INFORMATION TO USERS

This was produced from a copy of a document sent to us for microfilming. While the most advanced technological means to photograph and reproduce this document have been used, the quality is heavily dependent upon the quality of the material submitted.

The following explanation of techniques is provided to help you understand markings or notations which may appear on this reproduction.

1. The sign or "target" for pages apparently lacking from the document photographed is "Missing Page(s)". If it was possible to obtain the missing page(s) or section, they are spliced into the film along with adjacent pages. This may have necessitated cutting through an image and duplicating adjacent pages to assure you of complete continuity.

2. When an image on the film is obliterated with a round black mark it is an indication that the film inspector noticed either blurred copy because of movement during exposure, or duplicate copy. Unless we meant to delete copyrighted materials that should not have been filmed, you will find a good image of the page in the adjacent frame.

3. When a map, drawing or chart, etc., is part of the material being photographed the photographer has followed a definite method in "sectioning" the material. It is customary to begin filming at the upper left hand corner of a large sheet and to continue from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps. If necessary, sectioning is continued again–beginning below the first row and continuing on until complete.

4. For any illustrations that cannot be reproduced satisfactorily by xerography, photographic prints can be purchased at additional cost and tipped into your xerographic copy. Requests can be made to our Dissertations Customer Services Department.

5. Some pages in any document may have indistinct print. In all cases we have filmed the best available copy.

University Microfilms International

300 N. ZEEB ROAD, ANN ARBOR, MI 48106
18 BEDFORD ROW, LONDON WC1R 4EJ, ENGLAND

HAROLD, JOHN GARY

THE EFFECT OF INSTRUCTION ON THE STEREOTYPICAL EXPECTATIONS FOR LEARNING-DISABLED CHILDREN HELD BY PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro PH.D. 1980

THE EFFECT OF INSTRUCTION ON THE STEREOTYPICAL EXPECTATIONS FOR LEARNING-DISABLED CHILDREN HELD BY PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS

by

J. Gary Harold

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

Greensboro
1980

Approved by

Nancy White
Dissertation Adviser

APPROVAL PAGE

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

Dissertation Adviser Nancy White

Committee Members

12 October 1980
Date of Acceptance by Committee

25 August 1980
Date of Final Oral Examination

HAROLD, J. GARY. The Effect of Instruction on the Stereotypical Expectations for Learning-Disabled Children Held by Prospective Teachers. (1980)
Directed by: Dr. Nancy White. Pp. 74

The purpose of this investigation was to determine whether classroom instruction provided for prospective regular classroom teachers was effective in reducing the bias and expectancy effects associated with the label "learning-disabled."

Expectancies were established by the administration of a personality questionnaire and a behavior checklist. Sixty-eight subjects from randomly selected course sections were assigned to treatment and control groups. Treatment consisted of instruction designed to demonstrate to the subjects the effect of a reinforced label on their predictions of a videotaped child's performance. Treatment effects were measured by comparing subjects' ratings of a hypothetical learning-disabled child with control group ratings. Ratings of treatment and control groups were also compared one month after the treatment sessions.

Analyses showed the ratings of prospective teachers who had received instruction to be significantly less negative than ratings of the prospective teachers who had received no instruction. Ratings of treatment subjects were still significantly less negative on the personality questionnaire after one month, but not on the behavior checklist.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Appreciation is extended to Dr. Nancy White for her support and counsel, and to other members of the doctoral committee; Dr. Gary Hoover, Dr. C. E. Smith, Jr., and Dr. James Watson.

Special acknowledgements are needed to recognize the contributions of Bob Carter, Tom Clark, Emily Walker and James Ysseldyke in the conceptualization and implementation of the study; and to Betty Cauble for helping get it all together.

The author wishes to dedicate this dissertation to his father and to his son, both of whom have been instrumental in the identification of the problem.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this introductory chapter is to define the parameters of the investigation. It has been divided into six sections consisting of: (1) the nature of the study, (2) background for the study, (3) the assumptions of the study, (4) the hypotheses set forth, (5) definitions, and (6) the limitations.

Nature of the Study

Education has been the focus of a societal interest in predicting child achievement. The predictions of achievement have often rested on the assumption that such predictions could be translated into expectations for children.

One of the outcomes of educators' expectations was the creation of a special grouping of children called "underachievers" or "learning disabled." These children were judged to have high capacities but due to developmental "defects" their achievement was low. The use of profile scores increased the identifiability of these children, because of their irregular performance over a range of performance indicators. The importance of the identification of these children can be traced to the "defect" notion; the low scores were presumed to represent the need for special treatment.

Skinner (1968) observed that adjectives, like "intelligent" behavior, have been allowed to become nouns, like "intelligence," and then futile speculations have been made about their determinants. In a similar manner, children who perform below our expectations become the problem, and are subject to a new set of expectations.

There has been little evidence to support an idea such as the "capacity" of a child to learn in school. A child's learning is more accurately seen as interactions of the child's capacities with the teacher and the school environment (Harold, 1978).

Special education has brought with it a number of complications in attempting to match children and learning environments. The classification of children has been a basic organizer for the delivery of services and a basic problem. It has been convenient to sort children into categories, under the general label of handicapped. Categories such as learning disabled, mentally retarded, and emotionally disturbed have served as the reference points for the whole process of identification, screening, assessment, placement, and instruction of children who have problems learning in school. Even regular classroom teachers have had to learn to refer children for special services according to the existing systems of categories (Reynolds & Birch, 1977).

One of the most serious complicationsof categorization has resulted from the attachment of labels to the individual children who were categorized. The child became learning disabled, and the negative implications of a learning disability were seen to exist within the child. This process of categorization was seen as harmful by Hobbs (1975):

> Classification can blight the life of the child, reducing opportunity, diminishing his competence and self esteem, alienating him from others, nurturing a meanness of spirit, and making him less a person than he could become. Nothing less than the future of children is at stake.

The classification of an individual child has been seen to have such a prevasive influence because of its effectiveness in eliciting a set of stereotypical behavioral and personality characteristics. This curing information of the individual label has emphasized the deviancy in underlying processes and made a multidimensional problem appear to be unidimensional (Blatt, 1972).

No categorical label has been as controversial or grown as fast as that of learning disabled. Coined by Kirk (1963) in a talk given to parents of children who were experiencing difficulty in learning to read, it quickly became a parent-sponsored category of learning problems. By 1975, learning disabilities had achieved more than sufficient numbers of children and organizational support to become an official handicapping condition listed in Public

Law 94-142 as eligible for federal special education funds.

One of the largest controversies concerning the classification of learning disabilities has been its definition. The definition included in P.L. 94-142 reads:

> "Special learning disability" means a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, which may manifest itself in an imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or to do mathematical calculations. The term includes such conditions as perceptual handicaps, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction, dyslexia, and developmental aphasia. The term does not include children who have learning problems which are primarily the result of visual, hearing or motor handicaps, of mental retardation, or of environmental, cultural, or economic disadvantages (Section 5 (b) (4) of P.L. 94-142).

This definition of inclusion of certain labels and exclusion of others has been far from operational and has added to diverse points of view as to its nature, scope and appropriateness.

Ford (1971) pointed out the label's appeal to parents by noting the exclusion of mental retardation and the emphasis on normal intelligence or capacity. More recently, the label has been defended by Heward and Orlansky (1980) for its contribution of techniques and support that have benefited the whole field of special education.

Others in the field have pointed out that the lack of clarity of definition has not diminished the stigma attached

to individual children so labeled (Foster, Ysseldyke, & Reese, 1975; Maurer, 1972; Ysseldyke & Foster, 1978).

The overall purpose of this study was to determine whether or not instruction could significantly effect the stereotypical expectations called forth by the label "learning-disabled." A personality questionnaire and a behavioral checklist were used to demonstrate prospective teachers' perceptions of a hypothetical learning disabled child.

Background for the Study

The delivery of educational services to handicapped children has been legislated in terms of specific disability categories. Federal and state monies are allotted to local educational agencies on the basis of the number of children who are identified categorically.

It is through the identification process that individual children become eligible for service. It is also through this process that children are labeled with the same title as the disability category from which allocations are provided.

The number of children in the United States receiving special services under the label "learning disabled" for the 1976-77 school year was 799,593; which was 21.5 percent of the total number of handicapped children receiving services (BEH, 1978).

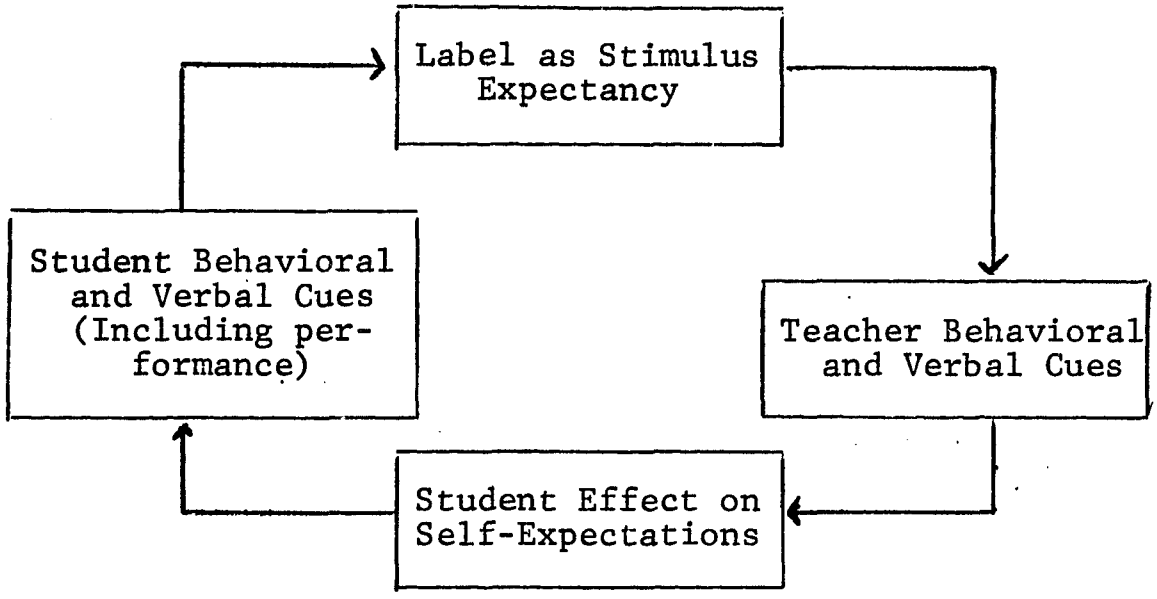
The practice of labeling a child for the purpose of providing services has been criticized by leaders in the field of special education for over a decade (Dunn, 1968; Gallagher, 1972; Goldstein, Arkell, Ashcroft, Hurley & Lilly, 1975; Lilly, 1971; Meyen, 1978; The Council for Exceptional Children, 1977).

