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A description of the causal attributions made to perceived teaching behavior across three elementary physical education contexts

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The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 1990

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A DESCRIPTION OF THE CAUSAL ATTRIBUTIONS

MADE TO PERCEIVED TEACHING BEHAVIOR

ACROSS THREE ELEMENTARY PHYSICAL

EDUCATION CONTEXTS

by

Marilyn Mros

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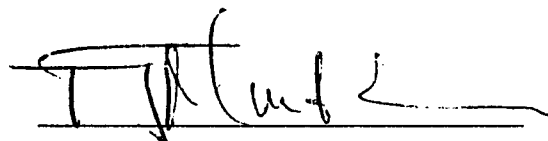
The purpose of this study was to investigate student perception and attribution patterns of teacher behavior for high-, average-, and low expectancy groups across three instructional contexts during elementary school physical education instruction. The three instructional contexts were cooperative, individual, and competitive. Teachers used the Teacher Expectation Inventory to determine student expectancy groups. Two randomly selected high-expectancy, average-expectancy, ar.d low-expectancy students from five second-grade and six third-grade classrooms composed the student sample for the study. Physical education classes taught within cooperative, individual, and competitive instructional contexts provided the reference for student reactions to interview questions concerning teacher behavior and attribution of causality. A structured interview was used to collect data from each expectancy group pertaining to the perception and attribution of teacher behavior across the three instructional contexts. Interviews were conducted at the end of each phase. Attributions of perceived teacher behaviors were categorized into one of the four outlined categories and reported in percentage of occurrence. Variations in student perception and attribution of teacher behavior were reported in relation to each expectancy group and instructional context. Student statements were

used to augment expectancy and context variations in student perception and attribution of specific teacher behaviors. The expectancy group appeared to influence both student perception and attribution of teacher behavior. Instructional context, however, appeared to have little influence on student perception and attribution of teacher behavior. Based on the results of this study, the researcher provided suggestions for future research in the area of teacher expectations.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work is dedicated to my parents

Stanley and Sylvia Mros

In loving memory of

F. Wallace Hendrix

"Papa"

1917-1984

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Teacher expectations are rooted in the theory of the self-fulfilling prophecy (Martinek, Crowe, & Rejeski, 1982; Merton, 1949), which operates on the assumption that a belief held by one person about another person can act as a stimulus to behaviors which communicate the belief in such a way as to verify or fulfill the original belief (Good & Brophy, 1978; Martinek et al.,1982; Merton, 1949; Rosenthal & Jacobson,1968; Smale, 1977). Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) induced high teachers expectations of randomly selected students in their controversial Oak School experiment. These artificial expectations were found to improve student test scores substantially over the course of the experiment, especially in younger children.

Good and Brophy (1978) also reported that teacher expectations are directly related to student achievement. They proposed a linear model acknowledging the child's ability to actively resist or change the teacher's behavior through nonconformance to the expectation. Specifically, the model proposed the following:

1. The teacher expects specific behaviors and achievement from particular students.

2. Because of these expectations, the teacher behaves differently toward different students.

3. This teacher treatment tells the students what behavior and achievement the teacher expects from them and affects their self-concept, achievement motivation, and level of aspiration.

4. If this teacher treatment is consistent over time, and if the students do not actively resist or change it in some way, it will tend to shape their achievement and behavior. High expectation students will be led to achieve at high levels, while the achievement of low expectation students will decline.

5. With time, the students' achievement and behavior will conform more and more closely to that originally expected of them.

Martinek et al., (1982) also presented a model of the way self-fulfilling prophecies operate in physical education and sport. The model for the study of pygmalion effects in physical education and sport is as follows:
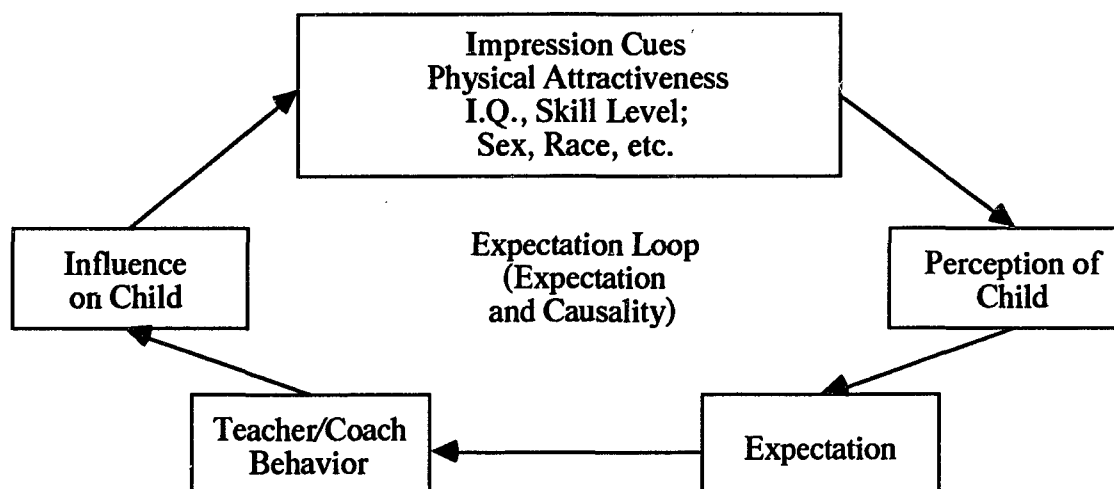
Figure 1. Model for the study of pygmalion effects in physical education and sport.

This model also shows the relationship of teacher expectations to child growth and behavior. However, the Martinek et al. (1982) model differs from the Good and Brophy (1978) model in two distinct ways. First, it points out that initial impression cues can differentially influence teacher perception of the child, subsequent expectation formation, and related teacher behavior and that these processes have a significant impact on the child's self-perception and subsequent behavior.

Second, child behavior influenced by teacher behavior in turn often supports the interpretation of initial cues which served to form the basis of the original expectation, thus perpetuating the cycle. This may have varying influence on the child depending on the nature of the original expectation.

Implicit in both the Good and Brophy (1978) and the Martinek et al. (1982) models is the notion that teacher behavior and student perceptions are crucial to the transmission of expectations.

Both of these models attempt to explain that variability in teacher expectation and resultant behavior is to be anticipated because of the nature of various factors entering into the development of interpersonal relationships. Students and teachers bring different assets and liabilities to the classroom and each in turn perceives and attributes behavior in diverse ways (Darley & Fazio, 1980; Dunkin & Biddle, 1974).

Student perception and attribution of teacher behavior are thought to be key factors in the final effect teacher expectations have on students. Darley

and Fazio (1980) and Heider (1958) contended that perception is a constructive, interpretive process through which conclusions concerning the behavior of others are derived. Jones, Kanouse, Kelly, Nisbett, Valins, and Weiner (1972) and Harvey, Ickes, and Kidd (1981) defined attribution as that which deals with the rules the average individual uses in an attempt to explain the causes of behavior. The attribution of events to casual sources is influential in the structuring of behavior and in affecting behavior change (Heider, 1958; Jones et al.,1972).

The following model for the study of expectancy confirmation processes arising from the social interaction sequence proposed by Darley and Fazio (1980) highlights perception and attribution of behavior.

1. Either because of past observations of the other or because of the categories into which he or she has encoded the other, a perceiver develops a set of expectancies about a target person.

2. The perceiver then acts toward the target person in a way that is in accord with his or her expectations of the target person.

3. The target interprets the meaning of the perceiver's action.

4. Based on the interpretation, the target responds to the perceiver's action.

5. The perceiver interprets the target's action, thus re-entering the interaction sequence loop at step 2.

6. After acting toward the perceiver, the target person interprets the meaning of his or her own action.

Additionally, Darley and Fazio (1980) include the interpretation of perception related to the self-fulfilling prophecy. This is a variable not presented in models of the self-fulfilling prophecy previously discussed.

Interpretation includes both perception and attribution. Teacher behavior, and subsequent communication of expectations, can affect students differently according to their perception of the behavior and the attribution of causality attached to the behavior (Darley & Fazio, 1980; Jones et al. 1972). This may help explain why some students appear to be more affected by teacher expectations than other students. Step 3 of the Darley and Fazio model includes four possible categories of attribution which may be used by the student (target) to account for the teacher's (perceiver's) actions:

1. Dispositional characteristics of the perceiver: an attribution made directly to the perceiver.

2. Attributions to the situation: attributions to elements of the situation rather than to dispositions of the other actor.

3. The target's self-attributions: the target can be aware that the perceiver's actions toward him or her may be based on some characteristic of himself or herself.

4. Complex attributions: attribution of the cause of the perceiver's action to interactions of the three determinants above.

Perception and attribution of teacher behavior are not the only factors relative to expectations which are thought to influence student behavior. It is also found that instructional context can affect the way teachers form expectations and that this may affect teacher-student interaction significantly. Martinek & Karper (1986) stated that teacher expectations may be subject to variation and modification in relation to educational objectives and instructional environment. For the purpose of this research, instructional context will be defined in social and environmental terms.

It is the intent of this research to describe the impact of three specific social environments on teacher expectancy effects for high-, average-, and low-expectancy groups. These environments are designed to foster cooperation, individual achievement, and competition. The educational environment fostered by the goal structure of the teacher is thought by Moos (1979) to have important effects on student behavior and performance outcomes. Cooperative, individual, and competitive instructional contexts are the most widely implemented and researched instructional environments represented in education (Deutsch, 1949a, 1949b; Johnson & Johnson, 1974, 1975, 1979).

The Darley and Fazio (1980) and the Martinek et al. (1982) models are alike in that both recognize the influence of student behavior induced by teacher expectations on subsequent teacher behavior. The following model is a combination of the Martinek et al. (1982) model and the Darley and Fazio (1980) model.
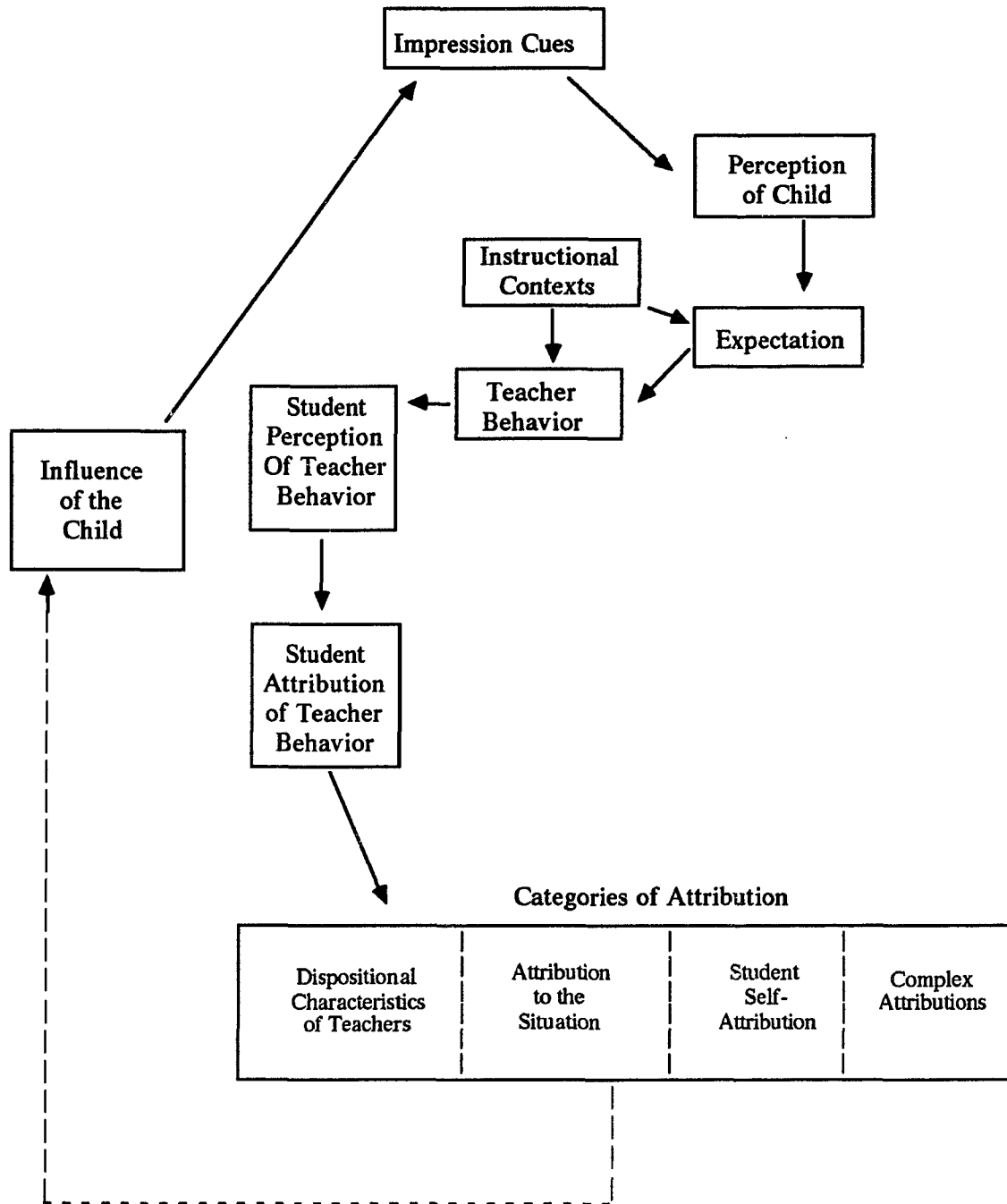
Figure 2

Model for The Study of Mediating Factors of Teacher Expectations in Physical Education

Instructional context is added to the model as a variable which may

influence teacher expectation and teacher behavior (Dunkin & Biddle, 1974;

Johnson & Johnson, 1975). Combined with the addition of the

instructional context, these models collectively provide a more powerful framework for the study of teacher expectations and related variables.

The proposed model provides a broader perspective of teacher behavior not only as it functions to communicate expectations but as it is perceived and attributed by those for whom the expectations are formed. From this model it is hypothesized that the behavior of the student is influenced by the teacher's behavior only when the child perceives and categorizes the behavior into some scheme of attribution. Very little is known about the ways students perceive and attribute teacher behavior in the physical education setting. These particular processes are important in explaining teacher expectancy effects. The category of attribution ascribed for the teacher's behavior by the child is an important factor influencing the behavior of the child. It is possible for similar teacher behaviors to be attributed to different categories by different students, thus influencing their behavior diversely (Darley & Fazio, 1980).

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study was to investigate student perception and attribution of teacher behavior in the transmission of teacher expectations across cooperative, individual, and competitive instructional contexts. Specific questions which provided the framework for this research were as follows:

1. What teacher behaviors do high-, average-, and low-expectancy

students perceive during physical education instruction and are these static across cooperative, individual, and competitive instructional contexts?

2. Into which of the following four categories of attribution are perceived teacher behaviors classified by high-, average-, and low-expectancy students?

   1) Dispositional characteristics of the teacher.

   2) Attribution to the situation.

   3) Student self-attribution.

   4) Complex attributions.

Definition of Terms

The terms to be used in this investigation are operationally defined as follows:

Teacher Expectations. Expectations held by the teacher for student behavior and achievement (Good & Brophy, 1978). The communication of expectations through the medium of teacher-student interaction may influence students to respond in accordance with the expectations (Johnson, 1979).

Student Perception. The process of inference through which conclusions were derived by the student on the basis of events occurring in the environment (Heider, 1958). Target event for the purpose of this study was teacher behavior.

High-, Average-, and Low-Expectancy Groups. The high-expectancy group comprised of students rated 7, 6, or 5 on the Teacher Expectation Inventory (TEI) (Martinek & Karper, 1984). The average-expectancy group comprised of students rated 4 on the TEI. The low-expectancy group comprised of students rated 3, 2, or 1 on the TEI.

Instructional Context. Specifically created educational and social environments. For the purpose of this research the three instructional contexts were cooperative, individual, and competitive.

Cooperative Context. Activities and games which emphasized group cohesiveness and cooperation to achieve a common goal. The teachers' behavior in this context encouraged group problem solving.

Individual Context. Activities structured so that individual skill development was stressed for each student's own level, to allow progress at the student's own rate with individual guidance and direction from the teacher.

Competitive Context. Games and activities which emphasized participation against other students or teams, stressing a winner and a loser. The teacher employed behaviors which stressed and reinforced these concepts.

Attribution. The categorization of the causes of the behavior directed toward a person from other people (Harvey et al. 1981).

<u>Dispositional Characteristics of the Perceiver.</u>   Attribution made directly to the perceiver (teacher) (Darley & Fazio, 1980).

<u>Attribution to the Situation.</u> Attributions to elements of the situation or environment (Darley & Fazio, 1980).

<u>Target's Self-Attribution.</u> The student's awareness that the teacher's actions toward him or her may have been based on some characteristic he or she possessed (Darley & Fazio, 1980).

<u>Complex Attributions.</u> Attribution of the cause of the teacher's behavior to interactions of the three determinants above:

   a) dispositional characteristics of the perceiver

   b) attributions to the situation

   c) target's self-attributions (Darley & Fazio, 1980).

Assumptions

The following assumptions were acknowledged to underlie this research:

1. Expectations held by one person for the performance of another were communicated, thereby influencing that person's behavior positively or negatively in accordance with the original expectation (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968).

2. Second-grade and third-grade children were capable of attributing causality to those factors which corresponded consistently with the effect.

3. The interview questions were interpreted by all groups of students in a consistent manner, therefore revealing student understanding of question intent.

4. Student responses were accurate representations of their perception and attribution of teacher behavior.

5. Students were able to remember teacher behaviors that occurred during the six week time period between interview sessions.

Scope

The scope of this investigation is delimited as follows:

1. Subjects were selected from two elementary schools in Salisbury, North Carolina. The student sample for the study was comprised of two randomly selected high-, average-, and low-expectancy students from five second-grade and six third grade classrooms. The data collected from a final sample of 56 students were analyzed.

2. Physical education classes taught in a natural setting within coopera- tive, individual, and competitive instructional contexts provided the reference for student reaction to interview questions concerning teacher behavior and attribution of causality. Physical education instruction was provided by the regular classroom teacher.

3. The means for collection of data in this study took place in two ways. First, the Teacher Expectation Inventory (TEI) (Martinek & Karper,

1984) was used to identify high, average, and low expectancy students. Then, a structured interview was used to collect data from high-, average-, and low-expectancy students pertaining to their perceptions and attribution of teacher behavior across cooperative, individual, and competitive instructional contexts.

4. Data collection extended over a five-month period beginning in January 1984 and ending in May 1984. There was a separate interview for each subject upon the completion of each instructional context.

Significance of the Study

Darley and Fazio, (1980), Martinek et al. (1982), Mendals and Flanders (1973), Purkey and Novak (1984), and others showed that teacher behaviors can communicate attitudes, expectations, and evaluation to students. The term "communicate", as used in this context, was divided into two components: teacher behavior and student perception of that behavior (Cooper, 1979). The teacher behavior is only important in influencing student behavior if it is perceived by students.

Teacher behaviors have been shown to affect different students in different ways (Purkey & Novak 1984). The mediating factor determining influence in either a positive or negative direction is the students' attribution of the teacher behavior as they perceive it (Jones et al., 1972). Perceived teacher behavior which leads students to attribute failure to factors beyond their control causes

students to give up or to demonstrate poor performance (Dweck, Goetz, &

Strauss, 1980). Teacher behavior attributed to internally controlled conditions

is deemed amendable by the students themselves. The students can change their

behavior in order to affect the desired change in teacher behavior.

This research has the potential for producing information that contributes

to the understanding of the teacher expectancy phenomenon as it relates to the

perceptions and attributions of young children.

This study will focus on the perception and attribution of teacher behavior

across cooperative, individual, and competitive instructional contexts by

second-grade and third-grade high-, average-, and low- expectancy students.

It is hoped that this research will result in a better understanding of teacher

behavior as a salient and influential variable in the transmission of teacher

expectations, which are thought to influence young children.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The model for the study of mediating factors of teacher expectations in physical education is primarily composed of four variables which may be substantiated by existing literature. Literature pertinent to this model in the areas of Teacher Expectations, Instructional Context, Perception, and Attribution is included in this section to provide background and depth for the new model.

