

Florida State University Libraries

Electronic Theses, Treatises and Dissertations

The Graduate School

2006

The Effects of a Teacher Induction Program on Graduate Student Teacher Effectiveness in Physical Education

Steven A. Panton



THE FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

THE EFFECTS OF A TEACHER INDUCTION PROGRAM ON GRADUATE
STUDENT TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

By

STEVEN A. PANTON

A Dissertation submitted to the
Department of Sport Management Recreation Management and Physical
Education
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Degree Awarded:
Spring Semester, 2006

The members of the Committee approve the Dissertation of Steven A. Panton defended on March 15, 2006.

Charles Imwold
Professor Directing Dissertation

Doris Abood
Outside Committee Member

Thomas Ratliffe
Committee Member

Cecile Reynaud
Committee Member

Approved:

Charles Imwold, Chair, Department of Sport Management Recreation Management and Physical Education

The Office of Graduate Studies has verified and approved the above named committee members.

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my wife, Lynn, my children, Kelly and Andrew, and my mom. Their support along with their encouragement and sacrifice throughout this process has been the only way I could have made it through the program. God has blessed me with this amazing family and I am so grateful to all of you.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to generally thank everyone who has helped throughout the writing of this dissertation, for without his or her help I could not have completed this endeavor. Extra special thanks go to Dr. Charles Imwold for your patience, insight, and guidance while chairing my dissertation committee as well as providing me with an assistantship. Go Steelers. I would also like to thank my committee members, Dr. Abood, Dr. Reynaud, and Dr. Ratliffe for their suggestions and ideas that improved the quality of my study. Additional appreciation is extended to Dr. Tonya Toole and Mrs. Betty Brown for working with me on statistics and being kind enough to help me understand them!

I would be remiss if I did not recognize Dr. Susan Lynn and Dr. Kristi Walsdorf for their participation in my study as moderators for the teaching seminars. These were key components to my project and I am most grateful to you both. Also, I want to thank Dr. Lio Nazario, Katherine Anderson, Jen Chang, and Carlos Quionnes for coding the various instruments. A lot was asked of them and they each exceed my expectations and were integral in the completion of this study. Additionally, I would like to recognize the eight graduate students that participated as subjects in this study.

I would also like to acknowledge Joanne Rogers. She has been a great friend and has given me a tremendous amount of support by hiring me to teach for her as well as encouragement throughout my doctoral program. Finally, I must thank Ron Allison. His passion for teaching physical education was the foundation of a long journey that has brought me to this place. Ron, you are one of the good guys.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Tables	vii
List of Figures	ix
Abstract	x
1. INTRODUCTION AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE	1
Introduction	1
Review of Literature	1
Summary	13
Purpose	14
Hypotheses	14
Justification	15
Basic Assumptions.....	15
Delimitations.....	15
Limitations	15
Definitions of Terms.....	16
2. METHODOLOGY	17
Participants	17
Instrumentation	19
Procedures	20
Data Collection	21
Analysis of Data.....	22
3. RESULTS	25
Purpose	25
Analysis of Data.....	26
4. DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	32
Introduction	32
Conclusions	37
Recommendations for Further Research.....	38

APPENDICES	39
A Program for Instructional Excellence	39
B Human Subjects Approval Memorandum	50
C Suggested Format for Mentoring Sessions	54
D Induction Program and Data Collection Timeline	56
E Effective Teaching Module Schedule	58
F Tactical Games Module	66
G Qualitative Measures of Teaching Performance Scale	70
H Games Performance Assessment Instrument	74
I GPAI Coding Information and Rubrics	77
J Student Perception of Teaching	83
REFERENCES	86
BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH	94

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Subject Characteristics of Graduate Teaching Assistants	25
Table 2: Measurements of Teacher Performances Before and After The Induction Program	27
Table 3: Numbers of Tasks Presented During Each of the Seven Lessons	29

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Interaction of Pre- and Post-test QMTPS Scores	27
Figure 2: QMTPS Scores Across the Seven Lessons	28
Figure 3: Interaction of Pre- and Post-test GPAI Test Scores	30

ABSTRACT

Graduate Teaching Assistants (GTA's) are responsible for most undergraduate instruction with little or no knowledge of effective teaching practices. In general physical education programs, GTA's are likely to be the last resource for undergraduates to learn motor skills associated with life-long physical activity. The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of a Pedagogical Induction (IP) Program on GTA's teaching performance in a major university's general physical education program. Participants included eight GTA's teaching tennis, volleyball, basketball, soccer, and flag football and the students enrolled in those classes. There were four GTA's in the control group and four in the treatment group. The treatment group participated in an induction program that included two three-hour effective teaching modules and bi-weekly mentoring sessions. As measures of teacher performance, the Qualitative Measure of Teaching Performance Scale (QMTPS) was used to establish teacher performance values, the Games Performance Assessment Instrument (GPAI) was used to establish student achievement values, and the Student Perception of Teaching (SPOT) instrument was used to determine student satisfaction with the GTA's teaching performance. Pre- and post-test data were collected on teacher performance (QMTPS), and student achievement (GPAI). The SPOT was used to measure students' evaluation of the teacher. The data indicated that the IP was successful in improving teacher performance with the treatment Group improving on the QMTPS and statistically significantly improving on the GPAI. There were no differences between the groups on student evaluations

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Graduate Teaching Assistants (GTAs) are increasingly responsible for carrying the load of teaching undergraduate students in most major universities in America with thousands of new GTAs teaching undergraduate courses with hardly any knowledge of effective teaching practices (Darling & Dewey, 1990; Kurdziel & Libarkin, 2003). Undergraduates in general physical education programs are almost exclusively taught by GTAs and those with some training and/or teaching experience tend to have better attitudes about teaching (Marso & Pigge, 1989). Often these GTAs do not get to choose the course they teach which leads GTAs to a sense that the class assigned to them is a low priority to the department (Lumsden, 1993). The training of GTA's must be taken seriously to improve undergraduate education and help prepare future college faculty (Nyquist, Manning, Wulff, Austin, Sprague, Fraser, Calcagno, & Woodford, 1999). In many cases, GTAs are graduate students enrolled in programs that differ from their undergraduate degree and therefore have little or no theoretical background in their chosen field of study. This lack of subject-matter knowledge is compounded by the lack of teaching experience leaving the GTAs unprepared on many fronts to impart knowledge to their students. Many universities have begun to provide a wide variety of methods to educate GTAs on effective teaching and coping with role conflicts such as the students' need to focus on their own coursework and research expectations (Kuther, 2003). These programs vary in length and content, but serve as an orientation to ostensibly make the GTAs better instructors. The following review of literature will include an examination of what barriers exist to GTAs' effective teaching and what defines effective teaching. Additionally, methods of evaluating effective teaching and methods of training GTAs to be more effective instructors will be reviewed.

Review of Literature

Research on GTAs

Using graduate students to teach physical activity classes at universities is a common practice (Beckett, 2000; Bibik, 1999; Buck, Harrison, & Bryce 1990; Harrison, Preece, Blakemore, Richards, Wilkinson, & Fellingham, 1999) and some view this practice as a cost efficient, but flawed apprenticeship for future faculty due to a lack of consistent and thoughtful training (Kurdziel & Libarkin, 2003; Nyquist, et al, 1999; Saroyan, A. & Amundsen, 1995). Atwell (1996) states that graduate programs are being funded by undergraduate tuition and he believes that some faculty are out of touch with the undergraduates and "clone themselves in the persons of their graduate students, using them to cover their undergraduate classes." As many as 70% of GTAs are asked to teach activities that they had little or no experience in and these teaching assignments comprised GTAs' greatest challenge in graduate school as well as taking up the most of their time (Savage & Sharpe, 1998). Nearly half of departments surveyed in one study provided absolutely no training for their GTAs (Black & Bonwell, 1991) which must exacerbate the time crunch GTAs feel. To make matters worse, there are no guarantees that GTAs will receive similar training as the amount of GTA training can vary depending on the size of a department (Meyers & Prieto, 2000). In a general physical education program, the pressure then falls squarely on the GTAs teaching in the program as they are often a last resource for an undergraduate student to learn motor skills that

prepare these students for lifetime physical activity (Miller, Dowell, & Pender, 1989; Poole, 1991). As GTAs instantly become instructors by enrolling in graduate school, they can become overwhelmed (Lumsden, 1993).

GTAs are becoming more important in undergraduate instruction and in general physical education programs, the larger the university, the fewer the number of professional faculty responsible for teaching in those programs (Atwell, 1996; Miller, Dowell, & Pender, 1989; Nyquist, et al, 1999). As the utilization of GTAs increases, it is important to remember that GTAs have many additional responsibilities and hectic schedules. Ensuring effective teaching as well as socialization into a culture of faculty who have strong convictions as to what should be taught and how it should be taught, is a difficult task and care must be taken to nurture GTAs in order to avoid the perception that GTAs and research assistants are not simply viewed as cheap labor (Davis & Minnis, 1993; Hartnett & Katz, 1977).

When GTAs begin their teaching assignments they do so with an affinity for teaching, but are inadequately prepared for the role and often become “socialized” out of that desire as research responsibilities are emphasized, which essentially leads to poorer instruction for the undergraduates (Harnett & Katz, 1977). Some GTAs reach a point where they are only interested in what gets them through their program and adopt an employment philosophy that they can always go from a research institution to a teaching institution, but not the other way around (Nyquist, et al, 1999).

There is a large majority of GTAs that envision themselves teaching college as a career despite negative influences of their training program such as poor mentoring practices by the faculty and the lack of support for teaching (Bomotti, 1994; Nyquist, et al, 1999), and entering the professorate under these conditions cannot positively influence proper preparation of GTAs. These GTAs express a desire for more support and preparation for teaching, even as they are continually receiving mixed-messages concerning the importance of teaching since university leaders often expound the virtues of teaching while tenure decisions are frequently based on research accomplishments (Nyquist, et al, 1999).

To teach or not to teach seems to be the question. Wilson (1992) suggests that the research and teaching be separated and graduate students should be “trained in one, educated in the other” in order to avoid the socializing of GTAs away from an emphasis in teaching. The development of proper training for GTAs in the teaching profession is an ethical necessity, as it is incumbent upon the university to benefit their students and GTAs may “cut corners” when they find themselves overwhelmed (Davis & Minnis, 1993; Kitchner, 1992; Kuther, 2003). The faculty assumes a role of power in the classroom that, if abused, can cause harm to the students and harm may occur when teachers profess to be knowledgeable in subject matter when they may not be, thus misrepresenting themselves and not providing the education students are promised (Davis & Minnis, 1993; Kitchner, 1992; Wilson, 1992). Therefore, though subject matter knowledge is essential for effective teaching, the need for pedagogical preparation for future professors to adequately deliver information is as important (Atwell, 1996; Cahn, 1994).

Do it Yourself Pedagogy

Assuming that the GTAs are not socialized out of their desire to teach, preparing them to teach well becomes imperative. One study involving 70 institutions and 191 GTAs found that less than 50% received formal training and of those that did, only 3 institutions included pedagogical training (Savage & Sharpe, 1998). Without little more than voluntary pedagogical training or any other training, GTAs are like many new university faculty who learn by trial and error and traditionally get little training. This results in creating a greater concern for self-survival than the teaching assignment presented to them (Darling & Dewey, 1990; Kurdziel & Libarkin, 2003; Lowman & Mathie, 1993; Marso & Pigge, 1989). This concern for self-survival drives the GTAs' need for credibility and reduces the likelihood of challenging the themes of teaching expressed by experienced peer GTAs during this on the job training (Darling & Dewey, 1990; Prieto & Altmaier, 1994). Indeed, many GTAs feel they are inadequately prepared for teaching and unprepared for faculty positions they desire in the future (Golde & Dore, 2001; Meyers, Reid & Quina, 1998), therefore, the method of training GTAs for their teaching responsibilities becomes paramount.

GTAs are future faculty and generally have little or no training and the internal teaching models of GTAs resemble preconceived notions of teaching that were developed long before they set foot in a class room (Davis & Minnis, 1993; Poole & Graham, 1996). The results from one study indicated that each GTA believed their internal model, or teaching style they brought with them from past experiences, was most effective relative to the classes they taught. Each felt as if they used effective teaching strategies although none were the same. The GTAs seemed to use their internal model as a "filter" and only responded to suggestions that fit into their personal perceptions of effective teaching, although all of the GTAs in the study seemed sincere in wanting to do well (Poole & Graham, 1996).

Moreover, as long as there were no complaints from students or corrections from seldom seen faculty supervisors, these GTAs felt they must be doing alright. This is termed "pedagogy by contentment" (Poole & Graham, 1996), which is not a description of apathetic GTAs, rather GTAs that believe that they were doing fine. This do-it-yourself -pedagogy is compounded by the likelihood that GTAs will not approach a professor or administrator for help with their teaching, especially if the supervisor is not making observations (Black & Bonwell, 1991; Poole & Graham, 1996).

GTA Training Programs

Much has been written and discussed about GTAs training and some consensus as to why that training is needed has been reached. In general, those reasons include improving undergraduate instruction, improving subject knowledge for GTAs as future faculty, and addressing an aging professorate (Atwell, 1996; Black & Bonwell, 1991; Mangan, 1992; Saroyan & Amundsen, 1995). The end product of a GTA teacher-training program is improved instruction in the classes taught by GTAs and training programs need to be included to ensure productive and rewarding initial teaching experiences for GTAs that lead to long-term teaching effectiveness (Black & Bonwell, 1991; Savage & Sharpe, 1998). The development of any manner of teaching or induction program must

consider the “baggage” GTAs bring with them to the teaching arena in the form of pre-existing internal models (Poole & Graham, 1996).

Although there have been numerous reports and studies that have concluded a need to reform GTAs’ preparation, questions still abound concerning what is effective teaching and how one gets GTAs to utilize effective teaching practices (Nyquist, et al, 1999; Savage and Sharpe, 1998). The research on improving instruction of GTAs includes a wide scope of approaches to create a solution; however, several key components that should comprise a training program emerge from the literature. Among others, these components include pedagogical training, mentoring, manuals, systematic observations, self efficacy, and, in physical education, skill testing (Atwell, 1996; Cahan, 1994; Darling & Dewey, 1990; Davis & Minnis, 1993; Hardre, 2003; Lowman & Mathie, 1993; Mangan, 1992; Nyquist, et al, 1999; Poole, 1991; Poole & Graham, 1996; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000).

How long a training program for GTAs should last is not clear from the literature though it is clear that a move to improve GTAs’ instruction is in progress and one-day orientations are not the norm (Mangan, 1992). Time appears to be a factor in the success of training programs and the length of the induction program must consider the GTAs’ class schedules and GTAs’ training programs must take into account the time constraints of GTAs (Davis & Minnis, 1993; Germann & Sasse, 1997; Savage & Sharpe, 1998). Instead of one day orientations, training programs may last from a week to as much as a semester to improve teaching, however evidence of GTAs’ improved performance must be measurable sooner than later which suggests a sense of urgency in improving instructional performance (Hardre, 2003; Managan, 1992; Poole & Graham, 1996; Sharpe, 1997; Williams, 1991). There are even some instances that required GTAs to enroll in semester-long courses that have pedagogical content in addition to the training programs (Amores, 1999; Williams, 1991).

Florida State University provides a workshop for all GTAs entitled the Program for Instructional Excellence (PIE). The PIE Conference (2004) is composed of modules that the GTAs are required to attend to assist them in preparing for their teaching assignments and to improve their teaching performances (Appendix A). The PIE Program is a three-day program offered prior to the beginning of classes in the Fall semester and a two day program offered three weeks after the start of the Spring semester. Participation in the PIE conference allows a GTA to select from a group of instructional modules that are designed to assist inexperienced GTAs to prepare to teach their courses and GTAs can receive a PIE Teaching Certificate upon completion of certain requirements. In order to receive the certificate, GTAs must attend the following three sessions, Sexual Harassment Sexual Battery Policy Training, Issues in Grading and Academic Honor Code and submit written reflections on each of these topics. Additionally, GTAs must attend one session and complete a reflection exercise from each of the following areas: Course Planning, Lesson Delivery, Assessment and Evaluation, Communication with Students, and Professional Development. Topics and schedules for the PIE program are included in Appendix A. Session lengths varied from nearly two hours in length to an hour. The PIE program is a comprehensive training program for GTAs, but is generic in nature and does not necessarily meet the specific needs of physical educators.

Davis and Kring (2001) constructed a GTA training program that had several components to it including summer reading (or rereading) of teaching tips, providing of texts and useful materials for classes to be taught, and a three day-long orientation session totaling 18 hours. Information contained in the orientations focused on university and department policies as well as viewing videotaped lessons of returning GTAs. GTAs also participate in bi-weekly meetings with a supervisor during which teaching topics are discussed and as well as review of teaching experiences. GTA training programs will vary and formative and summative evaluations have been utilized to determine the success of the programs (Davis & Kring, 2001; Gaia, et al, 2003; Kurdziel & Libarkin, 2003; Soroyan & Amundsen, 1995).

Another GTA instructional study conducted an intervention over two sessions that lasted three hours each and were conducted one week apart (Hardre, 2003). This intervention included information on instructional design, discussions, and activities that applied this information, as well as a manual for the GTAs to take home and use as a reference to prepare for teaching. In this study the GTAs were required to pass a test to measure their grasp of the information presented. Poole and Graham's (1996) training program included a week-long instructional workshop, assignment of a mentor, and a manual. Pennington (1990) designed a brief program that included four sessions spaced about one week apart lasting a total of seven hours with some positive results.

Pedagogical Training

GTAs need pedagogical training and they should be trained in the art of teaching to improve undergraduate education as well as teaching strategies to promote student learning (Black & Bonwell, 1991; Davis & Minnis, 1993; Gaia, Corts, Tatum, & Allen, 2003; Lowman & Mathie, 1993). There is an overwhelming consensus that GTAs must be armed with pedagogical knowledge in any attempt to train GTAs as classroom instructors (Atwell, 1996; Black & Bonwell, 1991; Hardre, 2003; Poole & Graham, 1996). Therefore, when designing and implementing a GTA training program, pedagogical training should be the cornerstone to provide the foundation of the process of teaching.

The specific information or type of pedagogical training is not universal, but ranges from a simple list of seven skills to the adoption of a particular teaching model or instructional design (Hardre, 2003; Poole, 1991, Rink, 2002). Though no magic pill, Poole (1991) believes that there are seven generic teaching skills that can assist GTAs in effective teaching that include making realistic planning decisions, providing large amounts of activity time, providing simple introductions, providing students with success-oriented activities, providing students with only key performance cues, providing feedback related to the performance cues, and providing simple closure. At Florida State University's department of biological sciences, a five-day workshop was designed and implemented to address seven traits and behaviors including feedback to students, personality and character of the teacher, teacher preparation and presentation, positive attitude of the teacher, classroom management, organization, and attention to all students (Lumsden, 1993). Another training program, described as brief, focused on how to start a class, coping with mistakes, discovery learning, dealing with different students, using visual aids, and assessing student learning (Pennington, 1990).

Clearly pedagogical considerations are present in all of these training programs though the specific choices for which pedagogical strategies were emphasized differed

due to the varied requirements of different academic disciplines. In physical education there are divergent paths of pedagogy. In the past, typical physical education most likely would involve skill drills which would eventually be incorporated into game play. However, more emphasis is being placed on student learning in all areas of game play. Consider basketball as an example, “there are always 10 players on the court and only one ball which means nine guys have to be doing something other than shooting” (Rosen, 2005, ¶ 1). Rosen’s observation supports the concept that the form of skills should be practiced in the context of the game setting that involves more than skill execution, but includes movement away from the ball for the purposes of offense and defense (Griffin, 1996; Mitchell, 1996; Oslin & Mitchell, 1998; Rink, 2002). This approach to teaching games in physical education is referred to as a tactical games approach. Teaching games from a tactical approach allows a student to develop not only on the ball skills, but the necessary movements off the ball to support teammates and fully learn a game (Griffin, 1996; Mitchell, 1996; Oslin & Mitchell, 1998). Using the above basketball example, the one person with the ball may be demonstrating motor skill ability, but if the teammates do not move appropriately in support of the player with the ball, scoring may not be as efficient as possible. Teaching for Tactical Game Play and Games for Understanding allows a low-skilled participant to still play the game effectively (Oslin, et al, 1998).

Another approach to teaching game play involves combining motor skills, increasing the complexity of the skills, and the relationship of players to each other while playing offense and defense (Rink, 2002). This approach divides the development of game play into four game stages that consider the learning of skills during game play rather than simply executing motor skills. During stage one the learner is simply learning to control the object or body while practicing sending actions, receiving actions, and carrying and propelling actions. Sending actions are exemplified by striking, kicking and throwing. Receiving actions are catching and collecting, while carrying and propelling actions can be carrying a football or dribbling in basketball or soccer.

Stage two increases the complexity of the skills in stage one by combining skills to increase the difficulty. For example, in a soccer unit a dribbling drill may end with a shot on goal. Also, rules are incorporated to control the movement within the scope of the game. The ability to integrate skills is crucial in game play and emphasizes those combinations which might be used together in a game like heading a soccer ball as a pass.

During stage three the offensive and defensive strategies are introduced and small-sided games are played. In basketball, one-on-one games are played and as skills improve, two-on-two and three-on-three follow. These strategies can be used for invasion games such as basketball, soccer and hockey, as well as net games such as tennis, volleyball and badminton.

