

**Evaluating teachers' perceptions of
technology use in the K-8 classroom**

Research Project in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for EDRE 6794: Behavioral Research Methods I

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Table of Contents

INTRODUCTION.....	1
BACKGROUND.....	1
RATIONALE.....	2
STATEMENT OF RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	3
REVIEW OF THE RELEVANT LITERATURE	3
METHODOLOGY.....	10
POPULATION	10
SAMPLE.....	10
<i>Gender and occupation.....</i>	<i>11</i>
<i>School Type</i>	<i>11</i>
<i>School Location.....</i>	<i>12</i>
<i>Highest Degree Status.....</i>	<i>12</i>
<i>Ethnicity.....</i>	<i>12</i>
<i>Age and Years of Educational Experience</i>	<i>13</i>
INSTRUMENT.....	13
ANALYSIS.....	14
PHASE I OF ANALYSIS	14
PHASE II OF ANALYSIS.....	15
RESULTS.....	17
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS RESULTS	17
CORRELATIONAL ANALYSIS RESULTS.....	18
MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS RESULTS	19
DISCUSSION	20
REFERENCES.....	25

Introduction

Background

Modern society has moved from one based on industrialization to one based on information. Through electronic communication, information can now be shared simultaneously with multiple users across the globe. Computer technology has accelerated the rate of economic change throughout the world and in response to this rapidly evolving society, technology-enhanced skills are needed to survive. These recent advances in information technology have made it mandatory for students to utilize technologies like graphing calculators, multimedia computers and Internet resources to be effective members of the mathematical and scientific world in which we live.

Current employers are looking for individuals who can effectively communicate, solve problems, employ mathematics-skills and use technology effectively in all these endeavors (AAAS, 1993; ISTE, 1999; Lewis, 1999; Rosenberg et al., 1989). Coupled with this charge is the challenge to discern the nature of knowledge itself (Lewis, 1999). Lewis supports this claim by documenting the vast array of dissemination technologies available today like television, computers, cables, satellites, wireless, etc., and states that this multi-modal network fragments information more than consolidating knowledge for effective consumption (1999).

Education must move towards a standards based system where the content taught has predetermined outcomes and is evaluated against appropriate forms of assessment aligned to those predetermined standards (Resnick & Resnick, 1985) to make our students effective members of society and discerning consumers of information. With the implementation of national standards in science, mathematics and technology, and the

increased plans for k-12 connectivity (Levinson & Surratt, 1999), teachers must receive the training necessary to properly infuse technology competencies into the curriculum. Only by having the access, time and training for these technology tools can teachers implement them within the learning context, using the technology for authentic solutions in a performance-based environment (Warner & Akins, 1999). The question then is, “Given the need for technology-enhanced education, and the plethora of resources and dissemination channels available, how do we harness this enabling mechanism?” One solution may be to focus as mentioned above on the standards of interest to our learners. By concentrating on the learning outcomes of our students, we can then determine what technologies may best suit these outcomes (Lewis, 1999). These technologies will determine what skills are needed by the classroom teacher to facilitate these technology-enabled learning outcomes.

Rationale

There has been much study on the topic of teachers’ use of technology. There has been debate over what variables should be assessed, as well as the design of program evaluations. In an article in *Education Week* (1999), Trotter raises concerns over problems with measurement of project success. He offers suggestions for improvements in research, including the use of more longitudinal studies, focusing on fewer technologies, and increasing sample size. In the area of reporting, giving more detail so as to ease replication is suggested as well (Trotter, 1999). Towards this end, this study will analyze data from a recent survey performed for a national educational video series. The purpose of the analysis was to measure teachers' perceptions on the effectiveness of

technology, video and web-based materials. The research questions posed herein attempt to address these concerns and define the study.

Statement of Research Questions

Following a preliminary examination of the survey data inquiring into teacher perceptions concerning the effectiveness of technology, the following questions were developed for more rigorous statistical analysis:

1. How do the perceptions of k-8 classroom educators on the role technology plays in enhancing learning and learning environments?
2. As perceived by k-8 classroom educators, does the school administration provide adequate support with respect to training in the use of technology for the classroom?
3. As perceived by k-8 classroom educators, do school administrators provide adequate support with respect to access for the use of technology in the classroom?