Teacher Expectations

Expectations are equated with the theory of the self-fulfilling prophecy, which deals with the study of dynamic social mechanisms that often produce the very circumstances assumed to exist. Projected confidently, as fact, the erroneous expectation produces false confirmation of itself (Merton, 1949).

According to Brophy and Good (1974), many students do not fulfill their potential because their teachers do not expect much from them and are satisfied with poor or average performance. The concept of teacher expectations is defined by several authors. Merton (1949) described the self-fulfilling prophecy as "in the beginning, a false definition of the situation evoking new behavior which makes the originally false conception come true" (p. 181). The actual course of events will eventually be cited as proof that the original "false definition" was true. Merton associated the self-fulfilling

prophecy with a "vicious cycle," which may be broken only by abandoning the initial false definition of the situation. Good and Brophy (1978), Purkey (1970), Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968), and Smale (1977) indicated that the self-fulfilling prophecy is based on the assumption that a belief held by one person about another person can act as a stimulus to behaviors which communicate the belief in such a way as to verify or fulfill the original belief.

The self-fulfilling prophecy is operational through the transmission of the expectation both verbally and nonverbally (Jones, 1977). Because of the interactional quality of teacher-student relationships it is important to recognize the cyclical effect both teacher and student behavior have on the resulting expectations (Martinek et al, 1982).

Somatotype, facial expression, race, experience, age, ethnic background, etc. often cause expectation categorization. Behavior toward others adapts when this categorization is made. Expectations formed for a student because of a particular categorization may cause teacher behaviors that transmit the expectation to the student, eliciting student behavior that in many cases supports the original expectation (Jones, 1986).

Good and Brophy (1978) contended that school achievement is not simply a matter of a child's native ability. Other factors such as teacher expectation and ability grouping play an important role in student achievement.

Feather (1982) showed that teachers' expectations about students'

achievement can be affected by factors having little or nothing to do with ability and that these expectations can determine level of achievement by confining learning experiences to those available in a given ability track. For example, Beez (1968) monitored teaching behavior in a study of achievement differences and found that resultant achievement differences noted were a direct result of differences in the teacher behavior to which children were exposed. It was found that low-expectancy children were taught less material then high-expectancy students.

Good and Brophy (1978) also found that teachers treat high-achieving students in ways likely to insure continued success, while treating low achievers in ways likely to slow their progress. Teacher behavior has been found to be different for students about whom low expectations are formed. For example, low-expectation students are given insufficient wait time, rewards for inappropriate or inadequate behavior, and fewer verbal and nonverbal reinforcers. Jones (1977) stated that if people believe they are perceived in an unfavorable manner by another, their behavior in following interactions is affected independently of the other person's actions in that particular situation. Expectations often appear to influence both the behavior of the person holding the expectation and the behavior of the person about whom the expectation is held (Jones, 1977). Brophy (1982) pointed out that the ways in which a teacher perceives a student determine patterns of behavior

for both the teacher and the student. This influences the ultimate success or failure of that student.

Good (1980) suggested that the educational decline of certain students could be altered by making teachers more aware of their teaching behavior and its consequences for students. The nature of the average classroom is very busy, with teacher-student exchanges exceeding 1,000 in a given day. Because of this fast pace, there is little basis or occasion for an expectation to be changed once it is formed.

Good (1980) found 11 particular teacher behaviors that illustrate how teachers treat high- and low-expectation students differently. Teachers tend to do the following:

1. Seat low students farther from the teacher or seat lows in a group.

2. Pay less attention to lows in academic situations (smile less often and maintain less eye contact).

3. Call on lows less often to answer classroom questions or to make public demonstrations.

4. Wait less time for lows to answer.

5. Fail to stay with lows in failure situations.

6. Criticize lows more frequently than highs for unsuccessful public response.

7. Praise lows less frequently than highs for successful public response.

8. Praise lows less frequently than highs for marginal or inadequate public response.

9. Provide low achievement students with less accurate and less detailed feedback than highs.

10. Fail to provide lows with feedback about their responses more frequently than highs.

11. Demand less work and effort from lows than from highs.

   (pp. 87-88)

Instructional Context

The instructional context is thought to be an influential factor contributing to the original teacher expectation and to the teacher behavior stemming from that expectation. There are numerous contextual conditions such as subject matter, design of the work area, class size, and goal structure, which influence the selection of instructional tasks, student and teacher behavior, and ultimately, learning. For the purpose of this study, the instructional context is defined as the social environment created in the classroom or gym. More specifically,this environment can be categorized as cooperative, individual, and competitive instructional contexts. A cooperative environment was created through games and group movement activities which emphasized group cohesiveness and working together to achieve a common goal. An individual environment is reflected in

movement activities structured so that individual skill development was stressed for each student on his or her own level. Finally, the competitive environment is characterized by games which emphasized participation against other students or teams, stressing a winner and a loser.

Interactions occurring within these particular instructional environments may elicit diverse behavior as a result of inherent social and physical demands. Tajfel (1969) reported that certain interaction patterns may mean different things to different students in light of the instructional context in which the interaction occurs. According to Tajfel, particular groups develop defined sets of conditions by which they form perceptions and base behavior. This forms the link between the conditions and the expected response. Events occurring within different environments may elicit different responses from students because of the social group to which the student belongs. Vocabulary, syntax, grammar, phonetics, intonation, facial expression, and social environment are some of the stimuli which may cause varying responses in light of group membership.

Varying contexts also require the use of a variety of skills and strengths. Particular strengths and abilities may cause a student to excel in one context and fail in another. The instructional context may influence the formation of teacher expectations with regard to educational objectives and student abilities. Teacher expectation may change for students as desired goals vary

in relation to the instructional context (Braun, 1976). This can have a significant impact on the way teachers interact with their high and low students.

In physical education, Martinek and Karper (1986) presented research which pointed out the possibility that differential teacher interaction patterns could be a function of the instructional environment, especially with regard to high- and low-expectancy students. Results of this study showed that during the individual game phase, high-ability students received significantly more technical information than did low-ability students. In the competitive phase of instruction, instructors were more accepting of the high-ability students' suggestions and ideas. Results of the cooperative phase of this study indicated that the instructors encouraged the use of the low-ability students' ideas during the various problem-solving tasks, and they were asked more questions.

Person Perception

The study of the effects of teacher expectations entails many variables inherent in person-to-person interaction. Teacher expectations cannot influence a student's performance unless perceived by the student. Many factors influence the perception of interpersonal behavior. In this section person perception is related to teacher expectation in order to substantiate the inclusion of person perception as a salient factor in the dynamics of the self-fulfilling prophecy.

Person perception is a dynamic process by which people organize and interpret the behavior of others. Student perception of teacher behavior is influenced by several of the factors discussed in the following paragraphs.

The stimulus field, in terms of social perception, is more extended and diverse than the field of thing perception (Heider, 1958). Behavior characteristics are only a part of the stimulus field which influence perceptions. According to Weinstein and Middlestadt (1979), the very fact that students are influenced by the total picture presents the possibility that they are attending to a set of behavioral cues which may be different from those intended by the teacher. This differential cue attendance is important when considering the effect perception has on the performance of a given individual and the residual teacher expectation formed in relation to this behavior. The conditions or context in which the behavior occurs is constantly included as a part of the stimuli on which perception is based.

Teacher behavior which varies across instructional context and expectancy group causes subsequent revision of student self-expectations. The perception of others and the factors influencing it are major determinants of the eventual effect the original teacher expectation has on student performance (Brattesani, K., Weinstein, R., Marshall, H.,1984; Meyer 1982).

Person perception is relatively consistent. Individuals integrate their central beliefs with a general perceptual system described by Heider (1958). This system identifies the process which relays terms of perception to the perceiver. It includes the following four variables:

a) The motives of the perceived

b) the sentiments of the perceived

c) the beliefs of the perceived

d) the personality traits of the perceived

Teacher perceptual interaction cues, picked up by the student, are arranged within this framework to maximize perceptual consistency. Individuals develop a perceptual style which may determine the effects expectations have on their performance (Freeman, et al., 1974).

Heider (1958) also presented a four variable framework which can be used to develop perceptual style:

a) knowledge about the person whose behavior is being analyzed or perceived

b) the "personal-ness" of the behavior

c) the relationship between the perceiver and the perceived

d) the situation in which the interaction takes place (p. 46)

These factors provide a basis for inferred perceptual meaning which is important in determining the effect of the expectation-related behavior.

Cultural variables are also influential in determining the perceptual effects of expectation-related teacher behavior and the development of perceptual style. Perception is influenced by the value system inherent in the perceiver and the culture or group to which the perceiver belongs. Tajfel (1969) presented three categories---functional salience, familiarity, and systems of communication---as those encompassing the cultural influence exerted on perception. Functional salience is defined as the ecological properties of the environment in which an individual lives. In particular environments certain discriminators become more important than others. Familiarity, in social terms, is related to the cultural exposure to types of human artifacts unfamiliar to those living in another culture. Systems of communication refers to those language, visual, and auditory symbols common to individual cultures which vary in relation to beliefs, customs, heritage, and social practice.

Student perception of expectation-related teacher behavior is influenced by many or all of the factors which impinge on general social perception. The organization of expectation-related stimuli, in the form of teacher-student interaction, into a personal perceptual scheme characterizes the influential effects perception has on classroom performance. The variables described by Heider (1958) and Tajfel (1969) encompass those which have been found most salient in the process of person perception.

Attribution

The theory of attribution takes the theory of social perception one step further. According to West & Anderson (1976) and Schunk (1983), the perceptual encoding of a teacher behavior leads to eventual attributional categorization. Encoding and attribution are thought to be important in the eventual effect teacher expectations have on student achievement.

Attribution is the term used to describe the phenomenon of assigning meaning to events which transpire during daily human interaction. It is defined as the psychological scheme which deals with the rules the average individual uses in an attempt to explain the causes of behavior (Harvey et al., 1981; Jones et al., 1972;). Attribution theory attempts to aid in the understanding of the cause-and-effect relations that underlie and give stable meaning to constantly changing events (Duval, & Duval,1983; Freedman et al., 1974; Harvey et al., 1981; Heider, 1958; Jones, 1977; Jones et al., 1972; Kelly, 1967; Schunk, 1983). The attribution of events to causal sources is influential in the structuring of behavior and in affecting behavior change (Heider, 1958; Jones et al., 1972). According to Jones et al., (1972), there are three basic assumptions used in assigning attributions to an event:

1. The individual attempts to assign a cause for important instances of his behavior and that of others; when necessary, he seeks information that enables him to do so.

2. One's assignment of causes is determined in a systematic

   manner.

3. The particular cause one attributes for a given event has

   important consequences for one's subsequent feelings and

   behavior. The meaning of the event and the subsequent

   reaction to it are determined to an important degree

   by its assigned cause (p.xi).

Heider (1958) stated that variation in attribution may be a function of

developmental maturity. Teachers and students have access to different aspects

of available information which has an effect on the course and outcome of the

attribution process.

Heider originally proposed four categories as antecedent conditions

effecting causal attributions. These are ability, task difficulty, luck, and effort.

According to Heider, perceived ability at a given task is a function of the

degree of past success at that and similar tasks. Ability attributions deal with

consistency and general performance. Task difficulty is inferred from social

norms. It is thought that performance which varies from social norms--such

as success when others fail or failure when others succeed--is likely to give use

to internal attributions and self-evaluative judgments.The more variation

found in the outcome of any event, the higher the probability that luck will be

perceived as the causal influence.

The effort aspect of Heider's proposal deals with the covariation of performance with incentive value, or covariation with cues such as perceived muscular tension or task persistence. These variables conceivably lead to an inference that effort is a dominant behavioral determinant. Heider originally used these four sources of information to classify and study the attribution of behavior.

A later model proposed by Weiner, Frieze, Kukla, Reed, Rest, & Rosenbaum (1971) centered around Heider's four sources of information used to classify behavior. In this model the original four categories are further divided into the dimensions of locus of control and stability. Locus of control describes the cause of behavior as either internal or external. Stability and locus of control are used in the following model to further explain the basis of causal attribution.

		LOCUS OF CONTROL DIMENSION	
		Internal	External
STABILITY	Stable	ability	task difficulty
DIMENSION	Unstable	effort	luck

Figure 3. Weiner, Frieze, Kukla, Reed, Rest, & Rosenbaum Model (1971)

The Weiner et al. (1971) model is useful in classifying and discussing causal attribution as well as in lending vocabulary and structure to the understanding of expectations in the educational process.

Darley and Fazio (1980) extended the Weiner et al. (1971) model to include categories of attribution which may help to clarify the effects teacher expectations have on teaching behavior and student performance. They believe that student response to teacher behavior is likely to vary according to the category of attribution assigned to the particular teacher behavior. This model may be used by the student to assign meaning to the teacher's behavior. The model is as follows:

a) Dispositional characteristics of the perceiver

b) attributions to the situation

c) the target's self-attribution

d) complex attributions

Attributions made to dispositional characteristics of the perceiver include all attributions made directly to the perceiver. For the purpose of this study, this means the child's attribution of the perceived teacher behavior directly to the teacher.

Attributions to the situation refer to all elements of the situation or environment. This type of attribution in the present study means the student's attribution of the perceived teacher behavior to the structure of the physical education class, game, or activity.

The target's self-attribution here means the student's awareness that the teacher's actions toward the student may be based on some characteristic of the

student.The term is referred to in this study as the student's attribution of the perceived teacher behavior to himself or herself as a cause for the teacher behavior.

Complex attributions include attribution of the cause of the teacher's behavior to interactions of any of the three determinants above. In this study the complex attribution category includes any response which uses two or more of the categories as a causal descriptor.

Classroom environments have shown very different attribution patterns. Some activities attribute success to ability more than effort (as in art, for example) and some to effort more than ability (e.g., social studies). Within sports activities, effort, ability, and being better than the other team are the most common attributions (Frieze & Snyder, 1980). Teacher expectations are related to the pattern of attribution developed by students. Student response to teacher behavior is likely to vary according to the category of attribution assigned to the particular teacher behavior.

Students who perceive teachers as having low expectations for them in a particular activity are likely to reciprocate with behaviors supporting the original expectation (Darley and Fazio,1980). Cooper and Lowe (1977) stated that it is the attribution of behaviors related to teacher expectations which influences behavior and performance. Students who attribute teacher behavior to causes beyond their control are likely to give up without attaining

a significant level of proficiency. Students attributing teacher behavior to factors within their control are likely to work hard in spite of adversity and attain a significant level of skill proficiency. According to Weiner (1972), student attribution of teacher behavior plays an important role in the resultant effect of teacher expectations. Reciprocal teacher-student interaction is influenced by all preceding behaviors from both teachers and students.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to investigate student perception and attribution of teacher behavior in the transmission of teacher expectations across cooperative, individual, and competitive instructional contexts. This chapter describes the methods and procedures used to implement the study. The model was designed to broaden the perspective of factors influencing student perception and attribution of teacher behavior across the three instructional contexts.

Sample

Subject data were collected from a sample of 56 male and female second-grade and third-grade children from two elementary schools in the Salisbury (North Carolina) City School system. Both schools had a like population of middle-to-low income students. The population of students from which the sample was drawn was approximately 150 second-grade and 150 third-grade students. Teacher ratings were stratified for each class into groups identified as high-, average-, and low-expectancy groups. Expectancy ratings were taken three times during the study. Separate ratings were made for each student before each instructional context. A random sample of two students from each strata in each class was selected. None of the subjects shifted from group to group. Subjects for final analysis were 21 in the high group, 21 in the average

group, and 14 in the low group. Student attrition rate was 2 students from the low group.

A brief description of the research was verbally presented to the subjects prior to any involvement in the study or implementation of any investigative instrument. The subjects were informed of their privilege to withdraw their participation from the research at any time. Consent of the student's parent or guardian was required. Prior to implementation, this study was approved by the Human Subjects Review Committee in the Department of Physical Education at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Preparation of Teachers

Physical education classes were taught by second grade and third grade regular classroom teachers. Therefore, none of the teachers had extensive training in physical education. Preparation of the teachers included workshops provided by research personel. Teachers attended a two-hour inservice workshop which included demonstration and explanation of sample lessons from each instructional context and a question-and-answer session. Workshops specific to each instructional context were provided at the onset of that particular instructional phase. Workshop personnel were available to teachers throughout the study as a resource for clarification of lesson plans, to monitor teacher execution of lesson plans, and to provide appropriate feedback. Teachers were required to teach within the framework of the

prescribed units of instruction. Lesson plans were provided for each lesson in all three instructional contexts so that the environments created were static in both schools and across all classes. These teachers were all female with years of teaching experience ranging from 8 to 28 years. They were responsible for teaching physical education three times a week for thirty minutes. The class size ranged from twenty-two to twenty-five students. Teachers were required to rate students with the Teacher Expectation Inventory at the beginning of each instructional context.

Teacher Expectation Inventory (TEI)

The purpose of the TEI was to derive a score for each student indicative of the teacher's expectation for his or her ability to perform physically. The TEI was developed by Martinek & Karper (1983) as a scale to identify high-, average-, and low-expectancy students. The TEI is a 7-point Likert-type scale with ratings of 1-very low, 2-low, 3-somewhat low, 4-average, 5-somewhat high, 6-high, 7-very high. Students scoring 3, 2, or 1 were classified as low-expectation students. Students scoring 4 were classified as average-expectation students. Students scoring 7, 6, or 5 were classified as high-expectation students. In prior studies test-retest reliability scores reported for three teachers over a three-week interval for this instrument ranged from .94 to .88 for overall performance in physical skills (Martinek, 1980). A copy of the TEI is included in Appendix A.

At the beginning of the each instructional unit, five second-grade and six third-grade classroom teachers asked to teach physical education were required to assign expectancy scores for each student using the Teacher Expectancy Inventory (TEI) (Martinek & Karper, 1983). The sample consisted of students from each of the 11 classes, with approximately 2 from each category of expectation.

Instructional Context

Physical education instruction was provided to students during a 30-minute period three times a week. The physical education lessons consisted of three instructional units, each approximately six weeks in length.

The following instructional contexts, in sequence, included prescribed lessons in three areas: cooperative, individual, and competitive. Johnson & Johnson (1974) suggested that these three instructional contexts are generally representative of those most widely implemented in education. Cooperative activities were included first for several reasons:

a) to help students and teachers get acquainted with each other,

b) to prepare them to work together to achieve a common goal,

c) to respect the work of others,

d) to accept difference in peer ability.

The cooperative activities included games and activities structured to foster group cohesiveness, decision making, and sharing. The activities in this

context were modeled after the work of Orlick (1982) and The New Games Foundation (1976). The philosophy adopted by both of these exemplifies an atmosphere of cooperation, success, creativity, sharing, and fun. Emphasis within the cooperative context was on working with other students. See Appendix B for an example of the cooperative games.

Individual activities were included second in order to practice and improve individual skills necessary to function in the following competitive context. The individual context included activities structured to involve students in work concentrating on personal and individual achievement. Students worked on skills in their own personal space by themselves. The activities used in the individual context were designed in a simple to complex order. Emphasis was placed on individual progression in specific skills such as body management, throwing, catching, and striking. See Appendix B for an example of an individual activity lesson.

Competitive activities were last in the sequence and were structured to allow students to utilize the skills previously experienced in both the cooperative and individual contexts. The competitive context was structured so that students were required to compete against each other with emphasis on winning and losing. Many of these games were taken from elementary physical education texts which stress competition as a part of the elementary

physical education program (Dauer & Pangrazi, 1986). See Appendix B for an example of competitive activities.

The study took place over a period of five months beginning in January 1984 and ending in May 1984.

Data Collection

<u>Development of Interview Process</u>

A trained individual using a standardized interview format collected data from each student subject. The interview technique was selected for two reasons. First, Banaka (1971) described the interview as a flexible tool for the collection of data. Although not suited to the collection of all data the interview is often very useful in collecting data pertinent to perception, feeling, and attitude. Second, it was felt that interviewing may also be beneficial to collecting data from young children because the interviewer can probe for understanding of question intent and clarification of response. The complete interview required approximately 15 minutes per child and took place as closely as possible to the last week of each instructional context. Student response was in reference to events as they naturally transpired during regular physical education instruction taught by the classroom teacher. Each interview was tape recorded and augmented with interviewer notes.

