



A comparison of perceptions of needs on inservice teacher education by teachers, teacher educators, and local school administrators
by Patrick Clement Cormier

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
Montana State University
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Abstract:

The problem of this study was to determine if the three agencies having the most involvement in determining the direction of inservice education of teachers share the same perception of needs for inservice education.

An opinionnaire of generally recognized areas in which teachers could be helped through inservice training was administered to a sample of teachers and local school administrators in Montana and to all teacher educators in the state. The chi-square test for independence was applied to determine if the perceptions of these needs by the three agencies were the same. If the null hypothesis — that the perceptions were the same — was rejected, comparisons were made bivariately using the chi-square test for independence to determine the area of rejection.

Of forty-five statements tested, significant differences were found on twenty. Bivariate comparisons on the rejected statements showed that teachers and administrators had significant differences on four of the statements. Teachers and professors had significant differences on fourteen of the statements. Administrators and professors had significant differences on fourteen of the statements.

To determine if any one agency saw a clear need for skill training, the investigator selected those items that had the majority of responses in the strongly agree category. Teachers identified six such items. Professors identified sixteen items. Administrators did not identify any items. If, however, items receiving the largest number of responses in the strongly agree category were considered, four areas were identified. They were all student centered concerns dealing with attitude.

The investigator concluded that general agreement does not exist among the three agencies tested. Bivariate testing demonstrated that teachers and administrators are in general agreement while professors do not agree with teachers or administrators. No clear areas for inservice instruction were identified.

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by

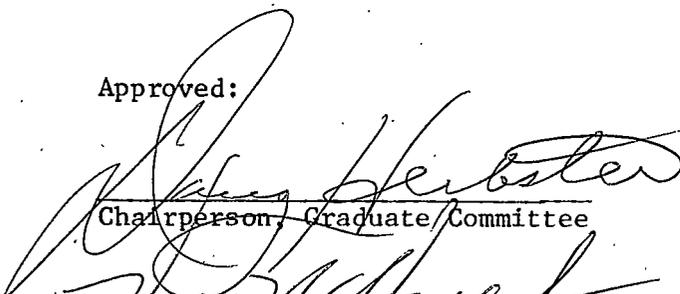
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ABSTRACT

The problem of this study was to determine if the three agencies having the most involvement in determining the direction of inservice education of teachers share the same perception of needs for inservice education.

An opinionnaire of generally recognized areas in which teachers could be helped through inservice training was administered to a sample of teachers and local school administrators in Montana and to all teacher educators in the state. The chi-square test for independence was applied to determine if the perceptions of these needs by the three agencies were the same. If the null hypothesis -- that the perceptions were the same -- was rejected, comparisons were made bivariately using the chi-square test for independence to determine the area of rejection.

Of forty-five statements tested, significant differences were found on twenty. Bivariate comparisons on the rejected statements showed that teachers and administrators had significant differences on four of the statements. Teachers and professors had significant differences on fourteen of the statements. Administrators and professors had significant differences on fourteen of the statements.

To determine if any one agency saw a clear need for skill training, the investigator selected those items that had the majority of responses in the strongly agree category. Teachers identified six such items. Professors identified sixteen items. Administrators did not identify any items. If, however, items receiving the largest number of responses in the strongly agree category were considered, four areas were identified. They were all student centered concerns dealing with attitude.

The investigator concluded that general agreement does not exist among the three agencies tested. Bivariate testing demonstrated that teachers and administrators are in general agreement while professors do not agree with teachers or administrators. No clear areas for inservice instruction were identified.

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

The primary responsibility for the preservice training of teachers in Montana belongs to the Colleges of Education of the Montana University System. In 1975, 1,111 students completed preparation for teacher certification. In 1974, 341 students received graduate degrees in education (Wright, 1976). The responsibility for inservice teacher education has not been established. Indeed, some see inservice teacher education as "a stepchild of the educational process" with the result that it has received little attention until the educational revolution of the 1960's (Davies, 1975:5). As a result of that revolution, three agencies, and perhaps a fourth, are involved in determining direction for inservice teacher education. They are teacher educators, local school administrators, teachers, and, to a lesser extent, the state departments of education (Letson, 1971).

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to determine if the three agencies having the most involvement in determining the direction of inservice education of teachers share the same perception of needs for inservice education. To accomplish this end, it was necessary to determine the perception of needs by teachers, professors and teacher educators.

