	1	PHONICS	1	PHONOGRAPH	1	PHONY	1	PHOTOGRAPHY
3	PHRASE	9	PHRASES	1	PHRASING	7	PHYS	25	PHYSICAL
5	PHYSICALLY	1	PICKETS	1	PICKS	7	PICTURE	20	PICTURES
1	PIECE	1	PIECES	8	PILOT	1	PITY	12	PLACE
1	PIAGED	15	PLACEMENT	6	PLACEMENTS	18	PLACES	1	PLACING
1	PIAGIARTISM	1	PLAIN	59	PLAN	22	PLANNED	56	PLANNING
298	PLAYS	1	PLANS/UNITS	9	PLANT	1	PLANTS	1	PLATFORM
1	P-AVAILABLE	22	PLAY	3	PLAYED	4	PLAYER	4	PLAYGROUND
9	P-LAYING	21	PLAYS	1	PLAYTHINGS	3	PLEASANT	1	PLEASANTLY
1	PLOTS	1	PLUGS	1	PLURAL	1	POEMS	13	POINT
4	POINTED	1	POINTING	77	POINTS	1	POISE	1	POISONS
3	POLICE	1	POLICES	21	POLICIES	15	POLICY	1	POLICY-MAKING
2	POLITICIANS	1	POLITICS	1	POLLS	1	POLYSYLLABIC	22	PUGH
1	POORLY	1	POPULAR	3	POPULATION	1	PORIFOLIO	1	PORIFOLIOS
5	POSSES	10	POSITION	2	POSITIONS	20	POSITIVE	2	POSITIVELY
1	POSSESSIONS	2	POSSIBILITIES	5	POSSIBILITY	22	POSSIBLE	3	POST
1	POST-GRADUATE	4	POST-TEST	2	POSTERS	2	POSTPONE	3	POSTPONES
1	POSTULATES	1	POSTURE	16	POTENTIAL	1	POTPOURRI	1	POWER
1	PPRS	1	PRACTICA	19	PRACTICAL	1	PRACTICALITY	1	PRACTICE
13	PRACTICES	1	PRACTICUM	9	PRASE	21	PRAISES	18	PRAISING
1	PRATICE	2	PRE-	1	PRE-ARRANGED	1	PRE-INSTRUCTIONA	1	PRE-PLANNED
3	PRE-PRACTICUM	3	PRE-SCHOOL	5	PRE-SERVICE	18	PRE-TEST	1	PRE-ARRANGED
1	PRE-ASSIGNED	1	PRECEDED	1	PRECISE	2	PRECONCEIVED	1	PREDISCUSS
1	PREDETERMINED	1	PREDICT	1	PREDICTABLE	2	PREDICTION	1	PREDISCUSS
2	PREDDYMANANTLY	2	PREFERENCE	3	PREFERENCES	2	PREFINITIAL	4	PREFERRED
1	PREFERS	1	PREJUDICE	2	PREFJUDICES	2	PREFLIMINARY	1	PREFATURE
1	PREOCCUPIED	20	PREPARATION	12	PREPARF	25	PREPARED	142	PREPARES
14	PREPARING	2	PREPLANNED	3	PREPOSITIONAL	3	PRESCRIBED	6	PRESCRIBES
13	PRESCRIPTION	1	PRESCRIPTIONS	2	PRESCRIPTIVE	39	PRESENCE	1	PRESENT
88	PRESENTATION	11	PRESENTATIONS	10	PRESENTED	7	PRESENTING	58	PRESENTS
1	PRESTES	1	PRESS	1	PRESSURE	1	PRESSES	1	PRETENS
4	PREVIEW	11	PREVENT	1	PREVENTION	1	PREVENTIVE	3	PREVENTS
1	PRIMARY	31	PREVIEWING	1	PREVIEWS	31	PREVIOUS	4	PREVIOUSLY
4	PRINCIPLES	1	PRINCIPAL	1	PRINCIPAL*S	8	PRINCIPALS	3	PRINCIPLE
12	PRIORITIES	3	PRINTED	5	PRINTED-NONPRINT	2	PRINTS	9	PRIOR
11	PRIVILEGES	2	PRIORITY	1	PRIVACY	1	PROBING	3	PRIVATELY
3	PROBLEM-CLASS	1	PROB	4	PROBES	143	PROBLEM	1	PROBLEM-SCHOOL
1		1	PROBLEM-COMMUNIT	1	PROBLEM-HOME	2	PROBLEM-ORIENTED	1	