Categorization of teacher behaviors as perceived by students was done according to six target behaviors related to previous findings derived by Martinek and Karper (1983) and extracted from this system for use in this study:

1. Praise and encouragement

2. Questioning

3. Information giving

4. Direction giving

5. Corrective feedback

6. Behavioral management

Research by Martinek and Karper (1983) has shown that these variables comprise the bulk of teacher-student interactions and are representative of the interactions between teachers and their high-, average-, and low-expectancy students.

Categorization of attribution data was structured according to the four categories outlined in Step 3 of the proposed model discussed in Chapter I and named again below:

1. Dispositional characteristics of the teacher

2. Attributions to the situation

3. Target's self-attribution

4. Complex attributions

Attribution data represented only those behaviors that the students thought were directed towards them.

Pilot Test of Interview Process

Pilot testing of the interview process was done in order to determine appropriate protocol and questions. The population sample for the pilot study was drawn from second-grade and third-grade children and teachers at an elementary school in Rowan County, North Carolina. This school is located outside the Salisbury city limits in close proximity to the schools used in the actual study. The children in the pilot sample were thought to be representative of the children to be used in the study. Pilot subjects were not included as subjects for the actual investigation.

A total of 36 children from 6 classes constituted the sample for the entire pilot study. Three groups of 12 students from the classes of all 6 teachers were used for each phase of the pilot interview procedure. The pilot study consisted of three phases.

Phase I. In this phase students were allowed to describe perceived teacher behavior occurring in physical education class without prompting from the interviewer. Questions were open-ended and allowed for freedom of student response. This procedure was used to determine whether children could spontaneously identify teacher behaviors without prompting. An example of one question used to attain this information was: "What does your teacher do

as she is teaching physical education?" Students were then asked to attribute each perceived behavior. During this phase the researcher found that these second-grade and third-grade students were unable to describe teacher behaviors spontaneously without some prompting.

Phase II. The procedure for Phase II of the pilot was developed from the information gleaned from Phase I. Because prompting seemed to be necessary with this age group, a list of six target teacher behaviors were derived from a coding system devised by Martinek and Karper (1983), as follows:

1. Praise and encouragement

2. Questioning

3. Information giving

4. Direction giving

5. Corrective feedback

6. Behavior management

As was done in Phase I, the students were first allowed to describe those teacher behaviors they saw the teacher exhibit. If they were having difficulty in doing this, they were then prompted by the interviewer targeting the remaining six teacher behaviors from the Martinek and Karper (1983) list. Examples of questions used in this phase of the pilot were: "What does your teacher do as she is teaching physical education?" followed by "Does your

teacher ever (target behaviors not identified by previous question)?" Students were then asked to attribute each teacher behavior identified with or without prompt. In review, these data proved inconsistent across the sample of children.

Some children were able to identify the teacher behaviors they perceived without prompting. Other children perceived some or all of the same behaviors but were unable to identify them without prompting. This may be attributed to several reasons which include differences in vocabulary and experiences. For consistency of interpretation and reporting, this phase was determined to be unsatisfactory for data collection in this investigation.

Phase III. Based on the findings from the Phase I and Phase II, Phase III used a completely structured interview procedure targeting all six of the teacher behaviors. The structured interview seemed to be best with this age group because of the children's inconsistencies in vocabulary usage and their inability to identify teacher behaviors. Children were asked to identify and attribute perceived behaviors. Phase III of the pilot proved consistent across students in relation to the intent of the study and interpretation and report of the data.

The interview procedure cued students by asking them to identify teaching behaviors that were directed to the entire class. The interviewer would then have the students identify those target behaviors that were directed to them

individually. Causal attributions of these behaviors were then determined by asking the students why they occurred between the individual and the teacher.

The interview procedure which emerged from the Pilot Phase III follows:

Interviewer: Does your teacher ever:

1) tell the class that they have done well when you work on

   (play) cooperative (individual, competitive) games (activities)

   in physical education class?

Student: If "No" interviewer continues with next target behavior.

If "Yes" interviewer follows with:

Has she ever told you that you have done (are doing) well?

Student: If "No" interviewer continues to the next target behavior.

If "Yes" interviewer follows with:

Why did she tell you that you did well?

(Why did she tell you that?)

Student: Responds and interviewer continued.

This procedure is repeated for the remaining five target behaviors.

2) Questioning

3) Information Giving

4) Direction Giving

5) Corrective Feedback

6) Behavior Management.

Reliability of Attribution Categorization

Percentage of agreement was used to determine whether the procedure for categorizing the attribution data was objective and reliable. Three coders, two unrelated to the study, were used to categorize 35 actual student attribution statements. Guidelines for categorization of attribution statements were as follows:

1. Assume teacher wants to "teach" the students something.

   (Teacher Attribution)

   Example: "Because she wants me to know how to do it".

2. Regard "We" statements as personal.

   (Self-Attribution)

   Example: "Because we (I) did well"

3. Assume a child does not know when they say

   "So I can learn" (Self-Attribution)

4. Regard reference to environment (weather, other students, equipment) as situational.

Percent agreement ranged from 91% to 100% for the three coders. See Appendix C for attribution statement used to test reliability of attribution categorization.

Organization and Analysis of Data

<u>Organization of Data</u>

Responses of students were analyzed by recording tallies in each category of perception and attribution. Tallies were converted to percentages for each category. Perceived target behaviors were recorded as follows:

1) If the student perceived the behavior dyadically, attribution of target behaviors was then recorded into one of the four categories of attribution outlined by Darley & Fazio (1980).

a) Dispositional Characteristics of the Teacher pertained to any statement referencing the teacher as a causal agent.

Examples of these were:

"Because she wants me to do it correctly."

"Because she loves me."

"Because she is nice, mean, tired . . . "

b) Attribution to the Situation pertained to any statement referencing the game, activity or environment as a causal agent.

Examples of these were:

"Because the game, activity was hard, easy . . . "

"Because someone was bothering me and I got into trouble"

"Because it was cold, wet, hot, slippery . . . "

c) Target's Self-Attribution pertained to any statement referencing the student as a causal agent.

Examples of these were:

"Because I didn't know what to do."

"So I can learn."

"Because I was late and didn't hear the directions."

d) Complex Attributions pertained to any statement which references any

combination of the three previous causal agents:

1) dispositional characteristics of the perceiver,

2) attribution to the situation,

3) target's self-attribution.

Examples of these were:

"Because the game was hard and she wanted me to do it correctly."

"Because she was tired and I didn't know what to do."

"Because she is mean, nice . . . and it was cold, hot . . . outside."

The two research questions were answered as follows:

Perception data were reported graphically using percentages to represent high-, average-, and low-expectation students' perception of dyadic teacher interaction in cooperative, individual, and competitive instructional contexts.

Attribution data were reported graphically using percentages to represent the attribution of teacher behaviors as perceived by high-, average-, and low-expectation students across cooperative, individual, and competitive instructional contexts.

Analysis of Data

Data were analyzed descriptively using interview notes to augment the discussion of findings. Because of the nature of these data, statistical analysis was not feasible. The lack of data points for certain categories did not lend itself to the use of inferential statistics. Rather a percentage of tallies for each category was computed. The percentages were graphically displayed. Patterns of perception were displayed across context. Patterns of attribution were displayed within each instructional context. Discussion focused on noted differences between percentage figures.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate student perception and attribution patterns of teacher behavior for high-, average-, and low-expectancy groups across three instructional contexts during elementary school physical education instruction. Subjects were selected from two elementary schools in Salisbury, North Carolina. Two randomly selected high-, average-, and low-expectancy students from five second-grade and six third-grade classrooms composed the student sample for the study. Data collected from a final sample of 56 students were analyzed. Physical education classes taught in a natural setting within cooperative, individual, and competitive instructional contexts provided the reference for student reactions to interview questions concerning teacher behavior and attribution of causality. Data were collected two ways. The Teacher Expectation Inventory (TEI) (Martinek & Karper, 1984) was used to identify high-, average-, and low-expectancy students. A structured interview was used to collect data from these students pertaining to their perceptions and attributions of teacher behavior across cooperative, individual, and competitive instructional contexts. An interview was completed for each subject upon the completion of each instructional context. The resulting data were analyzed for the purpose of answering the following research questions:

1. What teacher behaviors do high-, average-, and low-expectancy students perceive during physical education instruction, and are these static across cooperative, individual, and competitive instructional contexts?

2. Into which of the following four categories of attribution are perceived teacher behaviors classified by high-, average-, and low-expectancy students?

    1) Dispositional characteristics of the teacher.

    2) Attribution to the situation.

    3) Student self-attribution.

    4) Complex attributions.

Data Analysis: Perception

Percentages were used to report perception for each of the six target teacher behaviors for high-, average-, and low-expectancy students in cooperative, individual, and competitive instructional contexts. Graphs are used to depict these data. Figures 4 through 9 graphically represent high-, average-, and low-expectancy students' perceptions of perceived dyadic teacher behaviors.

Figure 4 shows a graphic profile of the amount of Praise and encouragement each group perceived for each of the instructional contexts.
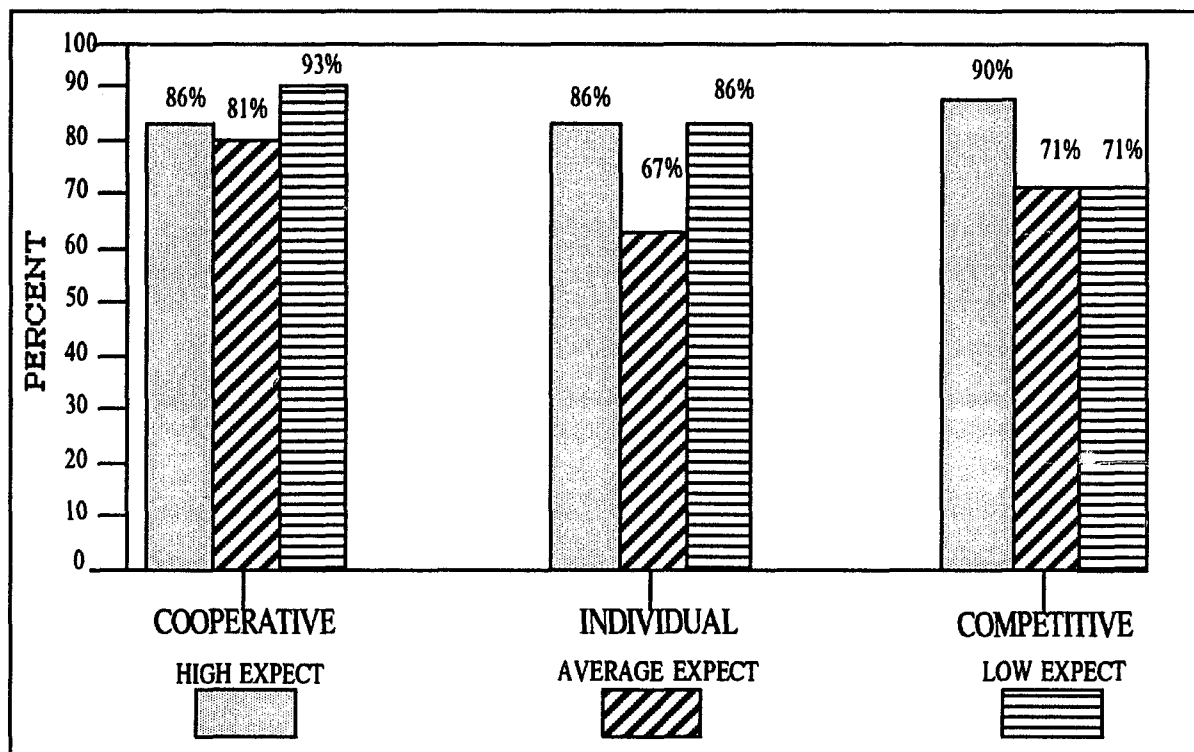
Figure 4. Perception: Praise/Encouragement Across Expectancy Groups

The graphic profile in Figure 4 showed that the amount of praise and

encouragement perceived by the three expectancy groups in the cooperative

context ranged from 93% of the time for low-expectancy students to 81% for

the average-expectancy group. In the individual context, praise and

encouragement perceived by the three expectancy groups ranged from 86% for

the high- and low-expectancy students to 67% for the average-expectancy

students. In the competitive context, praise and encouragement perceived by

the three expectancy groups ranged from 90% for the high-expectancy students

to 71% for both the average- and low-expectancy students.

Figure 5 shows a graphic profile of the amount of questioning perceived by the three levels of expectancy groups for each of the instructional contexts.

Figure 5. Perception: Questioning Across Expectancy Groups

The graphic profile in Figure 5 showed that the amount of questioning perceived by the three expectancy groups in the cooperative context ranged from 14% for the high-expectancy students to 43% for the low-expectancy students. In the individual context, questioning perceived by the three expectancy groups ranged from 29% for the average group to 71% for the low group. In the Competitive Context questioning perceived by the three expectancy groups ranged from 29% for the average group to 50% for the low group.

Figure 6 shows a graphic profile of the amount of information giving perceived by the three groups for each of the instructional contexts.

Figure 6. Perception: Information Giving Across Expectancy Groups

The graphic profile in Figure 6 showed that the amount of information giving perceived by the three expectancy groups in the cooperative context ranged from 24% for the average group to 38% for the high group. In the individual context, information giving perceived by the three expectancy groups ranged from 29% for the high and average groups to 21% for the low group. In the competitive context, information giving perceived by the three expectancy groups ranged from 5% for the high group to 19% for the average group.

Figure 7 shows a graphic profile of the amount of direction giving

perceived by high-, average-, and low-expectancy groups for each of the

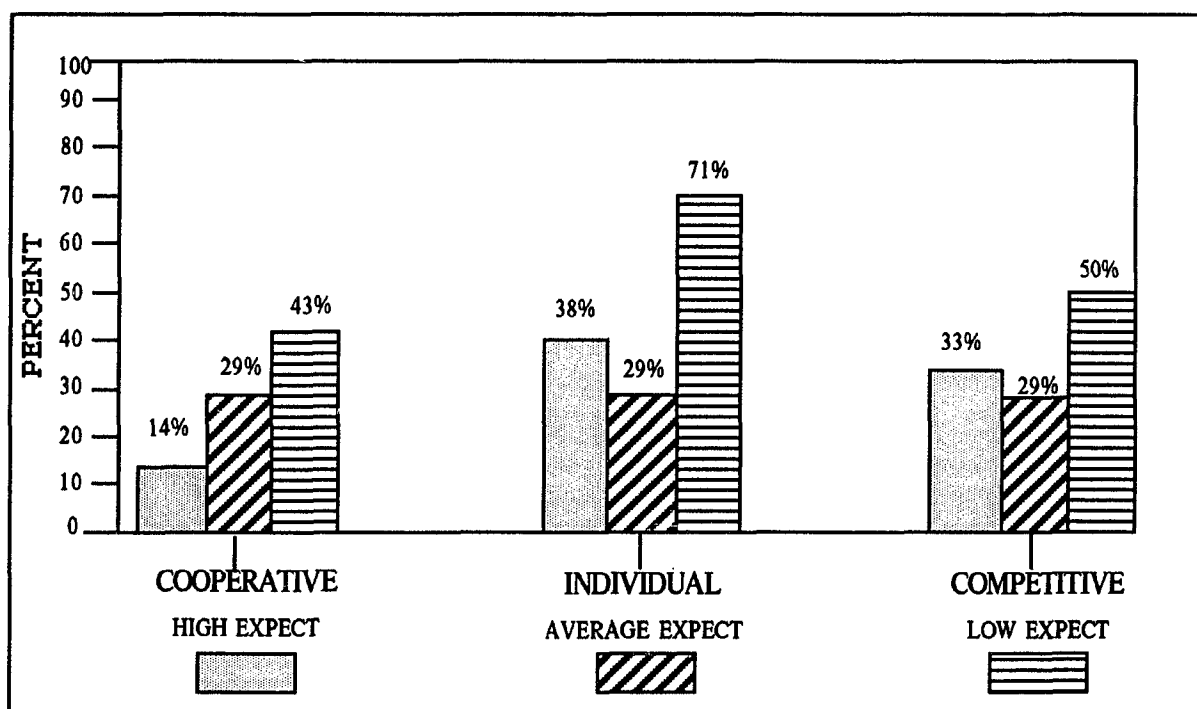instructional contexts.
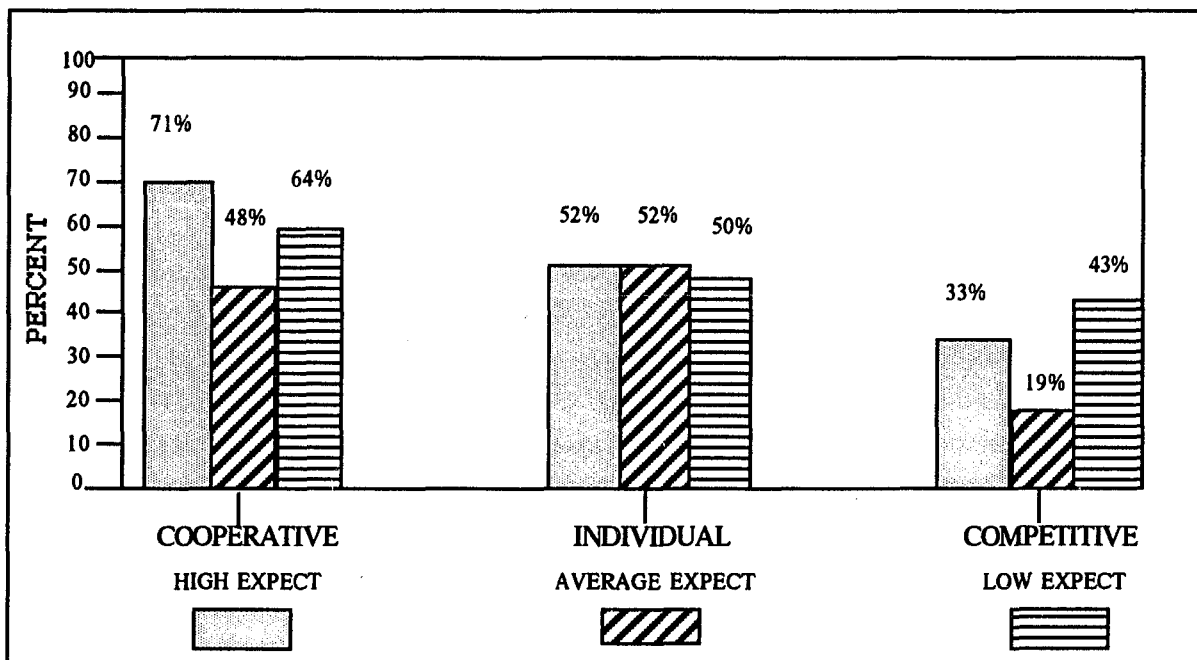
Figure 7. Perception: Direction Giving Across Expectancy Groups

The graphic profile in Figure 7 showed that the amount of direction

giving perceived by the three expectancy groups in the cooperative context

ranged from 71% for the high group to 48% for the average group. In the

individual context, direction giving perceived by the three expectancy groups

ranged from 52% for the high and average groups to 50% for the low groups.

In the competitive context, direction giving perceived by the three expectancy

groups ranged from 19% for the average group to 43% for the low group.