The first phase of this study prepared the data set for a detailed statistical examination using descriptive and frequency analysis. The second phase of the study focuses on the relationships among variables in the existing data set. To support the second phase of the study, a review of the relevant literature was performed.

Review of the Relevant Literature

Technology impacts our lives on a daily basis. Society accepts technology and expects schools to prepare students for a world requiring computer literacy. It is axiomatic in saying that students will need to become proficient in the use of technology to be successful in the 21st century. Many educational institutions are currently failing to capitalize on the myriad of learning possibilities that technology provides (Jarrett, 1998). Many believe the most effective use of technology occurs when technology is

transparently integrated into the core curriculum (Cohen, 1988). Both the National Science Education Standards (NSES) and the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM) standards call for skills, knowledge and attitudes that are effectively developed when technology is one of the instructional strategies employed by the teacher (Council, 1996; Lappan, Carl, Frye, & Gates, 1991). This poses a challenge to educators who, with limited time, resources and training, are attempting to appropriately infuse technology enhanced learning materials into the curriculum (Manouchehri & Goodman, 1998). Unfortunately, teachers use the computer mostly for management tasks, or drill and practice exercises (Hannafin & Savenye, 1993). There are many reasons for teachers' resistance toward computers specifically, from resentment in competing for attention with computers to frustration in learning how to use them. Infusing technology fosters a student-centered approach, shifting the teacher away from being the "sage on the stage" to the "guide on the side".

A teacher's personal theory of learning also effects how he or she goes about teaching and in turn may effect their decision on how to use technology in their classroom. Teachers have specific goals for learning and feelings on what works best for them. Though it may not be explicitly stated, a teacher's theory of learning will affect the content and strategies he or she feels will lead to understanding on the students' part (Duffy & Jonassen, 1991).

There are no clear answers in the literature to the question "Do teachers' theories of learning affect their computer use?" There are studies that show a relationship (Hannafin & Freeman, 1995) and those that do not (Olech, 1999). Olech looked for a relationship between pedagogical beliefs and affinity for computer use by treating

behaviorist and information processing philosophies separately rather than combining them under objectivism. This differs from the research of Duffy and Jonassen (1991), who describe the philosophies of behaviorism and cognitive information processing as falling under the single epistemology of objectivism. Objectivism states that knowledge and meaning are independent of our beliefs, existing within the world independent of our understanding (1991). Thus, understanding is to know the world as it already exists, regardless of our perception.

Olech (1999) found that while no teacher selected statements from a single pedagogical theory, constructivist statements were selected most often. Constructivism agrees with objectivism that there is meaning in the world around us, but states that we construct it through our experiences and perceptions (Duffy & Jonassen, 1991). Therefore meaning is different for different people and learning is a process of our interactions with others and the physical world.

In summation, Olech (1999) found that teachers who chose statements indicating a belief in behaviorist pedagogy were less likely to use computers; the stronger the behaviorist perspective, the less likely they were to use computers. However, the best predictors for computer use were found to be computer relevance and subjective norms (perceptions of the expectations of administrators, peers, students and parents). Because computers allow for student-initiated activity and present varied pathways of learning, they tend to be associated more with constructivist teaching styles.

Historically, the average person's recollection of school involves teacher-centered instruction. In this light, society views the teacher as a manager, controlling the classroom environment. This conceptual view may in turn influence teachers' use of

computers (Hannafin & Savenye, 1993). In contrast, computers allow for a more student-centered approach to knowledge acquisition turning control of learning over to the students. This new technology-assisted method of instruction may antagonistically influence teachers, as it is a view that does not fit the view of much of society (Hannafin & Savenye, 1993).