Stage four game play would be indicative of full-sided games and modified games for learners not yet ready for full games. Specialization of player positions on defense and offense are evident the organization of the game is more complex. Keeping game play continuous is paramount during this stage, but this is an opportune time for teachers to facilitate learning, by refining participation patterns.

The use of Rink’s (2002) game stages helps to define how to teach tactical game play, but also includes the use of various task presentations during instruction. These tasks are called informing, refinement, extending, and application tasks. Informing tasks

begin a sequence of tasks in a lesson and lets the learners know what is expected. Extending tasks take an activity and makes that activity more complex in nature. Refinement tasks address the quality of performance and instructors use refinement to make changes to observed performance. Application tasks in a physical education class involve having the learners use the skills in game like activities or for the purposes of assessment. These task presentations are included as part of an assessment instrument for teacher effectiveness called the Qualitative Measures of Teaching Performance Scale (QMTPS).

The tactical games approach to teaching in physical education and Rink's use of game stages with task applications is indicative of a more modern method of teaching physical education. Observation instruments for effective teaching and student learning have been developed to be used in concert with these approaches, thus validating these methods as viable alternatives to teaching physical education classes.

As more institutions begin to provide workshops and training programs that the GTAs desire, the development of manuals has become helpful in the GTAs pedagogical development and knowledge of institutional policies but are not adequate training tools for preparing the GTAs for instruction (Hardre, 2003; Lowman & Mathie, 1993). That is not to say that manuals have no value in the overall training program of GTAs as policies and procedures are valuable in referencing needed information from time to time. Some departments offer workbooks that help their GTA's design lessons and plan objectives (Lumsden, 1993; Pennington, 1990; Rushin, De Saix, Lumsden, Streubel, Summers, & Bernson, 1997).

Skill Testing

Another component essential to constructing an effective GTA training program is skill testing. Student achievement across disciplines, and skill testing in physical education, has been used in several instances as a measure in validation studies of observation instruments and induction programs. (Hardre, 2003; Harrison, et al, 1999; Pellet & Harrison, 1995; Silverman, 1985; Silverman, Devillier, & Ramirez, 1991; Silverman, Duschner, 1990). In physical education classes from kindergarten to college, student achievement has been based on motor skills and subject knowledge (Miller, et al, 1989). In the vast majority of research on teaching in physical education that involved skill testing, simple motor skills associated with the activity were selected from standardized skills test formats such as American Alliance of Health, Physical Education Recreation and Dance (AAHPERD). Skill testing in volleyball frequently involves following an AAHPERD protocol and focus on skills such as the forearm pass, overhead pass, and serving. Tennis skills tested would often include skills such as the forehand, backhand and serve. These skills are tested in a format that is separate from participation in the activity under playing conditions and therefore these types of measures may not be reflective of a participant's playing ability in an actual game situation, especially if the objectives of the class center on learning how to play the game being taught (Veal, 1993). This concept of testing has begun to be phased out as physical education teachers have come to realize that effective participation in a game is more than being able to perform certain skills (Mitchell & Oslin, 1999).

The Game Play Assessment Instrument (GPAI) was developed to assess students' ability while playing a game during actual live situations and was validated as a measure of game play ability that includes not only physical, but tactical skills (Mitchell & Oslin,

1999; Oslin, et al, 1998). Rather than simply testing for the physical skill, the GPAI requires the coder to assess participants' ability in the seven components of game play that include, base positioning, decision making, support of teammate, guard/marketing, cover, skill execution, and adjust (Mitchell & Oslin, 1999). Game play is differentiated by categorizing activities in to three different types, invasion games such as soccer, football, and ultimate frisbee, net games such as badminton, tennis and volleyball, and field games such as softball. Not every one of the seven components is appropriate for the three different types of activities; therefore the GPAI must be modified to fit the needs of the activity observed.

This assessment tool is used in the pedagogical development of the Physical Education Teacher Education majors at Kent State University (Oslin, et al, 2001). Therefore, if the goal of a university's general physical education program is to teach students all aspects of a game, the use of a student achievement test that does not include criterion other than motor skill execution is not really an appropriate measure of a student's ability in game play. One important aspect of using the GPAI is that you must measure the components which were taught for in the lesson (Griffin, L.L., personal communication, February 14, 2005). This necessitates listing the criteria for the components of the GPAI that are being taught for in the lesson observed and also deciding which components should be focused on in the training program. It bears reemphasizing that skill testing through the use of the GPAI will determine the over all game performance of the students observed.

Systematic Observation

Systematic observations are a critical aspect of teacher training programs and they are being utilized more frequently to determine GTAs' performance (Kurdziel & Libarkin, 2003; Mangan, 1992; Sharpe, 1997). The inclusion of systematic observations in a training program is consistent with the literature in supervision of novice teachers and includes the use of videotaped lessons for the purpose of establishing a baseline of performance and prescribing methods for teacher improvement (Brawdy & Byra, 1995; Ocansey, 1988; Savage & Sharpe, 1998). Additionally, in order to effectively mentor GTAs, the gathering of information on the GTAs' teaching performance is needed and teacher evaluations of observable behavior provide performance data that reflects a GTAs' daily instruction (Black & Bonwell, 1991; Sharpe, 1997). This type of data collection would be well served to emanate from videotaped lessons taught by GTAs (Atwell, 1996; Mangan, 1992).

In a clinical model of supervision, teachers participate in an orientation or pre-observation conference, some form of observation, and a follow-up conference to review the teaching performance (Pajak, 2001; Vander Lindhe, 1998). Through the use of systematic observations, recommendations for improvement are made based on data driven conclusions, and goals are set for future observations (Ocansey, 1988). The inclusion of elements of this form of supervision would be appropriate in an induction program for GTAs and performance assessments of GTA teaching is part of determining the effectiveness of an induction program (Hardre, 2003).

There are many methods for utilizing systematic observations and the instrumentation of these systems vary as well. A discussion of the use of specific observation systems in educational settings, including physical education, will follow below. However, it is clear from the literature that the role of a supervisor in this process

is crucial for effective supervision of novice teachers (Brawdy & Byra, 1995; Ocansey, 1988; Pajak, 2001).

Mentoring

The inclusion of mentoring is also a critical piece of an induction program. The concept of constructing a training or induction program for GTAs should take into consideration what the GTA's themselves' desire for their development. GTAs want regular and meaningful interaction with a mentor that aids their professional development as teachers and future faculty, but in one qualitative study, students were frustrated with a lack of commitment from mentors to meet with the GTAs due to the large number of GTAs and small faculty (Gaia, et al, 2003; Nyquist, et al, 1999). Mentoring of GTAs appears to be one of the most important components of a GTA teaching preparation program and is called for frequently in the literature (Atwell, 1996; Black & Bonwell, 1991; Davis & Kring, 2001; Davis & Mennis, 1993; Gaia, et al, 2003; Lowman & Mathie, 1993).

In the development of one physical education department's GTA induction program, the assignment of faculty supervisors was considered one of the key aspects of the program, however results showed that as with other studies, faculty support waned as the semester passed due to a hierarchy of priorities (Nyquist, et al, 1999; Poole & Graham, 1996). This lack of success in some settings does not mean that mentoring is not important, rather it indicates a need to make mentoring a priority and provide training so that faculty members take seriously in an effort to improve undergraduate education (Zahorik, 1988). Allowing faculty to count their mentoring towards tenure standards would be helpful in creating a mentor-friendly environment (Gaia, et al, 2003).

The fact is that mentoring may be the most important part of a good induction program and can change teaching behaviors through thoughtful supervision in as little as 10 weeks (Paese, 1990; Siedentop, 1981). Mentoring as part of a training program does not necessarily have to be a one-on-one situation, but can in small group settings of five to seven GTAs to a mentor and the mentoring be provided by faculty or experienced GTAs (Davis, & Kring, 2001; Gaia, et al, 2003). Mentors do not even necessarily have to be instructors of the same course as some universities have teaching centers that could fill this role, but they should have subject matter knowledge and provide opportunities for interaction with GTAs (Davis & Minnis, 1993; Kurdziel & Libarkin, 2003). Regardless of who does the mentoring, weekly or bi-weekly meetings appear to be the norm and should take place as soon as possible following a teaching event (Davis and Kring, 2001; Hardre, 2003; Savage & Sharpe, 1998) What is important to improved teaching performance is quality feedback which should be provided from a purposeful mentoring process based on established teaching baselines, and some form for providing that feedback should be included as part of a training program (Black & Bonwell, 1991; Paese, 2003; Savage & Sharpe, 1998).

Self-efficacy

Including teacher self-efficacy as a component of GTA induction or training program may be warranted as self-efficacy has been correlated with student achievement and teacher performance (Multon, Brown, & Lent, 1991; Ross, Cousins & Gadalla, 1996). Prior training and teaching experience have been shown to produce higher self-efficacy in GTAs in various academic departments (Prieto & Altmier, 1994). Teacher

self-efficacy is more than being confident or extraverted, it is the teacher's confidence to affect student learning and is not always predicated on past success (Henson & Chambers, 2003; Ross, et al, 1996).

There are numerous self-efficacy instruments that are used in various settings, however little investigation has been done into the self-efficacy of physical education teachers. Research on self-efficacy and overcoming barriers has become common across disciplines and barriers include lack of time, training, materials, and administrative support resulting in lower self-efficacy for students and teachers (Auld, Romaniello, Heimendinger, & Hambidge, 1999). Only one study has been conducted on teacher self-efficacy and overcoming barriers to physically active instruction, or keeping the students physically active a minimum of 50% of class time (Martin & Kulinna, 2003).

If teachers' efficacy in their abilities were taken more seriously at the start of their careers, teacher training programs could resemble the apprenticeships called for by GTAs and alter the nature of induction programs. (Nyquist, et al, 1999; Saroyan, A. & Amundsen, C, 1995; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy). The inclusion of self-efficacy as a measure of a successful training program could be appropriate and self-evaluation has been included in training program studies for GTAs (Hardre, 2003; Ingram, 2003). Although training GTAs to overcome barriers has merit, the process could take a significant amount of time from the IP and create an additional time demand on the faculty and GTAs.

Effective Teaching

Defining good teaching is a daunting task. Any discussion of how you train someone to be an effective teacher must be grounded in accepted effective teaching practices. Over the years, there have been volumes of research conducted on effective teaching and many have tried to determine what defines good teaching. Examining effective teaching practices and determining effective teaching as it pertains to teaching physical education in a general physical education program at larger universities will help determine what GTAs should know when preparing to teach in an undergraduate lifetime activities program.

Early research on teacher effectiveness was primarily related to teacher characteristics, or presage variables, and the qualities a teacher possessed that influenced learning (Graber, 2001). This model of pedagogical research attempted to relate teachers' personal traits, including appearance and enthusiasm, to teacher effectiveness (Lee, 1996). The presage approach to researching effective teaching was found to be inadequate because of a lack of relevance, inadequate links to student learning and consistent findings (Lee, 1996). However, Shulman (1986) constructed a list of teacher competencies, which included content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, knowledge of learners, knowledge of educational contexts, and knowledge of educational ends. This list of competencies is still considered a cornerstone of learning for pre-service teachers.

Following presage variable research, much of the methodology of research on effective teaching took into consideration other variables such as classroom dynamics and students characteristics. A large amount of this research was conducted predominately on classroom teachers and with observation systems. The 1970's produced research models that embraced observation systems and moved away from previous research that had been done on teacher traits and comparative methods of

teaching (Lee, 1996). The progression of research that followed the use of observation systems was a type of research on teaching called process-product research (Lee, 1996). This model correlated teacher behaviors with the learner's achievement (Dunkin & Biddle, 1974). Flanders Interaction Analysis System (FIAS) was one of the more popular process-product observation systems used in pedagogical research to evaluate teacher effectiveness and it focused teachers' interactions with students. Teaching methods that correlated with student academic achievement were considered effective, thus validating the observation instrument being utilized. Okebukola and Ogunniyi (1986) also used FIAS to identify teacher interaction styles in a biology class to enhance achievement. The use of FIAS was successful in identifying teachers' interaction behaviors as being either indirect or direct, and for this study, indicated that indirect teaching leads to higher learner participation and academic achievement.

Berliner (1987) supported the use of Academic Learning Time (ALT) as a measurement of teacher effectiveness in the classroom. ALT is similar to the process-product model, however time is the mediating factor, or process variable, instead of teacher behavior (Silverman, 1991). ALT is comprised of the variables allocated time, engaged time, and achievement. Berliner (1987) reports that 10% of variance of student achievement across various academic subjects, can be attributed to ALT making ALT useful in observing classroom instruction.

Over time, physical educators created numerous observation systems (Darst, Zakrajsek, & Mancini, 1989) and adapted various classroom observation systems to make them more relevant to the physical education setting giving physical educators modified classroom observation instruments specifically designed for physical education. These include Academic Learning Time in Physical Education (ALT-PE) and the Cheffers (CAFIAS) Adaptation of Flanders Interaction Analysis System (Silverman, 1991). These modified instruments were validated with student achievement scores on motor skills tests much like academic achievement was the goal in ALT.

According to Judith Rink (2002), "Teaching motor skills that contribute to an active lifestyle is the unique contribution of our field" (p.23)." As physical educators consider the power of that statement, finding the most effective methods of teaching motor skills becomes imperative. Determining teacher effectiveness in physical education is an ever evolving process that has taken many forms. Silverman (1991) identified effectiveness, classroom ecology, and cognition and decision making as the three predominant areas of research in physical education. Lee (1996) also includes a discussion on processing and cognitive science and ecology in the gym in her review of literature in the field of physical education, as well as teacher behavior research containing effectiveness studies.

Observation Systems and Effective Teaching

Utilizing observation systems has become the primary method of measuring effective teaching in the classroom and the gymnasium. Flanders Interaction Analysis System (FIAS), Academic Learning Time in Physical Education (ALT-PE), Cheffers Interaction Adaptation of Flanders Interaction Analysis System (CAFIAS), and the Qualitative Measures of Teaching Performance Scale (QMTPS), are examples of different methods of observing teacher effectiveness in physical education. However, there are many more observation systems available to study instructional effectiveness in physical education. In one text (Darst, Zakrajsek, & Mancini, 1989) 31 such systems are

presented as methods for observing teaching and coaching. One of the most frequently used observational methods of determining teacher effectiveness in physical education is ALT-PE. Past perceptions of teaching motor skills have been predicated on the belief that increased practice time would yield higher rates of student achievement. ALT-PE is a “time/mediating process-product” subarea of the effectiveness stream of research in physical education listed by Silverman (1991).

A moderate relationship was found between minutes of ALT-PE and achievement in a novel badminton task, dropping the shuttlecock and hitting it continuously as many times as possible (Beckett, 1989). However, simply being engaged in an activity or skill practice is not enough of a predictor for student achievement. In order for student achievement to occur in the gym or on the field, practice must include a substantial amount of correct trials (Ashy, Lee, & Landin, 1988; Buck, Harrison, & Bryce, 1990; Silverman, 1985) which indicates that ALT-PE alone is not a precursor to skill attainment. Silverman, Devillier, & Ramirez (1991) attempted to validate ALT-PE as a measure of student achievement, but were unable to fully do so. Therefore, finding alternative methods to assess teacher effectiveness would seem logical in light of the inconclusive findings of ALT-PE.

Observation systems need to be both reliable and valid and one would expect a relationship between the process being measured and student achievement. Another popular method of observing teacher effectiveness in physical education is CAFIAS, which was an adaptation of FIAS to be used in a movement-oriented environment. The use of CAFIAS has allowed researchers to see the effect of a treatment and successful alterations in behavior and interactions (Mancini, Clark, & Wuest, 1987; Schempp, 1987), however no relationship to student achievement was revealed. Furthermore, it is unclear if these alterations are stable over time. FIAS focuses on classroom verbal behaviors and was considered the standard observation instrument for this purpose (Darst, et al, 1989). The assumption is that there are interaction patterns revealed through FIAS, and later CAFIAS, that reflect quality teaching (Silverman & Buschner, 1990). Cheffers and Mancini (1989) describe CAFIAS as an observation system that codes verbal and non-verbal interactions between the teacher and students and the sequencing of those interactions.

CAFIAS has been successful at identifying teacher/coach and student interactions that seems to be indicative of effective teaching; however, no relationship to student achievement has been demonstrated. In a validity study examining the relationship of CAFIAS and student achievement, results showed that CAFIAS is not a valid measure of student achievement in all situations (Silverman & Buschner, 1990)

The Qualitative Measures of Teaching Performance Scale (QMTPS) was created to assess teacher behaviors in various categories both qualitatively and quantitatively (Rink & Werner, 1989). In utilizing the QMTPS, researchers hypothesized that there might be a minimum score that would be acceptable for teaching performance and began to draw a relationship between skill attainment and teacher performance (Gusthart & Kelly, 1993; Gusthart & Spigings, 1989). Gusthart, Kelly, & Graham (1995) reported that students of teachers who scored above 55 on a scale of 100 points were more successful than students of teachers who scored lower than 55. These results support the supposition Gusthart & Spigings (1989) made about a minimum level of acceptable performance and actually establish a baseline of minimum performance. These findings

also set the QMTPS observation system apart from other methods due to the fact a baseline was established that linked effective teaching to student achievement. An important consideration to using the QMTPS to evaluate effective teaching is that the QMTPS instrument contains several categories. Though each category could be and has been investigated separately, it is the total QMTPS score that is important and not one, but several observations should be conducted to get a true reflection of a teacher's performance (Gusthart, Kelly, & Rink, 1997; Pellet & Harrison, 1995). What is most interesting about the QMTPS studies is that student learning can occur in a relatively short period of time (Gusthart & Kelly, 1993). With the validation of the QMTPS as a measure of effective teaching and the establishment of a minimum score reflective of acceptable performance, the use of the QMTPS in physical education settings is a viable method of evaluating teacher performance and the use of the QMTPS in most settings appears to be appropriate when measuring teacher performance.

Summary

Most universities use graduate students to teach undergraduates (Poole & Graham, 1996) to some degree and general physical education classes are no different. From bowling to tennis, GTAs often teach the bulk of these activity courses, however GTAs' experiences often do not match up with teaching assignments (Mondello, Flemming, & Focht, 2000; Poole, 1991) and often, the GTA has little or no teaching experience at all (Poole & Graham, 1996). Because of attrition and graduation of the GTAs, it becomes extremely important to provide these GTA with effective training, supervision, and evaluation to ensure the ongoing quality of these programs (Mondello, et al, 2000).

Because GTAs are teaching a large number of university level physical education classes, more research must be done to ensure the quality delivery of instruction to the students enrolled in these classes. Poole and Graham (1996) have demonstrated that GTA are motivated to teach well, but do not solicit advice from faculty or peer-GTAs. Furthermore, faculty supervision may be important in assisting these GTA in improving their teaching skills, but that cooperation may be difficult to obtain. There is a need to further study the effects of some method of induction to provide GTAs with necessary information on effective teaching so as to ensure that students enrolling in physical education classes are receiving proper instruction. The triad of the GTA, pedagogy faculty, and peer GTA used by Poole and Graham (1996) should be examined in an attempt to foster that improved effective teaching.

Training programs exist for GTAs in all sorts of shapes and sizes with the duration of training lasting one day to one semester. GTAs may find themselves in a session for seven hours or one hour. GTAs face a heavy workload and their time is precious. Taking into their time constraints into consideration must be balanced with the goal of improving undergraduate education in our universities. What seems clear is that the training programs must be based on pedagogical theory that helps the GTA teach more effectively and GTAs should be assessed to determine their understanding of the information presented in the workshops as well having the GTAs assess the quality of the workshops.

The purpose of an induction or training program should be to improve the quality of instruction however the literature is not uniform on how to measure the effectiveness of these programs. Some studies and reports recommend soliciting evaluations of the

programs themselves while others seek to determine if there has been an effect on student learning. Only one study reported requiring the GTAs to be tested on the information provided in the induction program. This would seem to be an important component of a study since it would eliminate variance due to a lack of knowledge of treatment information. What is commonly agreed upon is the need for objective evaluations of teacher performance for the purpose of feedback that is often provided by some sort of mentoring process.

Through process-product, time-mediated process-product research, much has been learned about effective teaching. However, there is no description of effective teaching that fits for all physical educators. There are, however, “generally agreed upon characteristics of effective teaching” (Graber, 2001). Many of the studies that use ALT-PE or appropriate trials, as well as the QMTPS, are based on motor skill testing from established testing protocols and most GTAs do not use these tests. Using the QMTPS as a validated system of observation of teacher effectiveness allows the observer to determine if the instructor is being effective, and therefore, if learning is occurring. The QMTPS observation system has been shown to be a predictor of achievement of several different motor skills and therefore may be the most ideal observation system for determining effective teaching for a GTA teaching activity classes. Choosing one method of determining teacher effectiveness cannot be considered a definitive statement on the observed GTA’s ability to teach, however, an attempt must be made to identify teacher effectiveness or ineffectiveness and identify and correct strengths and weaknesses.

For the purpose of this study, effective teaching will be defined as an activity that produces student achievement. Student achievement is measured in physical education as the attainment of game performance skills necessary for the successful participation in a chosen activity, and will be measured by the GPAI. The use of the QMTPS has been validated as a measure of effective teaching when a total score of 55 or higher is reached and will also be used as an indicator of teacher effectiveness. Student evaluations will also be used to determine teacher effectiveness.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of a pedagogical induction program on Graduate Teaching Assistants’ (GTAs) teaching performance in a major university’s general physical education program.