11	164	24	66	1
PROBLEM-SOLVING	PROBLEMS	PROCEDURE	PROCEDURES	PROCEED
PROCEEDING	PROCEEDS	PROCESS	PROCESSES	PROCESSED
PROCUREMENT	PROCURES	PRODS	PRODUCE	PRODUCED
PRODUCES	PRODUCT	PRODUCTION	PRODUCTIVITY	PRODUCTION
PROFESSIONAL	PROFESSIONALS	PROFICIENCY	PROFICIENCY	PROFICIENT
PROFILES	PROFITABLE	PROFITED	PROGRAM	PROGRAMS
PROGRAMMED	PROGRAMMERS	PROGRAMMING	PROGRAMS	PROGRAMS
PROGRESS	PROGRESSION	PROGRESSIVELY	PROJECT	PROJECTED
PROJECTING	PROJECTIONS	PROJECTOR	PROJECTORS	PROJECTS
PROLONG	PROMISING	PROMOTE	PROMOTES	PROMOTING
PROPT	PROMPTLY	PROMPTS	PROMPTLY	PROMPTLY
PROPERTIES	PROOFREAD	PROPP	PROPOSAL	PROPOSED
PROPOSES	PROPERTIES	PROPP	PROPOSALS	PROPOSED
PROSPECTIVE	PROPOSITIONS	PROPRIETY	PROPRIETY	PROPRIETY
PROVIDING	PROTECTION	PROTECTS	PROPER	PROPERLY
PROVOKES	PROVISION	PROVISIONS	PROPOSALS	PROPOSED
PSYCHOLOGY	PSYCH	PSYCHIATRIC	PROPS	PROPS
PUBLICIZES	PTA	PUBLIC	PROVIDE	PROVIDES
PUNCTUATION	PUBLICLY	PUBLISHED	PROVOCATIVE	PROVOCATE
PUNITIVE	PUNISHES	PUNISHING	PSYCHOLOGICAL	PSYCHOLOGICALLY
PURCHASE	PUNISHES	PUNISHMENT	PUBLICATIONS	PUBLICATIONS
PURPOSELY	PUNS	PUPILS	PULLS	PUNCTUAL
PUSHES	PURCHASED	PURCHASE	PURCHASES	PUNISHMENTS
Puzzled	PURPOSES	PURSUED	PURSUING	PURPOSE
QUALIFYING	PUT	PUTS	Puzzle	PURSUING
QUERY	PUZZLEMENT	QUALITY	QUALIFIED	PUZZLE
QUESTIONNAIRES	QUALITIES	QUESTION-ANSWER	QUALIFIED	QUALITIES
QUETLY	QUESTIONS	QUICKENS	QUICKLY	QUALITIES
QUIET	QUIETS	QUIZ	QUIZZES	QUIET
RAID	RAISE	RAISERS	RAISING	QUIZ
RANDOM	RANGE	RAP	RAPID	RADIO
RATE	RATES	RATHER	RATING	RADIO
RATIONALE	RE-ESTABLISH	RE-EVALUATES	RATHER	RAPPORT
RE-WRITTEN	REACH	REACHED	REACHING	RATIONAL
REACTION	REACTIONS	REACTS	REACHING	RATIONAL
READEMS	READIES	READILY	REACTS	REACT
READING	READS	READY	READS	REACT
REALITY	REALIZATIONS	REALIZES	REALISTIC	REACT
REARRANGES	REASON	REASONABLE	REALISTIC	REACT
REASSURANCE	REASSURE	REASSURES	RECALLS	RECALLS
RECEIVE	RECEIVED	RECEIVES	RECALLS	RECALLS
RECIPROCAL	RECITATION	RECITE	RECALLS	RECALLS
RECOGNIZES	RECOMMENDATIONS	RECOMMENDATION	RECALLS	RECALLS
RECORD	RECORDED	RECORDED	RECALLS	RECALLS
RECORDINGS	RECORDS	RECREATIONAL	RECALLS	RECALLS
RECURSIVE	RECYCLING	RED	RECALLS	RECALLS
REIRECT	REDIRECTS	REDISTRIBUTES	RECALLS	RECALLS
REFERENCE	REFERENCE	REFERENCES	RECALLS	RECALLS
REFERRAL	REFERRALS	REFERRED	RECALLS	RECALLS
REFINING	REFLECTS	REFOCUSES	RECALLS	RECALLS
REFRAINS	REFRESHING	REFRESHMENTS	RECALLS	RECALLS
REGARD	REGARDING	REGARDING	RECALLS	RECALLS
REGULAR	REGULARLY	REGULARS	RECALLS	RECALLS
REINFORCEMENT	REINFORCER	REGULATES	RECALLS	RECALLS
REITERATION	REJECTING	REJECTS	RECALLS	RECALLS
RELATES	RELATING	RELATION	RECALLS	RECALLS
RELATIONSHIPS	RELATIVE	RELAX	RECALLS	RECALLS