Consequently, teachers have been found to employ three strategies with their interactions with technology: avoidance, integration, and technical specialization (Evans-Andris, 1995). In this ethnographic study of elementary school teachers, Evans-Andris (1995) found that though the majority of teachers provided their students with opportunities to use the computer, 62% distanced themselves from computers. The remaining 38% embraced computers, making opportunities to use computers a reality. Why do 62% of the teachers in this study "distance" themselves from technology? Jarrett states that learning to teach effectively with technology involves a significant learning curve for many teachers and that most teachers take at least 5 years to become proficient in its use (1998). Consequently, during the early stages of technology, there may be significant technical hurdles to overcome. This would tend to suggest that technology access in and of itself is not sufficient for infusion into the classroom.

Even if access is granted, the effective integration of technology will be determined by factors such as the extent to which teachers value the benefits of technology in facilitating learning and the degree to which teacher technology skills are practiced in the context of their daily profession (Lewis, 1999; Simpson, Payne, Munro, & Hughes, 1999). This may create some uneasiness among teachers, and thus the need for administrative support and training as mentioned previously.

Teachers' attitudes and perceptions toward technology could change with proper staff development and administrative support, for teachers' feelings about technology are tied to their work environment (Chin & Hortin, 1993). Manouchehri and Goodman (1998) lend credence to these claim stating that administrative support is needed to buttress teachers' efforts and to provide encouragement to sustain educators throughout their demanding teaching schedule.

Still further studies in the literature are found supporting the notion that teacher may be inhibited in the use of technology due to inadequate technology training skills. Hurley and Mundy (1997) conducted a survey to examine elementary teachers' perceptions of their preparedness to use technology, the adaptability of technology to their personal teaching style, and the effect of technology on their students. The results showed that teachers had positive perceptions of all three variables (Hurley & Mundy, 1997).

A factor that was overlooked in the Hurley and Mundy (1997) study was the fact that the school from which the sample was pulled had recently switched from a standard curriculum to one that incorporated technology at every level. The teachers who were there chose to be there, so they must have already felt positively about technology in the classroom. Though the sampling is suspect, the positive correlation found between perception of preparedness for technology and technology's effect on students, and perception of preparedness for technology and adaptability of technology to teaching style highlights the importance of training and staff development in increasing teachers' positive perceptions of technology. In essence, schools where staff development processes are more collaborative between administration and teachers, emphasizing a

student-centered environment, tend to score significantly higher in achievement scores than schools that do not adhere to this method (Weathersby & Harkreader, 1999).

Weathersby and Harkreader (1999) showed that when teachers were more sure of the support they received, and the leadership had more capacity for direction and support, student-centered technology-assisted instruction facilitated significantly higher students test scores than schools that did not employ this method.

In conclusion, from examining the literature, six variables hindering teachers' use of technology in k-12 education are referenced:

1. Resistance from being the sole disseminator of knowledge
2. Resistance from the learning curve required to use technology
3. Teachers' personal theory of learning
4. Society's historical view of the teacher as the disseminator of knowledge
5. Inadequate administrative support for teachers in the use of technology
6. Inadequate teacher training in the proficient use of technology

To help address the current inadequacy of technology training for teachers, training institutions are now focusing on facilitation of technology competencies (Simpson et al., 1999) like those determined by International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE, 1999):

1. Explore, evaluate and use computer technology-based materials
2. Use computers for problem solving data collection, information management, communications, presentations and decision making

3. Design and develop student learning activities that integrate computing and technology for a variety of student grouping strategies and for diverse student populations
4. Demonstrate skill in using such productivity tools as word processors, databases, spreadsheets and print/graphic utilities

Infusing technology into the classroom is a multi-faceted problem that appears to require a multi-faceted solution. While there are many potential impediments to implementing technology-assisted education, there are many potential benefits of technology use in the classroom as well.

Interaction permitted via technology may enable students to develop strengths like problem solving, persistence and initiative (Jarrett, 1998). There are many teachers who feel that effective integration of technology may support the use of problem-based scenarios and foster the development of critical thinking and communication skills (AAAS, 1993; Council, 1996; Rosenberg et al., 1989). Jarrett (1998) cites multiple research studies that provided repeated evidence that technology may improve writing skills, cooperative learning and motivation.