Hypotheses

The main hypothesis for this study was that the teaching performance of GTAs participating in an Induction Program would improve as compared to the GTAs in the control group. Additionally, it was hypothesized that tactical game play would improve for students of the GTAs participating in the treatment program as compared to the students of the GTAs in the control group, and student evaluations would be higher for GTAs in the treatment program as compared to the control group. Statistical significance for this analysis was accepted at $p \leq .05$.

H1: Teaching performance as measured by the scores on the QMTPS would be higher for the treatment group GTAs than for the control group GTAs.

H2: Student learning as measured by the scores on the GPAI would be higher for students of the treatment group GTAs than for students of the control group GTAs.

H3: Student evaluation as measured by item the eight items in Section D on the Student Perceptions of Teaching (SPOT) would be higher for treatment group GTAs than for control group GTAs.

Justification

Graduate Teaching Assistants (GTAs) teach a majority of undergraduate students in most major universities in America (Darling & Dewey, 1990). Undergraduates in general physical education programs are most likely to be taught by GTAs and GTAs with training have better attitudes about teaching (Marso & Pigge, 1989), but these GTAs will most likely teach activities in which they have no background or experience (Savage & Sharpe, 1998). To compound the problem, most of the university departments are not providing any training for the GTAs (Black & Bonwell, 1991). Therefore, a need to determine if a pedagogical induction program could improve GTAs' teaching performance in general physical education courses was necessary.

Basic Assumptions

In order to examine the effects of the induction program on GTAs' teaching performances in a general physical education program, the following basic assumptions were made:

1. The information presented in the two Teaching Modules was appropriate to facilitate the GTAs' learning relevant pedagogical strategies that would lead to improved teaching performance.
2. The mentoring sessions were regularly attended and the mentor prepared for each session to reflect on the Teaching Modules as well as the results of the GTAs' observations from the most recent lessons taught.
3. The observation instruments used in the study were valid and reliable.
4. The presence of the video camera had no affect on the GTAs teaching behavior

Delimitations

The delimitations for this study were as follows:

1. The population for this study was eight graduate teaching assistants teaching net and invasion games in a general physical education department at a major southeastern university.

Limitations

The limitations for this study were as follows

1. The determination of sample sizes for this study was difficult because no prior intervention studies have been conducted using the selected measures of teacher performance.
2. The cancellation of classes due to low enrollment after the semester began and reassigning instructors to alternate sections reduced the number of subjects available for the study.
3. The teaching schedule for the general physical education course limited the selection of subjects due to overlapping class times and instructors teaching in multiple sections.

Definitions of Terms

The definitions of terms that were used throughout this paper were:

- GTAs – the Graduate Teaching Assistants are graduate students who are employed by a university to teach undergraduate.
- PIE – the Program for Instructional Excellence is a university sponsored seminar designed to enhance graduate students' teaching.
- IP – the Induction Program is a three-component model that was used as the intervention for this study which included two teaching modules and five bi-weekly mentoring sessions.
- QMTPS - the Qualitative Measures of Teaching Performance Scale is a valid measure of teaching performance that was used in this study as a measure of determining the effectiveness of the treatment.
- GPAI – the Games Performance Assessment Instrument is a valid measure of student performance when participating in game play and is used in this study as a measure of determining the effectiveness of the treatment.
- SPOT – the Student Perception of Teaching instrument is used by the university to assess teacher performance and was used in this study as a measure of determining the effectiveness of the treatment.

CHAPTER II METHODOLOGY Participants

Graduate Teaching Assistants

The participants for this study were eight GTAs selected from the group of GTAs teaching either net games (tennis and volleyball), or invasion games (basketball, flag football, or soccer) in a general physical education program at a major southeastern university, as well as the students enrolled in those classes. The GTAs and their students were required to complete an IRB approved informed consent form prior to the beginning of the study. The Human Subjects Approval Memorandum is included in Appendix B. The participants teaching these courses taught intact classes. Participants from each of these activities were randomly assigned to participate in a control group or treatment group, and there were four GTAs in each group.

Random assignment of the GTAs to the two groups was completed by drawing names out of a hat. There were six tennis instructors for the fall semester. All six instructor's names were placed in a hat. The first name drawn was placed in the control group and the second name drawn was placed in the treatment group. There were three soccer instructors during the fall semester. All three soccer instructor's names were placed in a hat and the first name drawn was placed in the control group and the second name was placed in the treatment group. There were only two volleyball instructors for the fall semester, therefore those names were placed in the hat and the first name drawn was selected for the control group and the second name was selected to the treatment group. There was only one instructor teaching the basketball sections and only one instructor teaching the flag-football sections therefore these instructor's names were put in a hat and the first name selected was assigned to the control group and the second name selected was placed in the treatment group. There were a total of four subjects for the control group and treatment group.

All participants were enrolled in a two-day university sponsored program entitled Program in Instructional Excellence (PIE) designed to enhance the teaching performance of GTAs, as well as to inform GTAs on university policies such as sexual harassment (Appendix A). The PIE Conference took place during the week prior to the beginning of the fall semester. Additionally, all participants attended a department orientation meeting at the beginning of the semester in which department policies and expectations were explained. In this meeting, the chair of the department placed an emphasis on encouraging all GTAs to provide high levels of physical activity and teach strategies and tactics in the courses as well as skill development.

Students

As a measure of teacher performance, each GTA had four students pre- and post-tested to measure student achievement. Prior to the beginning of the treatment, the researcher videotaped each instructor's class participating in small-sided games. Each student's name was recorded and physical descriptions were kept for the purpose of identifying the students when the videotapes were coded. This was done to ensure that in the event of student attrition, enough students would be available for the post-test videotaping. Prior to the conclusion of the semester, the names of the students videotaped for pre-test data were placed in a hat. Four students' names were selected. This process was repeated for each instructor's class. In the event the student who's

name was drawn was absent, another name was drawn. These students' were then videotaped playing small-sided games and their performance was coded as a measurement for post-test student achievement.

Treatment

In addition to the PIE Program and department orientation meeting, the GTAs in the treatment group participated in an induction program (IP) which included two teacher training modules designed to teach the GTAs pedagogical information on effective teaching in physical education and familiarize the GTAs with the evaluation instruments that will be used to assess the variables for this study. As part of the IP, the GTAs were assigned a mentor who met with the GTAs to discuss their most recent teaching performance as measured by the Qualitative Measures of Teaching Performance Scale (QMTPS) observation instrument selected for this purposes as well as to reinforce the information from the two teaching modules presented at the beginning of the IP. For the purpose of this study, the four GTAs met with the mentor bi-weekly for a total of five sessions to allow for group discussions and exchanges of ideas from the GTAs and the mentor.

The IP was conducted during the third week of classes during the fall semester and included two three-hour modules on effective teaching and tactical game-play instruction specific to teaching physically active classes. The GTAs met with the faculty mentor every two weeks after the second observation to discuss the results from the QMTPS, as well as to reinforce materials and information presented in the original IP. Each week, a portion of a selected GTAs' lesson video was played for the purpose of generating discussion on the quality of the lesson, identifying positives and negatives of the lesson, and ideas for improvement in future lessons. The mentor was required to observe the GTAs at least once between videotaped observations either in person, or by watching the videotaped class from the prior week. A suggested format for conducting the mentoring sessions is presented in Appendix C.

The purpose of the mentoring sessions was to provide GTAs an opportunity to get timely feedback on their teaching performance with data driven information, as well as the mentor's professional experience, to improve the GTAs teaching performance and student achievement. The mentoring sessions were limited to a maximum of two hours to reduce the time requirements placed on the GTAs and faculty. The ratio of GTAs to mentor was 4:1. There were a total of five mentoring sessions during this study. A time line of the IP is presented in Appendix D.

Effective Teaching Module. An effective teaching model (Appendix E) was presented by a Physical Education faculty member with expertise on the subject matter to the treatment participants. Information was presented on accepted pedagogical physical education practices including how to begin and end lessons, active learning time, types of cues, feedback, and task presentation. Participants learned about teaching motor skills, the unique contribution of our field (Rink, 2002), as well the stages of motor learning, knowledge of results and knowledge of performance, open and closed skills, and whole and part practice. The GTAs learned how to provide developmentally appropriate activities for the various skill levels of their students during game play.

The participants also learned about task presentation and the types of tasks they will be using and became familiar with the QMTPS instrument to understand how they were to be evaluated. At the conclusion of this module, the GTAs were required to take

a written examination on the information and achieve a minimum of 75% on the exam to demonstrate understanding of the information presented in the module. Failure to reach the minimum score resulted in the subject having to view a video tape of the Effective Teaching Module until the satisfactory score is achieved. All four treatment subjects met the evaluation criteria.

Tactical Game Play Module. This module (Appendix F) was based on the premise that 90% of game time is spent off the ball. The GTAs learned the concepts behind tactical game play and how to plan lessons that will effectively teach their students to play the games using strategies appropriate for the activity for which they are enrolled.

This workshop was designed to familiarize the GTAs with the observation instrument and process for evaluating teacher effectiveness based on student achievement as measured by the Games Performance Assessment Instrument (GPAI). The GTAs learned how the GPAI is coded and ideas for designing lessons that facilitate student achievement, increased participation, and improvement on the GPAI. Subjects were required to take a written exam on the information presented in this module and attain a minimum score of 75%. All four treatment subjects met the evaluation criteria.

Instrumentation

Qualitative Measures of Teaching Performance Scale

The Qualitative Measures of Teaching Performance Scale (QMTPS) has been validated in public school use and laboratory settings to be an indicator of effective teaching of motor skills including throwing and catching, forearm passing and serving, athletic training and jumping and landing (Gusthart, Kelly & Graham, 1995; Gustart, Kelly & Rink, 1997; Werner and Rink, 1989). The QMTPS (Appendix G) is an observation system that has been developed to determine if an observed teacher is effectively teaching motor skills and will be used to evaluate teacher effectiveness in this study. The QMPTS identifies the type of task the instructor utilizes. The sub-types of task are divided into the following categories, informing, refining, repeating, extending, and applying. The type of task is then coded for task presentation. Task presentation is coded for clarity, demonstration, number of cues, accuracy of cues, and qualitative cues. Following the coding of task presentation, the coder then must code for student responses. The last category of the QMTPS to be coded is specific congruent feedback. A thorough description of all items to be coded is also provided in Appendix G. For the purpose of this study, the QMTPS will be used to track the GTAs' teaching performances during the semester.

Game Performance Assessment Instrument

The GPAI was designed to reflect student participation patterns during game play that reflect skill, movement, and use of strategy (Griffen, Mitchell & Oslin, 1997) and will be utilized as the measure of student achievement in this study. The GPAI was designed to assess student performance associated with solving tactical problems during game play (Oslin, Mitchell, & Griffin, 1998) and is used to help assign grades to students enrolled in physical education classes. However, for the purpose of this study, the GPAI will be used as a summative evaluation of student achievement in game performance rather than traditional skills testing. The components of GPAI are Base, Decision Making, Skill Execution, Support, Guard/Mark, Cover, and Adjust (Appendix H). Appendix H also contains an example of the assessment instrument. Because not all

components of the GPAI apply to every game situation and simplification of the GPAI has been deemed appropriate in certain situations (Oslin, et al, 1998), the GPAI was modified for the purpose of this study to focus on three components across all activities. Adjust, Decision making, and Skill execution were chosen as the components to be observed with GPAI. Skill execution is but one component of participating in physical activity and games with each sport having basic requisite skills for satisfactory participation. For this study, the volleyball, soccer, tennis, flag-football and basketball skills selected for skill attainment on the GPAI are reflective of previous research in physical education using traditional skills testing formats (Buck, M., Harrison, J., & Bryce, G. 1990; De Knop, P., 1986; French, K.E., J.E. Rink, L., Rikard, Mays, A., Lynn, S., & Werner, P., 1991; French, K.E., Werner, P.E., Taylor, K., Hussey, K., & Jones, J., 1996; Rink, J.E., Werner, P.H., Hohn, R.C., Ward, D.S., & Timmermans, H.M., 1986; Silverman, S., 1988; Silverman, S. & Buschner, C., 1990).

The GPAI was validated as a measure of student performance when engaged in game play through a three-step process (Oslin, et al, 1998). First, a team of six physical education specialists worked together to develop content validity. Next, construct validity was established by having specialists identify high, medium, and low-skilled students involved in playing volleyball, soccer, and basketball. The specialists then analyzed 5 minute videos of small-sided games from each activity using modified versions of the GPAI. Statistical analyses of the use of the GPAI to identify high and low skilled students were compared to the specialists' assessments of ability and were found to be significant at the .01 level. The final measure was for ecological validity, or the relationship between instructional objectives and measures of student performance. The modified GPAI was used for these studies to assess student achievement in game performance based on the criteria the instructors taught using those components. Assessing for components not taught for is considered ecologically invalid.

Students' Perception of Teaching

The SPOT (Appendix I) survey is used by the university to ascertain students' opinions about the quality of instruction received. The eight questions in Section D of the SPOT evaluation are posted by the university on-line and can be retrieved by anyone in the public, but in order to use the entire results, the GTAs and students would have to agree to release them to the researcher. The results of the eight questions in Section D of the SPOT evaluation will be used in this study to compare student's evaluation of GTAs involved in the study.

Procedures

In order to determine if GTAs' teaching performance is improved through a treatment of pedagogical preparation followed by a series of meetings with a mentor, the QMTPS, GPAI, and SPOT assessment instruments were utilized for the purpose of this study. Data collection began the first week of the Fall, 2005, semester and continued through the 14th week of the semester.

Prior to the treatment subject's participation in the IP, the control and treatment subjects' students were videotaped and assessed during their first class to determine the baseline for student achievement as determined by the GPAI. This procedure was repeated at the conclusion of the semester. The GTAs were videotaped and assessed during the second week of classes using the appropriate procedures for QMTPS instrument to determine initial scores for teacher performance. This procedure was

repeated during the 4th, 6th, 8th, 10th, 12th and 14th week of the semester. The SPOT was completed by the students of the GTAs as per the university's policies and procedures at or near the end of the semester.

Each class videotape was coded by trained graduate students and one pedagogy faculty member using the QMTPS and the GPAI prior to the beginning of the week following the observation. The coders did not know the group assignment of the subject being coded. All data collected on GTAs that may be teaching more than one section of an activity were always collected from the same intact class. Results for the subjects in the treatment group were given to the GTAs' mentor for the purpose of preparing the mentor to provide feedback and suggestions for improvement based on the data. The GPAI was only coded as pre- and post-test summative measures. Mentoring sessions were held prior to the end of the week preceding the next observation in order for the treatment GTAs to be able to use the information to prepare their next lessons. The control group received no follow-up meetings with mentors, nor any feedback on their teaching performance.

Upon completion of the 14 week study, data were analyzed for changes in teaching performance of the GTAs. Additionally, student performance was measured for changes on the GPAI and the GTAs' students also filled out the SPOT surveys to rate teacher performance. Comparisons between the control group and the treatment group were analyzed.

Data Collection

Lessons

Data for the purposes of determining teacher and student performance (as a measure of teacher effectiveness) were collected by videotaping lessons taught by the subjects to intact classes during the first lesson of the semester. The data from the initial observations served as pre-treatment data for the two groups. Lessons were then videotaped during the second, fourth, sixth, eighth, tenth, twelfth, and fourteenth week of the fall semester and were coded using the QMTPS instrument. The data collected from the lesson observed during the 14th week of class served as the post-treatment teacher performance data for the two groups. The first lesson and the last lesson were coded using the GPAI as a measure of student achievement. The results for the eight questions from Section D of the SPOT instrument were acquired on-line as soon as they were available following the Fall, 2005 semester.

Each of the GTAs' lessons was recorded using separate videocassettes and each cassette was labeled such that the coders did not know if the lesson was conducted by a control or treatment subject. This was done to enhance reliability.

Equipment

The equipment utilized for this study was one Panasonic video camera recorder, sixty separate VHS videotapes, two video camera batteries, one power adapter/charger cord, one tripod, one wireless microphone, and one wireless microphone receiver. Fourteen nine-volt transistor batteries were needed for use in the wireless microphone and wireless microphone receiver. The microphone and receiver require one battery each.

Coding

Three trained graduate students and two pedagogy professors in Physical Education Teacher Education completed the coding of the videocassettes. One of the graduate students and one of the professors was trained to code the QMTPS and two graduate students and one of the professors were trained to code the GPAI. The two coders for the QMTPS were instructed on the procedures for coding the QMTPS form and an intra-observer rate of greater than 90% for each coder was achieved, as well as an inter-observer rate of 90% between coders. This is consistent with the 90% inter-observer rate required for this instrument. Coders were required to repeat a practice coding after six weeks to check for observer drift and surpassed the 90% intra- and inter-observer rate.

The two coders trained for the QMTPS analysis had previous coding experience with one of the coders being a doctoral student in Physical Education and the other a recent PhD graduate in Physical Education with extensive prior experience with the QMTPS. The training for coding the QMTPS involved a thorough discussion of the components of the QMTPS and procedures for coding. A videotape of an experienced teacher was viewed for the purpose of practice coding, as well as clarifying coding decisions.

The two trained graduate students in the Physical Education Teacher Education were Master's students with extensive prior experience coding the GPAI instrument. The pedagogy professor is an expert in Tactical Games and has extensive coding experience using the GPAI. These graduate students were trained by the faculty member on the selected components of the GPAI and the correct procedure for coding the instrument. The three coders worked with the researcher to establish coding rubrics for each of the GPAI components in each activity. The coders practiced coding a lesson of a typical LAP class and achieved inter-observer rate of 80% prior to coding the pre- and post-test lessons.

When coding the QMTPS form, the coder has several decisions to make. First, the coder must identify the type of task the instructor is presenting. Each time a new task is presented; the coder stops the video. The coder then marks the types of task with an I for informing, an R for refining, an RE for repeating, an E for extending, and an A for applying. For the purpose of this study, one ground rule for coding types of tasks was implemented. A type of task was only coded when the instructor presented the task to the entire class. This decision was made to insure continuity of coding across all lessons. The next decision the coder makes is coding the task presentation. Each of the categories of task presentation must be coded according to the instructions. These categories include clarity, demonstrate, appropriate number of cues, accuracy of cues, and qualitative cues. The video is restarted and then stopped when the activity is completed to code the student responses and teacher feedback. This process is repeated each time a new task is presented and is continued until the completion of the lesson. Upon completion of the coding the coder totals the number of tallies for each code per category. A percent for each category is determined by dividing the code by the total tallies for that category. Then, a percent of most desirable per category is listed. Finally, a total QMTPS score is calculated by summing the percent most desirable.

Coding for the GPAI involved observing the same students in each of the classes for both pre- and post-tests. In tennis, four students from each class were observed

playing four games of doubles. In basketball, volleyball, flag-football, and soccer, one group of students from each class were observed playing one game in that sport that lasted no more than 10 minutes. The observed students were randomly selected from the class roster by drawing numbers out of a hat and selecting the students' names that corresponded with the number on the class roll. The GPAI was then coded based on the three previously selected components of game play: adjust, decision making, and skill execution and the criteria for each component listed below. Each student on the team was evaluated using the GPAI to determine the quality of game performance for that day. Mean scores for the group were calculated and reported as the skill component of student achievement in that class. The coder coded only for those three categories and watched the video of the entire game and coded each component based on the five-point performance scale. The coder marked a 5 if the subject's performance was very effective, a 4 for effective performance, a 3 for moderately effective performance, a 2 for a weak performance, and a 1 for a very weak performance.

Coding for skill execution was based on skills often evaluated in student achievement research (Buck, M., Harrison, J., & Bryce, G. 1990; De Knop, P., 1986; French, K.E., J.E. Rink, L. Rikard, Mays, A., Lynn, S., & Werner, P., 1991; French, K.E., Werner, P.E., Taylor, K., Hussey, K., & Jones, J., 1996; Rink, J.E., Werner, P.H., Hohn, R.C., Ward, D.S., & Timmermans, H.M., 1986; Silverman, S., 1988; Silverman, S. & Buschner, C., 1990). For volleyball, the forearm pass served as the criteria for skill execution as it is the skill most used to set up an attack. The forehand was the skill criteria for tennis as it is the skill used most during that activity. The criterion for the basketball skill was passing for it would be reflective of the ability to move the ball around the court most effectively. For soccer, passing was the criteria selected as it is the most effective method of ball movement in game play. Receiving a pass was the skill criteria for flag-football as the passing game is the dominate feature of a flag-football game.

Coding for adjust and decision making were adjusted to reflect the appropriate criteria for those activities that were invasion games (soccer, flag-football, and basketball) and those that are net games (tennis and volleyball). When coding for adjust in a net game, the coders had to decide, using the five point scale, if the participant moved about defensively in the court to position themselves to best cover the opponents return or hit; and/or offensively adjusted their position in relation to the offense and the ball, whichever best fits the flow of the game (Griffin, et al, 1997; Walsdorf, K., personal communication, March, 1, 2005). When coding for adjust in an invasion game, the coder used the five point scale to determine if the participant quickly transitioned from offense to defense (or vice versa) on turnovers or on a score, or was able to assume the correct positioning on the field offensively and defensively (Griffin, et al, 1997; Walsdorf, K., personal communication, March, 1, 2005).