1	RELEASED	3	RELEASES	2	RELEVANCE	1	RELEVANCE-RATIO	1	RELEVANCY
44	RELEVANT	1	RELIABLE	2	RELIANCE	1	RELIEFS	2	RELOCATES
1	RELY	6	REMAIN	11	REMARK	2	REMARK	13	REMARKS
22	REMEDIATION	14	REMEMBER	1	REMEMBER	1	REMEMBERING	1	REMINISCING
5	REMINDS	1	REMOVAL	1	REMOVE	1	REMOVED	7	REMOVES
1	RENTED	1	PENTS	4	REPAIR	1	REPAIRING	7	REPAIRS
5	REPEAT	4	REPEATED	4	REPEATEDLY	1	REPEATING	17	REPEATS
5	REPEITION	1	REPEITIONS	1	REPHRASE	4	REPHRASES	1	REPHRASING
1	REPRESENTS	1	REPLICATE	3	REPLIES	19	REPLIES	3	REPUTING
66	REPRESENTATION	1	REPRESENTATION	2	REPRESENTATIVES	13	REPRESENTS	3	REPRESSSES
7	REPRIMAND	4	REPRIMANDING	9	REPRIMANDS	2	REPRODUCE	2	REPROVES
46	REQUEST	7	REQUESTED	3	REQUESTING	47	REQUESTS	6	REQUIRE
13	REQUIRED	15	REQUIREMENTS	12	REQUIRES	12	REQUIRING	6	REQUISITE
7	REQUISITION	1	REQUISITIONS	90	RESEARCH	28	RESEARCHES	1	RESENT
2	RESENTS	2	RESERVATION	3	RESERVE	1	RESERVES	1	RESIDENT
1	RESENTIALLY	11	RESIDENTS	1	RESISTANCE	1	RESISTS	3	RESOLVE
1	RESOLVED	1	RESOLVES	1	RESOLVING	2	RESORT	3	RESOLUTIONS
1	RESOURCEFUL	86	RESOURCES	2	RESOURCES/SERVICE	89	RESOURCES	89	RESUMES
1	RESPOND	6	RESPONDENT	2	RESPONDING	5	RESPECT	6	RESPECTS
29	RESPONSES	34	RESPONSIBILITIES	66	RESPONSIBILITY	12	RESPECTS	73	RESPONSE
4	RESPONSIVE	12	REST	1	RESTAURANT	1	RESTAURANTS	77	RESPONSIBLE
2	RESTLESS	1	RESTORE	1	RESTRAINS	3	RESTATES	1	RESTATING
2	RESTRICTURES	1	RESTS	29	RESULTS	1	RESTRICTIONS	1	RESTRICTS
1	RETARDATION	6	RETARDED	1	RETEACH	1	RETAIL	1	RETAKE
1	RETRIEVAL	3	RETRIEVE	1	RETRIEVES	2	RETRIEVAL	1	RETRIEVAL
12	RETURNS	3	REVEAL	2	REVEALED	15	RETRIEVING	4	RETURN
1	REVISED	1	REVEALING	2	REVEALS	37	REVEALS	4	RETURN
5	REVISES	2	REVISION	85	REVIEWS	2	REVISE	37	REVIEWS