With respect to adolescent development, technology can help mathematics students in middle school make the critical jump from concrete to abstract reasoning, empowering students via observation and creation of multiple representations of mathematical constructs (Jarrett, 1998). With user-chosen interfaces, dual processing modes of encoding content and varied learning pathways, technology may better respond to multiple student learning styles (Moore, Myers, & Burton, 1994). Technology has also been shown to increase self-efficacy of students by instilling more success in the learning

environment and in allowing students to take more control of their own learning (Means & Olson, 1997).

Methodology

Population

For the purposes of this study, the authors used data from a survey designed and distributed by the NASA Langley Research Center located in Hampton, Virginia. The survey was generated to gather feedback on the effectiveness of a nationally televised instructional video series and website from participants who completed an online registration form. The population was composed of individuals who completed the online registration form voluntarily and provided their mailing address. From the registration form any of the following types of individuals could have made up the population of interest: Principal, Teacher, Librarian, Home Schooler, Media Specialist, Math Coordinator, Science Coordinator, or Technology Coordinator. The "School-type" classification for the population included Public, Private/Parochial, Native American School, Home School, 2-year college or 4-year college. The "Population-type" for the school demographic could have been rural, urban or suburban.

Sample

As described previously, one thousand participants accurately completed the online registration process by providing all demographic information requested. From this population of 1,000 registered participants each were mailed a hardcopy evaluation survey with a postage-paid return envelope. The sample consisted of 305 individuals who responded to the survey, of which 300 provided complete responses for inclusion in the statistical analysis.

Gender and occupation

The final sample of 300 individual consisted of 71 males (23.7% of sample) and 229 females (76.3% of sample). With respect to educational position, 230 of the volunteer respondents in the sample were teachers (76.7% of sample), six were home schoolers (2% of sample), three were technology coordinators (1% of sample), 15 were principals (5% of sample), two were math coordinators (.7% of sample), eight were science coordinators (2.7% of sample), 21 were librarian or media specialists (7% of sample), 14 were university instructors (4.7% of sample) and one was listed as "other" (.3% of sample). Thus, over 75% of the survey respondents were classroom educators.

Table 1 is a listing of the job types percentages in the sample.

Table 1. Frequency and Percentage of 300 sample respondents

Type of educational occupation	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
teacher	230	76.7	76.7
home schooler	6	2.0	78.7
technology coordinator	3	1.0	79.7
principal	15	5.0	84.7
math coordinator	2	.7	85.3
science coordinator	8	2.7	88.0
librarian/media specialist	21	7.0	95.0
university instructor	14	4.7	99.7
other	1	.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

School Type

The majority of schools that participated in this survey were public (87.7% of the sample), while 7.7% were private, 2.0% were home school in nature, .3% was of the community college type and 2.3% were either colleges or universities. Table 2 is a listing of all school types.

Table 2. Percentages of school type making-up sample.

School Type	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Public	263	87.7	87.7

Private	23	7.7	95.3
Home School	6	2.0	97.3
Community College	1	.3	97.7
College or University	7	2.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

School Location

The majority of schools types in the sample were Suburban (37.3%), while rural schools constituted 34% and urban school made up 26.3% of the sample. Seven survey-respondents failed to provide their school type data and thus the results above constitute 293 out of 300 respondents. Overall then, there appears to a fair representation of the three different school types.

Highest Degree Status

From the sample 297 out of 300 survey participants provided information on the highest degree they had obtained. The majority of the sample respondents' (200) had received their Masters or Masters equivalency degree, constituting 66.3% of the sample. Next, 84 respondents (28% of sample) had received their baccalaureate (BA/BS) degree. Nine survey respondents (3% of sample) had their doctorate degree while three respondents (1% of the sample had received a two-year associates degree. Finally, for two respondents, or .7% of the sample, a high school diploma or equivalency degree was the highest degree achieved.