The coder used the same process for coding the criteria for decision making. For net games, the criteria was offensively varies play so that opponents cannot easily anticipate what will happen next; and/or attempts to place the ball in the open court spaces (Griffin, et al, 1997; Walsdorf, K., personal communication, March, 1, 2005). For invasion games, the criteria for decision making was that the participant makes appropriate choices as to when to dribble (to avoid opponents or buy time), pass (to open teammate), or shoot (Griffin, et al, 1997; Walsdorf, K., personal communication, March,

1, 2005). A complete list of information and rubrics used to code the components of the GPAI instrument is presented in Appendix I.

The SPOT was scored using the responses on the eight questions from Section D for each class. The SPOT instrument is a five-point Likert scale and for the purposes of this study, only the results coded excellent were used to assess student perceptions of the instructor's performance.

Analyses of Data

The analysis of data began with a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the pre-test of student performance as assessed using the GPAI between the control group and the treatment group. The purpose of this initial analysis was to determine if there were any significant differences between the groups that might affect the effectiveness of the treatment. There were no differences between groups, therefore a 2 x 2 ANOVA (group by time) was run to assess student achievement using the GPAI comparing the pre- and post-tests of the two groups.

For the purpose of comparing effective teaching between the control group and the treatment group, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the pre-test of teacher performance using the QMTPS was run. The purpose of this initial analysis was to determine if there were any significant differences between the groups that might affect the effectiveness of the treatment. There were no differences between groups, therefore a 2 x 2 ANOVA (group by time) was run to assess teacher performance using the QMTPS comparing the pre- and post-tests of the two groups.

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the groups' student evaluations as reported using SPOT across activities.

CHAPTER III

Results

The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of a pedagogical induction program (IP) on the teaching performance of Graduate Teaching Assistants' (GTAs) in a general physical education program at a major university. There were three separate measurements used to evaluate teaching performance, the Qualitative Measures of Teaching Performance Scale (QMTPS), the Games Performance Assessment Instrument (GPAI), and the Student Perception of Teaching Instrument (SPOT). The QMTPS was used to assess teacher effectiveness, the GPAI was used to determine student achievement which is often associated with effective teaching, and the SPOT was used to ascertain students' opinions of the teachers' performances.

Subject Characteristics

The subjects for this study were eight Graduate Teaching Assistants (GTAs) in a general physical education program. The GTAs in this study taught either net games (tennis and volleyball) or invasion games (soccer, basketball, and flag football). The GTAs were randomly assigned to participate in either a control group or a treatment group by drawing names from a hat. Four GTAs were assigned to the treatment group and four were assigned to the control group. Table 1 presents the subject characteristics of the GTAs. There were no differences between the control and treatment groups in respect to age, number of semesters enrolled in graduate school, previous semesters teaching physical activity classes at the college level, and years of coaching or teaching experience before entering graduate school.

Table 1.

Subject Characteristics of Graduate Teaching Assistants (N=8)

Variables	Control (n=4)	Treatment (n=4)
Age (years)	26 ± 3	23 ± 3
Semesters in Graduate School	3 ± 2	2 ± 1
Previous Semesters Teaching	3 ± 2	1 ± 1
Physical Activity Courses at College		
Years of Coaching or Teaching	5 ± 3	2 ± 3
Experience Outside of College (years)		

Values are means ± standard deviation

There were a total of six tennis instructors teaching in the fall semester. All six of the tennis instructors' names were placed in a hat. Two tennis instructors' names were drawn from the hat. The first name drawn was a control subject, and the second name was a treatment subject. There were three soccer instructors teaching in the fall semester. All three soccer instructors' names were placed in a hat. Two names were drawn from the hat. The first name was placed in the control group and the second in the treatment group. There were only two instructors teaching volleyball, therefore, the two names were placed in a hat and the first name selected was assigned to the control group and the second name in the treatment group. There was only one instructor teaching the basketball sections and only one instructor teaching the flag-football sections. These instructor's names were put in a hat and the first name selected was assigned to the control group and the second name selected was placed in the treatment group.

The control group was comprised of three females and one male. Two of the subjects were Sport Management majors and two were Physical Education Teacher Education (PETE) majors. The treatment group was comprised of three males and one female. Two subjects were PETE majors, one was a Sport Management major and one was a Recreation Management major. Three of the control subjects had received some form of teacher preparation training in their undergraduate program compared to only one treatment subject. Two of the control subjects had received some form of IP other than the Programs for Instructional Excellence (PIE) that all eight subjects participated in as a requirement for teaching in the general physical education program. No treatment subjects had prior IP training. Of the four control subjects, three had some previous coaching or teaching experience outside of the college physical activity setting with an average of five years experience amongst them. Three of the treatment subjects had previous coaching or teaching experience with an average of two years experience.

Analysis of Data

Qualitative Measures of Teaching Performance Scale

As a measure of teacher performance, each GTA was videotaped seven times and each lesson was coded using the QMTPS instrument to determine teacher effectiveness. The first hypothesis for this study was that the treatment group would score higher on the QMTPS than the control group. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine if there was a difference in the teacher effectiveness scores as coded using the QMTPS between the control group and the treatment group prior to the treatment group's participation in the IP. The data indicated that there were no differences between the control group and the treatment group on the initial GPAI scores.

Therefore, a 2 x 2 ANOVA (group by time) was used to determine if there was a difference of QMTPS scores between the control and treatment groups at the conclusion of the IP (seventh lesson). The results of the 2 x 2 ANOVA indicated a significant interaction between the two groups (Table 2). When a Tukey post Hoc test was completed, there was a decrease in the QMTPS scores of the control group ($p = 0.07$) and an increase in the treatment group's scores.

Table 2.
Measurements of Teacher Performances' Before and After the Induction Program (N=8).

Variables	Control (n=4)		Treatment (n=4)	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
GPAI* (N=16)	3.06 ± 0.85	3.19 ± 0.98	2.69 ± 0.48	3.38 ± 0.72 ^F
QMTPS*(N=8)	63.00 ± 3.10	28.00 ± 10.68 [§]	34.00 ± 17.87	44.75 ± 15.00
SPOT		36.15 ± 2.80		35.32 ± 3.49
Evaluations				

Values are means ± standard deviation

*p<0.05, significant interaction between groups

§p=0.07

^Fp≤0.05, significantly higher than pre-test value

Although there was a significant interaction between the groups, it was not between the pre- and post-test scores of the two groups. Therefore, the first hypothesis is rejected. Figure 1 provides an illustration of the interaction of the pre-and post-test QMTPS scores between the treatment and control groups.

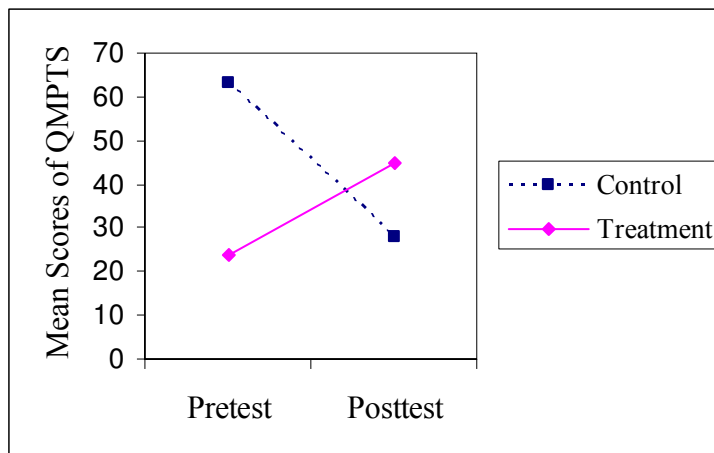


Figure 1. Interaction of pre- and post-test QMTPS Scores

Figure 2 illustrates the QMTPS scores of the treatment and control groups over the seven lessons. When evaluating the individual lessons, the treatment group increased ($p=0.07$) their QMTPS score from lesson one to lesson three with no further improvement. This increase was not significant at the $p < 0.05$. The scores then decreased through lesson seven but were still higher than baseline measurements. The control group, on the other hand, had a reduction ($p=0.07$) in QMTPS scores from lesson one to lesson six and seven and were never as high as their baseline measurements.

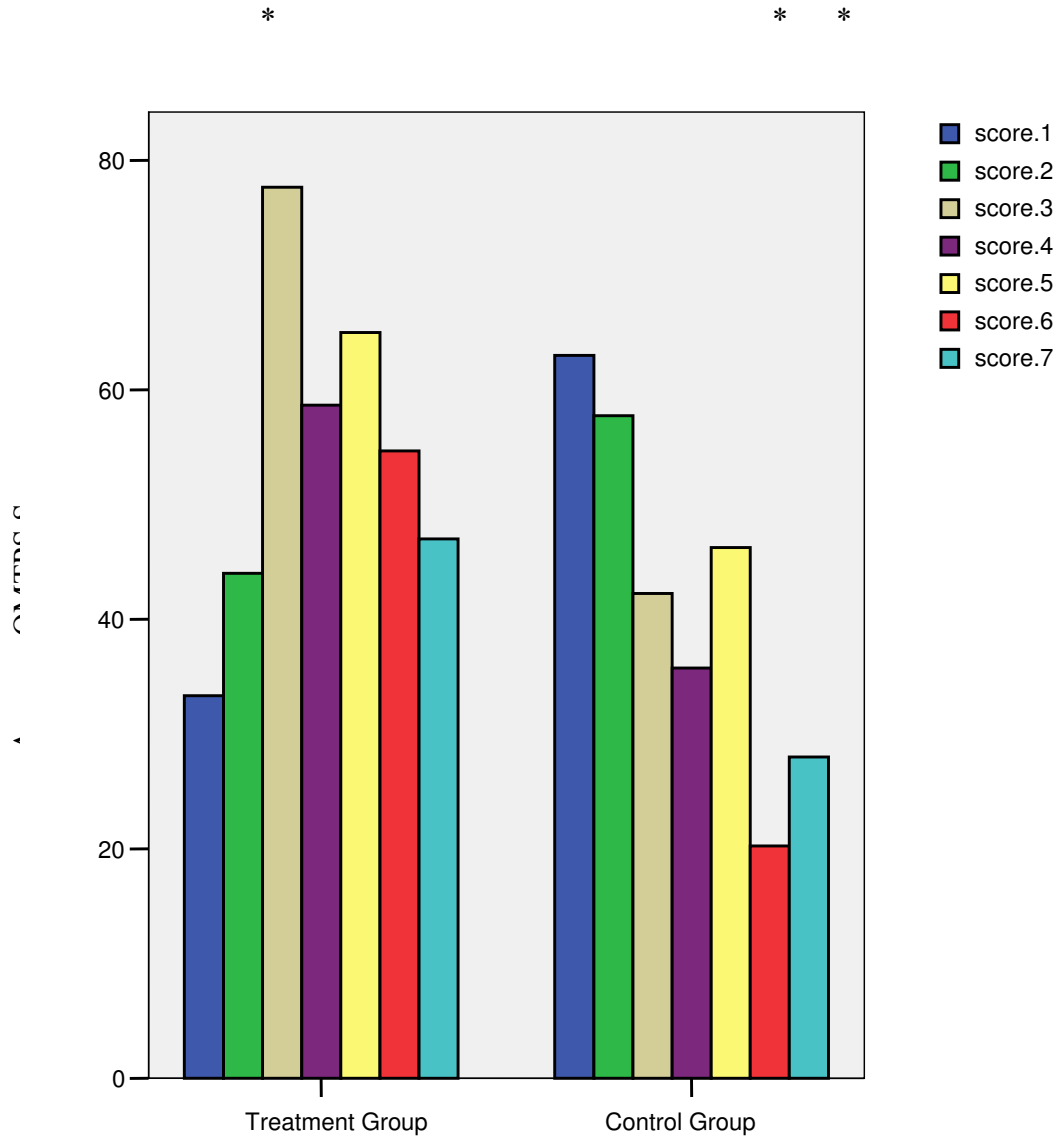


Figure 2. QMTPS Scores Across the Seven Lessons
* $p=0.07$

Type of task. A subcategory of the QMTPS instrument is the type of tasks presented. A one-way ANOVA was computed to determine if there were any differences between the treatment group and the control group in the total number of tasks presented. A sum of total tasks presented per lesson across the seven observations is presented in Table 3. There were no differences between the two groups except at lesson five where the treatment group's total (3 ± 1) was significantly higher than the control group's (2 ± 1) total. Additionally, there was a significant pre- and post-test difference observed between lesson one and lesson four for the treatment group. There were no differences between the first lesson and any subsequent lessons for the control group.

Table 3.
Number of Tasks Presented During Each of the Seven Lessons.

Lesson Number	Control (n=4)	Treatment (n=4)
Lesson One	4 ± 3	2 ± 1
Lesson Two	3 ± 3	4 ± 3
Lesson Three	3 ± 3	3 ± 1
Lesson Four	2 ± 1	$4 \pm 2\text{\$}$
Lesson Five	2 ± 1	$3 \pm 1^*$
Lesson Six	2 ± 1	4 ± 3
Lesson Seven	2 ± 1	3 ± 1

Values are means \pm standard deviation

* $p < 0.05$, treatment group significantly different from control group

\\$ $p < 0.05$, significantly different from lesson one of treatment group.

Games Performance Assessment Instrument

As a measure of teacher performance, each GTA had four students pre- and post-tested using the GPAI as a measure of student achievement. Prior to the beginning of treatment, the researcher videotaped each instructor's class participating in small-sided games. Each student's name was recorded and physical descriptions were kept for the purpose of identifying the students when the videotapes were coded. This was done to ensure that in the event of student attrition, enough students would be available for the post-test videotaping. Prior to the conclusion of the semester, the names of the students videotaped for pre-test GPAI data were placed in a hat. Four students' names were selected. This process was repeated for each instructor's class. These students' were

then videotaped playing small-sided games as a measurement for post-test student achievement and those results were compared to their pre-test scores. The second hypothesis for this study was that treatment GTAs' students would score higher on the GPAI than the students of the control subjects.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine if there was any difference between the students' achievement scores as coded using GPAI between the control group and the treatment group prior to the treatment group's participation in the IP. The data indicated that there was no difference between the control group and the treatment group on the initial GPAI scores.

A 2 x 2 ANOVA (group by time) was used to determine if there was a difference of GPAI scores between the control and treatment groups at the conclusion of the IP. The results of the 2 x 2 ANOVA indicated a significant interaction between the two groups (Table 2). The treatment group's post-test GPAI scores (3.38 ± 0.72) were significantly higher than their initial values (2.69 ± 0.48). Figure 3 provides an illustration of the interaction of the pre- and post-test GPAI scores between the treatment and control groups. Because the treatment group's post-test score improved significantly, the second hypothesis for this study is accepted.

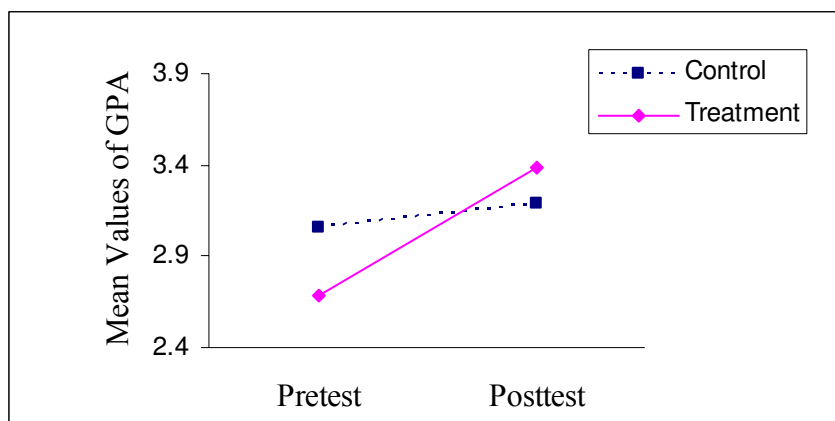


Figure 3. Interaction of pre- and post-test GPAI Scores

The GPAI total score was based on the average of three components which were Adjust, Decision Making, and Skill Execution. A one-way ANOVA showed that there were no differences between the pre-test scores of the two groups in any of the GPAI components. In order to determine where the difference occurred on the GPAI total score between the treatment group and control group, a 2 x 2 ANOVA was conducted on each of the components of the GPAI. There were no differences between the two groups in the Adjust and Skill Execution components. However, there was a significant interaction between the two groups for the Decision Making component. The treatment group's pre-test (2.5 ± 0.07) score improved significantly compared to the post-test (3.4 ± 0.8) score. There was no difference in the control group's scores.

Student Perceptions of Teaching

For the purpose of this study the Student Perception of Teacher Performance Instrument (SPOT) was also used as a measure of teacher performance. The third hypothesis for this study was that the treatment group's SPOT scores would be higher than the control group's scores. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine if there was a difference between the teacher's performances as scored on the SPOT instrument completed by the subjects' students. The data indicated that there were no differences between the treatment group (35.32 ± 3.49) and the control group (36.15 ± 2.80) on the SPOT evaluations. Because there were differences between the two groups, the third hypothesis for this study was rejected.

CHAPTER IV
DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS
INTRODUCTION

“A teacher’s effectiveness is best judged by his student’s performance” (Bodo, 2006). In fact, teaching motor skills is the unique contribution of physical education (Rink, 2002). These statements provide the driving force behind teacher training programs and the instruments used to evaluate teachers in physical education (Dunkin & Biddle, 1974; Silverman, 1991). Graduate Teaching Assistants (GTAs) teach nearly all of the general physical education classes at major universities and those with training have better attitudes about their teaching (Marso & Pigge, 1989). Nurturing the GTAs is important in order to ensure effective teaching and avoiding the perception that GTA’s are simply cheap labor (Davis & Minnis; Hartnett & Katz, 1977). Rewarding initial teaching experiences as a product of teacher training programs are the key to long-term teacher effectiveness which should be the end product of a GTA Induction Program (IP) (Black & Bonwell, 1991).

The purpose of this study was to determine if a pedagogical induction program could improve the teaching performance of graduate Teaching Assistants (GTA’s) in a general physical education program at a major university. There were three separate measures used to evaluate the GTAs’ teaching performance. These included the scores on the Qualitative Teaching Performance Scale (QMTPS), scores on the Games Performance Assessment Instrument (GPAI), and scores of the Students Perception of Teaching Survey (SPOT).

Qualitative Measures of Teaching Performance Scale

The results of the analysis of the QMTPS data indicated a significant interaction between the treatment group and the control. More specifically, the treatment group’s scores improved over the course of the semester and the control group scores dropped dramatically ($p=.07$). This would suggest that the Intervention Program (IP) provided to the treatment group subjects had a positive effect on their teaching practices.

In previous research using the QMTPS total score of 55 was found to be baseline measurement of effective teaching related to student learning (Gusthart, Kelly, & Graham, 1995). Although the treatment groups’ post-test means on the QMTPS did not reach 55, as a group, their individual lesson scores did improve over the entire study compared to their pre-test scores. An examination of individual lessons revealed that lessons two through six all exceeded the minimum score of 55 that would suggest that as a group, these GTAs were indeed effectively teaching their classes.

Members of the control group however, failed to match their pre-test lesson mean of 63 and only exceeded the score of 55 one additional time during the study. This occurred during the second observation. The rest of lessons fell below the initial pre-test score. Lessons six and seven were almost significantly lower than the pre-test ($p=.07$)

The control group was older, had more experience teaching college activity courses, and had more experience in other teaching/coaching settings. The fact that their initial QMTPS scores were higher was not surprising. However, the steady decline of scores across the semester indicated that they may not have planned for teaching during game play as well as the treatment group. The nature of general physical education courses is such that an instructor gets deeper into a semester, the focus of the classes naturally shifts from skill acquisition to game play. The decline of the control group may

be explained by the failure to seize teaching opportunities during the latter part of the semester that would have improved game play by reinforcing previously taught information. Clearly the treatment group produced more effective lessons across the seven lessons, but both groups tapered off at the end. The last two observations for the two groups came near the end of the semester and were sandwiched around the Thanksgiving holiday break which may explain the drop-off of scores.

The results of the QMTPS interaction may have been quite different if the two groups had been reversed. The control group subjects seemed very eager to know what they could do to improve their teaching and were often asking to see their results and wanting feedback even though they knew that could not be happen. One control subject wanted to “wreck” the results by achieving well on the observations. Despite their initial enthusiasm, it appears that without continual support, the control group subjects’ teaching degraded as the semester wore on. It is encouraging that the treatment group did as well as it did considering that as a group, they seemed more reluctant to participate in the study. Considering the treatment subjects’ reticence to participate, the support of the IP seemed to have a positive affect on their teaching.

Knowing in advance when the observations were taking place may have caused some of the instructors to change their teaching behaviors for the observation only. Even within the control group, it was reported that control subjects might be “playing to the camera” on the days of the observations. Although there is no way to know if the treatment subjects were applying their learned skills across their lessons or across their other classes, having seen the changes in performance over the duration of the study, the fact that the treatment scores improved reinforces the belief that the IP had a positive effect on the treatment group.

Type of task.