1	RECORDS	1	REWORKING	4	REWRITES	3	REWARD	5	REWARDS
2	RETORICAL	4	RYME	2	RYTHES	1	REWRITING	1	REWRITTEN
2	RIDICULES	9	RIGHT	6	RIGHTS	1	RYTHM	4	RICH
26	ROLE	2	POLE-PLAYING	10	ROLES	20	RIGOROUSLY	1	ROCKS
31	ROOM	10	ROOMS	19	ROOFD	2	ROLL	1	ROOMS
1	ROUTE	1	ROUGH	1	ROUTED	2	ROTATES	1	ROTATING
2	ROW	1	ROWS	19	ROUTE	4	ROUTINES	1	ROUTINIZED
1	ROW-OFFS	1	RUN-ON	2	RULE	28	RULES	2	RUW
1	S	1	RUN-ON	6	RUNNING	9	RUNS	3532	S
1	S	15	S-S	1	S-PODY	1	S-PARENT	1	S-PLANNING
5	S-S	4	S-T	1	SABRATICAL	1	SAFE	1	SAFEKEEPING
7	SAFETY	3	SAID	1	SAKE	3	SALARY	1	SALIENT
12	SAMPLE	5	SAMPLE	3	SAMPLES	3	SALASH	6	SARCASITIC
12	SARCASTICALLY	4	SATISFACTION	1	SATISFIES	1	SATISFYING	1	SAVE
1	SAVES	7	SAY	1	SAYING	11	SAYS	1	SCALE
1	SCALD	4	SCANS	34	SCHEDULE	6	SCHEDULEO	1	SCALE
9	SCHEDJLING	1	SCHOLARLY	1	SCHEDULE	76	SCHEDULES	4	SCHEDULES
236	SCHOOL	18	SCHOOL+S	1	SCHOLARSHIP	4	SCHOLARSHIPS	4	SCHOLASTIC
30	SCHOOLS	2	SCIENCE	1	SCHOOL-COMMUNITY	1	SCHOOL/CLASS	1	SCHOOLING
15	SCORES	3	SCORING	2	SCOLDS	8	SCOPE	1	SCORE
4	SCORES	1	SCRIPT	1	SCOUR	2	SCOPES	2	SCORES
1	SEARCHING	4	SEAT	2	SCUFFLING	2	SCRAMCH	9	SCRATCHES
1	SECRETARIES	7	SEATED	9	SEATED	2	SEATING	6	SEATS
5	SECURES	6	SECRETARY	3	SECONDARY	1	SECONDHAND	1	SECRETARIAL
1	SEEM	8	SECURITY	1	SECTIONAL	4	SECTIONS	2	SECURE
14	SELECT	35	SEEMS	2	SEE	2	SEEK	10	SEEMS
1	SELECTIVE	12	SELECTED	6	SEES	2	SEGMENT	2	SEGMENTS
2	SELF-CONFIDENCE	4	SELECTIVELY	17	SEES	17	SEGMENT	1	SEGMENTS
1	SELF-DIRECTION	3	SELF-CONTROL	57	SELECTS	16	SELF	2	SELF-ANALYSIS
1	SELF-DIRECTION	4	SELF-CORRECTING	3	SELF-CORRECTING	1	SELF-CRITICISM	1	SELF-DIRECTED
2	SELF-EMBEDDED	6	SELF-EVALUATION	4	SELF-EVALUATION	1	SELF-EVIDENT	1	SELF-EXPRESSION
			SELF-INSTRUCTION	1	SELF-PIITYING	1	SELF-RESPONSIBL	2	SELF-SPACE