Figure 8 shows a graphic profile of the amount of corrective feedback perceived by the three groups for each of the instructional contexts.
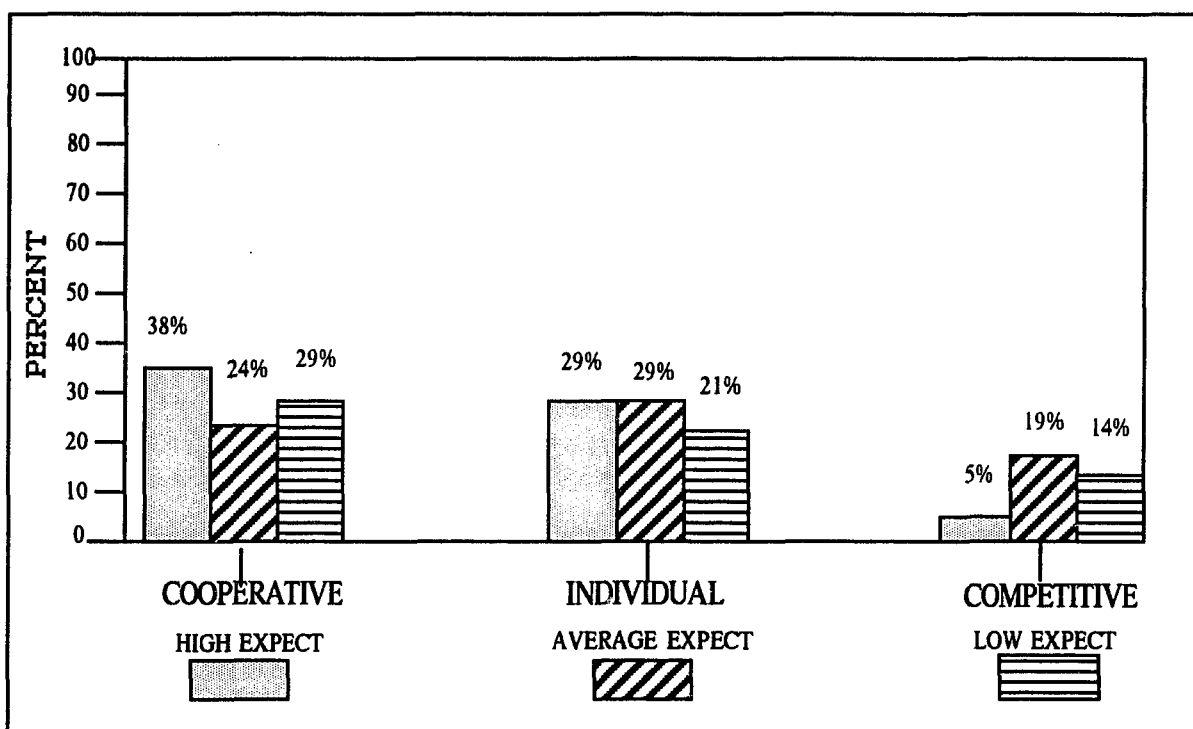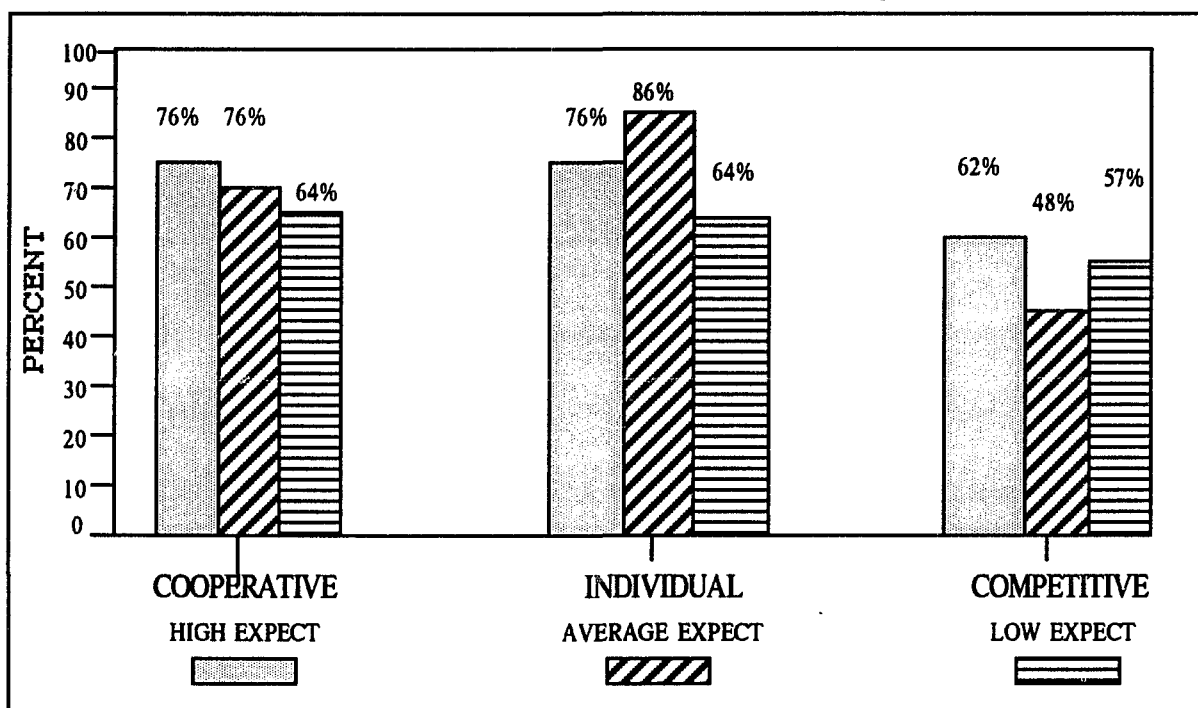

Figure 8. Perception: Corrective Feedback Across Expectancy Groups

The graphic profile in Figure 8 showed that the amount of corrective feed-back perceived by the three expectancy groups in the cooperative context ranged from 76% for the high and average groups to 64% for the low group. In the individual context, corrective feedback perceived by the three expectancy groups ranged from 86% for the average group to 64% for the low group. In the competitive context, corrective feedback perceived by the three expectancy groups ranged from 62% for the high group to 48% for the average group.

Figure 9 shows a graphic profile of the amount of behavior management perceived by the groups for each of the instructional contexts.
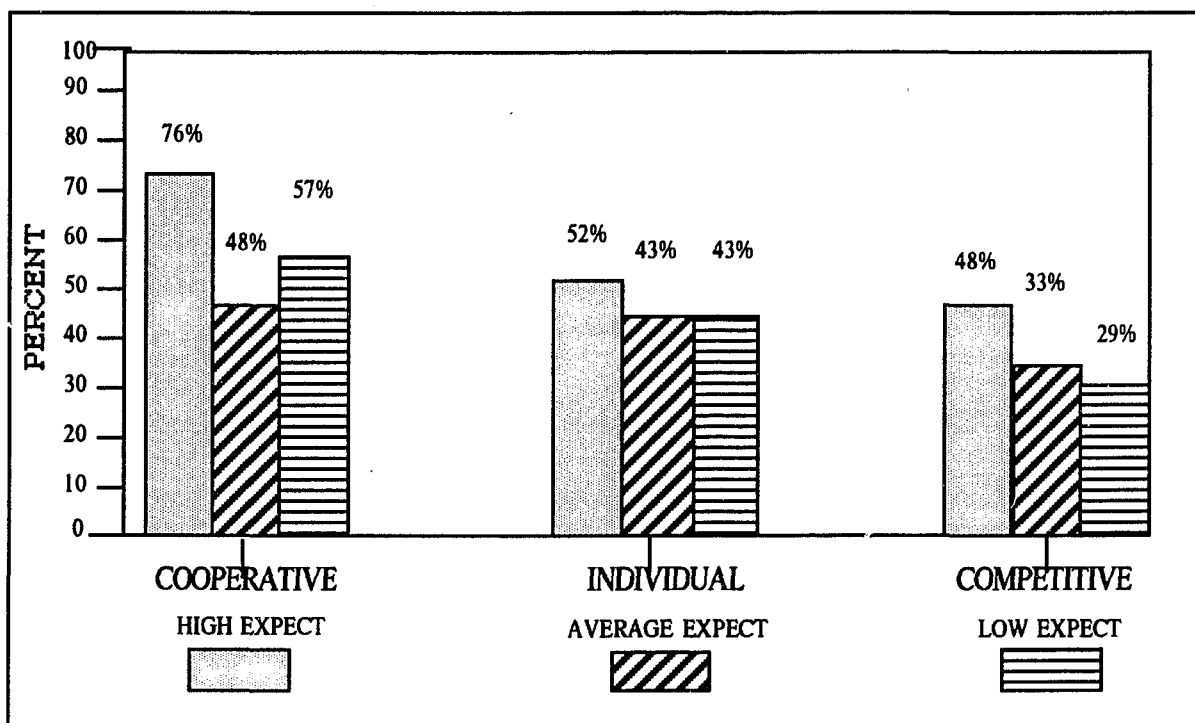
Figure 9. Perception: Behavior Management Across Expectancy Groups

The graphic profile in Figure 9 shows that the amount of behavior management perceived by the three expectancy groups in the cooperative context ranged from 76% for the high group to 48% for the low group. In the individual context, behavior management perceived by the three expectancy groups ranged from 52% for the high group to 43% for the average and low groups. In the competitive context, behavior management perceived by the three expectancy groups ranged from 48% for the high group to 29% for the low group.

Discussion: Perception

The results of this study suggested that the transmission of teacher expectations was more related to the type of teacher behavior perceived and the circumstances surrounding the perceived behavior than the percentage of behaviors perceived by any expectancy group. The following sections discuss student perceptions of target teacher behaviors in relation to the expectancy groups and instructional contexts.

Praise and Encouragement

Cooperative Context.

Low-expectancy students perceived more praise than highs (93% vs. 85%) in the cooperative context. Martinek & Karper (1986) reported the same results for low-expectancy students in the cooperative context. Average-expectancy students perceived slightly less praise (81%) than highs. These findings were not unusual in light of the fact that in the cooperative learning environment the group had a common goal and rewards were based on the group's ability to reach this goal (Johnson & Johnson, 1979). According to the model on the communication of teacher expectations presented by Good and Brophy (1987), the self-fulfilling prophecy effects of teacher expectations can only occur when all elements of the model are present. In cooperative activities the group was treated as an individual unit. Collectively the group may have developed an expectation identity different from that of the individual members. Because of the unified

nature of the group, clear-cut expectations related to individual students may have been absent or changed in relation to group affiliation. Praise and encouragement directed to the group may have been perceived dyadically by individual group members regardless of expectancy group. According to Cooper & Good (1983), the communication of expectations in this manner may not be consistent enough to effect change in student behavior and achievement. Sustaining expectation effects may be decreased or nullified for low-expectancy students grouped primarily with high- and average-expectancy students for work in cooperative activities. Low-expectancy students are given the opportunity to work within the same framework as high- and average-expectancy students. The especially high incidence of praise and encouragement perceived by the low group may suggest that in cooperative activities low student work patterns were not taken for granted and that teachers were given the opportunity to see and capitalize on changes in student potential (Cooper & Good, 1983). The danger of sustaining expectancy effects may be present, however, if high- or average-expectancy students are consistently placed in groups with a majority of low-expectancy students and the group takes on a low-expectancy identity.

Individual Context. High- and low-expectancy students perceived the same amount of praise (86%) in the individual context while average-expectancy students perceived less praise (67%). Kelley & Thibaut (1969)

noted that during individualized instruction, rewards are given on the basis of individual work quality regardless of the quality of the work of others. It is hard to determine the reason for average-expectancy students' perception of less praise than low-expectancy students. Average-expectancy students may have been trying to master more difficult tasks and working on a higher level of skill than low-expectancy students. Therefore, their performance may not have warranted as much praise for success as was given to the low group, which may have been engaged in skill practice on a lower, more familiar level. Some of the praise perceived by the low-expectancy group may be accounted for by the fact that these students are sometimes praised for less appropriate or less correct task performance (Good, 1980). The sustaining expectation effect, outlined by Cooper & Good (1983), may be evident here in that lows perceived as much praise for work on individual skills as highs and more praise than average-expectancy students for work on individual skills. The quality of the praise may have been different for the three expectancy groups. The high amount given to lows may encourage them to progress only within certain predetermined limits, and to be satisfied with nominal gains in skill development.

Competitive Context. Relatively high and equal amounts of praise were found in all three expectancy groups for the competitive context. Highs perceived more praise given to them (90%) than did average- and low-

expectancy students (71% each). Most competitive activities reward only those participants who win or place high in relation to other participants (Johnson & Johnson, 1979). However, in these activities structured for young children in an educational environment, praise may have been used as a reward given for effort as well as success. Highs may have perceived more praise because they received reward for success as well as effort. On the other hand, the other two groups may have received only minimal praise for success in addition to praise for effort.

Moos (1979) described some competitive environments as having an in group affiliation and support system which places emphasis on aspects of play other than the competition itself. As in cooperative activities, this team affiliation may have created a group expectancy identity which differed from the expectancy rating of individual team members. Because the activities structured for this context called for the frequent reorganization of teams, no individual was associated with the same team members consistently. This may explain the high incidence of praise for all expectancy groups in the competitive context.

Questioning

Cooperative Context. Teacher dyadic questioning was perceived more by low-expectancy students (43%) than by average-(29%) and high-expectancy students (14%). Martinek & Karper (1986) found that teachers encouraged

the use of low-expectancy students' ideas during various problem-solving tasks and that they were asked more questions. Although low-expectancy students perceived more questioning than high or average students, perception of this teacher behavior was low for all three groups. The type of questions asked students in each expectancy group would determine whether or not teacher expectations were transmitted through this teacher behavior. According to Martinek & Johnson (1979), low-expectancy students are asked easier, nonanalytic questions. High-expectancy students, on the other hand, are asked questions which require the use of analytic thought as well as factual information (Good & Brophy, 1972).

Individual Context. Low-expectancy students perceived much more questioning (71%) in the individual context than did high- (38%) or average- (29%) expectancy students. Quirk (1971) pointed out that although students work and develop at their own rate in the individual context, all students go through the same sequences and are exposed to the same instructional methods. Low expectations held for some students may have caused teachers to assume that these students had not gone through certain processes necessary for the successful completion of individual tasks. Questions of varying nature may have been used to determine student level of cognitive and psychomotor progression in relation to task assignment. The teaching style most often used for this context was a type of guided discovery. Teachers tried to guide

students to a particular goal through the use of information cues and questions. The type of questions, teacher prompts, and wait time perceived by varying expectancy students would determine the effect, if any, of the teacher's expectation. According to Weinstein (1985), students indicated that they perceived a difference in teacher questioning. Weinstein interviewed students to determine what differences students perceived in teacher behavior toward high- and low-achieving students. Students perceived that high-expectancy students were questioned because the teacher expected them to know more and be able to give the correct answer. Students perceived that low-expectancy students were called on for behavioral reasons or so that they could have a chance.

Competitive Context. Teacher questioning in the competitive context was perceived by low-expectancy students (50%) more than average- (29%) or high- (33%) expectancy students. According to Moos (1979), emphasis on competition may encourage cognitive growth in some students while discouraging it in others. One reason for this is the disparity in the type of questions directed to high-, average-, and low-expectancy students. Questions which merely give a student a chance to answer and that require little or no analysis may discourage the cognitive growth of low-expectancy students (Weinstein, 1985). Questions related to game strategy and which often require higher levels of synthesis may encourage cognitive growth for

those to whom they are directed. Johnson & Johnson (1979), however,

related that there was little opportunity within competitive environments to

attend to anything other than the outcome of the competition itself.

Information Giving

Perceptions of information giving were low for all expectancy groups

for all instructional contexts. Studies by Johnson & Johnson (1975) and

Johnson and Norem-Hebeisen (1977) reported that after initial directions

cooperative and competitive activities do not generally encourage a lot of

teacher information giving. Cooper and Good (1983) found that teachers

gave more information to students who they felt were more capable of

synthesizing and using it. The slightly higher amount of information giving

perceived by high- and average-expectancy students in cooperative, .

competitive, and individual activities may indicate that teachers felt that these

students were better able to synthesize and use information than were

low-expectancy students.

Direction Giving

Cooperative Context. All expectancy groups perceived a relatively high

percentage of direction giving in the cooperative context. High-expectancy

students perceived the highest amount of direction giving (71%). The

average-expectancy group perceived (48%) and the low group perceived

(64%). Since students had no previous experience with cooperative activities

in physical education class, it is not surprising that high percentages of direction giving were perceived. These findings may be due to the fact that the students often needed directions to function successfully in this type of game unit. According to Johnson & Johnson (1975), cooperation is not a naturally occurring phenomenon. Young students need direction in the art of working together to achieve a common goal as well as in the playing of the game. Again the type and amount of directions given are linked directly to the type of expectation, if any, transmitted to the child.

According to Jones (1986), expectancies reflect prior experiences with others and are used in preparation for future events. The higher amount of directions given to high-expectancy students may reflect the teachers' knowledge of students capable of taking leadership roles in teacher-independent situations. The teachers may have felt that these students needed directions in order to organize the group and successfully reach the desired goal.

Low-expectancy students also perceived a high level of direction giving. Prior teaching experiences with the low-expectancy student sample may have prompted teachers to give these students directions so that they would understand the games and be able to participate successfully. Because the self-fulfilling prophecy phenomenon is interactive and based in part on past experiences, low-expectancy students may have been more sensitive to this

type of teacher behavior than their counterparts. According to Good (1987), some students may need more structure than others and there is no reason to expect teachers to treat all students alike. The appropriateness of the differential treatment is one of the key issues in the transmission of the expectation and its effect.

Individual Context. There was very little difference among the three expectancy groups in the amount of direction giving they perceived during individual instruction. The high and average groups reported the same amount of direction giving (52%), and the low group was only slightly lower (50%). The individual context was structured so that although students were given the same task they worked individually on various levels according to their experience and skill development. Directions allowed for student response on varied levels. The emphasis in this context was on skill development without a set of predetermined criteria.

The nature of work within this learning environment also precludes excessive direction giving and leans toward more extensive levels of corrective feedback, as is evidenced in a later section of this paper. Students worked in their own space and interaction with other students was not required.

Competitive Context. Low-expectancy students reported the most direction giving (43%) during the competitive context. The high group

perceived slightly less with 33% and the average group perceived the least

with 19%. Because perceptions of direction giving were relatively low for all

expectancy groups it would be reasonable to assume that the type of directions

given, as opposed to the number, would be the mediating factor in the

transmission and effect of any teacher expectations. Johnson and Johnson

(1979) reported that the amount of directions required for successful

participation in competitive games is related to the students' familiarity with

the games and their level of skill proficiency. Low-expectancy students

perceived slightly more direction giving than did high-expectancy students in

this instructional phase. As in cooperative activities teacher expectations

related to previous teaching interactions with the same low-expectancy

students may have caused greater amounts of direction giving in order to

ensure opportunities for successful participation. Student response to initial

directions and actual student performance during game play may have been

another factor contributing to the amount and type of directions given to each

expectancy group.

Corrective Feedback

Cooperative Context. There was little variation among the three

expectancy groups in the amount of corrective feedback perceived during

cooperative game play. High- and average-expectancy students reported the

same amount of corrective feedback (76%), while low students reported

slightly less (64%). The high amounts of corrective feedback perceived by all expectancy groups indicated that students in all three expectancy groups needed help with their responses to cooperative tasks. Explanation for the slightly higher amounts of corrective feedback reported by high- and average-expectancy students was offered by Stallings (1983) who found that teachers often give more skill-related feedback to students who are expected to perform well and are successful in the application of this feedback.

Individual Context. All three expectancy groups reported a high amount of corrective feedback in the individual context. Average-expectancy students perceived the most corrective feedback (86%) in the individual context followed by high students (76%) and then low-expectancy students (64%). Doyle (1980) noted that the context adopted for instructional use can either facilitate or constrain the opportunities for certain kinds of teacher-student interaction. In this case the individual context was structured so that greater opportunities were provided for the teacher to give corrective feedback to all students.

Competitive Context. In comparison with the other two contexts, perceptions of corrective feedback were slightly lower across all three expectancy groups in the competitive context. High-expectancy students had the highest percentage (62%), with lows being slightly less (57%) followed by the average-expectancy group (48%). In the competitive context emphasis is

placed on the outcome of the activity with the process through which it is attained often ignored (Johnson & Johnson, 1974). Because this differs from that of the cooperative or individual contexts, there may have been less opportunity for skill correction. Also, the skills required for participation in the competitive games chosen for this unit were familiar to students and may not have required a high level of corrective feedback.