A subcategory of the QMTPS is the type of tasks presented which identify the how the teacher is teaching the class and the types of task that are contained in the QMTPS are Informing, Extending, Refining, Repeating, and Applying (Rink & Werner, 1989). The recording of types of tasks illustrates the intent of the instructor’s lessons and though there is no set pattern of use of types of tasks, over a series of lessons a balance of tasks should be observed (Rink & Werner, 1989). There was no difference in the number of tasks presented between the two groups over the seven lessons except at lesson five where the treatment groups’ number of tasks was higher than the control group. When looking at the individual instructor’s coded QMTPS instruments, there were often very few total number of tasks presented during each lesson. This undoubtedly influenced the QMTPS scores and those scores might not be reflective of the quality of the lesson taught. Though not significant, the data showed that the treatment group used more tasks per lesson than the control group in five of the seven lessons

Even though there were no differences between the groups, and there is no definitive number of tasks required for an effective lesson, the numbers of tasks presented by the instructors were often very low. During the Effective Teaching seminar presented as part of the treatment, the seminar instructor emphasized using a variety of tasks during each lesson and that a quality lesson should have several tasks as well. The number of tasks used by the instructors was low for both groups, but the treatment group should have had more tasks presented as this was an area that was addressed in the mentoring sessions, but possibly not well enough.

The main hypothesis for this study was that the treatment group's teaching performance would improve as compared to the control group as a result of participating in an Induction Program (IP). Although the analyses of data only revealed a significant improvement in the treatment group's student performance, the fact that the treatment subjects' QMTPS scores steadily increased over the semester as compared to the downward trend of the control group suggests that the main hypothesis for this study was supported. These results also tend to support the conclusion that the IP was effective in improving the treatment subjects' teaching performance over the duration of the semester. The generalizability of the results to other general physical education programs is appropriate. However, the fact that the study only included activities that were either net games or invasion games limits the generalizability to other activities in a general physical education program. Past studies have correlated higher QMTPS scores with student achievement and student achievement post-test scores as coded on the GPAI were significantly higher than the control group's scores. These findings suggest that the use of the QMTPS as a measure of teacher performance would be appropriate across all activities of a general physical education program.

Games Performance Assessment Instrument

As was previously discussed, QMTPS scores of 55 and above were positively correlated with student achievement on traditional skills testing instruments such as a serving test that might require a number of successful serve attempts out of a given number of trials. The present study incorporated the GPAI as the measure for student achievement rather than traditional skill testing protocols because the IP focused on teaching these classes using a tactical games play approach in attempt to have students in these classes learn how to play the game and use their skills in the context of game play situations. The data revealed a significant improvement on the GPAI scores by the treatment subjects' students at the end of the semester.

Though both groups' students improved their game play performance, the treatment group's students showed a greater level of improvement. The treatment subjects' participation in the Tactical Game Play Module seems to have influenced the GTAs to emphasize skills that help students learn how to play a game, not just the skills used to play the game. These results further support the conclusion that the treatment IP was successful in improving the teaching performance of the treatment group as compared to the control group. The fact that tactical game play was also a point of emphasis in the mentoring sessions supports the use of mentoring in the IP.

Though there was no statistical relationship found between the QMTPS scores and the GPAI (as a measure of student achievement) scores, the fact that both the treatment group's QMTPS and GPAI scores improved support the use of the QMTPS as a measurement of teacher effectiveness in improving student learning.

Student Perception of Teaching

The results of the SPOT evaluations indicated that there were no differences between the two groups. One would intuitively think that the SPOT scores for the treatment group should be higher than the control group's scores since the QMTPS and GPAI scores were higher. However, the control group's mean scores were actually slightly higher than those scores for the treatment group. This result should not be interpreted as evidence that the treatment was unsuccessful.

When examining the QMTPS scores of both groups across all seven observed classes the lowest of all of these scores were those of one of the control subjects. Interestingly enough, that same instructor's SPOT score was the highest of all eight subjects in the study. In this control subject's class observed for the purpose of the study, all of the students were male except one. This instructor taught another section of the same activity and nearly half the class was females. Both sections were taught nearly identically, however the second class SPOT score were much lower. Another control subject taught a section with only one male in the class. This subject's QMTPS scores were among the highest. Again, a second section of that activity taught by this instructor had nearly equal males and females, but was not part of the study. With near identical instructional methods, the class with one male had lower SPOT scores than the other class.

This anomaly suggests that the use of SPOT evaluations as a measure of teacher performance may not be appropriate. It would appear that classes with high male enrollment may have wanted to play and not be instructed, whereas classes with higher enrollments of females may have wanted higher levels of instruction and were more likely to evaluate the instructor with greater scrutiny. Additionally, question eight of the SPOT asks the student to rate the overall assessment of the instructor. In every case, question eight was rated higher than the other seven questions. It was as if the first seven questions served as an opportunity to express student concerns, but in the final analysis, the students did not want to give the teacher a low evaluation.

Intervention and Mentoring

The IP program that the treatment subjects participated in attempted to provide useful teacher effectiveness information tied to a particular style of teaching, tactical game play, in two three-hour seminars as well as bi-weekly mentoring sessions. These two modules were taught by highly qualified professors and the treatment GTAs actively asked questions and some discussion was generated. The initial observations following the modules were mostly encouraging as the treatment subjects were including elements that were taught for in the modules even though not necessarily appropriately.

This was encouraging as the initial impressions made from the GTA's reaction when they found out they were actually selected was one of silent dread. The GTAs that were not selected were audibly relieved. Due to the fact that none of these subjects in the study had any experience in participating in research projects, the idea of being observed and coded for performance clearly made them uneasy about the entire process and resistance could have been an impediment to teacher performance.

The control group subjects were encouraged to have high rates of active participation in their classes when they met in a program-wide orientation meeting. That was all the instruction they got officially. After that, they were left alone to find a way to teach their classes, but they did have the ability to solicit assistance from their program coordinator. The control subjects generally were eager to try and provide their students with a quality experience. One control subject spoke of staying up until 3 AM to prepare lessons for the class being taught. This subject lamented that there was not much information available to help prepare lessons and this subject was teaching an activity without prior experience. These scenarios are common and are indicative of the tribulations that many GTAs enrolled in graduate school experience. They become "instant instructors" and have to resort to teaching by trial and error (Marso & Pigge,

1989). This control subject's lack of experience teaching an unfamiliar activity is supported by literature as GTAs are often forced to teach classes that they have no background in which creates their greatest challenges and time concerns (Savage & Sharpe, 1998) Along with this subject's experiences and the observations of two other control subjects, these GTAs began to revert to teaching by repeating styles they has modeled from past teaching and participation experiences. Poole and Graham (1996) had noted this same behavior when they studied GTAs using this internal model to filter suggestions to fit their own concepts of teaching.

At the end of the study, the treatment subjects that participated in these modules all reported that they found the modules helpful and gained a greater understanding of how to teach. That was a big change from the beginning of the study when concern was expressed over the use of a single QMTPS score. One subject wondered how one QMTPS score "could mean anything to anyone anyway." The presence of the camera and microphone was an additional impediment for another GTA because he felt he could not teach naturally and worry about a QMTPS score. Those attitudes slowly changed through the course of the IP and the mentoring sessions seemed to have a role in that change.

The cornerstone of the IP was the bi-weekly mentoring sessions. These sessions were designed to give the subjects an opportunity to apply the information in their classes and then reflect on their performances with the mentor and the other GTAs. The initial session was introductory in nature and served as an opportunity to allay some fears and reinforce concepts taught in the modules. The intent of these sessions was to motivate the participants to implement game play tactics and structure their lessons with a variety of tasks with improved task presentations. However, contrary to literature that suggests GTAs want mentoring (Nyquist, et al, 1999), there was resistance to the mentoring as evidenced by one subject's remarks after the first observation. This subject indicated that they learned on Mondays and played on Wednesdays. This type of commitment to preconceived notions of teaching (Poole & Graham, 1996) was definitely a barrier to acceptance of this process. This subject did begin to lose some of the resistance and eventually started building lessons with multiple tasks and enhanced game play.

Another treatment subject was described to have had the "light bulb" go off after the initial mentoring session. Actively asking questions and connecting the themes of the two modules, this GTA was able follow with some lessons that scored in the mid-50's range on the QMTPS. This situation underscored the value of the addition of mentoring to the IP because this GTA had obviously not made the connection from the teaching modules to the instructional setting.

Eventually, each of the treatment GTAs began to demonstrate evidence that they were understanding what was being asked of them and the value that was associated with applying the concepts of effective teaching and tactical game play. Each of the GTAs demonstrated earnest attempts to incorporate what they had learned and had reinforced through these mentoring sessions, right through the last lessons.

If there was a downside to the mentoring process, it was the lack of getting the GTAs to use more Refinement tasks in their lessons. Especially as game play becomes more prevalent in their classes, Refinements can be utilized by stopping the game and emphasizing an aspect of the game or a skill previously taught. It was not until the last two lessons that one of the GTAs could be convinced that stopping the class and having

the students all convene in the center of the activity space would not take much time away from activity time. The fact that the GTA was still learning and willing to apply this concept over the last two weeks of the semester is a testament to the mentoring process. The inability or unwillingness of the treatment group members to use a variety of tasks and Refinements was probably the single shortcoming of the mentoring process.

There had been some consideration for including lesson planning as part of the IP. The GTAs were not required to do so because of the amount of time it would take for the mentor to read the lesson plans and the time constraints of the GTAs. Requiring the GTAs to present lesson plans at each mentoring session that would have included the types of tasks the instructors had planned to use and game play formats to be utilized may have improved the overall quality of the lessons and thus, the QMTPS scores and the GPAI scores. However, the mentor felt as if lack of time was stressing the GTAs and any additional requirements may have created a serious burden on the GTAs. Especially early on in the mentoring process, the mentor felt as if any more time requirements or intrusion into their instruction may have led to drop-out.

The mentoring component of the IP appears to have been successful and supports the assertion that mentoring may be the most important component of an IP (Pease, 1990). The ratio of four GTAs to one experienced mentor and the use of bi-weekly mentoring sessions that closely followed teaching events is supported in the literature (Davis & Kring, 2001; Gaia, et al, 2003; Hardre, 2003; Savage & Sharpe, 1998). Recommendations for the mentoring component suggest that mentoring sessions be designed to provide the treatment GTAs with feedback based on observations (Black & Bonwell, 1991; Paese, 2003; Savage & Sharpe, 1998). As a result of the mentoring in this study, changes in the teaching practices were measurable and appear to have formed within a 10-week time frame similar to that which Siedentop (1981) was able to affect teaching behavior through thoughtful supervision.

In summary, the IP presented to the treatment group appeared to be successful and timely. The length of the teaching modules proved to be appropriate and corresponds with Hardre's (2003) successful intervention that included two three-hour training sessions. In spite of that success, there were some aspects of the IP that could have been better. The addition of requiring lesson plans with specific content that would have included a description of the types of tasks to be used and how tactical game play was to be included in the lesson may have been helpful. This could have been an area highlighted in the mentoring sessions as a point of discussion for the week to follow. Also, the teaching modules could have been constructed to allow the students some opportunities to actively apply the concepts with the facilitator's supervision and input.

Conclusions

The observations and results of the analysis of data have lead to the following conclusions:

1. The Instructional Program participated in by the treatment group that included the two teaching modules and five mentoring sessions was effective in improving their teaching performance.
2. The use of the QMTPS is appropriate to measure teacher performance.
3. The use of the GPAI is appropriate to measure student achievement and participation in an induction program that included content in tactical game play can improve student learning.

4. The use of SPOT may not be appropriate as a measure of teacher performance because of the inconsistent responses from the students especially in comparison to teacher performance as measured by the QMTPS.

Recommendations for Further Research

Further studies need to be conducted on evaluating the effects of an IP on GTAs teaching performance. The use of instructional modules similar to the two presented in this study should be incorporated and expanded to include information on how to teach activities other than invasion games and net games. The mentoring component of the IP appears to be an integral aspect of improving teacher performance, but should more closely reflect the information presented in teaching modules.

Correlations studies should be conducted to determine if there is a relationship between QMTPS scores and GPAI scores similar to relationship found between the QMTPS and traditional skill test results. Furthermore, intervention studies should be conducted to demonstrate improved QMTPS scores as a result of an intervention.

Additional student achievement instruments should be developed to include evaluations of students enrolled in classes other than invasion games and net games so all general physical education instructors can be evaluated for overall teacher performance in a manner similar to that in this study. Furthermore, consideration to lengthen the IP should be made. GTAs that have had a full semester experience of an IP might show further improvement if the initial IP concepts are continued through another semester. However, any further research conducted must be sensitive to the time commitments placed on study participants.

The SPOT instrument should not be included as a measure of teaching performance. Additional research should focus on closer scrutiny of the mentoring process and the reinforcing of the instructional modules. The number of GTAs selected for participation in this study and evaluated using the QMTPS is appropriate, however, it is recommended that all students for each instructor's class be pre- and post-tested for student achievement.

APPENDIX A

Program for Instructional Excellence

(PIE)

Program for Instructional Excellence

(PIE)

Welcome to the 2004 PIE Fall Teaching Conference!

As with every year, we try to plan an excellent program, both for enhancing your teaching skills while on campus as well as your professional development for a career in postsecondary education.

How the TA Conference can help you...

The Conference will (1) provide information which can help you teach more effectively, (2) acquaint you with FSU campus and its facilities and organizations, and (3) give you an opportunity to meet new and established FSU TAs from across the campus.

FSU Faculty and Staff and senior PIE Teaching Associates, will present the sessions at the conference. These presenters are well known for their knowledge and positive approaches to teaching and most have received awards in recognition of their teaching abilities. The session topics will provide you with a wide variety of information, invaluable to both new and experienced instructors. Although much of the information will focus on your life as an instructor at FSU, sessions will also provide professional preparation for your future role as academicians or for careers in the private sector.

How PIE can help you...

The Program for Instructional Excellence (PIE) is a part of Instructional Development Service (IDS), which falls under the Office for Distributed and Distance Learning (ODDL). The primary mission of PIE is to serve as a resource for graduates, both those who are teaching assistants and those who anticipate teaching in the future. For teaching assistants, we offer the Fall and Spring Teaching Conferences, single-topic workshops throughout the year, and individual consultations. We publish a manual, *Instruction at FSU*, which is full of suggestions to enhance your teaching experience here at FSU; these are available at our website – <http://online.fsu.edu/ids> and can be purchased at the Union Copy Center. Designed for all instructors on campus, it is meant to be an easy resource guide – use it and contact us if you need further clarification. We'll be delighted to talk with you.

For all graduate students, we have a program, “**Preparing Future Faculty,**” which is designed to familiarize you with the expectations you may encounter in various types of learning institutions, from Level I Research institutions to small, four-year, liberal arts colleges to two-year community colleges. This program is available free of charge, so take advantage of what it has to offer!

If you have any problems, questions, or feedback, feel free to ask our IDS staff or PIE Associates! Contact us! We're here to serve you!

Instructional Development Services

Dr. Walt Wager IDS Coordinator 644-4452 wwager@oddl.fsu.edu	Michelle Chandrasekhar PIE/PFF Coordinator 644-2951 mchand@oddl.fsu.edu	Connie Eudy PIE Associate Coordinator 644-2947 ceudy@oddl.fsu.edu	General Information 644-8844 pie@www.fsu.edu http://online.fsu.edu/ids
Ling Xiao Graduate Assistant 644-5793 lxiao@oddl.fsu.edu	Dr. Cadence Kidwell Faculty Consultant 645-4901 ckidwell@oddl.fsu.edu	Ron Thomas PIE Coordinator 645-4627 rthomas@oddl.fsu.edu	

2004 FALL COLLEGE TEACHING CONFERENCE

August 18-20, 2004, [Student Life Building](#)

OVERALL GOALS

The 2004 Fall College Teaching Conference provides FSU graduate students with a wide range of information helping them be effective instructors and prepare for their careers. Major objectives of the conference are to assist graduate students to:

- Understand FSU academic policies
- Plan/design courses they teach in a way reflecting their teaching and course goals
- Learn various strategies, methods, and tools for teaching enhancement
- Apply assessment tools that best fit their teaching and course objectives
- Have better communication with their students
- Learn about FSU organizations and facilities supporting teaching and research
- Prepare for an academic career

2004 PIE TEACHING CERTIFICATE **Please see PIE Certificate Packet at Welcome Desk for more details! ******

The PIE Teaching Certificate is a method for verification of professional development in teaching. Participants should choose sessions that are most appropriate to their current needs and long term career goals. Conference sessions are categorized to provide information from several areas important to college teaching. To earn the 2004 PIE Teaching Certificate, a graduate student should perform three activities:

1. Attend the plenary and complete the reflection exercise for each of the following three sessions:
 - Sexual Harassment Sexual Battery Policy Training* (8/19 at 9:00 am or 8/20 at 10:00 am)
 - Issues in Grading* (8/19 at 2:45 pm)
 - Academic Honor Code* (8/20 at 9:00 am)

*“*Issues in Grading*” and “*Academic Honor Code*” sessions are not required if you have received a PIE Teaching Certificate since 2001. Please indicate this on your materials. If you complete the SHSB Policy Training with your department or have completed it in the past without a certificate, you will still need to submit the reflection material for that session.

2. Complete a Reflection Exercise for at least one session you attended from each of the five following areas:

- Course Planning/Design
- Lesson Delivery
- Assessment & Evaluation
- ★ Communication with Students
- Professional Development

[See next page for sessions available for each of the above areas.]

3. Compose, or revise, a **one page Teaching Philosophy statement**. Reflection materials and a flyer for writing a Teaching Philosophy statement will be available at the Welcome Desk.

Submit to PIE your typed and stapled by **Tuesday September 7, 2004**. Please include a cover page that lists 1) your name, as you would like it to appear on the certificate, 2) the proper name of your department, 3) your departmental campus mail code, and 4) whether or not you’ve earned and previous certificate and claim exemption from the sessions -*Issues in Grading & Academic Honor Code*.

Mail or Deliver to: PIE, **UCC 3500**, Campus Mail Code: 2550. For questions call, 644-8004 or email pie@www.fsu.edu.

Activity 1 & 2: Selecting Sessions for the PIE 2004 Teaching Certificate (8 Sessions in Total)

- Activity 1: Attend the plenary and complete the reflection exercise for each of the following three sessions:
- Sexual Harassment Sexual Battery Policy Training (8/19 at 9:00 am or 8/20 at 10:00 am)
 - Issues in Grading* (8/19 at 2:45 pm)
 - Academic Honor Code* (8/20 at 9:00 am)

*“*Issues in Grading*” and “*Academic Honor Code*” sessions are not required if you have received a PIE Teaching Certificate since 2001. Please indicate this on your materials. If you complete the SHSB Policy Training with your department or have completed it in the past without a certificate, you will still need to submit the reflection material for that session.

Activity 2: Choose and attend **one session from each** of the following **five areas** that best meet your interest and career goals. Complete a Reflection Exercise for each session you attend.

Course Planning/Design

Syllabi Basics

Principles of Effective Practice in Teaching

Writing Instructional Goals and Learning Objectives

Aligning Objectives with Activities & Assessment

Course Delivery

Teaching Large Classes

Planning Lessons for Your Course

Planning Lessons for Your Course, Advanced

Writing to Learn

Using Technology

Creating Active Learning Environments

Assessment & Evaluation

Essay & Writing Assignments

Matching Assessment with Objectives

Issues in Grading (waiver of this session does not waive completion of this category!)

Creating & Using Multiple-Choice Exams

Scantron Item Analysis

Using Other Strategies to Assess Learning

☛ Communication with Students

Understanding Differences

Learning Styles & Instructional Philosophies

Communicating with Your Students

Cultural, Instructional, & Linguistic Issues

Dealing with Difficult Situations

Professional Development

Career Development

On-Campus Resources

Using Reflection to Improve Teaching

Time Management

Hybrid Courses

Please see next page for an individualized planning tool.

Remember to submit your materials by September 7th!

PIE Fall 2004 Teaching Conference Planner

This is a blank schedule to help you with planning your conference schedule.

If you plan to obtain a 2004 PIE Teaching Certificate, see material above for details on submitting your materials.

Remember to schedule the **Required Sessions** (marked below) and choose one from each of the five in the symbol key to the right:

Key (Required Only for Certificate Planning)

Course Planning
Lesson Delivery
Assessment of Learning
☺ Interacting with Students
Professional Development

Wednesday For Certificate Planning

Choose one of each

Time Session Room ☺

9:00-10:30 Welcome & Keynote Speaker Theatre Recommended

10:45-noon

12:00-1:00 Lunch on your own lunch

1:00-2:30

2:45-4:00

Thursday For Certificate Planning

Choose one of each

Time Session Room ☺

9:00-10:45 Special Session: Sexual Harassment, Sexual Battery Policy **OR** Theatre
Required for Certificate if not completed previously (or done Friday at 10 am)

9:00-10:45

11:00-11:50

12:00-1:00 Lunch on your own lunch

1:00-2:30

2:45-4:00 Issues in Grading (unless completed previously) **OR**

2:45-4:00

Friday For Certificate Planning

Choose one of each

Time Session Room ☺

9:00-9:45 Special Session: Ethics, Academic Honor Code Theatre Required for Certificate

10:00-noon

CONFERENCE SCHEDULE **August 18-20, 2004, Student Life Building**

WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 18, 2004

8:30-9:00 Check-in at the Welcome Desk! [Lobby]

9:00-10:30 Plenary Session [Theater]

Welcome

Dr. Dianne Harrison, Dean of Graduate Studies

Guest Speaker

Dr. Larry Denis, Director of the Office for Distributed and Distance Learning

The PIE Players

Dr. Carrie Sandahl and Graduates Students, School of Theatre

One of the most popular 'sessions' at the conference, the PIE Players are graduate students from the FSU School of Theater who bring teaching to life in a humorous and sometimes too real fashion. Familiar with first day jitters, our Players attempt to calm yours by polling the audience for their questions and concerns-

bringing them to life in a series of ad lib vignettes that will suggest conference sessions you may want to attend.