SELF-SUPPORTING	SELF-TEST	SELF-LECTURE/DIS	SELF-WORTH	SELL
2 SEMANTIC	1 SEMESTER	1 SEMI-LECTURE/DIS	1 SEMINARS	1 SELL
1 SEMANTIC	2 SEMESTER	1 SEMI-LECTURE/DIS	6 SEMINARS	11 SEVATE
2 SEMANTIC	14 SENDS	23 SENIOR	1 SENIOR-T/DEPARTM	6 SEVSE
1 SEMANTIC	15 SENSIBILITY	1 SENSORIAL	1 SENSOY	2 SEVI
7 SENTENCE	36 SENTENCES	1 SEPARATE	1 SEPARATELY	2 SEPARATES
9 SEQUENCE	1 SEQUENCING	11 SEQUENTIAL	1 SEQUENTIAL	1 SERIAL
5 SERIES	1 SERIOUSLY	1 SERIOUSNESS	5 SERVE	48 SERVS
11 SERVICE	35 SERVICES	1 SERVING	20 SESSION	18 SESSIONS
15 SET	7 SETS	3 SETTING	4 SETTINGS	1 SETTLED
9 SETTLES	1 SEVEN	10 SEVERAL	2 SEVERE	1 SEV4S
2 SEX	1 SEVEN	8 SHAKES	2 SHAMES	1 SHAPE
1 SHARING	21 SHARE	25 SHAKES	3 SHAMING	1 SHARPEN
1 SHAVING	3 SHE	6 SHEET	9 SHEETS	1 SHELF
10 SHAVES	1 SHFLVING	1 SHIFTING	5 SHIFTS	1 SHOES
9 SHIRT	9 SHOULD	1 SHOUT	2 SHOUTS	14 SHC*
4 SHIRTING	1 SHOCK	48 SHOX	2 SICK	1 SIDE
1 SHIRTS	4 SIDES	1 SIFT	1 SIGHT	1 SIGRTS
15 SIGN	4 SIGN-OUT	2 SIGN-UP	6 SIGNAL	1 SIGNATURE
1 SIGNIFIED	4 SIGNIFICANCE	2 SIGNIFICANT	2 SIGNING	1 SIGNS
1 SILENCE	3 SILENT	2 SILENTLY	8 SIMILAR	1 SIMILARITY
1 SIMILARLY	9 SIMPLE	1 SIMPLER	1 SIMPLY	4 SIMULATION
1 SIMULATIONS	1 SIMULTANEOUSLY	1 SINCERE	1 SINGEMELY	4 SINGLE
1 SINGLE-S	4 SINGLES	1 SINGLY	2 SINGS	1 SINGULAR
1 SISTERS	5 SIT	1 SITE	4 SITES	12 SITS
1 SITTING	39 SITUATION	1 SITUATIONAL	25 SITUATIONS	7 SIZE
1 SIZES	2 SKETCH	1 SKETCHES	1 SKEICHY	15 SKILL
5 SKILLED	1 SKILLFUL	65 SKILLS	1 SKIMS	1 SKIPS
1 SKIT	1 SKITS	1 SLAMS	2 SLANG	1 SLEEPING
3 SKIDE	3 SLIDES	4 SLIP	4 SLIPS	1 SLOPPILY
13 SLOW	7 SLOWER	1 SMARTER	2 SLOW	93 SKULL
1 SMOOTHER	1 SMART-ALECK	4 SNACK	8 SMOLES	1 SHOCKS
1 SMOOTHLY	2 SMOOTHLY	1 SNACK	1 SNACKS	15 SO
19 SOCIAL	1 SOCIALIZING	1 SOCIAL	2 SOCIETY	3 SUDJOURAMA
2 SOCIOECONOMIC	1 SOCIOGRAM	1 SOCIOLOGY	3 SOCRATIC	3 SOFTWARE
1 SOLICIT	6 SOLICITS	1 SOLID	7 SOLUTION	7 SOLUTIONS
13 SOLVE	3 SOLVED	1 SOLVES	13 SOLVING	10 SOME
2 SOLVED	1 SON	3 SONGS	1 SOON	1 SOTER
1 SOUND	1 SOUNDING	1 SOUNDS	8 SOURCE	28 SOURCES
1 SOURCES/AUTHORIT	11 SPACE	1 SPACED	1 SPACES	2 SPAN
1 SPARK	8 SPEAK	6 SPEAKERS	9 SPEAKING	45 SPEAKS
60 SPECIALTY	20 SPECIALIST	5 SPECIALISTS	3 SPECIALIZED	1 SPECIALLY
6 SPECIALTY	75 SPECIFIC	1 SPECIFICALLY	2 SPECIFICATIONS	3 SPECIFIED
6 SPECIFICS	1 SPECULATION	1 SPEECH	1 SPEECHES	2 SPELL
8 SPELLING	1 SPEND	9 SPENDS	1 SPENT	1 SPIRIT
1 SPONSORED	2 SPONSORS	1 SPONTANEITY	2 SPONTANEOUS	1 SPONTANEOUSLY
1 SPORTS	3 SPOTS	2 SPOTS	2 STABILITY	1 STAGE
141 STAFF	5 STAFFING	1 STANDARD	2 STAGE	2 STAGES
2 STAFFS	2 STANCE	1 STANDARDS	1 STANDARDIX	10 STANDARDIZED
19 STANDARDS	2 STANDING	10 STANDS	1 STAPLES	1 STAPLING
11 STARS	1 START	5 STARTED	5 STARTING	2 STARTS
1 STATE	5 STATED	11 STATEMENT	26 STATEMENTS	3 STATISTICS
3 STATIONARY	3 STATIONARY	4 STATIONS	4 STATISTICAL	4 STATISTICS
1 STAY	1 STAY	1 STAYS	1 STEERING	1 STENCIL
8 STATUS	10 STAY	8 STEPS	1 STEREOTYPED	1 STIFF
3 STEPCILLS	1 STILLED	5 STIMULATE	23 STIMULATES	1 STIMULATING
1 STIMULATE	2 STIMULUS	3 STOPS	9 STORAGE	2 STONE
2 STIMULI	6 STORES	17 STORIES	1 STORING	23 STORY
2 STORYBOOK	2 STRAIGHTENS	11 STRATEGIES	1 STRATEGY	1 STRAYED