Ethnicity

Of the 300 survey respondents, 292 provided their ethnicity information. The majority of the participants were Caucasian, accounting for 86.3% of the sample (259 respondents). Twenty-three respondents were African American (7.7% of the sample), while six respondents were Hispanic (2% of the sample). Finally, three respondents were Native American (1% of the sample) and one respondent was Asian (.3% of the sample).

Age and Years of Educational Experience

All survey respondents provided the number of years they had been in the educational system and 286 out of 300 provided their age. The range of the respondents was 52.0 with a minimum age of 23 and a maximum age of 75-year-old. The mean age of 286 respondents was 45 with a standard deviation of 8.675. The range of educational experience varied from one to 49 years, with a mean of 16.29 years educational experience overall. The standard deviation for years of educational experience was 9.257.

Table 3 is a listing of these results.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for age and years of experience for participants

Statistic variables	Number of Respondents	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	286	52.00	23.00	75.00	45.0455	8.6751
Years teaching or in profession	300	48.00	1.00	49.00	16.2933	9.2574

Instrument

The survey instrument was created by the producers of the instructional video and was derived from a previous survey instrument. The producers asked respondents demographic data and questions about the learning effectiveness of the video, classroom activities and website. Given this, there is no information on internal reliability measures used previously.

The internal validity of the instrument was not correlated against the administration of a second tool, but the variables considered were reviewed by content and education experts, such that the data requested would indeed provide a measure of the constructs in question. The integrity of the instrument was also considered valid in that the results were going to be used for future revisions of the instructional material and in securing continued congressional funding for the project.

The cross-sectional survey instrument consisted of a 67-item questionnaire made up of a five-point Likert scale and multiple-choice response items. The survey was mailed to all 1,000 registered participants of the instructional program. As stated previously, the type of respondent ranged from k-12 classroom educators to administrators or curriculum coordinators, with the majority of respondents being classroom teachers. From the 1,000 mailed surveys, 305 surveys were returned with 300 of the respondents having nearly completed item responses, such that they could be included for statistical analysis. The instrument itself consisted of 10 distinct thematic areas, which were Instructional Technology and Teaching, Instructional Programming and Technology in the Classroom, Overall Assessment, Program Use, Lesson Guides, Classroom Activity, Web-based Activity, Web Site, Classroom Environment and Demographics. Within each of these topics anywhere from four to nine questions were posed to capture areas of interest. A sample of the survey can be found in Appendix I.

Analysis

Phase I of analysis

The intent of the data analysis was to look for correlational relationships between constructs. A construct is a high-level mental abstraction that cannot be directly measured. Instead, indicators of that construct are inferred by observing related behaviors. For example, motivation is a construct. Based on a review of the related literature, it may be found that indicators of motivation include time spent on task, punctuality to class, number of questions asked during class, etc. These indicators would then be directly measured.

The original survey data was provided in comma-delimited text file format. The data was imported into SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) for initial analysis. Many of the survey items contained multiple responses, which would make in-depth statistical analysis of single constructs impossible.

To address this problem, responses were recoded to reflect the variable type, either continuous, as in a Likert scale, or categorical as in dichotomous responses. For example, questions with multiple answers, such as “Which of the following are among the objectives you have for student computer use?” had 10 possible items that for selection, among them “mastering skills” and “analyzing information.” A respondent could select all 10 answers, so the one question was broken down into 10, with one dichotomous response provided for each. Frequency data was then collected on these newly created categorical variables. Descriptive data, such as mean, median, mode, and standard deviation was collected on the continuous variables.

The recoding of the data set allow for correlation and regression analysis in Phase II of the data analysis. In the correlation analysis relationships between similar variables of interest were examined such that where strong relationships existed, composite variables could be formed. Once the composites were determined, they were regressed onto composite dependent variables for explanatory insight.