10:30-10:45 Break

10:45-12:00 Concurrent Morning Sessions

Career Development [Theater]

Karma Banks, Career Development Services; Dr. George Bates, Professor, Biological Science; Dr. Jonathan Grant, Associate Professor, History; Dr. Will Benedicks, Professor, History, Tallahassee Community College

Graduate Studies is more than a Master's or a Doctoral degree earned. Successful students are proactive and make the most of their experience in graduate school – from mentoring, to writing, to networking at professional conferences.

This session features a panel discussion to help students be more proactive. Each of the presenters will have about 5 minutes to highlight a career development strategy. There will be time for questions and answers.

Session topics may include:

- University resources (Career Center, libraries, Graduate Studies, PIE/PFF)
- Research, publications, & networking
- “Foundation skills” – teaching, grant writing, time/organizational management
- Understanding the culture – organizational structures in post-secondary education

☉ **Understanding Differences [101 A/C]**

Dr. Carrie Sandahl, Theatre

Jane Duncan, PIE Associate – Theatre

FSU has actively sought diversity in its student and faculty population. You may have students in your class you struggle to identify with and for whom you may need to make accommodations. In this session, you will learn how to:

- 1) Create an accepting atmosphere so that all students feel safe and welcome.
- 2) Distinguish between visible and “invisible” differences and the meaning of “reasonable accommodation.”
- 3) Deal with a student you don't understand,
- 4) Manage the impact of instructional practices on students (different learning and teaching styles), and
- 5) Handle biases among class members

Syllabi Basics [101 B/D]

Jessica Barker, PIE Associate – Textiles & Consumer Sciences

Carolyn Sawtell-Sloan, PIE Associate – Sociology

This session will use the handbook, “Instruction at FSU” to develop a course syllabus. Major topics discussed are:

- 1) FSU requirements on a syllabus (e.g., major components, whether TAs can change their syllabi, accepted grading scales).
- 2) Roles a syllabus serves, and its tone, design (readability), completeness and clarity.
- 3) Using the syllabus on the first day, and thereafter.

Principles of Effective Practice in Teaching [249-50]

D. Lynn Jackson, School of Social Work

The First Day of class sets the tone for the rest of the semester. To pull it off, you need advance planning on what you want to happen in your classroom. In this session, you will learn how to:

- 1) Make a strong, good impression with your students, and
- 2) Plan your instructional activities to enhance learning. For more information, see: <http://www.hcc.hawaii.edu/intranet/committees/FacDevCom/guidebk/teachtip/7princip.htm>

12:00-1:00 Lunch Break – on your own. Try the new diner at the [Student Services Building](#) (near parking garage 2)

1:00-2:30 Concurrent Afternoon Sessions

Teaching Large Classes [Theater]

Dr. Thomas McCaleb, Dean's Office, College of Social Sciences

How can you keep students from becoming bored and falling asleep in large lecture classrooms? This session will:

- 1) Discuss how to apply active learning techniques in course planning to make your students more involved
- 2) Demonstrate strategies for maintaining student attention and keeping large classes alive, and
- 3) Address strategies for overcoming instructor nervousness.

Writing Instructional Goals and Learning Objectives [101 A/C]

Dr. Cadence Kidwell, Instructional Development Services

Before creating a course syllabus, instructors need to identify the overall course goal(s) and the specific learning outcomes that they expect students should have at the end of the course. This session will help you:

- 1) Learn how to take a general course goal and create clear, obtainable, and measurable course outcomes.
- 2) Practice writing course goals and specific learning outcomes for the course you will be teaching and receive feedback from the presenter and other participants. Use identification of desired learning outcomes to facilitate planning activities and grading of students.

Planning Lessons for Your Course [101 B/D]

Dr. Walter Wager, Instructional Development Services

This session will use theory introduced in Writing Instructional Goals. It will:

- 1) Encourage you to think about activities you can use in the classroom to convey course materials in an interesting and effective way, regardless of the class format (large lecture, small discussion groups, etc).
- 2) Help you to identify what you can do to increase student learning and what factors that affect learning are under your control.

☉ **Learning Styles & Philosophy [249-250]**

Dr. Bruce Janasiewicz, Associate Dean, Office of Undergraduate Studies

Michelle Chandrasekhar, Instructional Development Services

What is so clear to one may not make sense at all to someone else. This session will offer strategies for dealing with differences in student and instructor expectations for the learning environment - from classroom management to learning activities.

2:30-2:45 Break

2:45-4:00 Concurrent Afternoon Sessions

☉ **Cultural, Instructional, & Linguistic Issues [Theater]**

Ling Xiao, Instructional Development Services

This session is intended for international instructors and students or those who work extensively with them.

This workshop helps the participants to:

- 1) Identify cultural & instructional issues in the classroom
- 2) Differentiate cultural issues from instructional issues in the classroom
- 3) Apply linguistic & paralinguistic techniques for effective classroom communication

☉ **Communicating with Your Students [101 A/C]**

Kimberli Halliday, Special Education & Rehabilitation Counseling Services

Experiences show that effective instructors are those having good communications with their students. In this session, you will learn various techniques/methods to:

- 1) Improve your communication skills and build good instructor-student relationships, and
- 2) Support your students in and out the classroom.

Planning Lessons for Your Course, Advanced [101 B/D]

Dr. Walter Wager, Instructional Development Services

This session is intended for those who have already been introduced to lesson planning. In this session, participants will design specific activities to be used in their classroom. Come prepared with your syllabus, course outline, and a list of learning outcomes you would like to address. Please note: this session requires that participants have in hand specific learning objectives!

Essay & Writing Assignments [249-250]

Dr. Cadence Kidwell, Instructional Development Services

This workshop prepares Faculty and Graduate Teaching Assistants to create an effective essay or writing project assignment. At the end of the workshop, participants will be able to:

- 1) Determine when essays or papers are the best option,
- 2) Determine when to choose in-class essays as an option,
- 3) Design a grading rubric.

Participants will have a brief workshop session creating an essay question and grading criterion and receive feedback from the presenter and their peers

THURSDAY, AUGUST 19, 2004

8:30-9:00 Check-in at the Welcome Desk! [Lobby]

9:00-10:45 Concurrent Morning Sessions

Special session: Sexual Harassment & Sexual Battery Policy Training [Theater] (repeated on Friday)

Ransom McClung, Director of Investigations, Office of Inspector General

This session provides a required training opportunity for graduate student TAs.

Matching Assessment with Learning Objectives [101 A/C]

Dr. Bonnie Armstrong, Assessment and Testing Services

In this session you will discover:

- 1) Various assessment tools and
- 2) Which tools are the most effective for various types of learning outcomes.
- 3) If exams are the best way to measure mastery of learning outcomes,
- 4) How to tie exam questions to expected learning outcomes, and
- 5) How to determine if an essay exam or multiple-choice exam will more accurately measure what students have learned.

Aligning Learning Objectives to Activities & Assessment, Advanced [101 B/D]

Dr. Walt Wager, Instructional Development Services

Participants will expand upon their course planning. Required: 1) Description of course goals and a list of learning objectives and 2) Some instructional strategy and student assessment planning.

Writing to Learn [249 - 50]

Amy Hodges, English Department

This session takes writing beyond the usual student assessment role to an active tool for learning. You will:

- 1) Identify how to capitalize on the writing process to help your students discover or sharpen their ideas and communication skills, both in-class and as homework, and
- 2) You will leave this session with several ideas for incorporating formal and informal writing activities into your course design.

10:45-11:00 Break

11:00-11:50 Concurrent Morning Sessions

☺ **Dealing with Difficult Situations [Theater]**

Anika Fields, Director, University Counseling Center

Tragic incidents occur in life, and to the students in your class. Sometimes sensitive course material can be emotional and aggravate existing conditions. This session will discuss:

- 1) How to deal with students who “break down” in class or in your office,
- 2) Strategies for addressing sensitive material in planned, or unplanned classroom discussions.

On-Campus Resources [101 A/C]

Velma Smith & Bill Modrow, Dirac Science Library, Earl Childers, Technology Enhanced Classrooms, and

Shenifa Taite, Office for Distributed & Distance Learning

Various organizations on campus offer a variety of resources to support instruction at FSU. In this session we will:

- 1) Introduce people from some of the main places TAs can send their students for help.
- 2) Highlight resources for TAs/Instructors.

Using Technology [101 B/D]

John Braswell, Office for Distributed & Distance Learning

Reviews PowerPoint, Overheads, TV/VCR, Whiteboard, Tapes (Music, Lectures), Ceiling Projectors and Speaker Phones. In this session, we will review:

- 1) When and why to use technology in your class,
- 2) Which type(s) of technology are more effective for your class needs, and
- 3) How to find out what types of technology is available for classroom use.

Using Reflection to Improve Teaching [249-50]

Michelle Chandrasekhar, Instructional Development Services

Few instructors simply pick up some old notes, a highlighted textbook and jump into that day’s class. Likewise, many of us leave a class muttering “that didn’t quite go as I planned”. In this session we’ll:

- 1) Discuss how reflection can help us both plan for, and improve our instruction,
- 2) Develop ways to accomplish personal reflective activities, and
- 3) Discuss the merits of adapting some of these techniques to student learning activities.

11:50-1:00 Lunch Break – on your own. Try the new diner at the [Student Services Building](#) (near parking garage 2)

1:00-2:30 Concurrent Afternoon Sessions

Time Management [Theater]

Kimberley Leahy, PIE Associate – Communication

Karen Rubin, PIE Associate – History

Discover how you can accomplish everything you need to in a day and avoid the nagging feeling that you are not using your time effectively. Participants in this session will:

- 1) Discuss different ways to manage their time both as an instructor and as a student.
- 2) Learn strategies on how to make sure that they have enough time to accomplish their goals.

Syllabi Basics [101 A/C]

Ayesha Delpish, PIE Associate – Statistics

Michelle Chase, PIE Associate - Nursing

This session will use the handbook, “Instruction at FSU” to develop a course syllabus. Major topics discussed are:

- 1) FSU requirements on a syllabus (e.g., major components, whether TAs can change their syllabi)
- 2) Roles a syllabus serves, and its tone, design (readability), completeness and clarity.
- 3) Using the syllabus on the first day, and thereafter.

Creating Active Learning Environments [101 B/D]

Connie Eudy, Instructional Development Services

Research tells us that students learn more when they are actively involved in their learning. In this session, participants will:

- 1) Receive and discuss descriptions of several ways to deliver lessons that actively engage your students.
- 2) Learn techniques increasing student participation in the learning process.

3) Plan some learning activities for their courses that are appropriate for their student's desired learning outcomes.

© **Communicating with Your Students [249-250]**

Kimberli Halliday, Special Education & Rehabilitation Counseling Services

Experiences show that effective instructors are those having good communications with their students. In this session, you will learn various techniques/methods to:

- 1) Improve your communication skills and build good instructor-student relationships, and
- 2) Support your students in and out the classroom.

2:30-2:45 Break

2:45-4:00 Concurrent Afternoon Sessions

Issues in Grading [Theater]

Dr. Walter Wager, Instructional Development Services

In this session, participants will be introduced to major steps in determining students' grades. They will learn:

- 1) What can be assessed,
- 2) Types of assessment tools to use,
- 3) How to develop and weigh the assessments,
- 4) How to create a scoring key or scoring rubric, and
- 5) How to turn the score into a grade.

Creating and Using Multiple-Choice Exams [101 A/C]

Dr. Bonnie Armstrong, Assessment and Testing Services

This session will examine how to create an effective multiple-choice exam. It addresses such concerns as:

- 1) When multiple-choice exams are the best option,
- 2) How to avoid questions that have more than one possible answer, and
- 3) How many choices a student should have in a question.

Participants will have a brief workshop session creating a few multiple-choice questions and receive feedback from the presenter and their peers.

Hybrid Courses 101 [B/D]

Belle Harrell, Humanities

The Humanities Program has instituted a hybrid course for one of their popular high enrollment courses. This session will detail how the course has been designed, the training developed for the graduate students who help teach it, and the role that hybrid courses may both here at FSU, and at other institutions.

Principles of Effective Practice in Teaching [249-50] (Repeated)

Michelle Chandrasekhar, Instructional Development Services

The First Day of class sets the tone for the rest of the semester. To pull it off, you need advance planning on what you want to happen in your classroom. In this session, you will learn how to:

- 1) Make a strong, good impression with your students, and
- 2) Plan your instructional activities to enhance learning. For more information, see:
<http://www.hcc.hawaii.edu/intranet/committees/FacDevCom/guidebk/teachtip/7princip.htm>

Friday, August 20th, 2004

8:30-9:00 Check-in at the Welcome Desk! [Lobby]

9:00-9:45 Plenary Session [Theater]

Special Session: Ethics, Academic Honor Code [Theater]

Dr. Jennifer Buchanan, Associate Dean, Dean of the Faculties Office

This session discusses academic integrity and grading policies at FSU. Discussion will include common misperceptions, ideas for avoiding plagiarism and cheating in your classroom, and the university structure that addresses academic honor code and ethical issues.

9:45-10:00 Break

10:00-12:00 Concurrent Morning Sessions

Special Session: Sexual Harassment & Sexual Battery Policy Training [Theater] (repeated)

Ransom McClung, Director of Investigations, Office of Inspector General

This session provides a required training opportunity for graduate student TAs.

Scantron Item Analysis [101 A-D]

Jean-Marc Wise, Assessment and Testing Services

Have you ever used a “bubble sheet” exam in your class? Do you know how to do an individual item analysis to determine which questions might need to be looked at more closely, perhaps even thrown out of the exam? In this session, participants will learn how to read the scantron item analysis that can come with your graded bubble sheets. This is useful for anyone who routinely uses these, or anyone wanting a better understanding of “test” and “item” validity.

Using Other Strategies to Assess Learning [249-50]

Dr. Bonnie Armstrong, Assessment and Testing Services

If you have ever wondered if there are ways to assess student knowledge other than traditional tests or papers, then you will find this session useful. You will be able to:

- 1) Identify the advantages of group projects, small workshops, and other creative ways to assess student learning.
- 3) Learn how to manage these assessment techniques, including student accountability.

APPENDIX B

Human Subjects Approval Memorandum and Informed Consent Forms

Florida State

UNIVERSITY

Office of the Vice President For Research
Human Subjects Committee
Tallahassee, Florida 32306-2763
(850) 644-8673. FAX (850) 644-4392

APPROVAL MEMORANDUM

Date: 4/14/2005

To:

Steven Panton

MC: 4280

Dept.: **SPORT MANAGEMENT**

From: **Thomas L. Jacobson, Chair**

**Re: Use of Human Subjects in Research
Improving Graduate Student Teacher Effectiveness in Physical Education**

The forms that you submitted to this office in regard to the use of human subjects in the proposal referenced above have been reviewed by the Secretary, the Chair, and two members of the Human Subjects Committee. Your project is determined to be Exempt per 45 CFR § 46.(b) 2 and has been approved by an accelerated review process.

The Human Subjects Committee has not evaluated your proposal for scientific merit, except to weigh the risk to the human participants and the aspects of the proposal related to potential risk and benefit. This approval does not replace any departmental or other approvals, which may be required.

If the project has not been completed by **4/12/2006** you must request renewed approval for continuation of the project.

You are advised that any change in protocol in this project must be approved by resubmission of the project to the Committee for approval. Also, the principal investigator must promptly report, in writing, any unexpected problems causing risks to research subjects or others.

By copy of this memorandum, the chairman of your department and/or your major professor is reminded that he/she is responsible for being informed concerning research projects involving human subjects in the department, and should review protocols of such investigations as often as needed to insure that the project is being conducted in compliance with our institution and with DHHS regulations.

This institution has an Assurance on file with the Office for Protection from Research Risks. The Assurance Number is IRB0000446.

Cc: Charles Imwold
HSC No. 2005.254

GTA Consent Form

Improving Graduate Student Teacher Effectiveness in Physical Education

I am giving my consent to participate in the study entitled “Improving Graduate Student Teacher Effectiveness in Physical Education” to improve graduate student teacher effectiveness in physical education. I understand that I may be required to attend two three-hour effective teaching modules as part of this study and participate in mentoring sessions that will include meeting with my mentor and fellow students once every two weeks. I also agree to have my classes videotaped on seven occasions throughout the semester and analyzed for teacher effectiveness and student achievement. After each lesson that is videotaped, I agree to fill out a self-efficacy form and return it immediately to the researcher after the class is over. I may also be involved in mentoring sessions and my results from the observations and the self-efficacy instrument will be discussed. I will agree to release the results from the Student’s Perception of Teaching (SPOT) evaluation to the researcher, Steve Panton, for the purpose of data analyses.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time there will be no penalty. The results of this research study may be published but my name or identity will not be revealed. Information obtained during the course of the study will remain confidential, to the extent allowed by law. My name will not appear on any of the results. No individual responses will be reported. Only group findings will be reported in publications.

Benefits of your participation will include analyses of your teacher effectiveness, your students’ achievement, and contributing to the development of a program to improve teacher performance in the Lifetime Activities Program.

If you have any questions concerning this research study please call me, Steven Panton at (850) 893-3159, or contact my major professor, Dr. Chuck Imwold, Chair, Sport Management, Recreation Management, and Physical Education Department, at 850-644-0918.

If you have any questions about your rights as a subject/participant in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact the Chair of the Human Subjects Committee, Institutional Review Board, through the Vice President for the Office of Research at (850) 644-8633.

I have read the above informed consent form. I understand that I may withdraw my consent and discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which I may otherwise be entitled. In signing this consent form, I am not waiving my legal claims, rights or remedies. A copy of this consent form will be given to me.

Name: _____

Signature

Date

Student Consent Form

Improving Graduate Student Teacher Effectiveness in Physical Education

I am giving my consent to participate in the study entitled “Improving Graduate Student Teacher Effectiveness in Physical Education” to improve graduate student teacher effectiveness in physical education. I understand that the class I am enrolled in will be videotaped seven times during the semester and observation forms will be used to determine teacher and student performance. I also understand that my image will appear on that videotape and I may be asked to participate in games that might be the focal point of observations. I will agree to have the results from the Student’s Perception of Teaching (SPOT) evaluation I filled out released to the researcher, Steve Panton, for the purpose of data analyses.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time there will be no penalty. The results of this research study may be published but my name or identity will not be revealed. Information obtained during the course of the study will remain confidential, to the extent allowed by law. My name will not appear on any of the results. No individual responses will be reported. Only group findings will be reported in publications.

Benefits of your participation will include close supervision of your class and contributing to research designed to improve teacher effectiveness in the Lifetime Activities Program.

If you have any questions concerning this research study please call me, Steven Panton at (850) 893-3159, or contact my major professor, Dr. Chuck Imwold, Chair, Sport Management, Recreation Management, and Physical Education Department, at 850-644-0918.

If you have any questions about your rights as a subject/participant in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact the Chair of the Human Subjects Committee, Institutional Review Board, through the Vice President for the Office of Research at (850) 644-8633.

I have read the above informed consent form. I understand that I may withdraw my consent and discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which I may otherwise be entitled. In signing this consent form, I am not waiving my legal claims, rights or remedies. A copy of this consent form will be given to me.

Name: _____

Signature

Date

APPENDIX C

Suggested Format for Mentoring Sessions

Suggested Format for Mentoring Sessions

1. Mentor observes GTAs' teaching prior to Mentoring Session either live, or by viewing GTAs' most recent videotaped lesson.
2. Mentor reviews most recent coded QMTPS instrument to identify GTAs' areas of strengths and weaknesses.
3. GTAs meet with mentor in a designated office at a designated time.
4. GTAs discuss their concerns about teaching and specific incidents that have occurred during the prior two weeks.
5. Mentor and GTAs review the results of the QMTPS and discussion is generated to reflect on the lesson and the score of the QMTPS. Additionally, ideas are shared about implementing tactical game play in the GTAs' classes.
6. The group views a portion of selected GTA's videotapes and ideas are shared for improvement.
7. GTAs and mentor agree on a plan of action to address deficiencies and reinforce strengths as identified by the QMTPS and group discussions.
8. End of session

APPENDIX D

Induction Program and Data Collection Time Line

Induction Program and Data Collection Time Line

Fall Semester 2005

Week of August 22:	All GTAs attend PIE Conference and Department Orientation
Week of August 29:	First week of classes, GTAs meet their classes and the students complete informed consent forms completed
Week of September 5:	Initial observations of classes (pre-tests)
Week of September 12:	Treatment GTAs attend the two Teaching Modules and are assigned mentors
Week of September 19:	2 nd observation
Week of September 26:	GTAs meet with mentor
Week of October 3:	3 rd observation
Week of October 10:	GTAs meet with mentor
Week of October 17:	4 th observation
Week of October 24:	GTAs meet with mentor
Week of October 31:	5 th observation
Week of November 7:	GTAs meet with mentor
Week of November 14:	6 th observation
Week of November 21:	GTAs meet with mentor
Week of November 28:	Students complete SPOT and final observation (post-test)
Week of January 3:	SPOT results available on-line

APPENDIX E

Effective Teaching Module Schedule

Effective Teaching Module Schedule

Induction Program Fall Semester 2005 Effective Teaching Module

- 1:00 PM: Welcome and Introductions
Purpose of Module
- 1:10 PM: Teaching Motor Skills (the unique contribution of our field)
Stages of Motor Learning
Cognitive, associative & automatic
Knowledge of results v. knowledge of performance
Open v closed skills and incorporation into game play
Whole v. part practice and practice trials
- 2:30 PM: Task Presentation
Type of task: informing, refining, extending, & applying/assessment
Task presentation: clarity, demonstration, appropriate number of cues,
student response appropriate to task focus, teacher specific congruent
feedback
- 3:00 PM: Break
- 3:15 PM: Task Presentation continued
Review of QMTPS instrument
- 4:00 PM: Module Assessment and Dismissal

Effective Teaching Module Post-test



Test Canvas

Add, modify, and remove questions. Select a question type from the Add Question drop-down list and click **Go** to add questions. Use Creation Settings to establish which default options, such as feedback and images, are available for question creation.