Then those perceptions were compared to determine if they were independent among the three agencies. The Department of Education was not included in the study because of the lesser extent of its involvement.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to collect data that might demonstrate the degree of agreement or disagreement among the agencies involved in inservice teacher education on previously established needs for inservice education. With agreement established among the three agencies, they then might be able to work together to implement programs that might meet these needs. For those items where no agreement existed, the three agencies might be able to examine their differences and hopefully arrive at some common needs. Once these common needs were established, the probability that new programs of an inservice nature being based on these needs is increased.

Need for the Study

In 1976, the Board of Regents of the Montana University System authorized a study of teacher education programs at the individual units of the Montana University System. The purpose of the study was to develop "a more rationally integrated system of higher education in Montana" (Wright, 1976:2). Since teacher education does not end with the granting of a teacher certificate, it is necessary to establish

the role that Colleges of Education should have in inservice teacher education, even when this inservice education is not related to graduate programs but rather to school district programs.

The review of the literature revealed that dissatisfaction is prevalent with the kind of inservice programs that are being conducted in the United States. Most of the criticism comes from the consumers of inservice programs--the teachers. They believe that the programs are not pertinent to the problems that they encounter in the classroom. Most teachers view inservice programs as being mandated from above by administrators who are not interested in what the teacher offers by way of expertise or need. Teachers contend that these programs have no clear purpose and, consequently, are haphazard and ineffective. Further, they see no one agency as being responsible for seeing that objectives, if there are any, are being achieved (Edelfetl, 1973).

Some critics indicated the need for fundamental change in the structure of the entire educational system. The following quotation by Sizer (1973:52) indicated the scope of the change that might be required:

Thus teacher education must proceed both toward incremental reform, through strong disciplinary training and professional preparation and continual retraining in teacher centers and complexes, and toward comprehensive reform, through systematic inquiry into teaching and learning and through a network of devoted schoolmen and scholars who can create the conditions for fundamental change in the education of children.

Others feared that change in education was not likely. If change did occur, it might be in "the most routine and innocuous ways" (Koerner, 1973:100). Koerner further stated that improvement in education was a political problem that required that those in control of education be dealt with, that their minds be changed, before educational change could take place.

Several factors point to a reduced need for new teachers and a resultant reduction in the enrollment in teacher education programs. The wave of war babies, for the most part, is out of the public school system. Much of the slack was adjusted by reduced student-teacher ratios. However, a declining birthrate will also mean a reduced need for new teachers. The problem might not be too severe for elementary teachers, but almost 93,000 fewer secondary teachers will be needed in the late 1970's than were needed in 1974 (Simon, 1976). Recent projections by Dearman place this figure at 91,000 teachers (Dearman, 1980). No doubt there will be some reduction in force, but normal attrition could account for most of the reduced requirement for teachers. Thus, a reduction in, or even a termination of, some undergraduate programs in education with a resultant shift toward graduate programs or inservice teacher education programs might occur (Hodges, 1975).

Cooperation among the agencies involved in inservice teacher education was shown to have a high payoff in that the effectiveness of such programs was directly proportional to the involvement of the

teachers to be affected (Moody, 1974). In discussing reform at the College of Education, Ohio State University, Cunningham (1973:144) noted that the reform might have been "less dramatic, less focused on genuine needs of those who practiced" had not both teachers and school administrators been involved.

Teacher education in Montana came under careful scrutiny in the Wright study of 1976. The future of education, whether at the undergraduate, graduate, or inservice level, will not be left to chance. It needs to be planned; and the "cornerstone" of educational planning, the tool to open the future to the present, is that of needs assessment (Sipes, 1974:14).

Questions to be Answered

Needs must be agreed upon in order to implement a program of inservice education based upon sound principles of learning theory. This study focused on the perception of needs for inservice teacher education by three separate agencies. Through a comparison of responses, questions which related to those needs were answered. Questions considered were:

1. What do teachers perceive as their needs for inservice education?
2. What do teacher educators perceive as the teacher needs for inservice education?

3. What do school administrators perceive as the teacher needs for inservice education?
4. Are any needs perceived by all three agencies, and, if so, which ones?
5. Are any needs perceived by one agency and not by others and, if so, which ones?
6. Is there general agreement among the three agencies as to the needs for inservice education?