No argument against labeling children for the purpose of providing special educational services has had more popular influence than the viewpoint that the process of labeling produces a self-fulfilling prophecy by adversely affecting teachers' expectations of a pupil's performance (Dunn, 1968; Rosenthal & Fode, 1963). The teacher expectancy theory of Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) suggested that people expect children to perform in accordance with the labels applied to them. Teachers, it is claimed, influence student performance in the direction of their interpretation of the label.

The theoretical basis for a self-fulfilling prophecy was the claim that an expectation for another person could become a factor in that person's behavior and could "quite unwittingly become a more accurate prediction simply for its having been made" (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968). The steps that have been seen as necessary for expectancy to have such an effect were traced by Schain (1972). The model presented

in Figure 1 is a diagram intended to summarize the self-fulfilling prophecy.

Figure 1. The Operation of the Self-fulfilling Prophecy in the Teaching/Learning Situation.



Labeling has been seen as one of many stimuli that creates an expectancy for a child. Other stimuli that have been proposed include test scores, I.Q.'s and psychological reports. Of primary importance was the contention that the expectancy generated consisted of stereotypical behavioral and personality characteristics. The expectancy was then transferred to the student to the extent that the student began to respond in accordance with the expectations expressed. The student's behavior could then be seen as a reinforcer, or a feedback in the cyclical nature of the self-fulfilling prophecy.

In terms of the focus of this study, retention of the expectancy by the teacher is a crucial step that has been seen as necessary for the self-fulfilling prophecy to operate (Barber, Calverley, Forgione, McPeake, Chaves, & Bowen, 1969). Confirmation of retention of expectancy in prospective teachers has come from several studies; Jones (1970, 1972) for the cultural deprivation label, Salvia, Clark, and Ysseldyke (1973) for gifted and mental retardation labels, and by Foster, Ysseldyke, and Reese (1978) for emotional disturbance and learning disabilities labels.

Whether or not the lowered expectancies have been communicated to the child, the investigations of teacher expectancy have shown that a "halo" effect is created that has altered perceptions of children's behavior. The systematic labeling of children has reduced teachers' expectations for the success of individual children (Dunn, 1968).

The problem of bias due to expectancy has not been addressed empirically in regard to the effect of instruction. The effect of P.L. 94-142 on the number of handicapped children who have been receiving at least part of their education in the regular classroom, and the increased contact hours of special education training for all

prospective teachers have increased the need for investigations of instruction effects.

Can educational experiences contradict an artificially induced expectation effectively in a classroom setting? Specifically, the purpose of this study was to determine (1) whether or not instruction in expectancy effects reduced stereotypical expectations of behavioral characteristics, (2) whether or not instruction in expectancy effects reduced stereotypical expectations of personality characteristics, and (3) the extent to which any reductions in stereotypical expectations were maintained over time.

Assumptions

Previous theoretical and empirical investigations concerning expectancy have justified the following assumptions:

1. Information supplied to prospective teachers has influenced their attitudes toward students, and changed their perceptions of student behavior.
2. Labeling a child "learning disabled" has been a social act which was learned and reinforced.
3. The perception of a child as being learning disabled was based upon a set of negative personality and behavioral characteristics that the child was seen to possess.

4. The label "learning disabled" engendered stereotypical expectations in teachers about the child's capacity that limited the child's educational opportunities.
5. Awareness of one's own stereotypical expectations was a cognitive act which could be realized through interaction; instruction that provided an individual with concrete evidence of his or her expectations provided the most effective interaction.

Hypotheses

The hypotheses investigated were:

1. Prospective teachers who have been provided instruction in expectancy effects will rate a hypothetical learning-disabled child less negatively on behavioral characteristics than will prospective teachers with no instruction.
2. Prospective teachers who have been provided instruction in expectancy effects will rate a hypothetical learning-disabled child less negatively on personality characteristics than will prospective teachers with no instruction.
3. Prospective teachers who have been provided instruction in expectancy effects will continue to rate a hypothetical learning-disabled child

less negatively on behavioral characteristics than will prospective teachers with no instruction one month after the instruction.

4. Prospective teachers who have been provided instruction in expectancy effects will continue to rate a hypothetical learning-disabled child less negatively on personality characteristics than will prospective teachers with no instruction one month after the instruction.

Definitions

1. Bias - information provided to subjects that established a mental set toward the behavioral and personality characteristics of a hypothetical child.
2. Expectancy - generated predictions of behavioral and personality characteristics on the basis of the provided information.
3. Experimenter Bias Effect (EBE) - the influence on a subject's behavior by the examiner. In this study it was applied to the influence of a teacher's perceptions on a student's behavior in such a manner that the behavior conforms with the expectation.
4. Halo Effect - the tendency of a subject to allow biasing information to influence the objective evaluation of observed characteristics.

5. Stereotypical Expectations - those characteristics which a learning-disabled child is prejudged to possess by prospective teachers as a result of the label.
6. Learning Disabled - an adjective label, referring to children who are so categorized. Inferred characteristics to a hypothetical child will be the sole property of the prospective teachers who participate in the study.

Limitations

1. Generalization of the results of the study was limited to undergraduate students who were enrolled in courses that lead to teacher certification. The sample used in the study was drawn from a limited geographic area.
2. Randomness of subjects was limited by the selection of course sections rather than simple random sampling of the population of prospective teachers enrolled at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte.
3. Instruction was limited to a single two-hour class session.
4. The laboratory nature of the procedures of the study limited the inferences to expectations that exist for real children in real public school classrooms.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In this chapter research is reviewed that has provided a background for the present study. Even though the purpose of this study was limited to the remediation of expectations generated by a label, the studies that have contributed to the concept of expectancy are reviewed. The experimenter bias effect, or self-fulfilling prophecy, and the confirmation of halo effects are believed to be important historical and theoretical foundations of the study.

For the convenience of the reader, the studies reviewed in this chapter are divided into four sections: (1) self-fulfilling prophecy, (2) expectancy and halo effects, (3) expectancy and labels, and (4) the relationships of earlier work to the present study.

Self-fulfilling Prophecy

Rosenthal and Fode (1963) generated an expectancy in student experimenters for the responses of subjects in a person-perception task. Subjects were shown photographs of faces and asked to rate whether the persons depicted had just experienced failure or success. The scale ranged from -10 to +10. One group of five experimenters were told they could expect subjects to give high ratings (mean = +5) while the other group was told they could expect low

ratings (mean = -5). All ten student experimenters were told that the expected results had been established in previous works and that the purpose of this work was to substantiate those findings. In addition, the experimenters were told that they would be paid $2.00 per hour if the previous findings were substantiated, but only $1.00 per hour if the findings were different.

The results of the comparisons between the groups were significantly different in the direction of the expectancy conditions. Rosenthal and Fode (1963) attributed the difference to what they termed an "experimenter bias effect."

Rosenthal and Jacobson (1966) did a follow-up study to examine the way in which cues were transmitted from experimenter to subject. Using the methodology of the Rosenthal and Fode (1963) study, they attempted to isolate sources of expectancy transfer. Three experimental conditions were used so that visual cues, auditory cues and visual plus auditory cues could be compared. They reported that visual plus auditory cues produced the strongest experimenter bias effect, with auditory cues producing measurable effect and visual cues producing no effect.

Pygmalion in the Classroom, published by Rosenthal and Jacobson in 1968, was to become the most influential

and controversial report of experimenter bias effect in the classroom.

The research itself involved the Oak Street School. Teachers in all eighteen classes in the kindergarten through fifth-grade classes administered a nonverbal group I.Q. measure called the TOGA. The teachers were told that the test was the "Harvard Test of Inflected Acquisition," a test capable of identifying students who could be expected to demonstrate a spurt in academic performance during the upcoming school year.

At the beginning of the school year, 20 percent of the students in the school were randomly selected as "spurters" and their names were given to the appropriate classroom teachers.

The TOGA was repeated at intervals of five, ten, and twenty-two months, with the result that 47 percent of the experimental students gained twenty or more I.Q. points overall as compared with 19 percent of the control students gaining twenty or more I.Q. points. Younger children showed the largest immediate gains, but began to decline at the end of one year. The authors concluded that older children were more difficult to influence but maintained the expectancy.

An interesting conclusion of the authors was based on the children labeled as "lower track" who gained in I.Q.;

they were seen in an increasingly unfavorable light by their teachers. This could be explained by the existence of a previously established bias.

These studies seemed to establish the existence of experimenter bias effect in the classroom. Attempts at replication of the Rosenthal and Fode (1963) study, and critical analysis of the Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) methodology, however, cast considerable doubt on the results and the whole concept of the self-fulfilling prophecy.

Barber, Calverley, Forgione, McPeake, Chaves and Bowen (1969) made five attempts to replicate Rosenthal and Fode's (1963) results; no evidence was found to support the existence of experimenter bias effect. One of their suggestions as to the lack of replicability of Rosenthal's study was the observed tendency of students in psychology laboratory courses to fabricate data in order to get the proper results.