Behavior Management

Cooperative Context. Some variability among the three expectancy groups was found for the amount of behavior management reported in the cooperative context. High-expectancy students perceived the most behavior management interactions (76%) followed by low students (57%) with the average students (48%) reporting the least. The reader is reminded that the activities within this context were structured so that students had to work together in order to be successful. Johnson and Norem-Hebeisen (1977) found that high-expectancy students generally take more responsibility for problem solving and group leadership and are consequently at risk for conflict with other students.

Average- and low-expectancy students reported less incidence of behavior management than did their high-expectancy counterparts in cooperative activities. This may be due in part to their role in the group and to the fact that teachers may have used other techniques to channel behavior and encourage

participation. It may be recalled that lows reported more praise and encouragement and more questioning in cooperative activities than did their high and average counterparts in this study. Teacher praise and questioning with low-expectancy students may have significantly reduced the use of behavior management in many cases.

Individual Context. Relatively low amounts of behavior management were reported with little variation among the three expectancy groups in the individual context. High-expectancy students perceived the most (52%) with average and low students perceiving the same amount (43%). According to Johnson & Johnson (1980), the goal structure unique to individualized learning establishes role expectations as to how students should behave and how learning should be carried out. Within this structure student behavior is controlled through active participation which provides little opportunity for inappropriate behavior. Individual activities in this study targeted the development of skill and allowed students to work on their own level and at their own speed on particular movement tasks. Students were assigned tasks which could be worked on in an individual space without interaction with other students. Because of this, student conflict and behavior management intervention may have been minimized.

Competitive Context. Behavior modification was perceived less than half of the time by all of the expectancy groups. Highs reported the most (48%) while average students were next (33%) followed by low-expectancy students (29%). These interactions were lower compared to the other contexts because of the nature of competitive activities. These activities kept students actively involved in either individual or team competition. Strict team penalties were evoked in the event of team member misbehavior or failure to follow rules (e.g., failure to sit down and remain seated after turn in relay resulted in team loss). Freedman et al. (1974) found that subjects seemed to prefer to compete as long as they were winning or exhibiting mastery of the task. Many of the games and activities were familiar (e.g. relay races) and the objectives of the games were clearly defined and understood. Teams were reorganized frequently in order to allow all students to succeed. Teachers were also more familiar with the games and format within the competitive context. Because of this familiarity and because of the general acceptance by teachers of some aggressive behavior during competitive activities, some misbehavior may have been simply overlooked in their particular context.

Data Analysis: Attribution

Percentages were used to report attribution for each of the six target

teacher behaviors for high-, average-, and low-expectancy students in

cooperative, individual, and competitive instructional contexts. Graphs are

used to depict these data. Figures 10 through 27 graphically represent high-,

average-, and low-expectancy students' attributions of dyadically perceived

teacher behaviors.

Figure 10 shows a graphic profile of attribution of praise across the

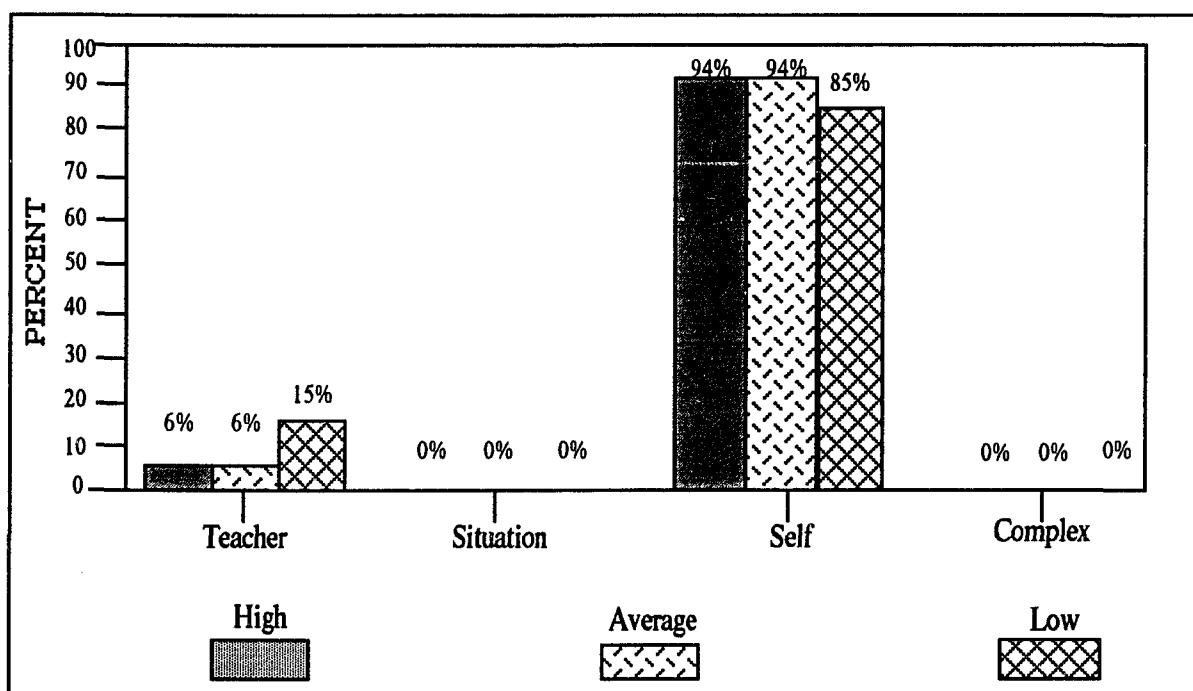cooperative context by students in the three groups.

Figure 10. Attribution: Praise / Encouragement Across Cooperative Context

In the cooperative context 6% of the high- and average-expectation

students attributed praise to the teacher as compared with 15% in the low

group. There were no attributions of praise to the situation in the cooperative

context. The cooperative context shows that 94% of the high- and average-

expectancy students attributed praise to some characteristic of themselves as

compared with 85% in the low group. There were no attributions of praise to

the complex category in the cooperative context.

Figure 11 shows a graphic profile of how the three groups of students

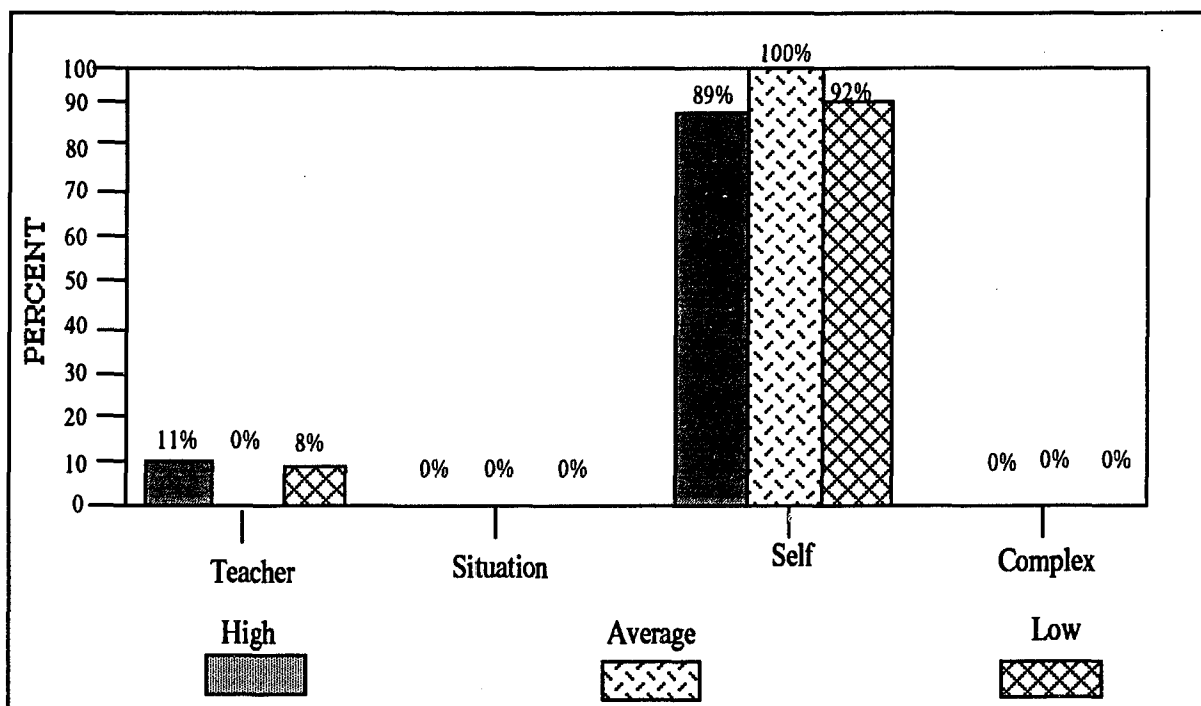attributed praise across the individual context.

Figure 11. Attribution: Praise/Encouragement Across Individual Context

In the individual context 11% of the high-expectancy students attributed

praise to the teacher, as compared with 0% in the average group and 8% in the

low group.There were no attributions of praise to the situation in the

individual group. The individual context shows that 89% of the

high- expectancy students attributed praise to some characteristic of themselves as compared with 100% of the average group and 92% of the low group. There were no attributions of praise to the complex category in the individual context.

Figure 12 shows a graphic profile of high-, average-, and low-expectancy students' attribution of praise across the competitive context.
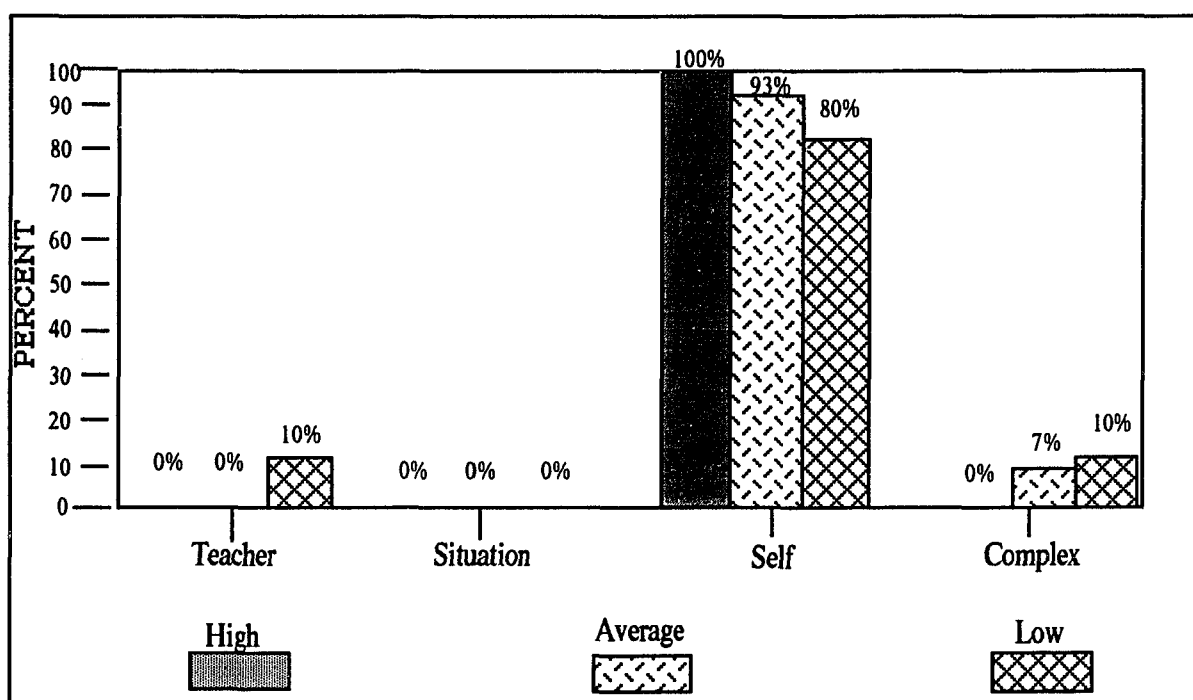
Figure 12. Attributions: Praise / Encouragement Across Competitive Context

No high- or average-expectancy students attributed praise to the teacher in the competitive context. Ten percent of the low group attributed praise to the teacher. While no attributions to the situation were made in the competitive context, 100% of the high-expectancy students attributed praise to some characteristic of themselves as compared with 93% in the average group

and 80% in the low group. No high-expectancy students attributed praise to the complex category as compared with 7% (categories 1 and 3) in the average group and 10% (categories 1 and 3) in the low group.

Figure 13 shows a graphic profile of high-, average-, and low-expectancy students' attribution of questioning across the cooperative context.
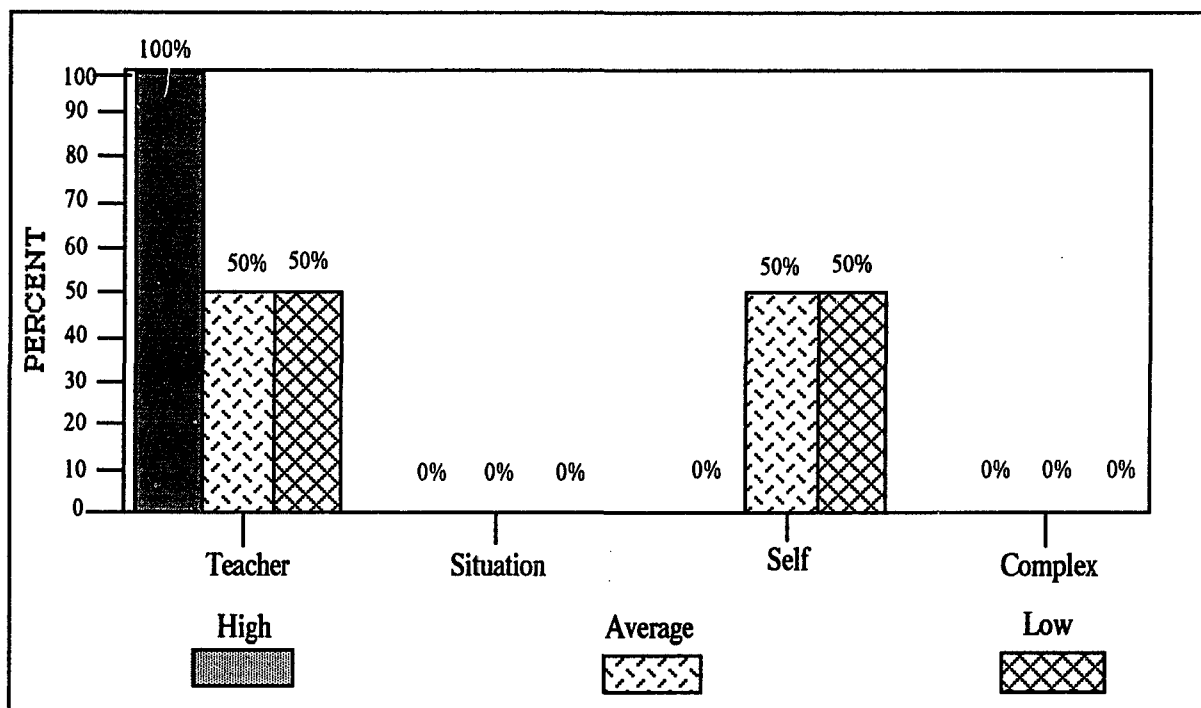

Figure 13. Attribution: Questioning Across Cooperative Context

All of the high-expectancy students (100%) attributed questioning to the teacher in the cooperative context as compared with 50% of the average group and 50% of the low group. There were no attributions to the situation in the cooperative context. No high-expectancy students attributed questioning in the cooperative context to some characteristic of themselves as compared with

50% in the average group and 50% in the low group. No attributions were made to the complex category in relation to questioning in the cooperative context.

Figure 14 shows a graphic profile of attribution of questioning across the individual context by students in the three groups.
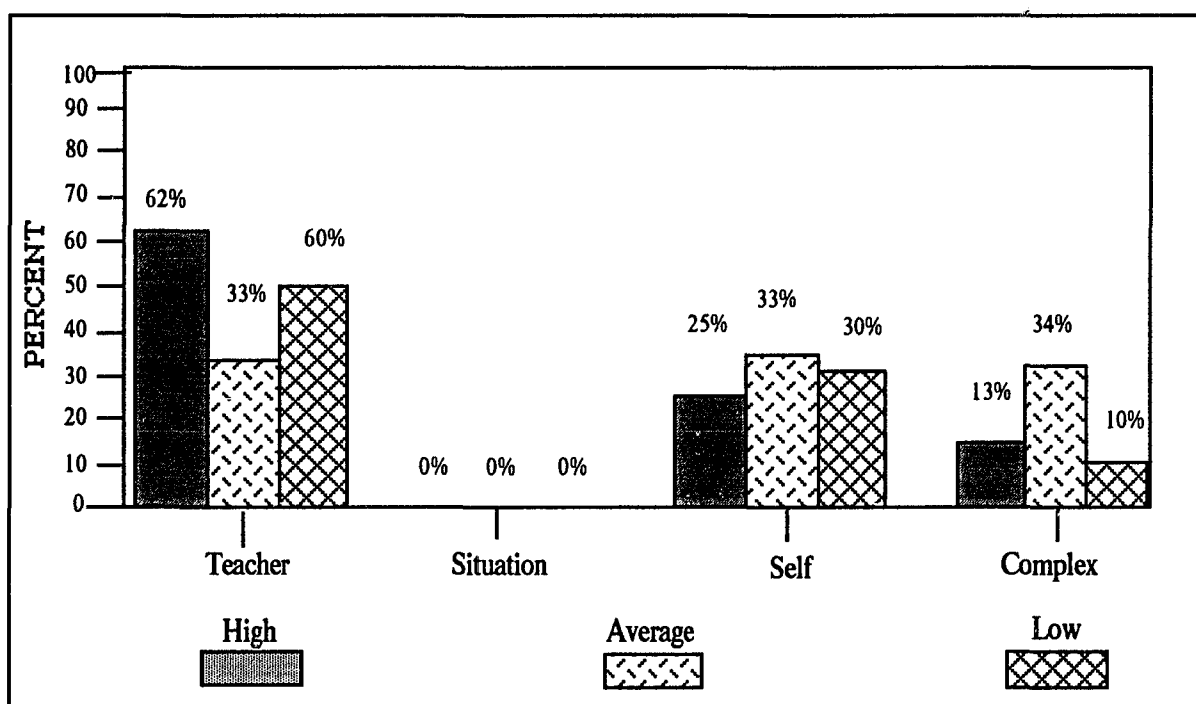
Figure 14. Attribution: Questioning Across Individual Context

In the individual context 62% of the high-expectancy students attributed questioning to the teacher as compared with 33% of the average group and 60% of the low group. No attributions were made to the situation in relation to questioning in the individual context, but 25% of the high-expectancy students attributed questioning to some characteristic of themselves as

compared with 33% of the average group and 30% of the low group. In the individual context 13% (categories 1 and 3) of the high-expectancy students attributed questioning to the complex category as compared with 34% (categories 1 and 3) of the average group and 10% (categories 1 and 3) of the low group.