Phase II of analysis

The first step of the second phase was to execute a correlation analysis of like-minded survey questions that aligned with the technology-related variables identified in the literature. Once strong relationships among potential items were determined, a Chronbach Alpha inter-item reliability test was performed to verify the loading of a

singular construct area between multiple items. Finally, items that were highly correlated were combined into composite variables. From this analysis we identified three underlying independent variable composites and three dependent variable composites. The independent variable composites were (a) teacher perceptions of the value of technology, (b) teacher perceptions of support for technology, and (c) teacher perceptions of access to technology, while the dependent composites were (a) use of web-based activities, (b) use of classroom-based activities, and (c) used of video-based program.

The composite variables were used in a regression analysis was performed to determine if the independent variables (perception of technology, support or access) would be strong predictors of web, classroom, or video use of activities. Demographic variables were then added to the regression analysis to investigate any increase in predictive power.

Due to the fact that the sample was not randomly drawn from the population, but volunteered by respondents, external reliability or generalizability to the population may be suspect. Unfortunately, the authors of this paper had no input into the administration of the survey instrument. One strategy that future administrators and evaluators of this program may use to increase the generalizability of the sample to the population is to administer the original instrument to a portion of the non-respondents. If the data collected from non-respondents correlate highly with the original data set, the results from the original sample can be generalized to the entire population with increased confidence. Regardless, since the sample size was quite large (300 respondents) and the volunteered responses came from proportionate and representative segments of the population, confidence in the generalizability is still strong.

Results

The results of our statistical analysis are broken down into the following sections: (a) descriptive analysis results, (b) correlational analysis results, and (c) multiple regression analysis results. The findings from each section were used to guide the analysis of each successive phase.

Descriptive Analysis Results

This section will focus on the data after it has been narrowed in scope following the initial analysis of all descriptive data. The demographic data has been previously discussed and may be referenced on p. 10 of this paper. Descriptive data revealed some puzzling insights into the use of web activity, access to technology, and Internet connectivity.

Out of 300 respondents 66.7 percent watched the videos. Of the 300 respondents 64.3 percent used the classroom-based activities. When queried on how many respondents visited the NASA CONNECT web site, 48.7 percent visited the site and 48 percent did not. Of those that visited the NASA CONNECT site only 45 percent proceeded to use the web-based activities. Of the 63 respondents who answered the question, "would you like more online NASA CONNECT activities", 97 percent agreed.

A portion of the questions asked respondents about their access and connectivity to computers and the Internet. When asked "do you have a computer in your classroom," 86 percent said yes and 72 percent also had a computer in their home. Of the 272 who responded 64 percent had Internet connectivity in their classroom.

Descriptive mean composites were generated for the three independent variables. Regarding teachers' perceptions of instructional technology 93 percent responded, with a mean of 34.2 out of 40. The composite regarding teachers' perceptions of support for

technology use showed that of the 94.3 percent that responded, the mean was 7.2 out of 10.0. When asked about access to instructional technology, 86.7 percent responded, with a mean of 21.3 out of 50.

Descriptive mean composites were also generated for three dependent variables. The question regarding the use of web-based activity was answered by 63 respondents and generated a mean of 52.7 out of 61. The video used composite was answered by 76.7 percent of the respondents and had a mean of 8.33 out of 18. Finally, the classroom activity composite had a response rate of 58.3 percent and a mean of 14.7 out of 17. See Appendix 2 for table information on descriptives.

Correlational Analysis Results

Exploring the data via correlation analysis for possible constructs that aligned with the literature, we found three potential independent variable constructs. For teachers' perceptions regarding the value of instructional technology, the correlations ranged from .524 to .709. The Chronbach alpha reliability coefficient for the eight items was .87. For an in-depth look at correlations for each instructional technology question refer to Appendix 3. Of the 67-question survey, two questions were found to relate to teacher perceptions of the support they received in the use of instructional technology, resulting in a correlation of .373 and a Chronbach alpha reliability coefficient of .54. The correlations on the access to technology showed positive significance on four items with a range of .119 to .491. Internet connectivity in the classroom and computers in the classroom had the highest correlation at .491. The Chronbach alpha reliability coefficient for these four items was .21.