Rosenthal (1969) charged that Barber et al. (1969) had not faithfully replicated the original conditions, and that a post-hoc analysis of their data should support for a bias effect.

Barber et al. (1969) responded by charging that Rosenthal's post-hoc data analysis was not sound statistically.

Rosenthal and Jacobson's (1968) study has also met with criticism. Snow (1969) criticized the methodology and data analysis, including the use of the TOGA scores. Some of the pretest data showed children to be measured as low as 17 on the I.Q. scale and as high as 148 on the post-tests. Other children were assigned I.Q.'s of 183, 221 and 168 on the posttests in spite of the fact that TOGA norms go no higher than 160. Thorndike (1968) found the study so technically defective that he felt it should not have been published.

Whatever the criticisms of the methodology, these studies introduced the concept of experimenter bias effect in the classroom and stimulated educational researchers to investigate the phenomenon of expectancy and its pre-requisites.

Expectancy and Halo Effects

The relationship between already existing teacher expectancies and student performance was first demonstrated by Palardy (1969). A sample of first-grade teachers was selected on the basis of their opinion of how successful they thought first-grade boys were likely to be in relation to girls.

Expectancy Group A was made up of teachers who indicated their belief that boys were typically as successful as girls, and Group B contained teachers who indicated that boys would be less successful than girls.

A significant interaction was found between the sex of the student, teacher opinion, and the dependent measure of reading achievement. Only boys assigned to teachers who had indicated low expectations for them achieved significantly poorer scores than girls; these boys also achieved significantly poorer scores than boys assigned to teachers with expectations for their success.

The relationship of teacher expectancy and teacher-to-student behaviors was investigated by Beez (1970).

Sixty education majors were assigned as tutors to sixty Headstart children and were randomly assigned a high or low expectation for each child. The tutors were to teach the children a list of words in a ten-minute teaching session and to give each child a jigsaw puzzle to put together.

Observers were used to record the number of words presented and learned, record the cues given to the child by the tutor, and note any other teacher-pupil interactions.

Expectancies of the children were induced by fictitious psychological reports. These reports were read by the tutors before the session and evaluated as either helpful or not helpful following the session. Tutors were also asked to rate their children on intellectual ability, achievement, and social competency in relation to children in a regular classroom.

Observations showed that low-expectancy children were presented fewer words and learned fewer words, but that there was no difference in the number of cues on the puzzle tasks.

The induced expectancies were held by the tutors regardless of the children's performance. Tutors with high expectancies found the puzzle task as appropriate level tasks while low-expectancy tutors felt the task was too difficult. Most of the teachers reported that the psychological reports were helpful.

The findings convinced Beez that the bias and ensuing expectancy had resulted in altered learning behavior. He concluded that the results supported the concept of a self-fulfilling prophecy.

The effect of expectations for I.Q. and class track on teacher behavior was explored by Rubovits and Maehr (1971). Subjects designated as "teachers" were actually twenty-six undergraduate students who had enrolled in an undergraduate course. The students were 104 sixth and seventh graders selected from the local school district.

Each "teacher" was given four students, a lesson plan for a one-hour session, and a seating chart with information on the students. Information on the students consisted of manipulated I.Q. data and class track information such that each teacher was told they had two high I.Q. and fast track

children and two normal children. The dependent measure in this study was a scale used by raters who recorded: (1) teacher attention to student statements, (2) teacher encouragement of student statements, (3) teacher elaboration of student statements, (4) teacher praise of student statements, (5) teacher ignoring of student statements, and (6) teacher criticism of student statements.

Significant differences included: (1) that fast track children were called on more frequently than children designated as normal and (2) that fast track students were given more praise.

Rubovits and Maehr (1973) did a follow-up study using the same methodology, but added the variable of race.

In the second study each "teacher" was assigned a white and black student designated as fast track, or gifted, and a white and a black student designated as normal.

They found the differences to be based on race rather than track; black students were treated less positively than whites and fast track blacks were discriminated against more often than normal blacks. An independent variable of teacher dogmatism revealed that dogmatic teachers consistently encouraged white students and ignored blacks.

Seaver (1973) examined the expectancy effect of older siblings on the performance of first graders as a results of teacher bias. Achievement scores were examined of 79

students who had older brothers and sisters in the same school.

A comparison was made between students who had the same teacher as their older brother and sister and those who had different teachers. The result of this analysis was that first graders with the same teachers as older siblings showed that they performed better than "control" students if their siblings had been good students and poorer than control students if their older siblings had been poor students.

While Seaver found this to be evidence for an expectancy effect, it was pointed out that this was not evidence of a causal effect, there being too many possible intervening variables.

Expectancy and Labels

As the evidence mounted that expectancy was a more complicated and multifactored phenomenon than originally pictured, one of the bias conditions identified was the categorization of students for special services.

Jones (1970) examined the effect of labeling a child as culturally deprived on 163 undergraduate student teachers. The control group was asked to fill out a School Morale Inventory as they felt a twelve-year old sixth-grade boy would. Experimental group subjects followed the same procedure, except that the description of the boy included

a twelve-year old culturally deprived boy in the sixth-grade in an inner city school.

There were significant differences for all seven areas of the inventory.

Jones repeated the procedure with groups of experienced teachers and counselor trainees. The results were identical in establishing an expectancy that resulted in lower morale scores.

Jones (1972) also investigated the effect of the label of culturally disadvantaged on 243 black college students. In this study, however, the attempt was made to affect the performance of the college students themselves by transferring the expectancy directly rather than through an agent like a teacher. The college students were asked to perform a digit symbol substitution task that was presented as a measure of psychomotor intelligence. Three label conditions were established by statements placed at the bottom of the task descriptions. Subjects were randomly assigned to one of three conditions: (1) a study of culturally disadvantaged college students, (2) a study of black college students or (3) a study of college students.

There were no significant differences in the performance of the label conditions. Jones reached two conclusions regarding the failure to establish an expectancy condition; the first was that few of the students could even recall

which label they had been assigned, and the second was that students would not accept a label condition such as culturally disadvantaged as applicable to themselves. In terms of the expectancy model presented in Chapter I, this methodology did not provide for the effective transmission of cues to the subjects.

Salvia, Clark and Ysseldyke (1973) examined the halo effects of a label expectancy on observations of student behavior. They hypothesized that a labeling stimulus could generate expectancies within agents that would lead to inappropriate observations.

One hundred and sixty-five educational psychology undergraduates were randomly assigned to one of three treatment conditions. The groups were told that they were going to rate the behaviors of gifted, mentally retarded, or normal children. Each group was asked to rate a hypothetical child of the appropriate label. This was the stereotype phase of the experiment. Next, each group was asked to rate the videotaped behaviors of three children supposedly categorized into one of the three label conditions. Actually, each of the three children had been determined to be normal by a psychologist.

The ratings of children labeled as gifted were generally more positive than children labeled normal and children labeled as retarded were generally rated lowest. There was

inconsistency noted, however, in the rating of types of behavior and a difference between special education majors and general education majors in the ratings of the children. Evidence of differences in the three children and a relationship of the labels with some behaviors and not others led to the conclusion that the original expectancy was not significantly retained by the subjects. In retrospect, one of the possible explanations for the inconsistency was a lack of reinforcement of the bias.

Foster, Ysseldyke, and Reese (1975) conducted a similar study, using the label emotionally disturbed as the experimental condition and normal as the control condition. The hypotheses investigated were that the label would effect a stereotypical expectancy and that it would be maintained inappropriately.

One child was used in the videotape and a comparison was made between label conditions on both behavioral and personality characteristics. Thirty-eight undergraduate and graduate students from a class were randomly assigned to the two treatment groups.

Significant differences were noted on both expectancy and behavioral and personality ratings. The authors concluded that the expectancy negated the effect of the normal behavior displayed on the videotape.

A replication of the Salvia, Clark, and Ysseldyke (1973) and Foster, Ysseldyke, and Reese (1975) studies was carried out by Ysseldyke and Foster (1978) using seventy-five elementary teachers. They used the labels of learning disabled and emotionally disturbed. It was demonstrated that both labels generated stereotypical expectations that were retained in the observance of behavior inconsistent with the labels. In addition it was noted that teachers did not differentially rate the behavior of the child under the two label conditions.

West (1980) examined the relationship of the perceptions of classroom behavior of learning-disabled children and their nonlabeled peers. Ten elementary and ten junior high learning-disabled students and ten elementary and ten junior high nonlabeled students were randomly selected from class lists in a school system. Teacher subjects were randomly selected from the mainstream classes in which learning-disabled students were enrolled.

No evidence was found to support the hypothesis that children labeled learning disabled were rated more negatively in terms of their behavior than non-labeled students. On a number of factors they were rated less negatively than their nonlabeled peers.

In the case of the learning-disabled label, at least, there is strong support for the contention that the label

effects a bias for behavior, but not for a hypothesis that the behavior effects a label.

Carter (1980) examined the effects of reinforcement of labeling conditions over repeated observations of academic behavior.

Label conditions of gifted, normal, and retarded were induced as in the Salvia, Clark, and Ysseldyke (1973) study for ninety classroom teachers who were randomly divided into six groups, two sets of the three label conditions. One set of label conditions was reinforced through three videotape observations while the other set of conditions were not. Each group was asked to predict the videotaped child's score on grade level tasks in math, general information questions and vocabulary immediately before each viewing. Following the observations, each subject was asked to rate their agreement or disagreement with the labeling condition.

Original expectancies for both label and reinforcement conditions were found to be significantly different from the normal (control) condition, but by the fourth prediction only the reinforced conditions retained a significant difference. Agreement with the placement condition was also reported to be higher following the third observation for the reinforced labels.

Relationships of Earlier Work to this Study

In discussing the results of their investigations, Foster, Ysseldyke, and Reese (1975) noted that the subjects of the study were "not unfamiliar" with this type of research, and concluded that:

> Mere exposure to the expectancy bias effect through lectures, discussions, and assigned readings were insufficient to convince the teacher trainees of its potency and obviously did not change their own susceptibility to the effect (p. 41).