1	WIN	3	WISH	2	WISHES	1	WISHING	1060	WITH
2	WITHDRAW	1	WITHDRAWING	4	WITHDRAWN	1	WITHHOLDS	31	WITHIN
36	WITHOUT	1	WITTY	1	WON'T	6	WORLD	54	WORDS
194	WORK	2	WORK-RELATED	7	WORK-STUDY	1	WORKABLE	2	WORKBOOK
2	WORKBOOKS	1	WORKED	27	WORKING	96	WORKS	1	WORKSHEETS
8	WORKSHOP	11	WORKSHOPS	9	WORLD	2	WORKS	1	WORTH
4	WORTHWHILE	1	WORTHY	1	WOULD	12	WRITE	54	WRITES
7	WRITING	33	WRITTEN	2	WRONG	1	WRONGDOING	1	YAKS
12	YEAR	1	YEAR'S	1	YEAR-ROUND	1	YEARBOOK	1	YEARS
1	YELLOW	2	YELLS	2	YES	1	YEAS	2	YET
1	YOU	1	YOUNG	1	YOUNGER	1	YES	1	10-15
1	100	1	15-MINUTES	2	16-MM	2	PRESENTS	1	2
2	2COLLECT	1	2COLLECTS	1	3	1	95		

## APPENDIX D

PROPOSED FACET STRUCTURE  
FOR DIMENSIONALIZING TEACHING BEHAVIOR

## FACETS OF TEACHING BEHAVIOR

Teacher

- A. ACTOR
- B. ROLES
- C. TARGET GROUP
- D. SETTING
- E. AREAS OF KNOWLEDGE
- F. LEVELS
- G. ACTIVITIES
- H. FUNCTIONS
- I. MODES OF COMMUNICATION
- J. MANNERS
- K. PROCESSES