Figure 15 shows a graphic profile of these students' attribution of questioning across the competitive context.
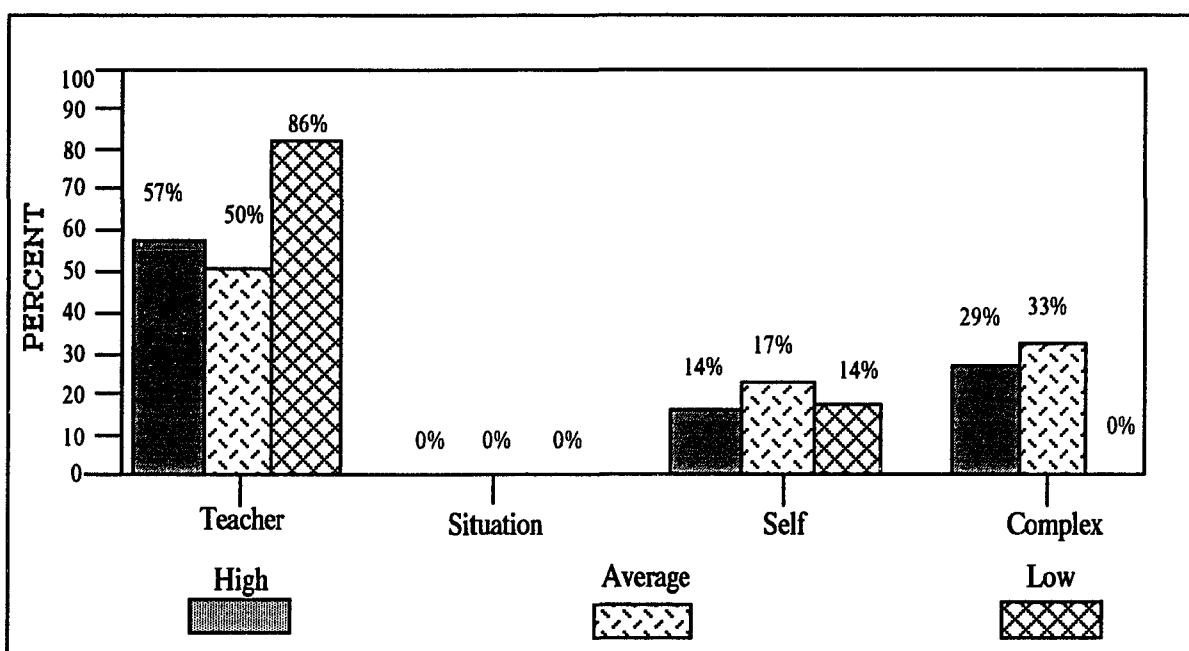
Figure 15. Attribution: Questioning Across Competitive Context

In this context 57% of the high-expectancy students attributed questioning to the teacher as compared with 50% of the average group and 86% of the low group. No attributions were made to the situation in relation to questioning in the competitive context, but 14% of the high-expectancy students attributed

questioning to themselves as compared with 17% in the average group and

14% in the low group. The competitive context shows 29% (categories 1 and

3) of the high-expectancy students attributed questionings to the complex

category as compared with 33% (categories 1 and 3) in the average group and

0% in the low group.

Figure 16 shows a graphic profile of these students' attribution of

information giving across the cooperative context.

Figure 16. Attribution: Information Giving Across Cooperative Context

The cooperative context shows that 38% of the high-expectancy students

attributed information giving to the teacher as compared with 20% in the

average group and 50% in the low group. No attributions were made to the

situation in relation to information giving; however, in this context 62% of

the high-expectancy students attributed information giving to the themselves as compared with 80% in the average group and 50% in the low group. No attributions were made to the complex category in relation to information giving in the cooperative context.

Figure 17 shows a graphic profile of high-, average-, and low-expectancy students' attribution of information giving across the individual context.

Figure 17. Attribution: Information Giving Across Individual Context

All of the high-expectancy students (100%) attributed information giving in the individual context to the teacher as compared with 17% in the average group and 67% in the low group. No attributions were made to the situation in relation to information giving in the individual context. No high- or low-expectancy students attributed information giving in the individual context to

some characteristic of themselves as compared with 83% of the average

group. No high- or average-expectancy students attributed information

giving in the individual context to the complex category as compared with

33% (categories 1 and 3) in the low group.

Figure 18 shows a graphic profile of high-, average-, and low-expectancy

students' attribution of information giving across the competitive context.

Figure 18. Attribution: Information Giving Across Competitive Context

No high-expectancy students attributed information giving in the

competitive context to the teacher as compared with 50% in the average and

low groups. No attributions were made to the situation in relation to

information giving in the competitive context. All of the high-expectancy

students (100%) attributed information giving in the competitive context to

some characteristic of themselves as compared with 50% in the average group

and 0% in the low group. None of the high- and average-expectancy groups

attributed information giving in the competitive context to the complex

category as compared with 50% (categories 1 and 3) in the low group.

Figure 19 shows a graphic profile of these groups of students' attribution

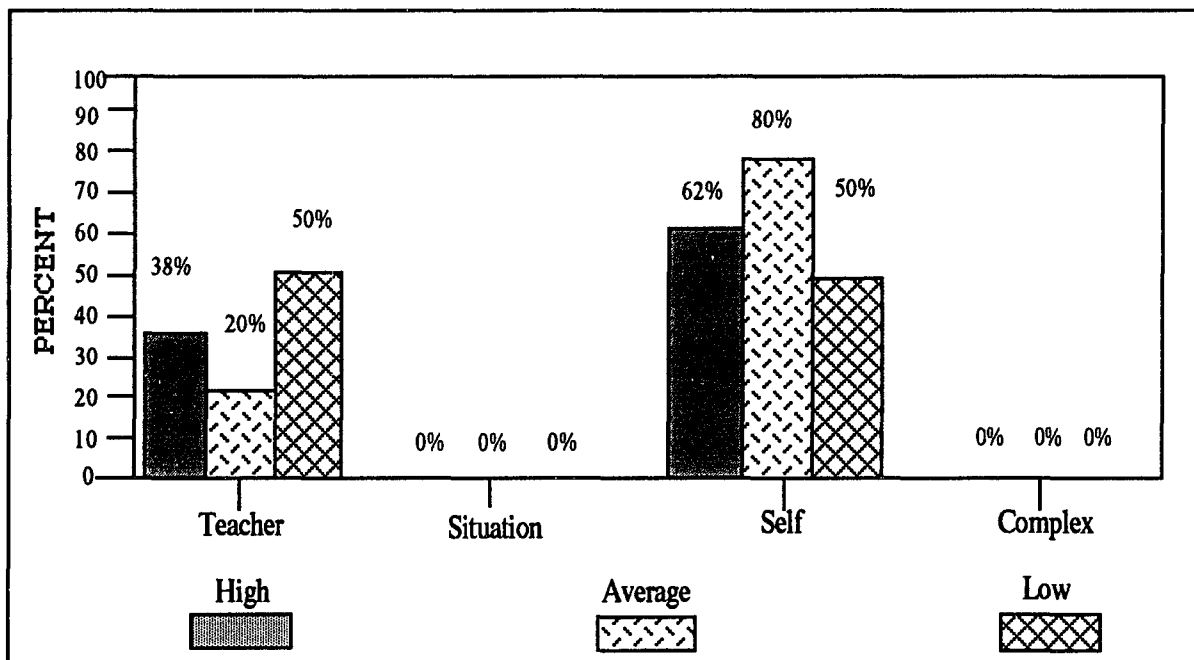of direction giving across the cooperative context.
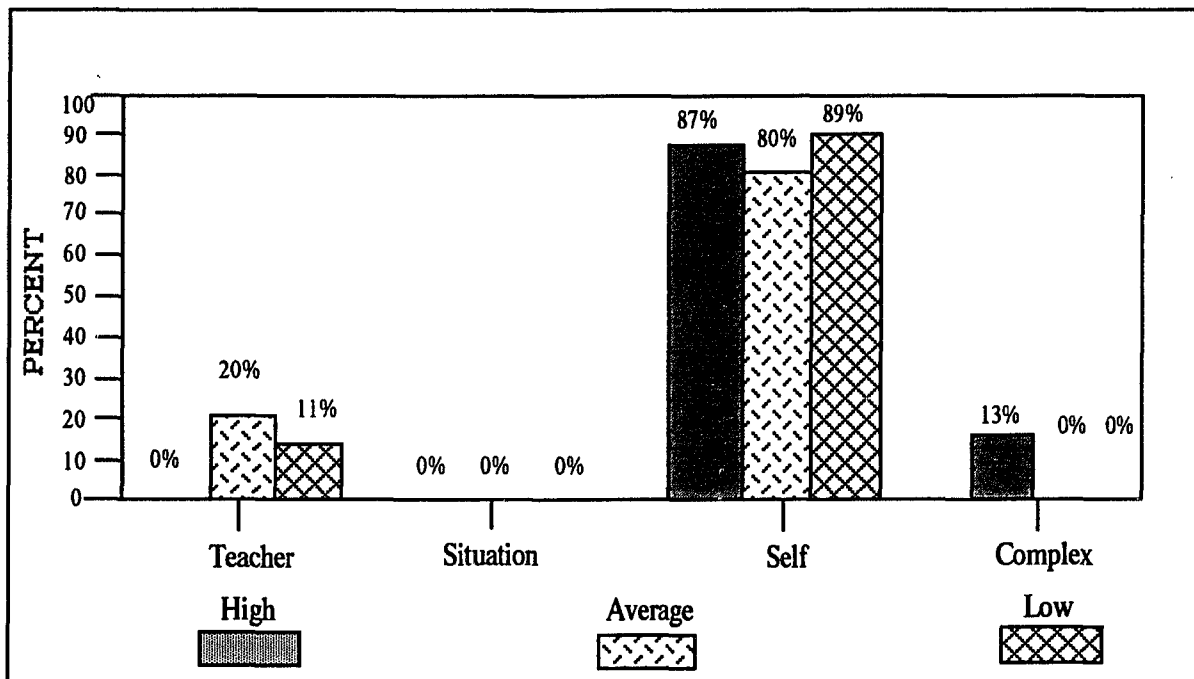
Figure 19. Attribution: Direction Giving Across Cooperative Context

No high-expectancy students attributed direction giving in the cooperative

context to the teacher as compared with 20% in the average group and 11% in

the low group. No attributions were made to the situation in relation to

direction giving in this context. However, 87% of the high-expectancy

students attributed direction giving to some characteristic of themselves as

compared with 80% in the average group and 89% in the low group. In the cooperative context 13% (categories 1 and 3) of the high-expectancy students attributed direction giving to the complex category as compared with 0% for both the average and low groups.

Figure 20 shows a graphic profile of high-, average-, and low-expectancy students' attribution of direction giving across the individual context.
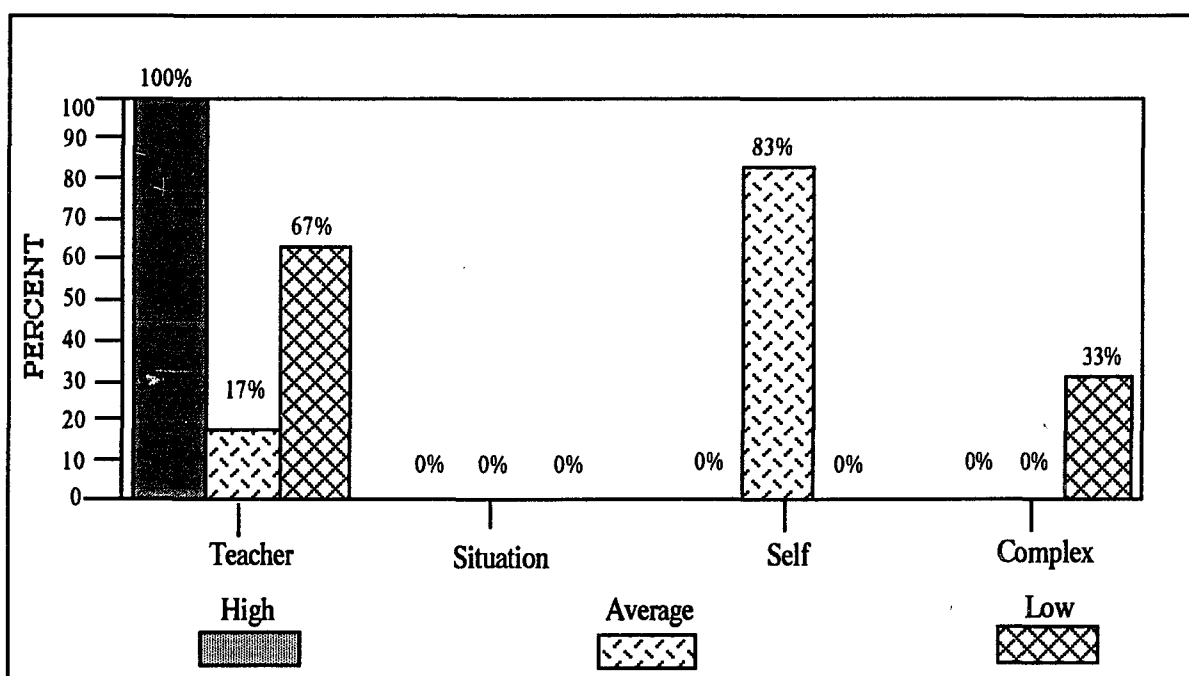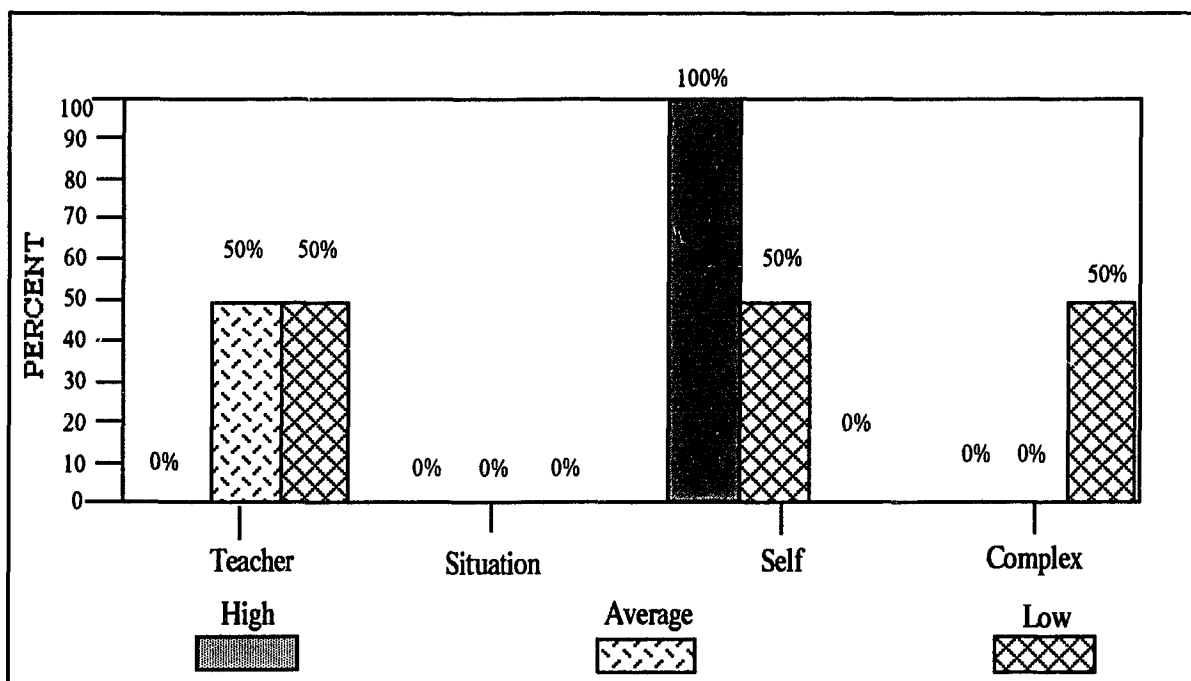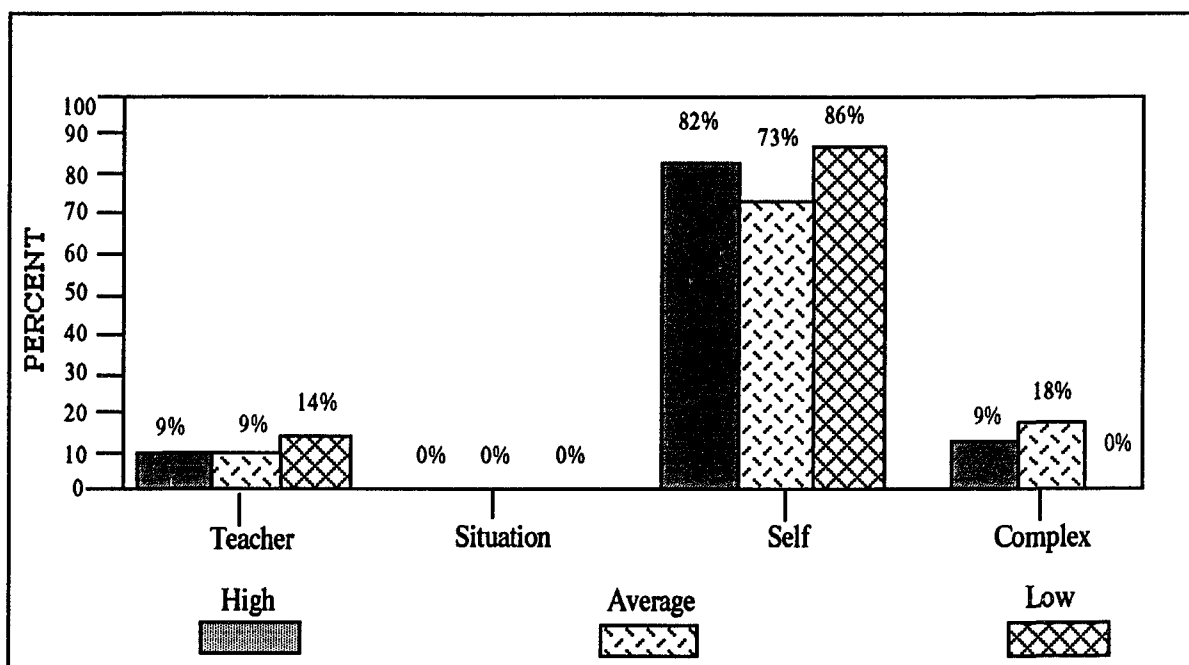

Figure 20. Attribution: Direction Giving Across Individual Context

Of the students in the high- and average-expectancy groups, 9% attributed direction giving to the teacher as compared with 14% in the low group. No attributions were made to the situation in relation to direction giving,but in this context 82% of the high-expectancy students attributed direction giving to some characteristic of themselves as compared with 73%

in the average group and 86% in the low group. In the individual context 9%

(categories 1 and 3) of the high-expectancy students attributed direction

giving to the complex category as compared with 18% (categories 1 and 3) in

the average group and 0% in the low group.

Figure 21 shows a graphic profile of attribution of direction giving across

the competitive context by the three groups of students.
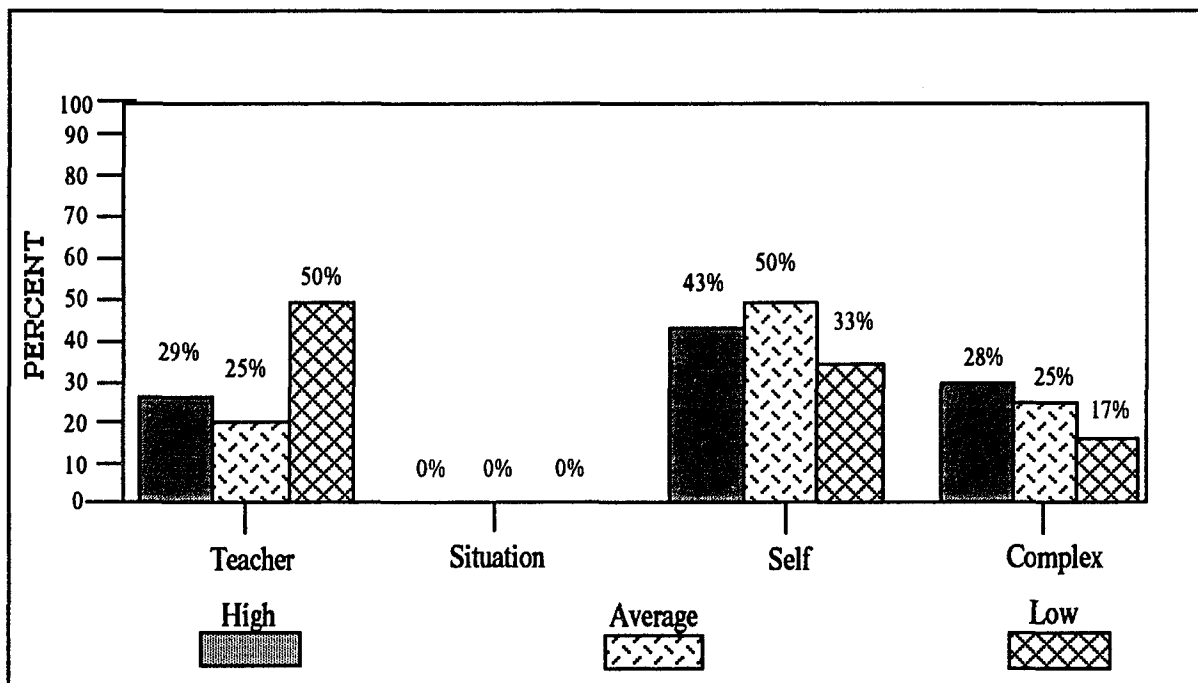
Figure 21. Attribution: Direction Giving Across Competitive Context

In the competitive context 29% of the high-expectancy students attributed

direction giving to the teacher as compared with 25% in the average group

and 50% in the low group. No attributions were made to the situation in

relation to direction giving in the competitive context. In this context,

however, 43% of the high-expectancy students attributed direction giving to

some characteristic of themselves as compared with 50% in the average group

and 33% in the low group. Also, in this context 28% (categories 1 and 3) of

the high-expectancy students attributed direction giving to the complex

category as compared with 25% (categories 1 and 3) in the average group and

17% (categories 2 and 3) in the low group.