It was suggested that the experimental format, wherein students were exposed to a demonstration of their own expectancies, might provide a more effective format. This suggestion became a major determinant in the selection of an instructional strategy for treatment.

The extent to which expectancy has been shown to be related to labels has been a motivational factor in this investigation. Instruction that can reduce the expectancy associated with labels would be of great value in teacher-training programs.

CHAPTER III

METHODS OF PROCEDURE

This chapter includes a description of the experimental methodology employed in the investigation of the stated hypotheses. The description is sectioned into design procedures, the research instruments, subjects, methods of collecting and analyzing data, and methods of collecting and analyzing follow-up data.

Design Procedures

The Solomon Four-Group Design was used to investigate the effects of instruction. Each of four selected course sections was randomly assigned to one of four test conditions:

Group 1	pretest	treatment	posttest
Group 2	pretest		posttest
Group 3		treatment	posttest
Group 4			posttest

Treatment sessions consisted of Groups 1 and 3 participating in an activity designed to demonstrate to the subjects that they held stereotypical expectations for a child based solely on the biasing effect of a label.

The activity was a partial replication of the procedures used by Carter (1980) to measure the effect of a

reinforced bias on teachers' predictions of the performance of a mislabeled child:

1. Each subject was given one of three randomly assigned six-page packets (Appendix A) and asked to read the first page, which was the same for all subjects. On this page subjects were led to believe that the purpose of the activity was to determine if a grade-level "mini test" could be created from a standardized instrument.
2. Subjects were asked to read the first paragraph of page two, which describes one of three placement recommendations for a ten-year-old, fourth grade boy. The three placement recommendations were for placement in a class for gifted and talented students (GT), placement in the regular fifth grade program (NORMAL), and placement in a class for educable mentally handicapped students (EMH).
3. Subjects were asked to read the second paragraph of page two and make an overall prediction of the number of items the child could be expected to answer correctly.
4. Subjects were asked to turn to page three, read the paragraph and make a prediction. This was a prediction of the number of items subjects

expected the child to answer correctly of ten general information questions.

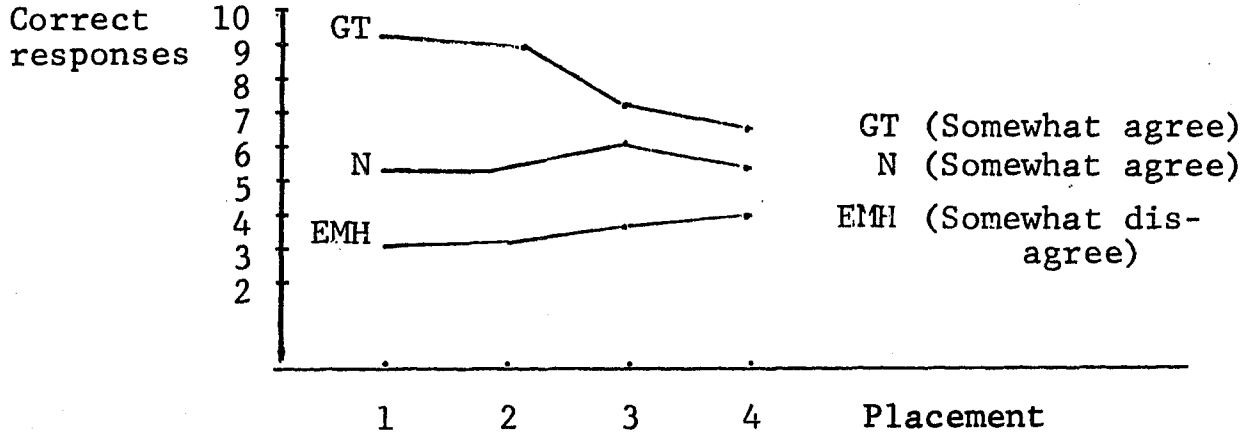
5. Subjects were then shown a videotape of a normal ten-year-old boy attempting to answer ten general information questions that were asked by an off-camera male adult. Each category of questions was taken from WISC general information subtests. The questions were selected around the average of correct responses given by ten-year-olds. The child was coached to answer six questions correctly (Appendix B).
6. Subjects were asked to turn to page four, read the paragraph, and make a prediction. This prediction was for the number of correct answers to ten vocabulary questions.
7. Subjects were shown a taping of the child answering the ten vocabulary questions. Question selection and the number of correct responses were the same for this section.
8. Subjects were asked to turn to page five, read the paragraph and make a prediction. This prediction was for the child's performance in arithmetic.
9. Subjects were shown the tape of the child's responses to ten arithmetic questions.

10. Subjects were asked to turn to page six, check one of the responses, and hand in the packet. These responses were designed to measure the extent of the subject's agreement or disagreement with the placement decision and were the same for all subjects.
11. Five volunteers were solicited from each treatment group to aid in tabulating the data, and each subject was given a written summary of the Carter study to read (Appendix C).
12. Packets were separated into the three label conditions. Each of these packets were separated by the volunteers. Means were computed for the four predictions and the extent of agreement with the placement decision.
13. A graphic description of this data was drawn on the chalkboard (Table 1), and comparisons were made with the original study.
14. The concept of expectancy was explained to the subjects in relation to the study with the explanation that the purpose of the session was to increase their awareness of the expectations they hold for children based on assigned labels.
15. The subjects were dismissed after filling out demographic forms. Each of the two treatment sessions lasted approximately eighty minutes.

Table 1

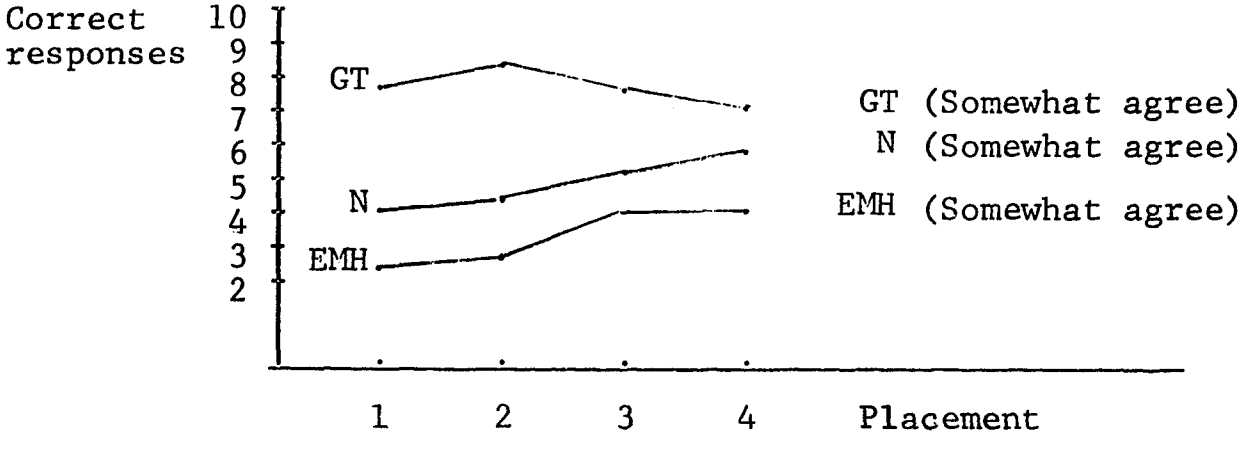
Data Shown to Treatment Subjects During Session

Group I



Predictions

Group III



Research Instruments

Two dependent measures were used in the present study, the F-Y Personality Questionnaire and the F-Y Behavior Checklist (Appendix D). These measures were combined by Foster and Ysseldyke (1975) and presented to subjects as a research form of a referral instrument. They were presented in the same manner by Ysseldyke and Foster (1978) to measure expectancy for children labeled as learning disabled and for bias in the observations of the same children.

Personality Questionnaire

Part one of the pseudo-referral instrument contained thirty-six items chosen from the California Test of Personality. Items for this instrument were selected at random to evenly represent twelve personality dimensions represented in the original test. Raw scores for this measure were the total numbers of items completed in a negative direction, with a high score corresponding to negative ratings.

Behavior Checklist

Part two consisted of a twenty-three item checklist on which subjects rated the referred child in various areas including academic skill, perceptual motor development, activity level, and personal-social adjustment. Ratings were made along a 104 mm continuum divided into five levels

ranging from superior to far below average. Distance along this line constituted the score for each item, with the average distance for all items constituting the total score for the measure. Again, high scores were indicative of negative ratings. A split-half reliability coefficient has been computed for this instrument using data for a normal expectancy condition. Corrected for length of test, this coefficient was computed to be .917.

Subjects

Description

Subjects were sixty-eight prospective teachers enrolled in courses leading to teacher certification at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte. The sample was selected from approximately 800 prospective teachers. Demographic data were collected from the subjects and is listed in Table 2.

Selection

Subjects were selected by their enrollment in courses leading to teacher certification. Stratified sampling was used to insure the representation of both upper and lower level course sections. Noncertification students enrolled in selected course sections were excluded from the analysis of the data.

Course sections were divided into upper and lower levels and two sections were randomly selected from each

Table 2

Descriptive Data for Sample

Description	Statistic
Sex	47 females, 21 males
Age	$\bar{x}$ = 23.5 years
Years of education	$\bar{x}$ = 3.1 years of college
Certification sought	38 Early Childhood (K-3) 11 Intermediate (4-9) 19 Secondary (7-12)

level. One course section, an introductory special education course, was eliminated from the selection process because of similar instructional content to the treatment session. A third section was randomly chosen at the upper level in order to more closely match the number of students at the lower level.

Experimental and control groups were decided upon randomly between the lower level sections, while the second and third selected sections selected at the upper level were assigned control status. This was done to eliminate unnecessary variation in instruction (treatment).