Limitations

This study was limited to the three agencies which were the most involved in inservice teacher education. They were teachers, school administrators, and teacher educators. Each agency was in turn limited to some extent. The teachers in the study were limited to the public school teachers in Montana. The school administrators were limited to the superintendents and principals in the 627 school districts in Montana. The teacher educators were limited to those professionals in the colleges of education who were staff members on the following campuses:

1. The University of Montana, Missoula
2. Montana State University, Bozeman
3. Eastern Montana College, Billings
4. Northern Montana College, Havre

5. Western Montana College, Dillon

Definition of Terms

The definition of terms was adapted from the Dictionary of Education by Good (1973).

Inservice education: Efforts to promote by appropriate means the professional growth and development of teachers while on the job.

Local school district: The smallest unit within any type of legal hierarchical structure for school organization.

Preservice education: The academic and professional work in college, teachers' college, or university that a person has done before employment as a teacher.

School administrators: Those individuals responsible for managing the schools, here restricted to the superintendent and the principals.

Teacher: A person employed in any official capacity for the purpose of guiding and directing the learning experience of pupils or students in a public educational institution.

Teacher educator: A qualified professional in the college of education responsible for the preparation and inservice training of teachers. For brevity, the term professor is used interchangeably with the term teacher educator.

General Procedures

Three agencies were selected for participation in this study. They

were teachers, teacher educators, and school administrators. Each of the agencies was sampled by the use of an opinionnaire to determine perceptions of the needs for inservice teacher education. These perceptions were compared for independence by the chi-square test for independence.

Summary

Three agencies were involved primarily in determining the direction for inservice teacher education--teachers, teacher educators, and school administrators. The problem of this study was to determine if these three groups perceived the same needs of inservice education. Knowing the results of this study might help to establish cooperation among these three agencies; thus, new programs more likely might be based on perceptions of actual needs. Knowledge that this study produced could reduce effectively the criticism that many teachers have toward inservice education. Reduced enrollments in elementary and secondary schools indicated a reduced demand for teachers and, thus, preservice teacher education. Staff at the colleges of education might shift their attention to graduate programs or to inservice teacher education to offset any decreases in undergraduate programs. This study answered questions about the needs for inservice education as seen by three different agencies. The study was limited to the geographical area of Montana and to the public schools in Montana. The term inservice

was defined to include only professional development of teachers while on the job. Data for the study were collected by using random samples of the agencies involved with the exception of the teacher educators. In this group, the entire population was surveyed. The data were tested to determine if the responses of the three agencies were independent.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Educational institutions in the United States have focused primarily on the preservice training of teachers (Brown, 1975). The objective was to train a sufficient number of teachers to supply the needs of the nation. This objective has been met and a shortage of 625,000 teachers in 1955 has been replaced by a surplus of 500,000 teachers (Brown, 1975). This surplus of teachers will have an effect on the enrollment in teacher education institutions. Simon (1976) predicted that 34,000 fewer teachers would be needed in public elementary and secondary schools by 1984 as compared to previous estimations of the need for teachers for 1976.

Demand for Teachers

In the eight years since 1970, the number of public elementary and secondary students has decreased by 3,000,000. During the same period, the number of teachers has increased by 44,000 (Dearman, 1980). The disparity in these two figures has resulted in reduced student teacher ratios. Since 1970, Montana has experienced a decrease of over 12,000 public elementary and secondary students (Grant, 1980). Although the decline in Montana is slower than the national rate, it roughly follows the national trend.

With fewer students to educate, the demand for teachers will

certainly fall. Projections show a reduction in the requirements for teachers by 91,000 with a decrease of over 4,000,000 students (Dearman, 1980). Trends are already showing in educational institutions. In 1970, 20.4 percent of all bachelor degrees granted were in education. By 1978, 14.8 percent of the bachelor degrees was in education. The projection for 1980 is 13.6 percent (Dearman, 1980). A recent survey of schools, colleges, and departments of education indicates a 12.2 percent decrease in undergraduate programs in education (Zerkel, 1980).

Dearman finds that the oversupply of teachers will continue through 1984. He found the supply of teachers in 1970 to be 136.5 percent of demand and in 1978, his latest figures, 136.7 percent of demand (Dearman, 1980). If the national figures serve as a rough guide for Montana, there will be a similar oversupply of teachers in the state through 1984.