Add

Name	Panton Test
Description	
Instructions	

Question 1

Multiple Choice

Question The cognitive stage of learning a motor skill is helped by

Answer demonstration.
 specific detailed information on correct performance.
 using the skill in advanced contexts.
 practice using the skill in different ways.

Correct Feedback correct

Incorrect Feedback incorrect

Question 2

Multiple Choice

Question Which of the following is an example of knowledge of results?

Answer The student realizes he or she forgot to step forward.
 The student sees a basketball go into the basket.
 The teacher corrects student form.
 The student falls during execution of a skill.

Correct Feedback correct

Incorrect Feedback incorrect

Question 3

Multiple Choice

Question Which of the following is the most difficult match for knowledge of results and knowledge of p

Answer

- The goal is not accomplished, and the plan is not executed correctly.
- ✔ The goal is accomplished, but the plan is not executed correctly.
- The goal is accomplished, and the plan is executed correctly.
- The goal is not accomplished, but the plan is executed correctly.

Correct Feedback correct

Incorrect Feedback incorrect

Question 4

Multiple Choice

Question In practicing most skills that require both speed and accuracy,

Answer

- ✔ speed should be emphasized first.
- accuracy should be emphasized first.
- both speed and accuracy should be primary concerns from the beginning.
- None of the choices is correct.

Correct Feedback correct

Incorrect Feedback incorrect

Question 5

Multiple Choice

Question Environmental design of tasks

Answer

- protects the environment from undue stress.
- eliminates the need for teacher instruction.
- ✔ elicits a motor response from the student.
- eliminates the need for teacher knowledge of how to "do" a skill.

Correct Feedback correct

Incorrect Feedback incorrect

Question 6

Multiple Choice

Question The advantage of student demonstrations over teacher demonstrations is that

Answer

- students always demonstrate more accurately.
- ✔ teachers are free to guide student observation.
- students observe other students more attentively.
- All of the choices are correct.

Correct Feedback correct

Incorrect Feedback incorrect

Question 7

Multiple Choice

Question Which of the following cues most reflects the openness of the basketball dribble?

Answer

- Use the pads of your fingers.
- ✔ Keep your dribble low when guarded.
- Place the ball farther in front when going faster.
- Push the ball down.

Correct Feedback correct

Incorrect Feedback incorrect

Question 8

Multiple Choice

Question Verbal directions for a task are sufficient if

Answer

- the teacher does not have much time.
- the teacher wants creativity.
- ✔ learners have experience with a task.
- All of the choices are correct.

Correct Feedback correct

Incorrect Feedback incorrect

Question 9

Multiple Choice

Question With the skilled learner,

Answer

- a lot of information on performance can be profitable.
- "gross framework" cues are needed.
- ✔ specific information on process is needed.
- All of the choices are correct.

Correct Feedback correct

Incorrect Feedback incorrect

Question 10

Multiple Choice

Question Good learning cues are

Answer

- accurate.
- critical to the task to be presented.
- few in number.
- ✔ All of the choices are correct.

Correct Feedback correct

Incorrect Feedback incorrect

Question 11

Multiple Choice

Question One of the first considerations in task presentation is

- Answer**
- selecting and organizing learning cues.
 - phrasing the content and organizational aspects of the task.
 - ✔ getting the attention of the learner.
 - choosing a way to communicate.

Correct Feedback correct

Incorrect Feedback incorrect

Question 12

Multiple Choice

Question Open skills

- Answer**
- are best learned if teachers drill the skill first under closed conditions.
 - are only perceptual skills.
 - are performed in predictable environments.
 - ✔ can be taught initially as closed skills as long as the teacher does not teach the skill in a predictable environment.

Correct Feedback correct

Incorrect Feedback incorrect

Question 13

Multiple Choice

Question Changing the space requirements for skill performance can

- Answer**
- reduce complexity in some situations.
 - modify force requirements of a skill.
 - increase complexity in some situations.
 - ✔ All of the choices are correct.

Correct Feedback correct

Incorrect Feedback incorrect

Question 14

Multiple Choice

Question Application/Assessment tasks

- Answer**
- should not be competitive.
 - are always competitive.
 - are always self-testing.
 - ✔ can be competitive or non-competitive.

Correct Feedback correct

Incorrect Feedback incorrect

Question 15

Multiple Choice

Question Which of the following tasks would provide an application/assessment experience?

Answer

Today we are going to play basketball.

How many times can you and your partner get the ball without losing control?

How far can you jump forward from two feet?

✔ All of the choices are correct.

Correct Feedback correct

Incorrect Feedback incorrect

Question 16

Multiple Choice

Question Extension deals with

Answer

attempts to qualitatively improve performance.

✔ attempts to manipulate the level of difficulty and complexity of performance.

attempts to evaluate level of performance of students.

attempts to provide self-testing experiences.

Correct Feedback correct

Incorrect Feedback incorrect

Question 17

Multiple Choice

Question For skills that require both accuracy and force production,

Answer

accuracy should be established first.

✔ force production should be established first.

both accuracy and force production should be developed at the same time.

the rules of the game should dictate whether force production or accuracy is

Correct Feedback correct

Incorrect Feedback incorrect

Question 18

Multiple Choice

Question An appropriate focus for refinement at advanced stages of the badminton smash would be

Answer

transferring weight to the forward foot.

✔ smashing to the right as an opponent moves to the left.

ensuring that the angle on the follow-through is down.

snapping the wrist on the follow-through.

Correct Feedback correct

Incorrect Feedback incorrect

Question 19



Multiple Choice

Question If the task is "Work to get your landing soft by bending at the hips, knees, and ankles," which

Answer

Good soft landing, Tommy.

Get more extension in the air.

Bend at your knees more. Go all the way down.

All of the choices are correct.

Correct Feedback

correct

Incorrect Feedback

incorrect

Question 20



Multiple Choice

Question Specific feedback to individuals on performance is useful

Answer

to all learners under any conditions.

only if evaluative in nature.

only if student performance and errors are consistent.

if all of the choices are true.

Correct Feedback correct

Incorrect Feedback incorrect

APPENDIX F

Tactical Games Module

Tactical Games Module

Induction Program Fall Semester 2005 Tactical Games Module

- 1:00 PM: Welcome and Introductions
Purpose of Module
- 1:10 PM: Tactical Games Approach v. Traditional Approach
Interest and excitement, knowledge as empowerment & transfer of understanding performance across games
Games Framework
Tactical problems, off-the-ball movements & on-the-ball movements
Components of Tactical Game Play
Skill performance, decision making, supporting, covering teammates, adjusting, base positioning
- 2:00 PM: Levels of Complexity
Examples of Lesson Planning for Volleyball, Basketball, Soccer, & Tennis
Using small-sided games
- 3:00 PM: Break
- 3:15 PM: Lesson Planning for Tactical Game Play and Game Stages
Set induction, all class activity, developing the lesson using elements of QMTPS, & closing the lesson with review and preview
- 4:00 PM: Module Assessment and Dismissal

Tactical Game Play Post-test

Tactical Games Module Quiz

Directions: Choose the best answer to the following questions by circling the corresponding letter.

1. All of the following are true concerning “tactical awareness” EXCEPT:
 - a. Is often times found in traditional games teaching
 - b. Means the one can identify tactical games teaching
 - c. Is critical to game performance
 - d. Means that one can select the appropriate response to solve a tactical problem

 2. The Tactical Approach” Model is suitable for both elementary and secondary levels
 - a. True
 - b. False

 3. If students are well versed in tactics, the carryover performance from one game to another within a category (net & wall, invasion, fielding)will be more effective.
 - a. True
 - b. False

 4. Communicating so that teammates can assist each other is an example of the game component:
 - a. Decision Making
 - b. Support
 - c. Adjust
 - d. Cover
-
5. Provide in the spaces below, 2 generic tactical problems associated with **Scoring** in a game from the Tactical Games Framework.
 - a. _____
 - b. _____

 6. Provide in the spaces below, 2 generic tactical problems associated with **Prevent Scoring** in a game from the Tactical Games Framework.
 - a. _____
 - b. _____

7. Provide in the space below, a problem associated with traditional games teaching.
- a. _____
- _____
-

8. Provide the best definition for the game component listed on the left by writing in the corresponding letter in the space provided in the list on the right.

- | | |
|---------------------|--|
| ___ Decision Making | A. Appropriate guarding of an opponent who may or may not have the ball (or projectile) |
| ___ Mark | B. Off-the-ball offensive movement (example: being in position to receive a pass) |
| ___ Adjust | C. Return of a player to a home position between skill attempts |
| ___ Support | D. What to do with the ball (or projectile) during a game |
| ___ Cover | E. Appropriate defensive help or backup for a player making a challenge for the ball (or projectile) |
| ___ Base | F. Movement of a player, either offensively or defensively, as necessitated by the flow of the game |

APPENDIX G

Qualitative Measures of Teaching Performance Scale Instrument and Scale Categories

(QMTPS)

Qualitative Measures of Teaching Performance Scale Instrument
(QMTPS)

Teacher _____ Coder _____
 Focus of lesson _____
 Lesson number _____

Task		Presentation of task					Student response appropriate to focus	Specific congruent feedback	Type of task I – Informing R – Refining (quality) E – Extend (variety) Re – Repeat (repeat same task) A – Apply self-testing
Number	Type of task	Clarity	Demonstration	Number of cues	Accuracy of cues	Qualitative cues			
1								Clarity 1 – Yes 2 – No	
2									
3									
4								Demonstration 1 – Full 2 – Partial 3 – None	
5									
6									
7								Number of cues 1 – Appropriate 2 – Inappropriate 3 – None given	
8									
9									
10								Accuracy of cues 1 – Accurate 2 – Inaccurate 3 – None given	
11									
12									
13								Qualitative cues 1 – Yes 2 – No	
14									
15									
								Student of responses 1 – All 2 – Partial 3 – None	
								Specific congruent feedback 1 – Yes 2 – Partial 3 – No	
Total		1- 2- 3-	1- 2- 3-	1- 2- 3-	1- 2- 3-	1- 2- 3-	1- 2- 3-	1- 2- 3-	
Percent for each category		1- 2- 3-	1- 2- 3-	1- 2- 3-	1- 2- 3-	1- 2- 3-	1- 2- 3-	1- 2- 3-	
Percent most desirable								Total QMTPS:	

Note. From Analyzing Physical Education and Sport Instruction (p. 274) by J.E. Rink and P.H. Werner, 1989, Champaign, IL, Human Kinetics.

Qualitative Measures of Teaching Performance Instrument and Scale Categories
(QMTPS)

Task Presentation

1. Clarity

Teacher's verbal explanation/directions communicated a clear idea of what to do and how to do it. This judgment is confirmed on the basis of student movement responses to the presentation, and is relative to the situation.

Yes: Students proceeded to work in a focused way on what the teacher asked them to do.

No: Students exhibited confusion, questions, off-task behavior, or lack of intent to deal with the specifics of the task.

2. Demonstration:

Visual information modeling desired performance executed by teacher, student(s), and/or visual aids.

Yes: Full model of the desired performance

Partial: Incomplete model of task performance exhibiting only part of the desired movement

No: No attempt to model the performance.

3. Appropriate Number of Cues:

The degree to which the teacher presented sufficient information useful to the performance about the movement task without overloading the learner.

Appropriate: Three or fewer new learning cues related to the performance of the movement task.

Inappropriate: More than three new learning cues related to the performance of the movement task.

None Given: No attempt at providing learning cues.

4. Accuracy of Cues:

The degree to which the information presented was technically correct and reflected accurate mechanical principles.

Accurate: All information presented was correct.

Inaccurate: One or more incidences of incorrect information

None Given: no cues given.

5. Qualitative Cues Given:

Verbal information provided to the learner on the process or mechanics of the movement.

Yes: Teacher's explanation included at least one aspect of the process of performance

No: No information on the process of performance was given.

Student Responses

6. Appropriate to Focus:

The degree to which the student responses reflect an intent to perform the task as stated by the teacher.

(All) One- No more than two students viewed on the screen in-appropriate responses.

(Partial) Two- Three or more students viewed on the screen exhibited inappropriate behavior.

(None) Three- No students exhibit appropriate behavior.

Teacher Feedback

7. Specific Congruent Feedback

The degree to which teacher feedback during activity was congruent (matched) to the focus of the task.

Yes: More than two incidences were evident of teacher feedback being congruent with the task.

Partial: One or two incidences of congruent feedback were evident.

No: No congruent Feedback given.

Note. From “Case Studies of Teacher Effectiveness in Second Grade Physical Education,” by P. Werner and J. Rink, 1989, *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 8 (4), p282.

APPENDIX H

Game Performance Assessment Instrument Components and Instrument

(GPAI)

Game Performance Assessment Instrument Components

(GPAI)

1. **Base:** Appropriate return of performer to a “home” or “recovery” position between skill attempts
2. **Adjust:** Movement of performer, either offensively or defensively, as required by the flow of the game
3. **Decisions made:** Making appropriate choices about what to do with the ball (or projectile) during the game
4. **Skill execution:** Efficient performance of selected skills
5. **Support:** Off the ball movement to a position to receive a pass (or throw)
6. **Cover:** Defensive support for a player making a play on-the-ball, or moving to the ball (or projectile)
7. **Guard/mark:** defending an opponent who may or may not have the ball (or projectile)

Note. From “The Game Performance Assessment Instrument (GPAI): Development and Preliminary Validation” by J. Oslin, S. Mitchell, & L. Griffin, 1998, *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 17 (), p. 233

Game Performance Assessment Instrument Components
(GPAI)

Game Performance Assessment Instrument

Date of Observation _____ Instructor _____ Game _____

Data sheet scoring key 5 = very effective performance
 4 = effective performance
 3 = moderately effective performance
 2 = weak performance
 1 = very weak performance

Evaluation Criteria

Adjust- movement of performer, either offensively or defensively, as required by the flow of the game

Decision making- making appropriate choices about what to do with the ball (or projectile) during a game

Skill execution- efficient performance of selected skills

Code one score for each attempt as a 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5.

Sum the codes for each category and divide by total number of codes to get average score for each category and average the three category scores for the GPAI average score.

An average score resulting in a decimal number will be rounded down at .1-.4 and rounded up at .5 to .9.

Name	Adjust	Decision Making	Skill execution	Average Score

APPENDIX I

Game Performance Assessment Rubrics

GPAI Coding Information and Rubrics

GPAI Coding Information and Rubrics

The components of GPAI are Base, Decision Making, Skill Execution, Support, Guard/Mark, Cover, and Adjust. Because not all components of the GPAI apply to every game situation and simplification of the GPAI has been deemed appropriate in certain situations, the GPAI was modified for the purpose of this study to focus on three components across all activities.

Adjust, Decision making, and Skill execution were chosen as the components to be observed with GPAI. Skill execution is but one component of participating in physical activity and games with each sport having basic requisite skills for satisfactory participation. For this study, the volleyball, soccer, tennis, flag football, and basketball skills selected for skill attainment on the GPAI are reflective of previous research in physical education using traditional skills testing formats

Coding for the GPAI involves observing the same students in each of the classes for both pre- and post-tests. In tennis, four students from each class were observed playing four games of doubles. In basketball, volleyball, flag-football, and soccer, one group of students from each class were observed playing one game in that sport that lasted no more than 10 minutes.

Skill Execution Coding Cues for Net Games

A rubric for coding Skill Execution in Net Games was developed for this study. The skill coded for in tennis was the forehand and the skill coded for in volleyball was the forearm pass.

5 = Perfect performance including proper mechanics and accuracy

4 = Proper mechanics and moderate accuracy

3 = Good mechanics and keeps ball in play

2 = Swing without control. Striking of ball is accidental and ball may not go over the net. Poor mechanics

1 = Swing and a miss or no attempt to strike ball

*** If a player does not attempt a forearm pass during coding period and coder deems the forearm pass should have been used, coder shall code a 2.**

Skill Execution Coding Cues for Invasion Games

A rubric for coding Skill Execution in Invasion Games was developed for this study. The skill coded for in soccer and basketball was passing.

- 5 = Perfect performance including proper mechanics and accuracy
- 4 = Proper mechanics and moderate accuracy
- 3 = Good mechanics and receiver makes noticeable adjustment to pass
- 2 = Poor Mechanics and receiver makes noticeable adjustment to pass or pass is intercepted
- 1 = Poor mechanics and no accuracy

The skill coded for in flag football was pass receiving and the following rubric was developed to code for Skill Execution.

- 5 = Perfect performance including proper mechanics, successful reception and ball is immediately tucked to the body
- 4 = Successful pass reception with good mechanics, but ball is not immediately tucked into the body
- 3 = Reception is simply successful
- 2 = Pass reception is unsuccessful or pass reception is accidental
- 1 = Pass reception is unsuccessful or no attempt is made to catch the pass

Coding for adjust and decision making were adjusted to reflect the appropriate criteria for those activities that were invasion games (soccer, flag football, & basketball) and those that are net games (tennis and volleyball).

Adjust Coding Cues **Net Games**

The participant moved about defensively in the court to position themselves to best cover the opponents return or hit; and/or offensively adjusts their position in relation to the offense and the ball, whichever best fits the flow of the game. For the purposes of this study, coding Adjust for Net Games will only occur when the ball crosses the net, thus putting the ball in play.

Tennis: players adjust with their partners depending on where ball is. An example would be a lob over a net partner's head and the players switch sides so the backcourt player isn't on the same side. Another would be if a ball is hit wide and pulls the player off the court, the partner moves into the center to cover the middle.

Volleyball: players cover open areas for teammates when they are forced to move for the ball. Players move in after they serve. Players on front line adjust to block or spike. Players cover blockers to dig for the block.

A rubric for coding Adjust in Net Games was developed for this study.

- 5 = Offensively or defensively adjusts to both partner and ball
- 4 = Adjusts offensively or defensively to ball or partner
- 3 = Adjusts offensively or defensively and only to ball
- 2 = Makes movement attempt, but it is inappropriate
- 1 = No evidence of adjustment/ remained stationary

Adjust Coding Cues **Invasion Games**

The participant quickly transitions from offense to defense (or vice versa) on turnovers or on a score, or is able to assume the correct positioning on the field offensively and defensively.

Soccer: players on defensive stay home in their zones when ball is on opposite side of field to guard against a crossing pass. Players on offense find gaps in the defense to make themselves available for passes (in other words, they don't all run to the ball).

Flag football: Players on defense adjust in their zone defense by flowing with the ball from side to side. Players on offense recognize open areas on the field and change their pass patterns.

Basketball: players on defense slide through screens, or switch players' guarded and box the shooter on rebounds. On offense, shooters move to get open box out for rebounds.

A rubric for coding Adjust in Invasion Games was developed for this study.

- 5 = Offensively or defensively adjusts to both partner and ball
- 4 = Adjusts offensively or defensively to ball or partner
- 3 = Adjusts offensively or defensively and only to ball
- 2 = Makes movement attempt, but it is inappropriate
- 1 = No evidence of adjustment/ remained stationary

The following rubric was developed to code for Adjust in flag football.

- 5 = Offensively or defensively adjusts to both teammate and ball
- 4 = Adjusts offensively or defensively to ball or teammate
- 3= Adjusts offensively or defensively to ball only
- 2 = Makes movement attempt, but it is inappropriate
- 1 = No evidence of adjustment/ remained stationary

Decision Making Coding Cues

Net Games

Participant offensively varies play so that opponents cannot easily anticipate what will happen next; and/or attempts to place the ball in the open court spaces. For the purposes of this study, coding Decision Making for Net Games will occur anytime they make a play on the ball.

Tennis: players hit to open court area, lob to get players off the net, and place balls to opponent's weaker side (forehand or backhand).

Volleyball: Players vary their serves, use three ball attack unless situation warrants differently, and varies the use of dinks and spikes.

A rubric for coding Decision Making in Net Games was developed for this study.

- 5 = Offensively varies play using a wide array of shots so that opponents cannot easily anticipate and attempts to place ball in open court or to target
- 4 = Varies play or attempts to hit to open space or target, but not both
- 3= Simply gets ball back in play (no evidence of varying play or hitting to open space or target)
- 2 = Simply makes an appropriate attempt inappropriate
- 1 = Opportunity exists, but no attempt is made. If skill execution is coded as a one, then decision making is coded as a one.