Data Collection

Pre and posttest data were collected at the beginning of the second week of a six-week summer session. Pretests were administered at the end of class sessions that

immediately preceded treatment sessions. A graduate student administered pretests to Groups I and II and posttests to all four groups at the beginning of the class section following treatment. In the pretest conditions of the experiment, subjects were told that they were participating in a reliability and validity study of a teacher referral instrument developed by a graduate student. The subjects in the posttest conditions who had completed a pretest were told that the reliability of the instrument was being tested to see how answers to test items might vary over time. Students who had missed the pretest session in Groups I and II were asked not to fill out the referral instruments.

Pre and posttest forms were scored by the researcher and attendance sheets for the three days were checked for students who had been tested but received no instruction in Groups I and III. Two students were dropped from the experiment for this reason.

Method of Analysis

Two 2x2 analyses of variance were used to analyze posttest scores on behavior and personality expectations separately. Pretests were analyzed as a second "treatment" coordinate, so that the Solomon Four-Group Design could be accommodated (Campbell & Stanley, 1963):

	No X	X
Pretested	Grp. 2	Grp. 1
No pretest	Grp. 4	Grp. 3

The main effects of treatment were analyzed from the column means, and effects of pretesting were analyzed from row means. The interaction of effects was analyzed from all means.

Follow-up Data

Treatment groups were asked to complete the referral instruments again one month after instruction. Subjects were again told that they were helping to establish reliability for the referral instrument. Immediately following the collection of the data, subjects were debriefed.

Follow-up data were analyzed by the replacement of initial treatment scores in the 2x2 analysis.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

In this chapter the statistical results of this experiment are reported. The report is divided into three sections: results of analysis of the personality questionnaire (Hypothesis 1), the behavior checklist (Hypothesis 2), and the follow-up data (Hypotheses 3 and 4). Mean scores for all expectancy conditions are listed in Table 3.

Personality Questionnaire

The first two research questions were concerned with whether or not instruction of prospective teachers would result in less negative ratings of behavior and personality characteristics of a learning-disabled child.

A two-way analysis of variance for repeated measures was used to analyze personality questionnaire data from the four groups. ANOVA results are summarized in Table 4.

The significant differences ($p<.05$) between responses of the treatment and control groups indicate that the null form of the first hypothesis can be rejected, and the alternative form of the hypothesis can be accepted as stated: Prospective teachers who have had instruction in expectancy effects rated the personality characteristics of a hypothetical learning-disabled child less negatively than prospective teachers with no instruction.

Table 3

Means for Expectancy Conditions

	Personality Questionnaire $\bar{x}$	Behavior Checklist $\bar{x}$
Normal expectancy condition*	12.9	43.20
Control condition		
Pretested	24.12	59.00
No Pretest	22.88	58.06
Treatment condition		
Pretested	15.29	54.19
No Pretest	16.18	54.34
Follow-up condition	18.26	56.35

*Established by Foster, Ysseldyke and Reese (1975).

Table 4

Results of Two-way Analysis of Variance for Personality Questionnaire

	SS	df	MS	F
Instruction	1001.779	1	1001.799	19.010*
Pretest	16.015	1	16.015	.304
Interaction	0.132	1	0.132	.003
Within cell	3372.706	64	52.699	
Total	4390.632	67		

*$p < .05$

Behavior Checklist

A two-way analysis of variance for repeated measures was used to analyze behavioral checklist data from the four groups. ANOVA results are summarized in Table 5.

The significant differences ($p<.05$) between responses of the treatment and control groups indicate that the null form of the hypothesis can be rejected, and the alternative form of the hypothesis can be accepted as stated: Prospective teachers who have had instruction in expectancy effects rate the behavioral characteristics of a hypothetical learning-disabled child less negatively than prospective teachers with no instruction.

Table 5

Results of Two-way Analysis of Variance for Behavioral Checklist

	SS	df	MS	F
Instruction	309.191	1	309.191	5.929*
Pretest	4.250	1	4.250	.081
Interaction	3.309	1	3.309	.063
Within cell	3337.529	64	52.149	
Total	3654.279	67		

*$p<.05$

Follow-up Data

The second two research questions were concerned with whether or not any differences in the rating of a hypothetical learning-disabled child would exist after one month.

Personality Questionnaire

A two-way analysis of variance was used to compare follow-up data with control group ratings on the F-Y Personality questionnaire. ANOVA results are summarized in Table 6.

The significant differences ($p<.05$) between responses of the treatment and control groups at the time of follow-up indicate that the null form of the hypothesis can be rejected, and the alternative form of the hypothesis can be accepted as stated: Prospective teachers who have had instruction in expectancy effects continued to rate the personality characteristics of a hypothetical learning-disabled child less negatively than control subjects after a period of one month.

Behavior Checklist

A two-way analysis of variance was used to compare follow-up data with control group ratings on the F-Y Behavior Checklist. ANOVA results are summarized in Table 7.

Table 6

Results of Two-way Analysis of Variance of Follow-up Data (Personality Questionnaire)

	SS	df	MS	F
Instruction	415.059	1	415.059	8.324*
Pretest	3.765	1	3.765	.076
Interaction	5.882	1	5.882	.118
Within cell	3191.059	64	49.860	
Total	3615.765	67		

*p<.05

Table 7

Results of Two-way Analysis of Variance of Follow-up Data (Behavior Checklist)

	SS	df	MS	F
Instruction	80.529	1	80.529	1.338
Pretest	8.471	1	8.471	.141
Interaction	.941	1	.941	.016
Within cell	3852.824	64	60.200	
Total	3942.765	67		

The lack of significant differences ($p=.25$) between responses of follow-up and control groups indicates that the null form of the fourth hypothesis cannot be rejected.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

This chapter contains an interpretation of the results of the study, shows the relationship of the results of this study to previous studies, and states some of the implications of the findings.

Interpretation

The results of this investigation indicated that the null form of the first three hypotheses could be rejected with a high degree of confidence. The alternative form of these hypotheses can be statistically accepted as stated.

The null form of Hypothesis 4 was not rejected statistically.

Hypotheses 1 and 2

Examination of the means for expectancy conditions reported in the analysis section showed that while the negative ratings were reduced significantly, they were not reduced to the level of a normal expectancy.

The pretesting of both experimental and control conditions established the equivalency of experimental group expectations for a hypothetical learning-disabled child.

No significant effect of pretesting was noted in the analysis of personality questionnaire and behavior checklist

data. No interaction effects of pretesting and treatment were noted.

Hypotheses 3 and 4

Examination of the means for expectancy ratings showed that treatment subjects had become more negative at the time of follow-up testing. Although ratings had increased on both the personality questionnaire and behavior checklist, differences between treatment and control group subjects' ratings on the personality questionnaire retained the statistical significance set for this study. Again, no pretest or interaction effects were noted. Ratings on the behavior checklist did not retain the level of statistical significance at the time of follow-up, nor were there differences noted in pretest or interaction effects.

Relationships of Results to Previous Studies

The use of personality and behavior characteristics to measure treatment effects was consistent with the methodology of previous studies regarding the measurement of induced bias. The instructional demonstration of the retention of bias toward the behavior of labeled children was also consistent with the findings of those studies (Carter, 1980; Foster, Ysseldyke & Reese, 1975; Jones, 1970; Ysseldyke & Foster, 1978).

The examination of continued effects of instruction in this study tended to substantiate the assertion of Foster,

Ysseldyke and Reese (1975) that awareness of expectancy and labeling effects does not insure any long-term effect on prospective teachers' behavior.

Referring to the model of the establishment of an experimenter bias effect (figure 1), Ysseldyke and Reese created an expectancy in prospective teachers for a child through a biasing agent, the label. Although, several steps are seen as necessary for the establishment of an experimenter bias effect, intervention at this step was shown to significantly reduce bias and expectancy effects in the perception of a child, at least during the period of time involved in the original study. The transmission of cues necessary for adoption of the expectancy by a student would, thus, be significantly reduced.

Carter's (1980) hypothesis that the label must be reinforced for the label to continue to act as a biasing agent may have similar implications for the continued effect of instruction. A system of services where the biasing agent is continuously reinforced through labels might require continuous awareness of its expectancy effects for intervention to be successful.

Implications

This study demonstrated that the negative expectations held by prospective teachers for children categorized with a learning disability label can be reduced by instruction.

In the light of previous studies showing that such a label is sufficient to impair a teacher's ability to objectively evaluate a child's performance, the findings imply that a labeled child may be seen more as an individual than a set of stereotypical characteristics, as a result of instruction.

The system of categorizing children by label for special education services induces teacher expectancies that are based on a set of characteristics that may be completely unrelated to those of an individual child receiving that label. The less that a teacher buys into the stereotypical expectancies the greater the opportunity for clearly assessing the strengths and needs of that particular child.

This problem of objective assessment for instruction is especially critical with a deviancy label such as learning disabilities, where the definition is nebulous and the learning problem usually specific in nature. The ability to effectively diagnose areas of weakness and strength on an individual profile is a necessity for enhancement of an individual child's potential. To the extent that a label like learning disabled arbitrarily limits the opportunities of the children to whom it is applied, objective evaluation and instruction of the child is hampered. Certainly a label can be justified only to the extent that it offers an educationally positive alternative for delivery of services to the child.

Teacher educators at both the preservice and inservice level of training should develop instruction which would foster an awareness of the expectancy phenomenon and its implications for their own perceptions of the child. Teacher education programs have too often emphasized teaching the learning-disabled child, rather than the individual child.

This study adds to the growing body of evidence that categorical services for individual children with mild learning difficulties has created more problems than it has solved.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter contains a brief summary of the study, a list of conclusions, and recommendations for further research.

Summary

This research was conducted to determine whether classroom instruction for prospective teachers was effective in reducing the bias and expectancies associated with the label learning disabled. Expectancies were established by the measurement of personality and behavior characteristics that sixty-eight prospective teachers attributed to a hypothetical learning-disabled child. Treatment consisted of instruction designed to demonstrate to subjects the effects of a reinforced label on their predictions of a child's performance. Treatment effects were measured by comparing ratings of a hypothetical learning-disabled child from treatment and control groups. Ratings were also compared one month after the treatment session.