Shifting Emphasis

The composition of the teaching force is expected to remain stable for the next decade and beyond. Several factors point to this stability. The general economic outlook for the immediate future is poor. Proposition 13 in California, proposition 2-1/2 in Massachusetts, and other such mandates by the public throughout the country suggest a retrenchment in public education and not expansion. Furthermore, the achievement of a near zero growth rate in the population of the United States

indicates that there will be fewer school age children to educate (Brown, 1975). This is in addition to the fact that the surge of war babies has largely completed their education in the elementary and secondary schools (Dearman, 1980). Since the alltime high enrollment in 1971 of 46,081,000 students, there has been a decrease of over 3,000,000 students to a total of 42,731,000 in 1978 (Grant, 1980). In 1975, Brown predicted that there would be a decline in the number of students by as much as 25 percent. Current projections for 1984 are for 38,548,000 students in the public elementary and secondary schools (Dearman, 1980). This represents a 16 percent decrease in enrollment over the alltime high in 1971. Brown may have been too pessimistic. From 1971 to 1978 there was a decrease of 7.4 percent with 2.2 percent accounted for in the last two years alone. In Montana, the figures are similar with a 7 percent decrease over the period from 1970 to 1978 (Dearman, 1980).

The result of these trends is likely to be a stable teaching force in the 80's. Indeed, such a prediction was made in 1973 (Howe, 1973). This predicted stability has been called the "aging teacher syndrome" by Corregon (1974). In general, teachers are staying on the same job for longer periods of time. In 1978, male teachers had been on their current job for 6.5 years compared to 4.8 years in 1973. Female teachers had been on their current job for 4.7 years compared to 3.6 years in 1973. The 1973 figure for teachers was the same as for

professional workers whose figures remained unchanged over the same period of time (Dearman, 1980).

The entry level proportion of teachers to the total also points to the stability of teachers. In 1968, 16.4 percent of all teachers was below 25 years of age. By 1978, only 9.8 percent of all teachers was of entry level age. The only age group to expand was the group from 25 to 34 (Dearman, 1980).

If the aging teacher syndrome is a fact, and fewer new teachers enter the profession, stagnation will be the result unless an effort is made to reach the practicing teacher. Indeed, "a massive re-education process is in order" (McCarty, 1973), and the future of teacher education is with inservice education and not with preservice education.

Criticism of Inservice

The present state of inservice education is the subject of a great deal of criticism. Much of this criticism stems from the fact that several agencies conduct inservice programs and that there is no coordination of effort. Thus, no broad scheme exists which can help to establish overall purpose (Edelfelt, 1975). Brown found that inservice programs were modeled after preservice programs and that the main purpose was to extend knowledge rather than to deal with the application of knowledge already gained. Some find preservice lacking, thus shifting additional burden onto an already overburdened inservice system. Howsam (1980) states that efforts on inservice are "...almost

universally inadequate and ineffective..." (1980). Much of the criticism comes from the consumers of inservice programs, the teachers. They feel that the programs have no clear purpose (Edelfelt, 1973). The National Education Association (1973) stated a number of criticisms of inservice education: Programs of inservice are often designed by school officials without input by teachers. Attendance is often required even when these programs are offered beyond the regular school hours. The content is dominated by theory with little attention to practical application. In a time when individualization of instruction is stressed for the classroom, little individualization is used with the teachers themselves. Programs tend to be one-shot propositions with little coordination and no follow-through to determine if the programs have the desired results (NEA, 1973). Both Smith (1980) and Drummond (1980) note that great strides in knowledge have been made in the past 50 years but that the program in teacher education remains basically unchanged. Smith (1980) feels that the burden placed on the schools of education can no longer be solved by simply adding courses or by inservice programs but require a complete retooling of the system.

In his 1981 president's address, Max A Sobel of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics calls for increased funding for continuous inservice education of mathematics teachers. He advocated changes in preservice programs which would place fully trained and certified mathematics teachers in the third grade classroom (Sobel,

1981). These recommendations represent major changes in the sytem of education.