Figure 22 shows a graphic profile of the students' attribution of

corrective feedback across the cooperative context.

Figure 22. Attribution: Corrective Feedback Across Cooperative Context

In this context 31% of the high-expectancy students attributed corrective

feedback to the teacher as compared with 19% in the average group and 22%

in the low group. No attributions to the situation were made in relation to

corrective feedback in the cooperative context. In this same context 63% of

the high-expectancy students attributed corrective feedback to some

characteristic of themselves as compared with 69% in the average group and

56% in the low group. In the cooperative context 6% (categories 1 and 3) of

the high-expectancy students attributed corrective feedback to the complex

category as compared with 12% (categories 1 and 3) of the average and 22%

(categories 1 and 3 and categories 2 and 3) of the low groups.

Figure 23 shows a graphic profile of high-, average-, and low-expectancy

students' attribution of corrective feedback across the individual context.
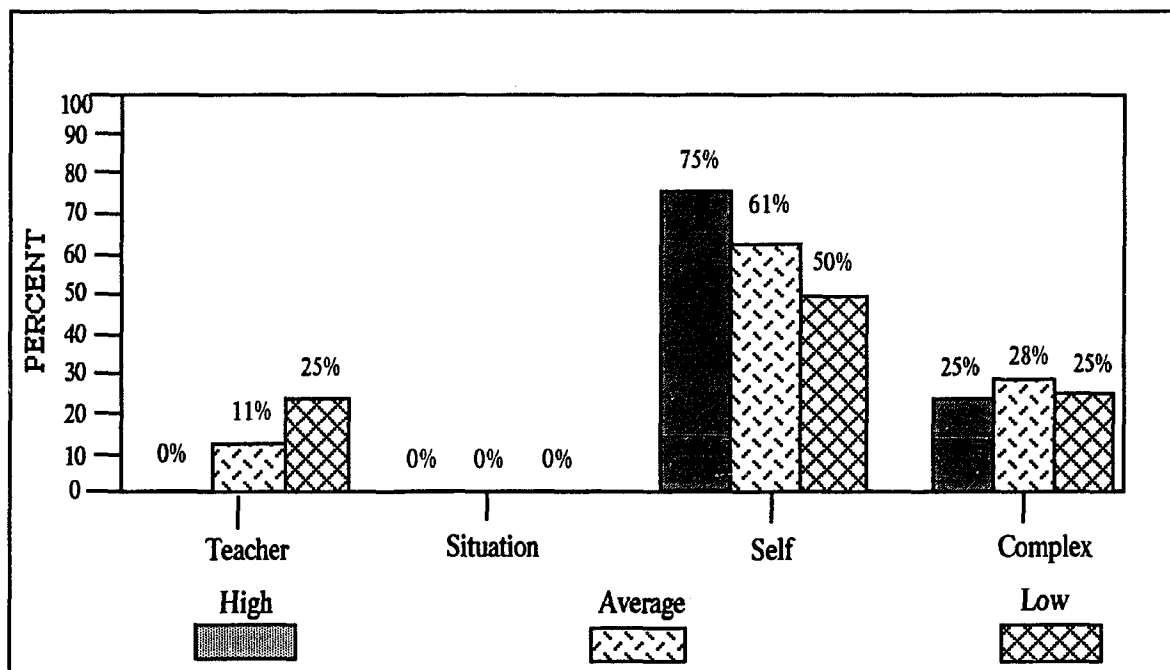
Figure 23. Attribution: Corrective Feedback Across Individual Context

None of the high expectancy students attributed corrective feedback in the

individual context to the teacher as compared with 11% in the average group

and 25% in the low group. No attributions were made to the situation in

relation to corrective feedback in the individual context, but 75% of the high-expectancy students attributed corrective feedback to some characteristic of themselves as compared with 61% in the average group and 50% in the low group. The individual context showed that 25% (categories 1 and 3 and categories 2 and 3) of the high-expectancy students attributed corrective feedback in the individual context to the complex category as compared with 28% (categories 1 and 3) in the average group and 25% (categories 2 and 3) in the low group.

Figure 24 shows a graphic profile of the students' attribution of corrective feedback across the competitive context.
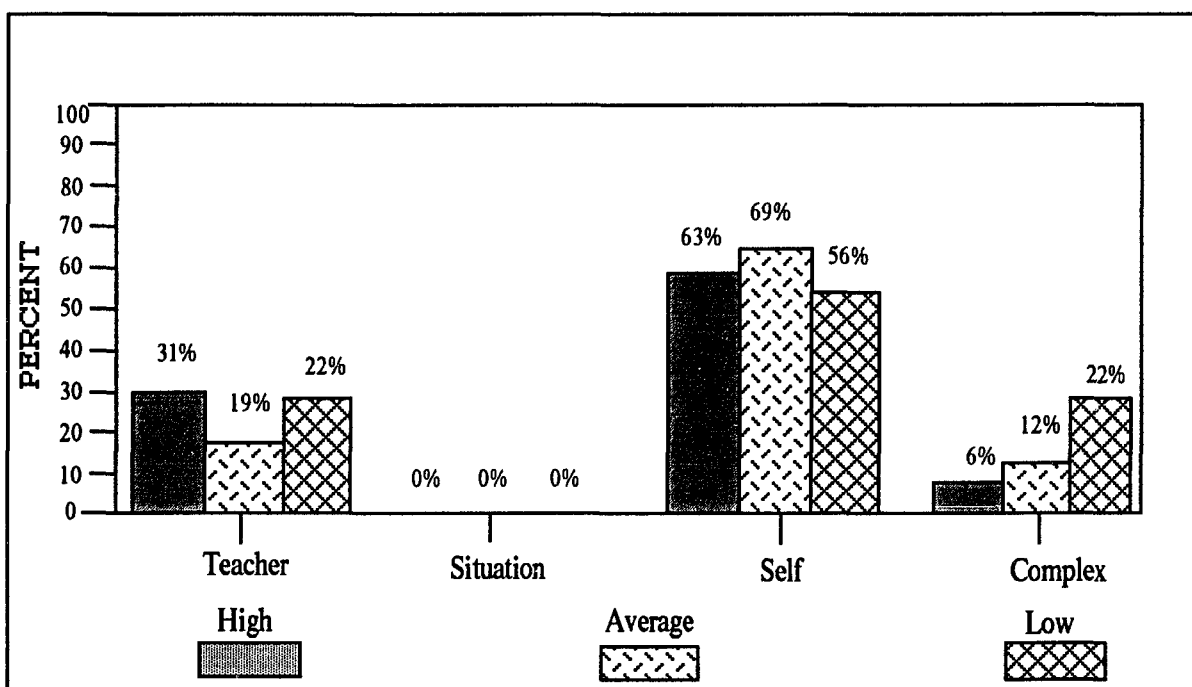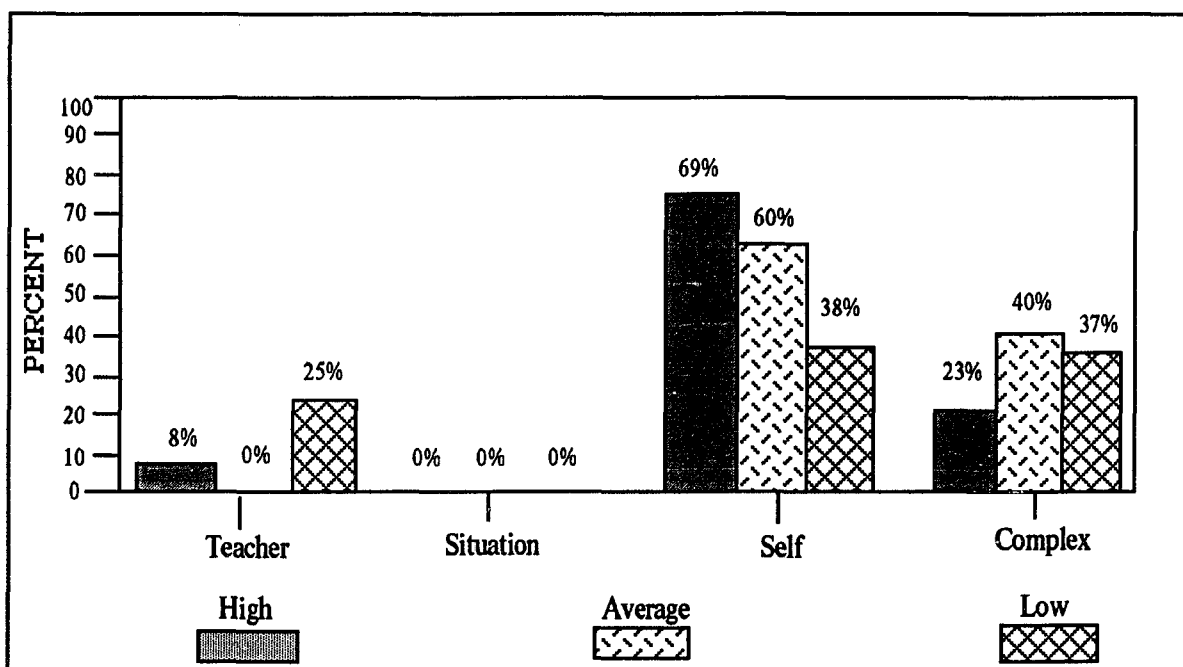

Figure 24. Attribution: Corrective Feedback Across Competitve Context

In this context 8% of the high-expectancy students attributed corrective feedback to the teacher as compared with 0% in the average group and 25% in the low group. No attributions were made to the situation in relation to corrective feedback. In the competitive context 69% of the high-expectancy students attributed corrective feedback to some characteristic of themselves as compared with 60% in the average group and 38% in the low group. In this context 23% (categories 1 and 3) of the high-expectancy students attributed corrective feedback to the complex category as compared with 40% (categories 1 and 3) in the average group and 37% (categories 1 and 3) in the low group.

Figure 25 shows a graphic profile of high-, average-, and low-expectancy students' attribution of behavior management across the cooperative context.

Figure 25. Attribution: Behavior Management Across Cooperative Context

In this context 19% of the high expectancy students attributed behavior

management to the teacher as compared with 20% in the average group and

25% in the low group. No attributions were made to the situation in relation

to behavior management. In the cooperative context 81% of the high-

expectancy students attributed behavior management to the teacher as

compared with 80% in the average group and 62% in the low group. No

high- and average-expectancy students attributed behavior management in the

cooperative context to the complex category as compared with 13%

(categories 1 and 3) in the low group.

Figure 26 shows a graphic profile of the sample students' attribution of

behavior management across the individual context.
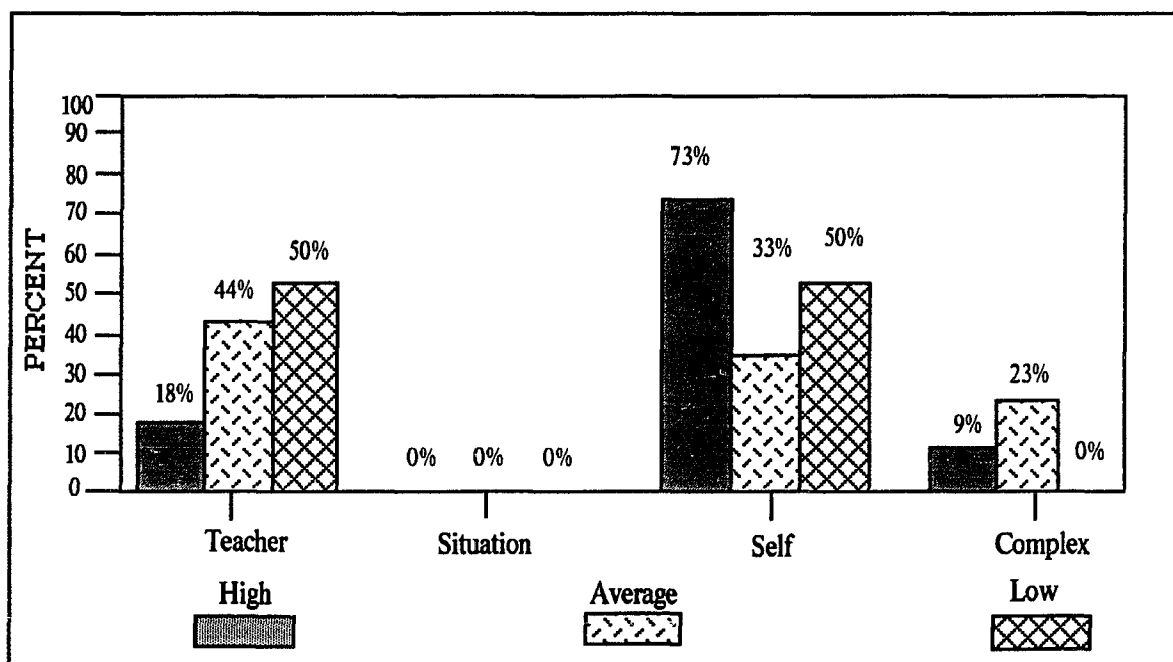
Figure 26. Attribution: Behavior Management Across Individual Context

Only 19% of the high-expectancy students attributed behavior

management to the teacher as compared with 44% in the average group and

50% in the low group. No attributions were made to the situation in relation

to behavior management. In this context 73% of the high-expectancy students

attributed behavior management to some aspect of themselves as compared

with 33% in the average group and 50% in the low group. Also, in the

individual context 9% (categories 2 and 3) of the high-expectancy students

attributed behavior management to the complex category as compared with

23% (categories 1 and 3) in the average group and 0% in the low group.

Finally, Figure 27 shows a graphic profile of high-, average-, and low-

expectancy students' attribution of behavior management across the
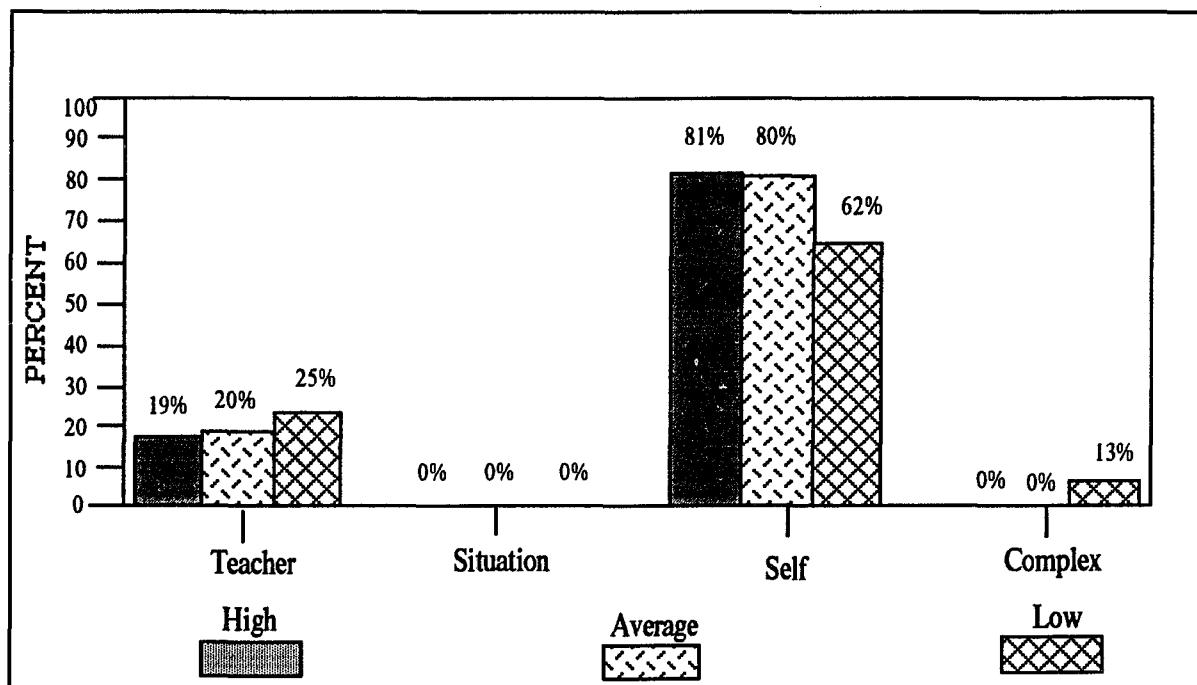
competitive context.
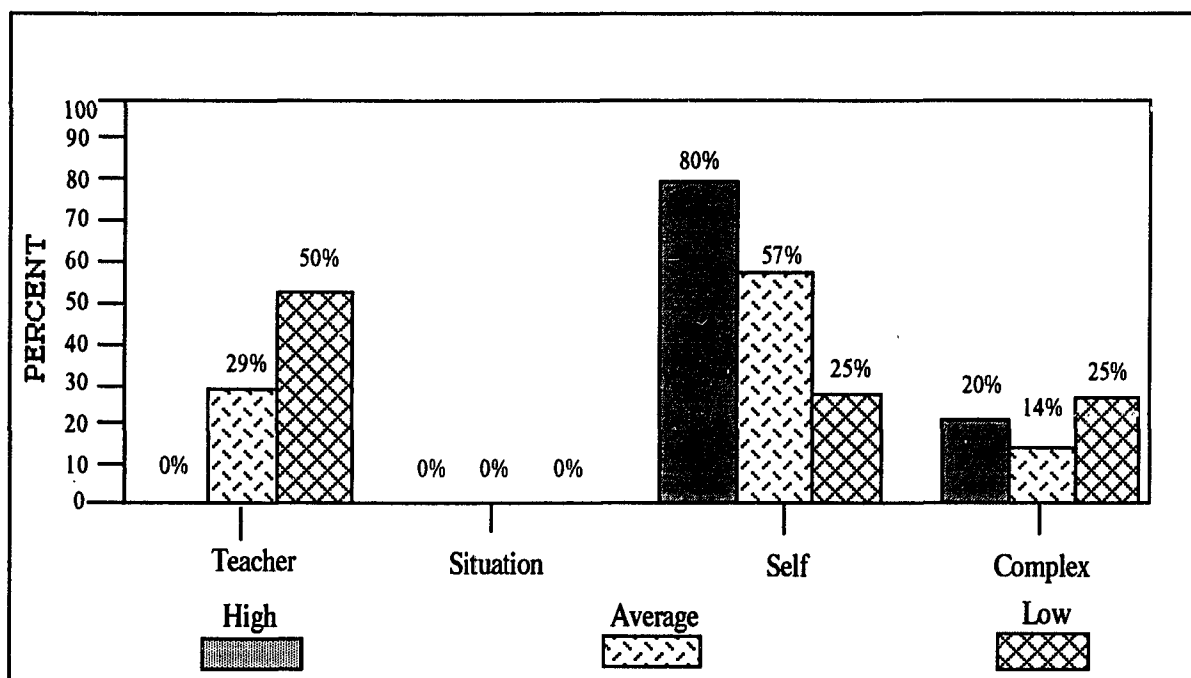
Figure 27. Attribution: Behavior Management Across Competitive Context

No high-expectancy students attributed behavior management in the competitive context to the teacher as compared with 29% in the average group and 50% in the low group. No attributions were made to the situation in relation to behavior management, but, in the competitive context 80% of the high-expectancy students attributed behavior management to some aspect of themselves as compared with 57% in the average group and 25% in the low group. In the competitive context 20% (categories 1 and 3) of the high-expectancy students attributed behavior management to the complex categories as compared with 14% (categories 1 and 3) in the average group and 25% (categories 1 and 3) in the low group.