Analyses showed the ratings of prospective teachers who had received instruction to be significantly less negative than prospective teachers who received no instruction. Treatment subjects' ratings were still significantly less

negative on the personality questionnaire after one month, but not on the behavior checklist.

Conclusions

1. Results of the study showed that instruction was effective in reducing the stereotypical expectations for a hypothetical learning-disabled child.
2. Instruction that demonstrates the expectancies held by the prospective teachers themselves has been shown to be an effective method for changing the negative bias associated with a label. Teacher-training programs that value teacher behaviors that are based on individual children's needs should consider the consequences to individual children of not addressing the stereotypical expectations induced by a label.
3. The effect of one instructional session has not been demonstrated to produce a lasting reduction of negative expectations held for a child labeled learning disabled. Although ratings of personality characteristics were still significantly less negative than control group ratings, all ratings were more negative one month after the instructional session than immediately following the session. Just as a label must be reinforced to retain negative expectations, awareness of label effects must be reinforced to maintain the reduction of expectancy effects.

Recommendations

1. Examination of the effects of this kind of instruction on other expectancy conditions (labels, I.Q. scores, psychological reports, etc.) is necessary to establish any kind of generalizability for its use in teacher-training programs.
2. Reinforcement and longer term instructional programs are needed to establish the reliability of the results of this instructional procedure.
3. Replication of this kind of intervention with teachers would be helpful in determining the applicability of findings to experienced as well as prospective teachers.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Barber, T., Calverley, D., Forgione, A., McPeake, J., Chaves, J., & Bowen, B. Five attempts to replicate the experimenter bias effect. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1969, 33, 1-14.

Beez, W. Influence of biased psychological reports on teacher behavior. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University, 1970.

Blatt, B. Public policy and the education of children with special needs. Exceptional Children, 1972, 38, 537-543.

Bureau of Education for the Handicapped. Number of children receiving special education and related services. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, 1978.

Campbell, D. T., & Stanley, J. Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1963.

Carter, R. Exceptionality labels as a biasing factor in regular classroom teachers' perceptions. Unpublished dissertation, George Washington University, 1980.

Council for Exceptional Children. An analysis of categorical definitions, diagnostic methods, and personnel utilization in the classification of handicapped children. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, 1977.

Dunn, L. Special education for the mildly retarded: Is much of it justifiable? Exceptional Children, 1968, 35, 5-22.

Ford, J. New directions in special education. Journal of School Psychology, 1971, 9, 147-153.

Foster, G. G., Ysseldyke, J. E., & Reese, J. H. I wouldn't have seen it if I hadn't believed it. Exceptional Children, 1975, 41(7), 469-473.

Gage, N. L. Teacher effectiveness and teacher education: The search for a scientific basis. Palo Alto, California: Pacific Books, 1972.

Gallagher, J. The special education contract for mildly handicapped children. Exceptional Children, 1972, 38, 527-535.

Goldstein, H., Arkell, C., Ashcroft, S. C., Hurley, O. L., & Lilly, M. S. Issues in the classification of children. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1970.

Harold, G. Organizing for teaching: The effective curriculum. Project Ascent Handbook. Washington, D.C.: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1978.

Heward, W., & Orlansky, M. Exceptional children. Columbus: Merrill, 1980.

Hobbs, N. The future of children. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1975.

Jones, R. Labeling black college students culturally disadvantaged: A search for behavioral correlates. Paper presented at the meeting of the California Educational Research Association, April 1970.

Jones, R. Labels and stigma in special education. Exceptional Children, 1972, 38, 553-564.

Kirk, S. A. Behavioral diagnosis and remediation of learning disabilities. In Proceedings of the Conference on Exploration into the Problems of the Perceptually Handicapped Child. Chicago: Perceptually Handicapped Children, 1963.

Lilly, M. Special education: A teapot in a tempest. Exceptional Children, 1971, 37, 43-49.

Maurer, A. Whatever happened to witches? Journal of School Psychology, 1972, 19, 107-110.

Meyen, E. (Ed.). The Missouri conference on the categorical/non-categorical issue in special education. Columbia: University of Missouri, 1978.

Palardy, J. What teachers believe, what children achieve. Elementary School Journal, 1969, 69, 370-374.

Reynolds, M. C., & Birch, J. Teaching exceptional children in all America's schools. Reston, Virginia: The Council for Exceptional Children, 1977.

Rosenthal, R. The effect of the experimenter on the results of psychological research. In B. A. Maher (ed.), Progress in Experimental Personality Research, Vol. 1. New York: Academic, 1964.

Rosenthal, R. On not so replicated experiments and not so null results. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1969, 33, 7-10.

Rosenthal, R., & Fode, K. Psychology of the scientist: Three experiments in experimenter bias. Psychological Reports, 1963, 12, 491-511.

Rosenthal, R., & Jacobson, L. Teachers' expectancies: Determinants of pupil IQ gains. Psychological Reports, 1966, 19, 115-118.

Rosenthal, R., & Jacobson, L. Pygmalion in the classroom. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1968.

Rubovits, P., & Maehr, M. Pygmalion analyzed: Toward an explanation of the Rosenthal-Jacobson findings. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1971, 19, 197-203.

Rubovits, P., & Maehr, M. Pygmalion black and white. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1973, 25, 210-218.

Salvia, J., Clark, G., & Ysseldyke, J. Teacher retention of stereotypes of exceptionality. Exceptional Children, 1973, 40, 651-652.

Schain, S. Learning of low ability children and tutor behavior as a function of the self-fulfilling prophecy. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois, 1972.

Seaver, W. B. Effects on naturally induced teacher expectancies. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1973, 28, 332-342.

Skinner, B. F. The technology of teaching. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1968.

Snow, R. Review of Pygmalion in the classroom. Contemporary Psychology, 1969, 14, 197-200.

Thorndike, R. Review of Rosenthal, R. and Jacobson, L. Pygmalion in the classroom. American Educational Research Journal, 1968, 5, 708-711.

West, M. G. Is the LD label a biasing factor in teachers' perceptions? Paper presented at the Council for Exceptional Children's Annual Conference. Philadelphia, 1980.

Ysseldyke, J. E., & Foster, G. G. Bias in teacher's observations of emotionally disturbed and learning disabled children. Exceptional Children, 1978, 44(8), 613-615.

APPENDIX A

INSTRUCTIONAL PACKET

Page 1

For all three expectancy conditions:

The purpose of this activity is to determine if items from a standardized test can be selected to create "mini-tests" for specific grade levels and to determine if these mini-tests have a similar reliability and validity to the full-scale "parent" test from which the items were selected.

Page 2

For GT Condition:

Fred is a ten-year old fourth grader. Placement for the coming year was determined by the score achieved on a recently administered Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC). As a result of the test, Fred has been recommended for placement in a class for gifted and talented students.

You are about to see a video-tape of Fred being tested in three areas: general information, vocabulary, and arithmetic. Items in each area were selected from the WISC and are representative of Fred's age and grade level. How many of each of the ten items do you expect Fred to answer correctly? Please circle your answer.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

For N Condition:

Fred is a ten-year old fourth grader. Placement for the coming year was determined by the score achieved on a recently administered Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC). As a result of the test, Fred has been recommended for placement in the regular fifth grade program.

For EMH Condition:

Fred is a ten-year old fourth grader. Placement for the coming year was determined by the score achieved on a recently administered Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC). As a result of the test, Fred has been recommended for placement in a class for educable mentally handicapped students.

Page 3

For GT Condition:

The first ten items were selected from the general information section of the Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children. How many of the ten items do you expect Fred, who functions at a Gifted level, to answer correctly? Please circle your answer.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

For N Condition:

The first ten items were selected from the general information section of the Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children. How many of the ten items do you expect Fred, who functions at a Normal level, to answer correctly? Please circle your answer.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

For EMH Condition:

The first ten items were selected from the general information section of the Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children. How many of the ten items do you expect Fred, who functions at a Retarded level, to answer correctly? Please circle your answer.

1 3 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Page 4

For GT Condition:

The next ten items were selected from the vocabulary section of the Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children. How many of the ten items do you expect Fred, who functions at the Gifted level, to answer correctly? Please circle your answer.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

For N Condition:

The next ten items were selected from the vocabulary section of the Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children. How many of the ten items do you expect Fred, who functions at the Normal level, to answer correctly? Please circle your answer.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

For EMH Condition:

The next ten items were selected from the vocabulary section of the Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children. How many of the ten items do you expect Fred, who functions at the Retarded level, to answer correctly? Please circle your answer.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Page 5

For GT Condition:

The next ten items were selected from the arithmetic section of the Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children. How many of the ten items do you expect Fred, who functions at a Gifted level, to answer correctly? Please circle your answer.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

For N Condition:

The next ten items were selected from the arithmetic section of the Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children. How many of the ten items do you expect Fred, who functions at a Normal level, to answer correctly? Please circle your answer.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

For EMH Condition:

The next ten items were selected from the arithmetic section of the Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children. How many of the ten items do you expect Fred, who functions at the Retarded level, to answer correctly? Please circle your answer.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Page 6

For All Conditions:

Based on the information you now have, please check one of the following responses.

_____ I strongly agree with the placement decision.

_____ I somewhat agree with the placement decision.

_____ I am neutral on the placement decision.

_____ I somewhat disagree with the placement decision.

_____ I strongly disagree with the placement decision.

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONS SELECTED FROM WISC

General Information Questions

Questions	Answers
How many things make a dozen?	- 12? 12.
What color is a ruby?	- It's red.
What are the four seasons of the year?	- Summer, Fall, Winter, Spring.
How do you boil water?	- You have to heat it up on the stove.
How many pounds make a ton?	- 100.
Where does the sun set?	- (points) There.
What direction is that?	- East.
What does the stomach do?	- It gets food and then digests it.
Who wrote Romeo and Juliet?	- _____ I don't know.
Where is Chile?	- Chile is somewhere in South America.
Why does oil float on water?	- Uh, I'm not sure.