Forces for Change in Inservice

Aside from the criticism of inservice education, a number of other factors indicate that new directions are being explored. One of the prime forces for change in inservice teacher education is that of governance in teacher education (Pomeroy, 1975). Although the colleges of education are still in command, they are being challenged by state agencies and by teacher organizations. Pomeroy noted that by 1975, California and Oregon had teacher dominated boards on the preparation and licensing of teachers which have absolute power to set and administer standards. These forces for change are primarily at the state level and are a result of actions of state legislatures.

Efforts at the national level are also apparent. Two papers published by the NEA (1973) dealing with inservice education--"A Negotiations Strategy" and "A Conference Design"--indicate a broad commitment over the entire country toward teacher involvement in inservice education. According to Luke (1973), matters of inservice should be determined through negotiations. Indeed, an NEA briefing memo states that teachers need a "preeminent voice" in the governance of teacher education (NEA, 1973).

Teachers have actively worked to achieve changes in governance of

teacher education. They have participated in lobbying efforts at state legislatures and have worked for the election of candidates who support strong teacher participation in teacher education. Lobbying at the national level resulted in a cabinet level Department of Education. This was in no small way related to the fact that the NEA endorsed Carter in the 1976 elections. Teachers strongly supported the amendment to the teacher corps act which created a system of teacher centers funded by the federal government. The teacher center bill was extended in 1980.

Resistance to Change

A certain amount of resistance to change can be expected simply because of the nature of change itself, as opposed to the nature of changes being proposed. The greatest resistance to change in the educational system comes from those who have the most to lose, in this case, the colleges of education (Smith, 1980). Generally, the control of the governance of teacher education and inservice education rest with the colleges of education, if not directly, indirectly.

If left to themselves, the colleges of education will probably not overhaul their own programs. Smith cites a number of reasons why this is true. Internal obstacles relate to tenure, absence of common beliefs, lack of educational research of a clinical nature, and self-centered interest of professors. External obstacles to change are

primarily financial in that colleges of education are underfunded and the reward system for professors is directed away from the clinical instructor to the professor involved in the more scholarly work of research (Smith, 1980).

Perhaps the reason there is an absence of common beliefs is because there is an absence of leadership. When educators were asked to name an individual as an educational force, local figures were named over national figures. Often these figures were not people directly involved in education (Lock, 1980). Even now, efforts are being made to dismantle the Department of Education, which is the only visible national leadership in education.

Colleges of education are often involved in change, not of their own schools, but of the public schools. This involvement with the change in public schools is such that they do not have the time for introspection into the need their own schools have for change (Cunningham, 1973).

The Future of Inservice Education

The potential for change in inservice education is almost without limit. It is evident, however, that lack of leadership and introspection has left a void that is subject to outside intervention (Smith, 1980). This, coupled with deteriorating economic conditions and the second recession in 15 months (Byron, 1981), has lead to direct

intervention by the public in the form of statewide referendums. Proposition 13 in California, which started the trend, forced local school districts to increase their share of school funding from 46 percent to 80 percent (Newsnotes, 1980). A similar referendum in Massachusetts was passed in November, 1980 which limits property taxes to 2-1/2 percent of assessed value is likely to have substantial effects on public education and, thus, teacher education. Estimates indicate a large cutback in public school teachers will be necessary because of the referendum with as many as 12,000 positions or 17 percent of the state teachers being terminated. In one local school district, the budget was cut by 15 percent over the previous year. This represents a 20 percent cut when inflation is considered (Bumstead, 1980). According to Zerkel (1981), teacher educators may be too optimistic in their assessment of future enrollments and programs. In a survey of schools, colleges and departments of education, only 16 percent of the respondents saw program reductions as likely even though 22 percent of them experienced program cutbacks in the five years ending in 1980 (Zerkel, 1981).

There are some indications of change in inservice education in a more positive direction. The thirteenth annual Gallop poll conducted during May, 1981, showed that the public supported President Reagan's position of dismantling the Department of Education by a margin of 49 percent to 29 percent. However, a more recent poll released October

20, 1981, indicated that 60 percent of the public now opposes the plan (ABC News - Washington Post, 1981). This may allow the Secretary of Education to become the missing national leader for education. A commission has been appointed by Secretary Bell to investigate all aspects of education in the United States and is to report directly to the Secretary of Education.