Decision Making Coding Cues

Invasion Games

For the invasion games basketball and soccer, the criteria for decision making was that the participant makes appropriate choices as to when to dribble (to avoid opponents or buy time), pass (to open teammate), or shoot. For flag football, the criteria for decision making were that the participant makes the appropriate choice as to how the ball should be caught (either with hands extended, arms in a cradle position, or chest trap).

A rubric for coding Decision Making in the Invasion Games of basketball and soccer was developed for this study. A separate rubric was developed for flag football.

- 5 = Appropriate choice is made to dribble, pass or shoot
- 4 = Appropriate choice is made, but skill execution is unsuccessful
- 3 = Inappropriate choice is made, but skill execution is successful
- 2 = Opportunity exists, but player forces a shot, drive, or pass
- 1 = Opportunity exists (pass, shoot, or dribble), but player fails to make a timely decision

The following rubric was developed to code for Adjust in flag football.

- 5 = Appropriate choice is made to receive pass with either hands extended, arms in a cradle position, or chest trap, and reception was successful
 - 4 = Appropriate choice is made, but skill execution is unsuccessful
 - 3 = Inappropriate choice is made, but skill execution is successful
 - 2 = Inappropriate choice is made and skill execution is unsuccessful
 - 1 = Opportunity exists but player fails to make an attempt.
- * If Skill Execution is coded as a 1, then Decision Making will be coded as a 1**

APPENDIX J

Student Perception of Teaching

(SPOT)

Student Perception of Teaching (SPOT)

Student Perception of Teaching

Instructor Name

Course Code & Section

Course Title

Date

LOCATION

 Tallahassee Panama City, FL Panama City, Panama

COURSE ID

0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4	4
5	5	5	5	5
6	6	6	6	6
7	7	7	7	7
8	8	8	8	8
9	9	9	9	9

Gridding Instructions

No. 2 Pencil Only

Proper Mark

Improper Mark

This unique course identification number can be found on the label of the course evaluation packet. Please ask your proctor to write this number on the whiteboard.

Be sure to mark this number correctly as it associates your evaluation with the correct course.

SECTION A Demographics

1. What is your year in school? 1st year Sophomore Junior Senior Grad/Other

2. What is your overall cumulative GPA? 1.99 or less 2.0 – 2.49 2.5 – 2.99 3.0 – 3.49 3.5 – 4.0

3. What grade do you expect to receive in this course? A B C D F

4. Is this a required course for you? yes no

strongly agree

agree

neutral

disagree

strongly disagree

SECTION B Course & Instructor Details

1. This course challenged me to think deeply about the subject matter.

2. The course materials (e.g., textbooks, coursepack) helped me better understand the subject matter.

3. The course assignments helped me better understand the subject matter.

4. The instructional techniques engaged me with the subject matter.

5. The instructor was concerned about whether the students learned the subject matter.

6. The instructor was enthusiastic about the subject matter in the course.

7. The instructor was enthusiastic about teaching this class.

8. The instructor clearly communicated what was expected in this class.

9. The instructor expressed ideas clearly.

10. The instructor provided helpful feedback on my performance.

11. The instructor evaluated my work fairly.

12. The instructor treated students with respect.

13. Students were able to get individual help.

strongly agree

agree

neutral

disagree

strongly disagree

SECTION C Overall Course & Instructor Assessment

1. Overall, I learned a great deal from this course.

2. If a friend were taking this course, I would recommend this instructor.

3. If I were taking another course in this subject area, I would choose this instructor again.

strongly agree

agree

neutral

disagree

strongly disagree

4. Overall, considering its content, design, and structure, this course was

5. Overall, considering the constraints and opportunities inherent in the subject matter, this instructor was

SECTION D SUSSAI (State University System Student Assessment of Instruction)

1. Description of course objectives and assignments

2. Communication of ideas and information

3. Expression of expectations for performance in class

4. Availability to assist students in or out of class

5. Respect and concern for students

6. Stimulation of interest in the course

7. Facilitation of learning

8. Overall assessment of instructor

excellent

very good

good

fair

poor

SECTION E Additional Questions, Department

1. a b c d e f 6. a b c d e f 11. a b c d e f

2. a b c d e f 7. a b c d e f 12. a b c d e f

3. a b c d e f 8. a b c d e f 13. a b c d e f

4. a b c d e f 9. a b c d e f 14. a b c d e f

5. a b c d e f 10. a b c d e f 15. a b c d e f

SECTION F Additional Questions, Instructor

1. a b c d e f 6. a b c d e f

2. a b c d e f 7. a b c d e f

3. a b c d e f 8. a b c d e f

4. a b c d e f 9. a b c d e f

5. a b c d e f 10. a b c d e f

84

(SPOT)
Continued

SECTION G Free Response Questions

The following items are designed to allow you to express your opinions about this course and communicate **directly to the instructor** your particular feelings and suggestions concerning the course.

NOTE: The instructor will receive this form, as is, after the semester is over and final grades have been recorded. If you are concerned that the instructor might recognize your handwriting, you may wish to communicate your comments in a typed format separately at later time rather than completing this section.

1. What did you like most about this course? What could be improved? Give examples.

2. What did you like most about this instructor? What could be improved? Give examples.

3. Additional comments and suggestions.

REFERENCES

- Amores, M.J. (1999). Preparing graduate teaching assistants: An investment in excellence. *Foreign Language Annals*, 32 (4), 441-459.
- Ashey, M., Lee, A., & Landin, D (1988). Relationship of using correct technique to achievement in a motor skill. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 7, 115-120.
- Atwell, H. (1996). Doctoral education must match the nation's needs and the realities of the market place. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 43 (14), B4-B5.
- Auld, G.W., Romaniello, C., Heimendinger, J., Hambidge, & C., Heimendinger, M. (1999). Outcomes from a school-based nutrition education program alternating special resource teachers and classroom teachers. *The Journal of School Health*, 69 (10), 403-408.
- Beckett, K. (1989). The effects of motor appropriate engagement ALT-PE on achievement in a badminton skill during an experimental teaching unit. *The Physical Educator*, 46, 36-40.
- Bennett, G. (2000). Students' participation styles in two university weight training classes. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 19 (2), 182-205.
- Berliner, D. & Rosenshine, B. (1987). *Talks to teachers* (5th edition). New York, NY: Random House.
- Bilik, J. (1999). Factors influencing college students' self-perceptions of competence in beginning physical education classes. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 18 (3), 255-276.
- Black, B., & Bonwell, C. (1991). The training of teaching assistants in departments of history. *The History Teacher*, 24 (4), 435-444.
- Bodo, P. (2006). The coach. *Tennis*, 42 (2), 48-51.
- Brawdy, P., & Byra, M. (1995). Supervision of preservice teachers during an early field teaching experience. *The Physical Educator*, 52 (3), 147-159.
- Buck, M., Harrison, J., & Bryce, G. (1990). An analysis of learning trials and their relationship to achievement in volleyball. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 10, 134-152.
- Cahn, S.M. (1994). *Saints and scamps: Ethics in academia*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.

- Cheffers, J.D., & Mancini, V.H. (1989). Cheffer's adaptation of the Flanders' interaction analysis system. In Darst, P. W., Zakrajsek, D.B., & Mancini, V.H. (Eds), *Analyzing physical education and sport instruction* (pp.119-135). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Darling, A.L., & Dewey, M.L. (1990). Teaching assistant socialization; Communicating with peer leaders about teaching and learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 6 (4), 315-326.
- Darst, P. W., Zakrajsek, D.B., & Mancini, V.H. (1989). *Analyzing physical education and sport instruction* (2nd edition). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Davis, S. F., & Hring, J.P. (2001). A model for training and evaluating graduate teaching assistants. *College Student Journal*, 35 (1), 45-51.
- Davis, W.E., & Minnis, D. L. (1993). Designing a program to prepare graduate student for careers as college teachers. *Innovative Higher Education*, 17 (3), 211-224.
- De Knop, P. (1986). Relationship of specified instructional teacher behaviors to student gain on tennis. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 5 (1), 71-78.
- Dunkin, M. J., & Biddle, B. J. (1974). *The study of teaching*. New York: Holt Rinehart & Wilson.
- French, K.E., J.E. Rink, L. Rikard, Mays, A., Lynn, S., & Werner, P. (1991). The effects of practice progressions on learning two volleyball skills. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 10 (4), 261-274.
- French, K.E., Werner, P.E., Taylor, K., Hussey, K., & Jones, J. (1996). The effects of a 6-week unit of tactical, skill, or combined tactical skill instruction on badminton performance of ninth-grade students. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 15 (5), 439-461.
- Gaia, A.C., Corts, D. P. Tatum, H. E., & Allen, J. (2003). The GTA mentoring program: An interdisciplinary approach to developing future faculty as teacher-scholars. *College Teaching*, 51 (2), 61-65.
- Germann, P., & Saase, C.M. (1997). The variations in concerns and attitudes of science teachers in an educational technology development program. *The Journal of Computers in Mathematics and Science*, 16, (2-3), 405-423.
- Golde, C.M., & Dore, T.M. (2001). At cross purposes: What the experiences of today's doctoral students reveal about doctoral education. Retrieved November 10, 2004 at <http://www.phdsurvey.org>. Philadelphia, PA: A report prepared for the Pew Charitable Trusts.

- Graber, K. (2001). Handbook of research on teaching. In Virginia Richardson (Ed.), *Research on teaching in physical education* (pp. 491-519). Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association.
- Griffin, L.L. (1996). Tactical approaches to teaching games; Improving net/wall game performance. *The Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance*, 67 (2), 34-37.
- Griffin, L.L., Mitchell, S. A., & Oslin, J.L. (1997). *Teaching sport concepts and skills: A tactical games approach*. Champaign, IL: NASPE.
- Gusthart, J., & Kelly, I. (1993). Teacher's instructional variables in volleyball and students' improvement in motor skill. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 76 (3), 1015-1024.
- Gusthart, J., & Kelly, I. (1993). Teacher's motor skills in volleyball and students' learning. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 72 (1), 7095-801.
- Gusthart, J., Kelly, I., & Graham, T (1995). Minimum levels of teachers' performance and student's achievement in volleyball skills. *Perceptual Motor Skills*, 80 (2), 555-562.
- Gusthart, J., Kelly, I., & Rink, J. (1997). The validity of the qualitative measures of teaching performance scale as a measure of teacher effectiveness. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 16 (2), 196-210.
- Gusthart, J. & Sprigings, E. (1989). Student learning as a measure of teacher effectiveness in physical education. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 8 (2), 298-311.
- Hardre, P.L. (2003). The effects of instructional training on university teaching assistants. *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, 16 (4), 23-39.
- Harnett, R.T., & Katz, J. (1977). The education of graduate students. *Journal of Higher Education*, 48, 646-464.
- Harrison, J.M., Preece, L.A., Blakemore, C.L., Richards, R.P., Wilkinson, C., & Fellingham, G. W. (1999). Student learning as a measure of teacher effectiveness in physical education. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 19 (1), 298-311
- Henson, R.K., & Chambers, S. M. (2003). Personality types as a predictor of teaching efficacy and classroom control in emergency certification teachers. *Education*, 124 (2), 261-268.

- Henson, R.K., Kogan, L.R., Vacha-Hasse, T. (2001). A reliability generalization study of the teacher efficacy scale and related instruments. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 61 (3), 404-420.
- Kurdziel, J.P., & Libarkin, J.C. (2003). Research methodologies in science education: Training graduate teaching assistants to teach. *Journal of Geoscience Education*, 51 (3), 347-351.
- Kitchner, K. M. (1992). Psychologist as a teacher and mentor: Affirming ethical values throughout the curriculum. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, 23 (3), 190-195.
- Kuther, T.L. (2003). Teaching the teacher: Ethical issues in graduate student teaching. *College Student Journal*, 37 (2), 219-223.
- Ingram, K.W. (2003). The effects of reflective thinking training on TAs' reflective thinking, use of instructional activities, instructional effectiveness, motivation to teach, and their students' attitudes toward instruction (Doctoral dissertation, Florida State University, 2003). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 51, 417.
- Instructional Development Services. (2004). Fall college teaching conference [Brochure]. Florida State University: Author.
- Lee, A.M. (1996). How the field evolved. In S.J. Silverman & C.D. Ennis (Eds), *Student learning in physical education* (9-33). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Lowman, J., & Mathie, V.A. (1993). What should graduate teaching assistants know about teaching? *Teaching of Psychology*, 20, 84-88
- Lumsden, A.S., (1993). Training graduate students to teach. *The American Biology Teacher*, 55 (4), 233-236.
- Mangan, K.S. (1992). Colleges expand efforts to help teaching assistants learn to teach. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 38 (26), A 17-18.
- Mancini, V.H., Clark, E.K., & Wuest, D. A. (1987). Short-and long-term effects of supervisory feedback on the interaction patterns of an intercollegiate field hockey coach. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*. 6 (4), 404-410.
- Marso, R.N., & Pigge, F.L. (1989). The influence of preservice training upon attitude and concerns about teaching. *Teaching & Teacher Education*, 5 (1), 33-41.
- Martin, J.J., & Kulinna, P.H. (2003). The development of a physical education teacher's physical activity self-efficacy instrument. *Journal for Teaching in Physical Education*, 22 (2), 219-232).

- Martin, J.J., & Kulinna, P.H. (2004). Self-efficacy theory and the theory of planned behavior: Teaching physically active physical education classes. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 75 (23), 288-297).
- Meyers, S.A., & Prieto, L.R. (2000). Training in the teaching of psychology: What is done and examining the differences. *Teaching of Psychology*, 27 (4), 258-261.
- Meyers, S.A., Reid, P.T., & Prieto, L.R. (1998). Ready or not, here we come: Preparing psychology graduate students for academic careers. *Teaching of Psychology*, 25 (4), 124-126.
- Miller, G.A., Dowell, L.J., & Pender, R.H. (1989). Physical activity programs in colleges and universities. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance*, 60 (6) 20-23.
- Mitchell, S.A. (1996). Tactical approaches to teaching games: Improving invasion game performance. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance*, 67 (2), 30-33.
- Mitchell, S.A., & Oslin, J.C. (1999). *Assessment in games teaching*. Reston, VA: National Association for Sport and Physical Education.
- Mondello, M, Fleming, D., & Focht, B. (2000). The organization, administration, and operational procedures of an elective physical education program at a research one university. *The Physical Educator*, 57 (2), 77-82.
- Multon, K.D, Brown, S.D., & Lent, R. W. (1991). Relation of self-efficacy beliefs to academic outcomes a meta-analytic investigation. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 38 (1), 30-38.
- Nyquist, J.D., Manning, L., Wulff, D.H., Austin, A.E., Sprague, J., Fraser, P.K., Calcagno, C., & Woodford, B. (1999). On the road to becoming a professor: The graduate student experience. *Change*, 31, (3), 18-27.
- Ocansey, R.T. (1988). An effective supervision guide for supervisors: a systematic approach to organizing data generated during monitoring sessions in student teaching. *The Physical Educator*, 45, 24-29.
- Okebukola, P.A., & Ogunniyi, M. B. (1986). Effects of teachers' verbal exposition on students' level of class participation and achievement in biology. *Science Education*, 70 (1), 45-51.
- Oslin, J., & Mitchell, S. (1998). Form follows function. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance*, 69, (6), 46-49.
- Oslin, J., Collier, C., & Mitchell, S. (2001). Living the curriculum. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance*, 72, (5), 47-58.

- Oslin, J.L., Mitchell, S.A., & Griffin, L.L. (1998). The game performance assessment instrument (GPAI): Development and preliminary validation. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 17, (5), 231-243.
- Paese, P.C. (1990). A review of teacher induction: Are special programs needed for beginning physical education teachers? *The Physical Educator*, 47 (), 159-165.
- Paese, P.C. (2003). Impact of professional development schools pre-service through induction. *Action in Teacher Education*, 25 (1), 83-88.
- Pajak, E. (2001). Clinical supervision in a standards-based environment. *Journal of Teaching Environment*, 52, (3), 233-245.
- Parker, M. (1989). Academic learning time-physical education (ALT-PE), 1982 revision. In Darst, P. W., Zakrajsek, D.B., & Mancini, V.H. (Eds), *Analyzing physical education and sport instruction* (pp.195-205). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics Books.
- Pellett, T., & Harrison, J. (1995). The influence of refinement on female junior high school students' volleyball practice success and achievement. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 15 (1), 41-52.
- Pennington, H. (1990). A brief training program for graduate student teachers of laboratory-tutorial classes. *Teaching of Psychology*, 17 (2), 120-121.
- Poole, J.R. (1991). Seven skills to improved teaching: Enhancing graduate teaching experience. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance*, 62, (8), 21-24.
- Poole, J. R., & Graham, G. (1996). Internal teaching models of four physical education graduate teaching assistants. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 15 (3), 355-368.
- Prieto, L.R., & Altmaier, E. (1993). The relationship of prior training and previous teaching experience to self-efficacy among graduate teaching assistants. *Research in Higher Education*, 35 (4), 481-497.
- Rink, J. (2002). *Teaching physical education for learning* (4th edition). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Rink, J. E., & Werner, P.H. (1989). Qualitative measures of teaching performance scale (QMTPS) In Darst, P. W., Zakrajsek, D.B., & Mancini, V.H. (Eds), *Analyzing physical education and sport instruction* (pp.269-275). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics Books.

- Rink, J.E., Werner, P.H., Hohn, R.C., Ward, D.S., & Timmermans, H.M. (1986). Differential effects of three teachers over a unit of instruction. *Research Quarterly For Exercise and Sport*, 57 (2), 132-138.
- Rosen, C. (2005). In loss, Haslem proves himself a winner. Retrieved January 13, 2005, from <http://msn.foxsports.com/story?contentId=3315952>
- Ross, J.A., Cousins, J.B., & Gadalla, T. (1996). Within-teacher predictors of teacher efficacy. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 12 (4), 385-400.
- Rushin, J.W., De SAix, J., Lumsden, A., Streubel, D. P., Summers, G., & Bernson, C. (1997). Graduate teaching assistant training. *The American Biology Teacher*, 59 (2), 86-90.
- Saroyan, A., & Amundsen, C. (1995). The systematic design and implementation of a training program for teaching assistants. *The Canadian Journal of Higher Education*, 25 (1), 1-18.
- Savage, M. P., & Sharpe, T. (1998). Demonstrating the need for formal graduate student training in effective teaching practices. *The Physical Educator*, 55 (3), 1998.
- Schempp, P.G. (1987). Behavioral stability in physical education: A one-year time-series analysis. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 58 (3), 382-387.
- Siedentop, D. (1981). The Ohio State University supervision research program summary report. *The Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 1 (1), 30-38.
- Silverman, S. (1985). Relationship of engagement and practice trials to student achievement. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 5, 13-21.
- Silverman, S. (1988). Relationship of selected presage and context variables to achievement. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 59 (1), 35-41.
- Silverman, S. (1991). Research on teaching in physical education. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 62 (4), 352-364.
- Silverman, S., & Buschner, C. (1990). Validity of cheffers adaptation of flanders interaction analysis system. *Journal of Classroom Interaction*, 25 (1 & 2), 23-28.
- Silverman, S., Devillier, R, & Ramirez (1991). The validity of academic learning time-physical education (alt-pe) as a process measure of achievement. *Research Quarterly for exercise and Sport*, 62 (3), 319-325.
- Student Perceptions of Teaching. (2005). Retrieved February 14, 2005, from <http://online.fsu.edu/assessmentservices/courseevaluations.html#samp>

- Tchannen-Moran, M., & Hoy, A.W. (2001). Teacher-efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17, 783-805.
- 2004 Fall College Teaching Conference. (2004, August). Retrieved February 14, 2004, from http://www.fsu.edu/~ids/grad2004/03_04/TA_Conf_Program.pdf
- Va Der Linde, C.H. (1998). Clinical supervision in teaching evaluation: A pivotal factor in the quality management of education. *Education*, 119 (2), 328-334.
- Veal, M.L. (1993). The role of assessment and evaluation in secondary physical education: A pedagogical view. P.93-99 in *Critical crossroads: Middle and secondary school physical education*, edited by J.R. Rink, Reston, VA: NASPE.
- Werner, P., & Rink, J. (1989). Case studies of teacher effectiveness in second grade physical education. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 8 (4), 280-297.
- Williams, L.S. (1991). The effects of a comprehensive teaching assistant training program on teaching anxiety and effectiveness. *Research in Higher Education*, 32 (5), 585-598.
- Wilson, E.K. (1982). Power, pretense, and piggybacking; Some ethical issues in teaching. *Journal of Higher Education*, 53 (3), 268-281.
- Zahorik, J. A. (1988). The observing-conference role of university supervisors. *Journal of Teaching*, 39 (2), 9-16.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Steven A. Panton graduated from the University of Florida in 1982 with a Bachelor of Science degree in Physical Education. He also received a Master of Science degree in Sport Administration from the University of Florida in 1988. He is currently enrolled at Florida State University and is working on his doctoral degree in Physical Education Teacher Education. While at Florida State University, he was a graduate student for three years and has taught three years as an instructor at Tallahassee Community College.

He has been in the public school system eleven years as a physical education teacher, health teacher, coach, or assistant principal. In addition to the public school community college teaching experiences, Mr. Panton also taught Sport Management at Iowa State University for three years and is interested in teaching at the university level when he completes his doctoral program.