Vocabulary Questions

Questions	Answers
What is a donkey?	- An animal that carries things. Like a horse.
What is a sword?	- It's a big long knife - for fighting.
What does gamble mean?	- That's when you bet and you try to win things.
What is a diamond?	- Something that sparkles. You put it in rings, and it costs a lot.
What is a microscope?	- It's a thing you look through. It makes everything look real big.
What does join mean? Do you know what join means?	- (shakes head "no"). - No.
What does nuisance mean?	- (pause) I don't know.
What is a fable?	- That's a story that you tell kids.
What is nitroglycerine?	- I think it's something you clean with.
What is a shilling?	- Is it an animal? An animal.

Arithmetic Questions

Questions	Answers
A boy had 12 newspapers and sold 5. How many did he have left?	- 7.
A milkman had 25 bottles of milk and sold 11 of them. How many did he have left?	- 14.
John had 4 pennies and his mother gave him 2 more. How many pennies did he have altogether?	- 6.
James had 8 marbles and he bought 6 more. How many marbles did he have althogether?	- 13.
At 7¢ each, what will 3 cigars cost?	- 21 cents.
If 3 pencils cost 5¢, what will be the cost of 24 pencils?	- (pause) 40 cents.
36 is two-thirds of what number?	- (pause) I don't know.
A workman earned $36; he was paid $4 a day. How many days did he work?	- (pause) 8.
Four boys had 72 pennies. They divided them equally among themselves. How many pennies did each boy receive?	- (pause) Shakes head "No." I don't know.
If you buy 3 dozen oranges at 30¢ a dozen, how much change should you get back from 1.00?	- (pause) 10 cents.

APPENDIX C

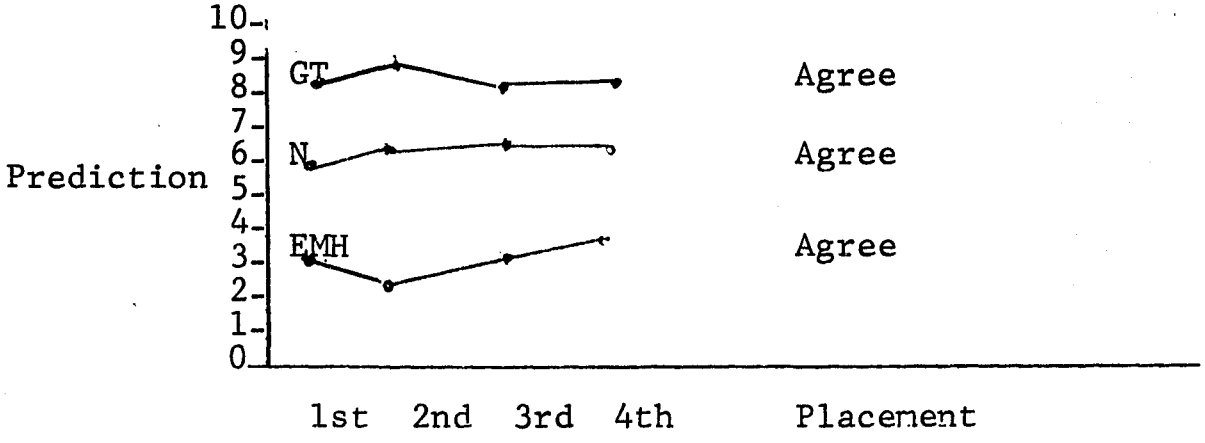
INSTRUCTIONAL SUMMARY OF PREVIOUS RESEARCH

The activity you have just completed was adapted from actual research studies of the effect of labels on the way teachers perceive children.

You were assigned one of three label conditions; that is, you were told that the child had been labeled as gifted and talented, normal, or educably mentally handicapped. The reason for doing this was to see if you, like other teachers, let that affect your expectations toward Fred. It has been shown that labels affect how we see children, even to the point of affecting how we predict how the child will perform or behave. The child you observed on the videotape called Fred is a normal child who was coached to give a normal performance on each of the tasks.

As the instructor charts the predictions and placement decisions made by this class, you might like to compare the effect of the three labels with that of the group of teachers in an actual study.

Graph from Previous Research



(Printed by permission of the author [Carter, 1980]).

In the study described, even though teachers were watching the same child, the power of the label was such that they never stopped seeing what the label told them they would see.

How's your class doing?

APPENDIX D

EXPERIMENTAL TEACHER REFERRAL FORM

(Dependent Measures)

F-Y Personality Questionnaire

Please complete each item of this personality measure by circling either "Yes" or "No." However, instead of answering the question as you normally would, answer them as you think the referred child would.

1.	Do you keep on working even if the job is hard?	YES	NO
2.	Is it hard for you to admit when you are wrong?	YES	NO
3.	Do you have to be reminded often to finish your work?	YES	NO
4.	Do people seem to think that you have good ideas?	YES	NO
5.	Are people often unfair to you?	YES	NO
6.	Is it hard for you to get people interested in your problems?	YES	NO
7.	Do you often have to give up your own plans because of other people?	YES	NO
8.	Do you feel that your friends can do what they want to more than you can?	YES	NO
9.	Do you have enough spending money?	YES	NO
10.	Do you find it hard to get acquainted with new students?	YES	NO
11.	Do you feel that you fit well into the school you attend?	YES	NO
12.	Is it hard for you to make friends?	YES	NO
13.	Do you have more problems to worry about than most boys and girls?	YES	NO

14.	Have you noticed that many people do and say mean things?	YES	NO
15.	Are you often bothered by headaches?	YES	NO
16.	Do you often have to ask people to repeat what they just said?	YES	NO
17.	Do most people consider you restless?	YES	NO
18.	Is it necessary to be kind to people you do not like?	YES	NO
19.	Is it necessary to be courteous to disagreeable persons?	YES	NO
20.	Is it important that one be friendly to all new students?	YES	NO
21.	Do you often find that it pays to help people?	YES	NO
22.	Do you often find that you can't be bothered by other people's feelings?	YES	NO
23.	Have you found that most people talk so much that you have to interrupt them to get a word in edgewise?	YES	NO
24.	Is it all right to take things when people are unreasonable in denying them?	YES	NO
25.	Have you found that telling lies is one of the easiest ways for people to stay out of trouble?	YES	NO
26.	Do you feel that some people deserve to be hurt?	YES	NO
27.	Do your folks seem to think that you'll be a success?	YES	NO
28,	Do you often have good times at home with your family?	YES	NO
29.	Do you sometimes feel that no one at home cares about you?	YES	NO
30.	Have you found that your teachers understand you?	YES	NO

31. Have you often thought that some of the teachers are unfair? YES NO

32. Would you be happier in school if the teachers were kinder? YES NO

33. Do most of the boys and girls near your home disobey the law? YES NO

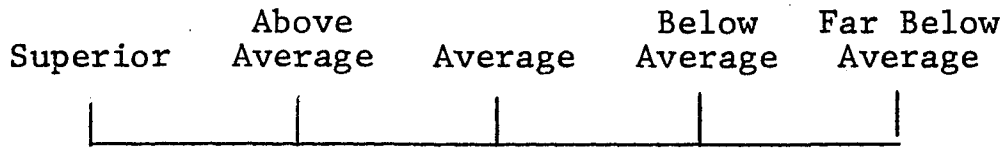
34. Are there people in your neighborhood whom you find hard to like? YES NO

35. Do you like most of the boys and girls in your neighborhood? YES NO

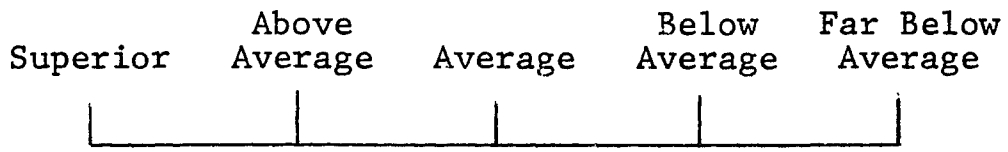
F-Y Behavior Checklist

Please rate the referred child on each of the following items. Place a checkmark along the line indicating your evaluation of the child's ability or development in each area. Ratings are to be made in comparison to other children of the same age.