Teacher centers received continued federal funding in 1981 in the face of substantial cuts in other social programs along with attempts to terminate teacher center funding. These teacher centers are seen by Curry (1980) as a means to provide the necessary collaboration between teacher training institutions and school systems. Although these programs tend to decentralize graduate programs, they broaden the base of involvement (Bruce, 1976). Thus, teachers are included in program development and, as Cross points out (1981), teachers know their own inservice needs. Further, there is a joint responsibility in establishing programs of preservice and inservice teacher education (Van Fleet, 1975). This joint responsibility is seen to extend beyond the educational community and should include community members in general (Corrigan, 1975).

Summary

The focus of educational institutions in the United States has been to turn out a sufficient number of teachers to supply the needs

of the nation. This objective has been met and a shortage of teachers in 1955 has been translated into a surplus of 5,000,000 teachers in 1975. Although the number of students has decreased, the number of teachers has not.

With fewer students to educate and a surplus of teachers, educational institutions are bound to be affected. Some trends are already developing. The proportion of bachelor degrees in education is decreasing. Schools of education are cutting back in their programs. Similar problems are to be expected in Montana.

The composition of the teaching force is expected to be stable during the 80's. The period of time a teacher has been on the present job is increasing while it is remaining the same for other professionals. The proportion of teachers in the entry level age is decreasing. All of this indicates that fewer new teachers will be entering the profession and that educational institutions will have to redirect their attention to the practicing teacher.

The present state is subject to a great deal of criticism. Much of the criticism is from teachers who feel that they have little to say about inservice but some is from those involved in teacher education. They feel that requirements placed on inservice cannot be met because of an already lacking preservice program.

There are some indications that new directions are in the offing. For one thing, teachers are demanding a share of the governance of

teacher education. In some states, they have been given control of licensing and standards for licensing. Teachers, through the national teachers organizations, have been actively lobbying for legislation favorable to teachers and have supported and helped elect candidates that will support their positions.

There has been resistance to these changes, much by the colleges of education. However, the colleges of education are not likely to change on their own. Resistance to change is both from within, fear of upsetting the status quo, and from outside, primarily in the form of finance. Another reason why change is not likely is because of the absence of common beliefs. This may stem from the fact that there is no one individual who is seen as an educational leader. This lack of leadership has left a void which may be filled by outside intervention.

Current economic conditions have brought about a number of referendums which have forced cutbacks in public elementary and secondary programs in a number of states, thus, affecting both preservice and inservice programs in education. With teachers being let go, there will be fewer teachers returning to inservice programs offered by the colleges of education and there will likely be temporary reductions in the number of programs offered for inservice teachers. Reductions in preservice programs will, however, be greater.

There are some indications of positive direction in inservice education and education in general. The public has, in the recent past,

demonstrated a change in attitude about the Department of Education. A majority of the public now favors the Department. This may give the Secretary of Education the opportunity to become the national leader that education is lacking. In addition, teacher centers, which were slated to be cut, have been funded. It is these centers which might provide a joint responsibility for preservice and inservice education. This shared responsibility could lead to the development of common beliefs in education, an overall purpose in both preservice and inservice education, and, in general, significant improvement in pedagogical education.

Chapter 3

PROCEDURES

The responsibility for inservice teacher education clearly does not belong to any educational agency. However, three agencies have influenced recent developments in inservice education. They are teachers, professors or teacher educators, and administrators. The problem of this study was to determine the needs for inservice teacher education as perceived by these three agencies and to determine if these needs were independent among the three agencies. The purpose of the study was to provide information which might help to formulate common areas of concern so that new programs in inservice teacher education could be based on these common concerns.

Description of Populations

Three populations were included in this study. They were teachers, professors or teacher educators, and administrators. The teachers in the study consisted of all teachers in Montana in 1978 who were listed by the Superintendent of Public Instruction as holding teaching positions. Professors were teachers in the colleges and schools of education of the units of the Montana University System. Units included were the University of Montana, Montana State University, Eastern Montana College, Northern Montana College, and Western Montana

College. The list of professors was supplied by the respective deans of education in May of 1978. Administrators included in the study were superintendents and principals in the 627 school districts in the state. The list of administrators was compiled from the Montana Educational Directory, 1977-1978, as published by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction for the State of Montana.

Random samples were collected from the list of teachers and administrators. The entire population of professors received an opinionnaire.