Student

## A. ACTOR

- a<sub>1</sub> Master teacher
- a<sub>2</sub> Senior teacher
- a<sub>3</sub> Staff teacher
- a<sub>4</sub> Associate teacher
- a<sub>5</sub> Lecturer
- a<sub>6</sub> Intern
- a<sub>7</sub> Student teacher
- a<sub>8</sub> Teaching assistant
- a<sub>9</sub> Instructional aide

## B. ROLES

- b<sub>1</sub> Classroom manager
- b<sub>2</sub> Manager (general managerial skills)
- b<sub>3</sub> Administrator
  - routine records
  - schedules regulations
- b<sub>4</sub> Counselor
  - student diagnosis
  - counseling
- b<sub>5</sub> Discipliner
  - punishes reprimands
  - reproves threatens
- b<sub>6</sub> Monitor
  - observes attends
  - watches proctors
  - monitors
- b<sub>7</sub> Facilitator
  - facilitates coordinates
  - manipulates
- b<sub>8</sub> Tutor
  - one-to-one relationship



## C. TARGET GROUP

- c<sub>1</sub> Large group
- c<sub>2</sub> Small group
- c<sub>3</sub> Individual student
- c<sub>4</sub> Teachers
- c<sub>5</sub> Parents
- c<sub>6</sub> Community

## D. SETTING

- d<sub>1</sub> Classroom
- d<sub>2</sub> School
- d<sub>3</sub> Peer group
- d<sub>4</sub> Community
- d<sub>5</sub> Family

## E. AREAS OF KNOWLEDGE

$e_1$  Symbolics

$e_2$  Arts

$e_3$  Physical sciences

$e_4$  Biological sciences

## F. LEVELS

- f<sub>1</sub> Early childhood
- f<sub>2</sub> Middle childhood
- f<sub>3</sub> Preadolescence
- f<sub>4</sub> Adolescence
- f<sub>5</sub> Adult

## G. ACTIVITIES

- g<sub>1</sub> Administration (school  
governance)
- g<sub>2</sub> Material resources  
(a-v, teaching machines, etc.)
- g<sub>3</sub> Language development  
(alphabet, reading, story)
- g<sub>4</sub> Math development
- g<sub>5</sub> Arts, crafts
- g<sub>6</sub> Recreation (play, sing, dance)
- g<sub>7</sub> Group time
- g<sub>8</sub> Snack, lunch
- g<sub>9</sub> Rest

## H. FUNCTIONS

h<sub>1</sub> Structure

plans/prepares  
analyzes  
researches

acquaints  
begins  
initiates  
introduces  
orients  
presents

assigns

h<sub>2</sub> Development

defines  
informs  
relates  
states  
describes  
explains  
elaborates  
illustrates  
emphasizes  
generalizes  
interprets  
clarifies  
reinforces  
summarizes  
stimulates  
elicits  
checks  
reviews  
tests

h<sub>3</sub> Evaluation

appraises  
assesses  
diagnoses  
evaluates  
opines  
judges  
tests  
grades  
scores

## I. MODES OF COMMUNICATION

 $i_1$  Application

lecturing  
planned repetition  
tutoring  
discussing  
using (teaching machines, etc.)

 $i_2$  Verbal communication $i_3$  Nonverbal communication

## J. MANNERS

j<sub>1</sub> Positive response

affirms  
approves  
assists  
assures  
empathizes  
encourages  
guides  
praises  
rewards  
supports  
reassures

j<sub>2</sub> Negative response

accuses  
admonishes  
avoids  
criticizes  
denigrates  
disagrees  
disapproves  
ignores  
reproves

j<sub>3</sub> Nonauthoritarianj<sub>4</sub> Authoritarian



## K. PROCESSES

 $k_1$  Motivation

helps  
involves  
motivates  
prescribes  
suggests  
stimulates

 $k_2$  Interaction

questions  
answers  
participates  
relates  
listens  
suggests

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