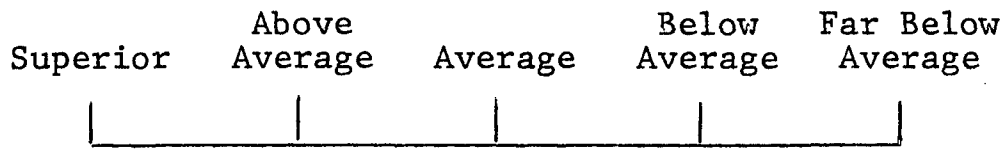
1. Knowledge of general information



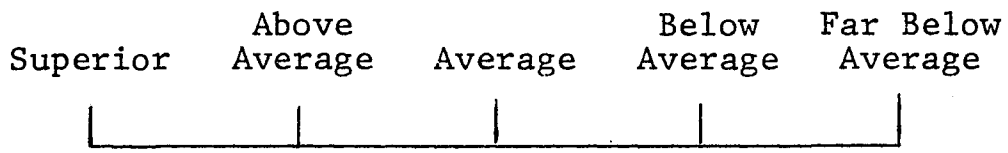
2. Ability to recognize words



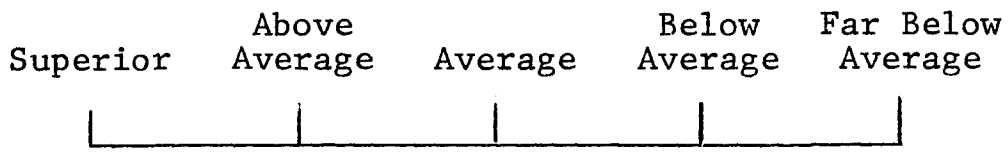
3. Handwriting ability



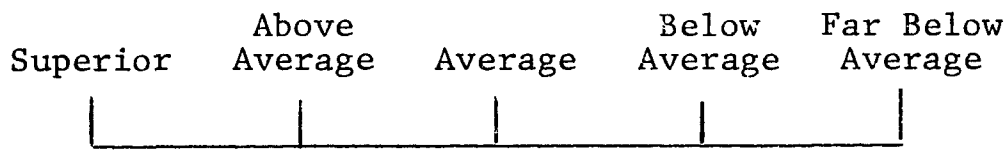
4. Phonetic word analysis ability



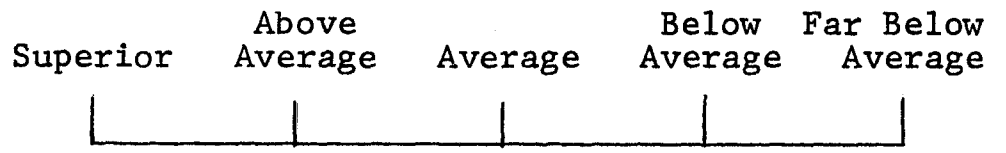
5. Spelling ability



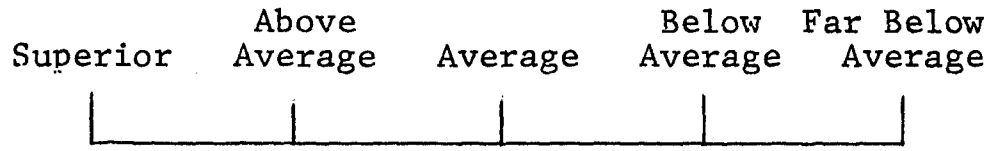
6. Arithmetic skills



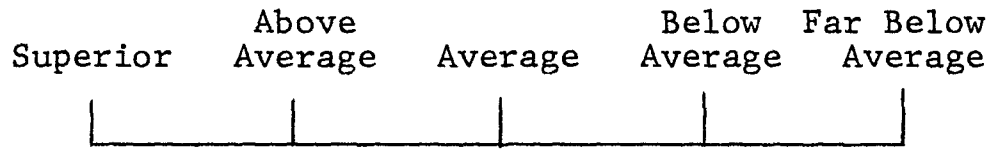
7. Overall academic skills



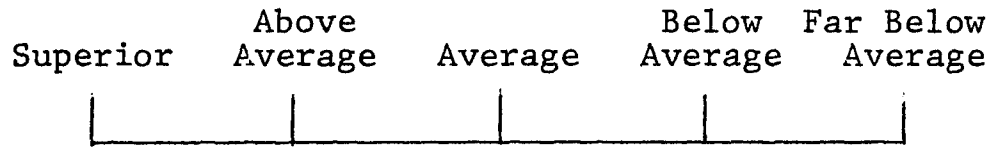
8. Overall intelligence



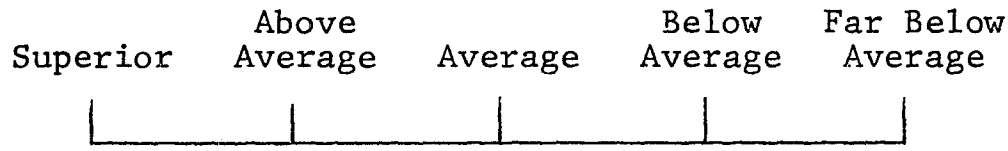
9. Ability to discriminate between similar visual stimuli (e.g., letters "d" and "b")



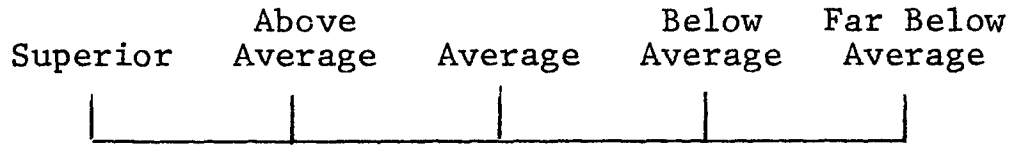
10. Maturity of language



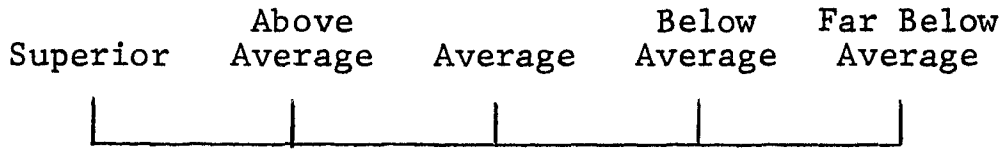
11. Speech development



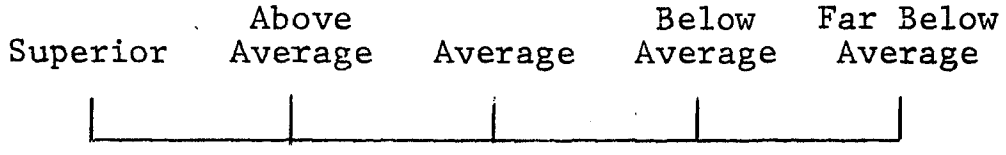
12. Problem attack skills



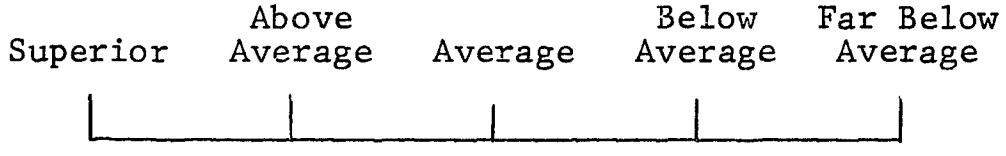
13. Precision of gross movements



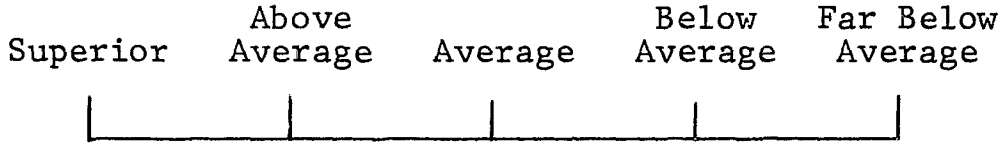
14. Precision of fine movements



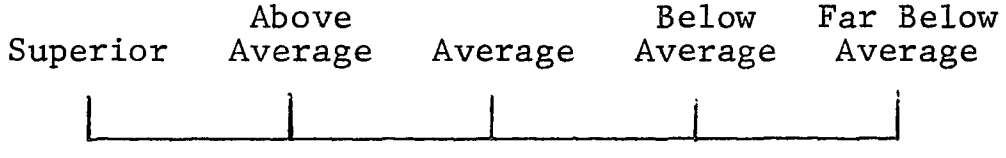
15. Social maturity with adults



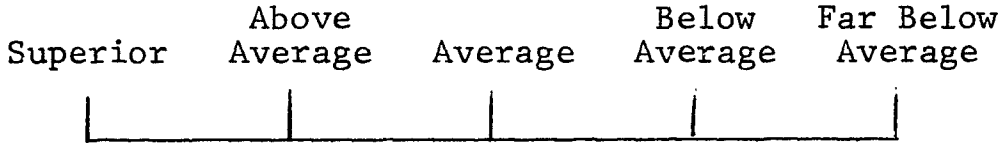
16. Social maturity with peers



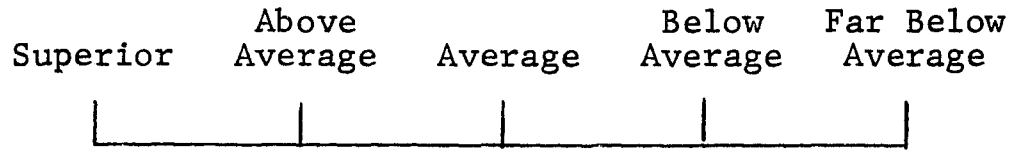
17. Self-confidence



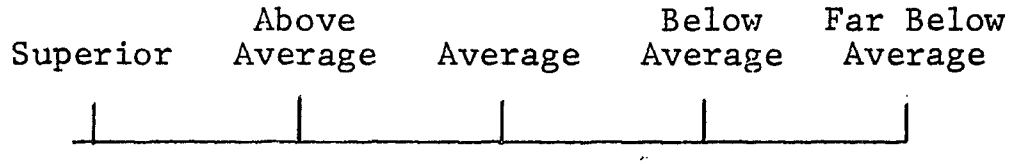
18. Maturity of play activities



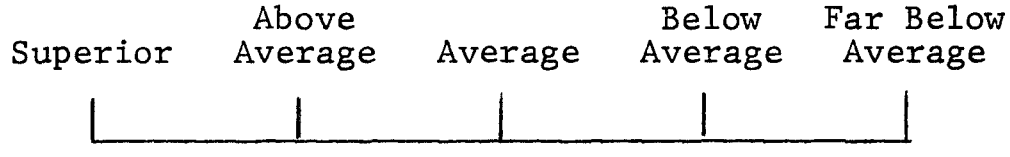
19. Overall personality adjustment



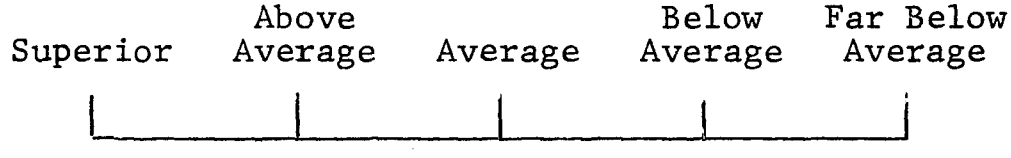
20. Enthusiasm toward task



21. Persistence on tasks



22. Attitude toward school



23. Realism of self-expectations