Method of Collecting Data

A written opinionnaire developed by the National Center for the Development of Training Materials in Teacher Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, was used for this study. (See Appendix A.) The opinionnaire which was used widely by the Center had reliability estimates in the low 90's (Ingersoll, undated). Dr. Gary Ingersoll, designer of the instrument, gave permission for its use. (See Appendix B.) The opinionnaire was modified by dropping the undecided response, thus forcing a decision on each statement. Items of local interest were added to the instrument: sex education, career education, mainstreaming, Native American studies, and drugs, alcohol, and tobacco. (See Appendix C.) A letter of explanation accompanied each opinionnaire.

(See Appendix D.)

The opinionnaire was mailed to a random sampling of every thirty-fifth teacher on a list of state teachers. As a consequence, 323 teachers were included in the study. The return included 172 surveys or 53.2 percent. Opinionnaires were mailed to a random sampling of every tenth administrator on the list of administrators; as a result, 99 administrators were included in the study. The return included 64 surveys or 64.6 percent. Opinionnaires were administered to 142 professors. Due to a clerical error, no follow-through was possible. The return included 69 surveys or 48.6 percent.

Method of Organizing the Data

The data from each statement were collected into a 3 x 4 contingency table which represented the response of the teachers, professors, and administrators. The responses for each statement were strongly agree (SA), agree (A), disagree (D), and strongly disagree (SD).

Contingency Table Format

Responses	SA	A	D	SD	Total
Teachers					
Professors					
Administrators					

Critical value $X^2 =$
 Computed value $X^2 =$

$\alpha =$
 DF =

For the presentation of the data, the following format was used:

1. The statement as it appeared on the opinionnaire.
2. The contingency table which contained the data from each agency.
3. The comparison statistics including the critical value of chi-square X^2 , the computed value of chi-square X^2 , alpha α , and the degrees of freedom DF.
4. The null hypothesis and the decision to accept or reject.

If the decision were to reject the null hypothesis, bivariate comparisons through the use of three contingency tables were presented in order to determine the area of rejection.

Null Hypotheses

The independence or association of perceptions on inservice teacher education was established by testing the following null hypotheses:

1. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in diagnosing basic learning difficulties.
2. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in constructing and using tests for evaluating academic progress.
3. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that

teachers need skill training in identifying student disabilities that need referral or special remedial work.

4. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in identifying student attitudes in order to better relate to problems.
5. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in establishing appropriate performance standards.
6. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in involving students in self-evaluation.
7. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in teacher-pupil verbal interaction.
8. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in deciding what teaching technique is best for a particular intended outcome.
9. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in selecting and specifying performance goals and objectives.
10. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in planning teaching

activities with other teachers or administrators.

11. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in creating useful remedial materials.
12. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in evaluating instruction/instructional design.
13. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in motivating students to learn on their own.
14. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in career education.
15. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in keeping abreast of developments in your own subject matter area.
16. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in individualized instruction.
17. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in implementing and supervising individualized instruction.
18. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in using questioning

procedures that promote discussion.

19. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in sex education.
20. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in utilization of audio-visual equipment and other mechanical aids.
21. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in gearing instruction to problem solving.
22. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in general presentation of information and directions.
23. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in providing for reinforcement.
24. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in deciding on appropriate pupil grouping procedures for instruction.
25. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in managing classroom affairs in order to get maximum benefits from supervising, aids, tutors, etc.
26. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that

teachers need skill training in knowing where to refer student problems beyond what can be handled by the teacher.

27. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in knowing when to refer student problems beyond what can be handled by the teacher.
28. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in drugs, alcohol, and tobacco.
29. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in useful methods of classroom discipline and when to use them.
30. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in maintaining classroom control without appearing as an ogre to the students.
31. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in communicating and interacting with parents.
32. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in counseling and conferring with students.
33. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that

- teachers need skill training in involving others in the school program.
34. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in developing a personal self-evaluation method.
 35. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in developing a broad acceptance of self.
 36. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in Native American history and culture.
 37. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in developing a capacity of accepting others' feelings.
 38. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in facilitating pupil self-concept and worth.
 39. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in facilitating pupil social interaction.
 40. Teachers, professors, and administrators agree that teachers need skill training in developing or modifying instructional procedures to suit your own strengths.