Discussion - Attribution

Data suggested that student attribution of teachers' behavior was an important factor influencing the effects of teacher expectations. Expectancy effects seemed more related to the interpretation of the perceived teacher behavior, than the attributional categorization, of the behavior. The following sections discuss data for each of the six target teacher behaviors in relation to expectancy group and instructional context. Direction giving and corrective feedback were combined for discussion because the two are similar in the communication of teacher expectations.

Praise. The attribution of praise did not vary in relation to instructional context or expectancy group. According to Barker and Graham (1987),

middle- elementary children show basic understanding of the compensatory relationship between effort and ability. Meyer (1982) noted that praise has the potential to function as either a positive or negative attributional cue in the transmission of teacher expectations. Praise, therefore, may indicate low ability if success results from high effort when others do equally well with less effort. Self-attributions given to praise, although consistent across all three expectancy groups and contexts, may have affected high-, average-, and low-expectancy students in diverse ways. Effort as a causal factor that evokes praise could transmit a low expectation while ability used as a causal factor could transmit a high expectation.

Determinants of teacher praise garnered from actual student statements made during interviews indicated that praise for these students did target effort for low-expectancy students and ability for high- and average-expectancy students. For example, statements from high- and average-expectancy students in all three instructional contexts included "doing well" and "getting better" at a game or task as major reasons for teacher praise. Low-expectancy students cited "trying hard" and "behaving" as the main reasons for teacher praise in all three contexts. Although praise is commonly accepted as a motivating teaching practice, it has been shown that students can distinguish between praise that is deserved and praise that has instructional or motivational purposes (Morine-Dershimer, 1982).

Questioning. Attributions of questioning varied only slightly in relation to instructional context for all three expectancy groups. Because the goal structure of each instructional context was different, teachers used questions for different reasons and in different ways. For cooperative and competitive goal structures the intent was to complete the game successfully. In the cooperative structure every group that did so was successful. In the competitive structure only the first person, or group, to do so was successful. The individual structure differed in that students were allowed to work on assigned skills on their own level without interaction with or against other students. Student inference of the intent of teacher behavior was found by Meyer (1982) to be a salient factor determining the attribution and ultimate effect of teacher behavior. Weinstein (1985) noted that students made distinctions in questions asked of high- and low-achieving students. Students perceived that high achievers received more and harder questions than low achievers and that the teacher questioned highs for correct academic response. Questions directed to lows, on the other hand, were intended to give them a chance and to keep them involved.

High-expectancy students in this study revealed some variation in the amount of questioning attributed to the teacher, but were consistent in considering the teacher as the primary causal agent for questioning in all three instructional contexts. Interview response from high-expectancy students

supported previously cited research in that these students felt that the teacher questioned them because they were doing well and knew what to do. For example, one high student reported that the teacher asked him to "show Jana what to do when she gets the ball."

According to Good and Brophy (1987), teachers often call on high-expectancy students more and use their work as examples. Average- and low-expectancy students exhibit a tendency to attribute questioning to the teacher but reported more variation toward the self and complex categories than did their high-expectancy counterparts. Meyer (1982) indicated that unstable patterns of attribution may occur when the intent of another's behavior is unclear. Hard questions asked to high-expectancy students and easier questions asked to low-expectancy students may indirectly communicate evaluations which may contribute to the target person's self-perception of ability (Meyer, 1982). The more difficult the question, the more positive the effect on the target's self-esteem. Opposite effects were found for easy questions. Students in the average- and low-expectancy groups related in interviews that questions ranging in difficulty were directed to them. For example, several average and low students reported some questions which targeted "understanding directions" and some which made them "tell what we could do next."

Information Giving. High-expectancy students reported some variation in the attribution of information giving across cooperative, individual, and competitive instructional contexts. Average- and low-expectancy students showed very little variation in the attribution of information giving across instructional context. Weinstein, Marshall, Brattesani, & Middlestadt (1982) indicated that students were aware of differences in the complexity of teacher interaction with students of varying ability. Weinstein (1985) interviewed elementary-aged students and found that they perceived their teachers as giving more complex information and more opportunity and choice to students they expect to do well.

Cooper (1979) reported that teachers give more academic information to high-expectancy students than to low-expectancy students. As with praise and questioning, the type of information given relates directly to the type of expectation transmitted. In this study several high-expectancy students reported in interviews that in competitive games the teacher gave them extra information essentially because they "needed it to go further in the game" (i.e. self category). This may indicate to these students that the teacher has noted their progress and expects them to be able to use more information about the activity to continue to progress (i.e. inferred high expectation). On the other hand, a shift was noted in the attribution of information giving for high-expectancy students in the individual context. High-expectancy students in the

individual context reported that the teacher gave them information about the use of skills because she wanted them to be able to apply the skill to a game situation (i.e. teacher category). Students attributing information giving to the teacher might conclude that the teacher thinks they are not very capable of applying skills appropriately (i.e. inferred low expectation). High students made definite attributions to the teacher (100%) for individual activities and to the self (100%) for competitive games. They reported, however, some variation in the attribution of information giving for the cooperative games phase.

According to Ames & Felker (1979), the presence of a team relationship in cooperative structures may contribute to a perception of similarity, creating a norm for more equality in the allocation of teacher interaction. During the cooperative games phase of this study, high-expectancy students attributed information giving in the same way average- and low-expectancy students did.

Direction Giving and Corrective Feedback. All three expectancy groups reported similar attributional patterns for direction giving and corrective feedback across cooperative, individual, and competitive instructional contexts. These two behaviors seem to communicate teacher expectations in the same way. Meyer (1982) suggested that these behaviors, although apparently positive, may in some cases bring about unintended negative

consequences. Giving more directions and more help to a particular student may unintentionally communicate to that student a low ability estimate. In this study direction giving and corrective feedback interactions were attributed to the self category by all expectancy groups, in all contexts. Self attributions may, however, affect high- and low-expectancy students in different ways, according to effort and ability inferences ascribed to them. Different evaluation systems may lead lows to believe less strongly than highs that effort will influence outcomes (Cooper, 1979). According to Ames (1984), high- and low-expectancy students may attribute teacher interaction similarly with contrasting outcomes. Individualized direction giving and corrective feedback may communicate to particular students that they are not successful at a particular task and need help to avoid or ease a failure situation. Ames (1984) reported that low-expectancy students exhibit a tendency to attribute failure to low ability. This tendency characterizes "learned helpless" children. Dweck, Goetz, & Strauss (1980) defined "learned helplessness" as a situation which exists when individuals perceive the termination of failure to be independent of their responses.

On the other hand, high-expectancy students tend to attribute failure to modifiable factors such as effort. These children are classified by Ames (1984) as "mastery-oriented". Mastery-oriented children may perceive high expectations from individualized direction giving and corrective feedback,

because they often engage in self-instruction and self-monitoring to improve their own performance. These students may view direction giving and corrective feedback in the same manner. Student response to interview questions revealed that teacher interaction with high- and low-expectancy students differed. One low-expectancy student related that the teacher helped him "know what to do to finish the game right" (i.e. ability). One high-expectancy student reported that the teacher told him to "try harder" to find a way to complete a cooperative game (i.e. effort). This same high-expectancy student noted success after trying again to come up with a way to complete the activity. Martinek & Karper (1984) reported that high-expectancy students were perceived by teachers to exhibit significantly more effort than low-expectancy students during both noncompetitive and competitive instructional contexts.

Behavior Management. According to Barker & Graham (1987) a teacher's effort to control off-task behavior may serve to communicate expectancy outcomes. Weiner & Kukla (1970) reported that evaluative feedback such as blame is related to the perceived causes of success and failure, particularly effort and ability. According to Kun (1977) and Nicholls (1978), ability and effort are often perceived as factors contributing to both success and failure. In both success and failure situations the higher one's effort, the lower one's perceived ability (Meyer, 1982). Teachers who use

blame and criticism as a behavior modification technique to alter performance outcomes may communicate high-expectations to students. Likewise, teachers who fail to blame or criticize poor performance, or who use empathy or pity, often communicate low expectations.

Reprimand for inappropriate behavior during physical education class may be associated with either high or low expectations. If the student associates the reprimand with lack of effort expended to control behavior, the expectation communicated may be high. If the reprimand is associated with the student's inability to control behavior, the expectation communicated may be low. Reprimand may communicate high expectations for behavior in much the same way that blame communicates high expectation for performance. Lack of reprimand may communicate low expectations for behavior in much the same way lack of blame, or empathy, communicates low expectations for performance.

As is evident for other teacher behaviors, attributions of behavior modification to the self category may communicate different expectations to different students. With the exception of the low-expectancy group in the competitive context, students in all three expectancy groups across all three instructional contexts attributed behavior modification to the self category. Low students in the competitive context attributed behavior modification to the teacher. Data gathered in interviews support the notion that high-

expectancy students were reprimanded because they were not trying to follow the directions and stay within the boundaries of game rules. One high-expectancy student stated that the teacher told him to "sit out because he was supposed to pay attention to the lines and stay in bounds". This type of interaction may have indicated to this high-expectancy student that if he paid attention to what he was doing he would not break the rules and have to sit out (i.e. effort attribution). A low-expectancy student reported that the teacher "got on her " in cooperative games because she "never knew what to do next" (i.e. ability). According to Meyer, Bachmann, Biermann, Hempelmann, Ploger, and Spiller (1979), ability attributions may carry over into other activities of the same type. In other words, the low-expectancy student who was reprimanded because she "never knew what to do next" in a cooperative activity might conclude that she is not good at cooperative activities. According to Dweck, Goetz, & Strauss (1980), this student is a prime candidate for acquiring a feeling of "learned helplessness". The high-expectancy student, however, who was reprimanded because he did not "pay attention" was likely to be more mastery-oriented in his approach to games, because he could change the variable which caused him to be unsuccessful.

Low-expectancy students in competitive games attributed more behavior modification interactions to the teacher than to the other categories of attribution. According to Ames & Felker (1979), certain instructional

contexts set up informational cues which have been found to be important determinants of children's attributions. For competitive activities these cues include performance outcome and social norms. The social structure in competitive games may have influenced student achievement striving, self-concept, and relationship with other students. Students who attribute teacher behavior to factors beyond their control (in this case the teacher) have removed any responsibility for the behavior from themselves. These students are essentially saying that neither effort nor ability are factors responsible for teacher reprimand. Meyer (1979) reported that there is some evidence that attributions of responsibility do influence the quality and amount of teacher reinforcements distributed in the classroom. Teachers may have been taking responsibility for controlling low-expectancy students' behavior in competitive games and may have indirectly communicated this to the students. Students picking up on this may have exhibited tendencies toward learned helplessness because they perceive that neither ability nor effort can change the teacher's behavior toward them.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to investigate perception and attribution patterns of teacher behavior for high-, average-, and low-expectancy groups across three instructional contexts during elementary school physical education instruction. The Teacher Expectation Inventory (T.E.I.) was used to determine student expectancy groups. Two randomly selected high-, average-, and low-expectancy students from five second-grade and six third-grade classrooms composed the student sample for the study. Physical education classes were taught using cooperative, individual, and competitive instructional learning tasks. These three contexts provided the reference for student responses to interview questions concerning perceived teacher behavior and attribution of causality. A separate interview was conducted for each subject upon the completion of each instructional context. Students' perceptions of teacher behavior were transcribed and then reported in percentages of occurrence. Attributions of perceived teacher behaviors were categorized into one of the four categories. Variation in students' perceptions and attributions of teacher behavior was reported in relation to expectancy group and instructional context.

Summary

The factors associated with teacher expectations and classroom interactions are complex and varied. While the problems arising from the transmission of expectations can seldom be completely resolved, in most instances they can at least be minimized. Based on the results of this study and an extensive review of literature, it was found that perception and attribution of teacher behavior are important factors in the study of teacher expectations and factors relating to teacher-student interaction.

Good and Brophy (1987) pointed out that student perception of teacher behavior alone may not be enough to transmit expectations to students. Grouping and teacher interaction with groups as units may influence the type and conditions surrounding teacher behavior perceived by various expectancy groups, especially for cooperative and competitive activities. Data revealed that student perceptions of all six teacher behaviors were relatively stable across all expectancy groups. This suggested that student interpretation of teacher behavior was more important in the ultimate effect of the expectation than the amount of teacher behavior perceived. Students showed strong tendencies to attribute praise, questioning, direction giving, corrective feedback and behavior management to the self category across cooperative, individual, and competitive instructional contexts. A high amount of praise, for example, was perceived and attributed to the self category by all expectancy groups. High-expectancy students, however, interpreted the

praise they perceived in relation to ability while low-expectancy students interpreted the praise they perceived in relation to effort. For behavior management the converse was true although attributional categorization remained relatively static. Lows interpreted teacher reprimand related to ability while highs interpreted the same teacher behavior related to effort. Some variation, however, was indicated in the attribution of information giving between the teacher and self categories for cooperative, individual, and competitive instructional contexts. Highs attributed information giving 100% to the teacher category for individual activities and 100% to the self category for competitive games. In cooperative activities attributions for the high group leaned toward the self category. Average- and low-expectancy students made relatively stable attributions to the teacher and self categories for all contexts.

The instructional context seemed to have little impact on student perception and attribution of praise, questioning, information giving, direction giving, corrective feedback, and behavior management. In all three contexts high- and average-expectancy students perceived teacher behaviors related to performance and lows perceived teacher behaviors related to activity organization and understanding instructions.

Conclusions

Data suggested that student perception and attribution of teacher behavior play a useful role in determining the effects of teacher expectations. Weinstein (1985) pointed out that young children are aware of differences in teacher interaction with high- and low-achieving students. Interview data revealed that students in all expectancy groups perceived a difference in the type of interactions teachers had with them. Expectancy group seemed to be an important factor in the interpretation of perceived teacher behaviors.

Students attributed the majority of perceived teacher behaviors to the self and teacher categories of attribution. It is important to keep in mind that student interpretation of teacher behavior is important within each attributional category. Because of the difference in interpretation among the expectancy groups, attributions made to these categories may have different effects on different students. Interview data revealed that high- and low-expectancy students attributed many of the same teacher behaviors to the same category of attribution. Because of the difference in student reasoning related to the attributional categorization of teacher behavior, low-expectancy students may have experienced feelings of helplessness while high- and average-expectancy students may have experienced feelings of adequacy and control.

The evidence seems to suggest that education in some form, and to whatever degree possible, should be established to stimulate greater understanding and control of teacher expectations and related factors among physical education teachers. Preservice and inservice education should particularly focus on factors influencing the formation, appropriateness, and transmission of teacher expectations within cooperative, individual, and competitive instructional contexts. Students should be made aware of their own behavior and the effect it has on the reciprocal behavior of others.

Recommendations for Further Research

The effects of the self-fullfilling prophecy and teacher expectations are complex and varied. For better understanding of this phenomenon as it occurs in the physical education setting, this study could be extended in the following ways:

1. The same design and research questions could be used to replicate this study with students of various grade levels. Weiner, Graham, Stern, & Lawson (1982) and Nicholls (1978) noted that there are developmental changes in children's use of attributional cues such as past performance history, task difficulty, and social norms. Among these are changes related to age, cognitive understanding, and the development of physical skill.

2. An additional study might include a comparison of student-perceived teacher behaviors and actual coded teacher behaviors. A study of this nature

would determine whether students perceive the teacher's behavior as it actually occurs, or if expectancy group and instructional context influence student perception of teacher behavior.

3. Another study could be undertaken using the same interview procedure immediately following each physical education class instead of waiting several weeks until the end of a particular context. Immediate interviews would help to reduce the possibility of confusion between the physical education setting and other areas of teacher interaction.

4. It is important to determine whether students perceive a difference between teacher behavior in the physical education setting and in the regular classroom setting, and whether these contexts influence the attribution of teacher behavior differently. This study could be replicated using the regular classroom environment as one context and the physical education environment as another context, with the same teacher responsible for both.

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Appendix A

Teacher Expectation Inventory

TEACHER EXPECTATION INVENTORY

Student Name:_____   I.D. No. _____

Sex :   M   F   (circle one)   Pinnie No. _____

School: _____   Teacher _____

Grade: 2   3   (circle one)

- -

Instructions: Next to each statement below, indicate how you would expect the above student to do during the instructional phases of classroom and physical education activities. Place an "X" over the number that best indicates your level of expectation for the child's future performance.

Expectations for Physical Education:	Very High	High	Somewhat High	Average	Somewhat Low	Low	Very Low
1. Ability to physically perform well.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Appendix B

Game (Activity) Examples

Cooperative Activity

Knots

Knots is a game that gets people together by getting them apart. To form the knot, stand in a circle, shoulder-to-shoulder, and place your hands in the center. Now everybody grab a couple of hands. Make sure that no one holds both hands with the same person or holds the hand of a person right next to them. It might take a bit of switching around to get the knot tied right. (Note: pivoting on your handholds without actually breaking your grip is o.k.) Hands cannot come loose. When at last the knot is unraveled, you will find yourselves in one large circle or, occasionally, two interconnected ones. Students must work together to get the knot untangled.

Individual Activity

Catching

Students get one bean bag each and move onto floor and find a personal space.

Teacher directs students to toss bean bag into the air and catch it when it comes

down. They may catch with both hands, or alternate catching with either hand

individually. As proficiency is gained the teacher directs students to move as

they toss and catch the bean bag.

To be successful students must:

1. toss the bean bag with control,

2. work in personal space

3. remain completely quiet,

4. concentrate on the task.

Teacher directs students to get a ping pong paddle and return to personal

space. Students are then directed to toss the bean bag with the hand they write

with and catch it on the paddle which is held in the other hand.

Teacher directs students to:

1. toss the bean bag with control,

2. give with the bean bag as it hits the paddle.

Students are reminded to work in their own space and concentrate on the

specific task as directed.

Teacher targets:

1. the toss,

2. eyes on bean bag,

3. getting under the bean bag to catch it,

4. giving with the bean bag.

Competitive Activity

Scooter Relay

Teacher divides class into 6 even teams. Students line up with their team across the base line. Teacher places a marker across from each team at the half court line. The first person in each line sits on the scooter and gets ready to go. The teacher signals go by blowing the whistle. The student pushes him/herself along on the scooter, around the marker and back to the end line where the scooter is given to the next team member. He/she then goes to the end of the line and squats down. The first team to successfully get all members back to the end line wins the scooter relay.

The teacher must:

1. emphasize first place,

2. encourage team cheering,

3. keep track and announce team(s) winning the most.

Other scooter position may be used for successive relays:

1. Place stomach on scooter and push with hands and feet,

2. knees,

3. hands and push with feet,

4. any more he/she can make up.

Appendix C

Attribution Statements Used to Ascertain Categorization Reliability

Attribution Statements

1. I was following directions.

2. Well, I didn't hear it clearly the first time.

3. I could be doing something wrong.

   So I could get it right.

4. Because we was working together.

5. I might have it wrong.

6. Cause I don't listen.

7. Because I cooperate.

8. So I'd be doing right.

9. Because I was doing bad.

10. Because I cooperated.

11. So I can learn.

12. So she will know we got it right.

13. So I won't get into trouble.

14. I listened.

15. To see whether they were listening.

16. To see that we have it right.

17. Because I listened.

18. So I could learn.

19. So we can learn how to play it.

20. So I would learn.

21. To teach us how to be good.

22. Then I know what to do once she tell us to play a game.

23. Because I been working good.

24. To teach to how to play the game.

25. So I won't be playing it wrong.

26. So I can learn how to play the games what I don't know how to play.

27. Cause, I be doing perfect.

28. So we can know what we are doing.

29. So I could learn stuff.

30. So we won't miss out on what we are doing.

    Maybe because we got to learn something.

31. Sometimes I make her mad.

32. Because some of the people don't do good and some of them do . . .

    You be following instructions right.

33. I guess because I didn't know how to play the game.

34. Because she explains stuff and some still don't know what she is talking

    about.

    Mostly because I be doing wrong.

35. Because I was misbehaving.