Correlation analysis for the three dependent variables (a) use of web activities, (b) use of classroom activities, and (c) use of video was performed next. Web activity correlation's ranged from .305 to .738. The Chronbach alpha reliability coefficient for web activity use was .89. The use of classroom activities generated correlation's ranging from .173 to .724 and a Chronbach alpha reliability coefficient of .87. The use of video correlations were not found to be significant and thus not made a composite variable nor analyzed for Chronbach's alpha.

Multiple Regression Analysis Results

We performed multiple regression analysis on the independent variable composites to examine their predictive power on web-activity use and classroom activity. First, perceptions of instructional technology, administrative support, and access to technology were regressed on the use of web-based activities. The model summary showed that an overall correlation of .587 was found, accounting for 34.4 percent of the total variance in the use of web-based activities. An F score of 6.645 showed significance of the regression variables. Looking to the coefficients of each individual independent composite showed that only teachers' perceptions of technology was a significant predictor of the use of web-based activities. The corresponding regression equation is: $WA' = 19.436 + .779$ (perceptions of instructional technology).

Perceptions of the same three independent composites were then regressed on the use of classroom activities. The model summary indicated an overall correlation of .439, accounting for 17.5 percent of the total variance in use of classroom activities. An F score of 10.805 showed significance of the regression variables. The coefficients of each individual independent composite again showed that teachers' perceptions of technology

was the only significant predictor of the use of classroom-based activities. The corresponding regression equation is: $CA' = 6.863 + .038$ (perceptions of instructional technology).

The independent composites were not regressed on the dependent composite of video-use because the correlation of items addressing video-use was not significant.

An additional analysis of the following demographic variables: (a) years of teaching experience, (b) degree status, (c) gender, and (d) age, was then added to the independent composites and regressed on the dependent composites. When demographic data was added to the regression on the use of web-based activities, the overall correlation R was increased to .646 and the variance explaining the use of web-based activities increased to .418. An F score of 3.177 showed that the addition of demographic regression variables were significant. But when looking at the individual coefficients for demographic data, it was found that they were collinearly dependent upon each other and thus not significant. The demographic variables were then added to the regression on use of classroom activities the model summary. This showed an overall correlation of .523, accounting for 27.3 percent of variance in the use of classroom activities. The F score of 6.761 was significant and it was found that gender and degree status were significant predictors of variance in the use of classroom activities. The corresponding regression equation, including appropriate demographic variables, is: $CA' = 7.355 + .189$ (perceptions of instructional technology) + 1.148 (gender) + (-.621) (degree status). See Appendix 4 for regression tables.

Discussion and Conclusions

The literature supports numerous variables for teachers' use of technology in education. In efforts to evaluate the effectiveness and use of the technology component of

an educational video program a survey of 300 respondents was analyzed via correlation analysis, and multiple regression. The three independent composite variables of (a) teachers' perceptions of technology, (b) teachers' perceptions of access to technology, and (c) teachers' perceptions of support in the use of instructional technology were regressed on the dependent composite variables of (a) use of web-based activities, (b) use of classroom activities, and (c) use of the video program component. The demographic independent variables of (a) years of teaching experience, (b) degree status, (c) gender, and (d) age were also analyzed in the regression analysis.

In both the use of classroom materials and the use of web-based activities, the independent composite variable of teachers' perceptions of technology was found to be a significant predictor. This is supported by the literature (Lewis, 1999; Simpson, Payne, Munro, & Hughes, 1999). The fact that 94 percent of the survey respondents perceived instructional technology as valuable to learning and 97 percent recommended the addition of more web-based activities would lead one to believe that teachers with computers and access to the internet in their classrooms would use the NASA CONNECT web-based activities. The data gathered by the survey does not agree with this hypothesis.

Over 63 percent of the respondents had both a computer in their classroom and Internet connectivity, yet of the 48 percent of the respondents that visited the NASA CONNECT web site, less than half proceeded to use the web-based activities. Thus, while access to technology is a prerequisite it by no means ensures technology's use as shown by the results of this survey. There appears to be an overall acceptance of the

benefits of instructional technology by teachers yet a lack of instructional technology use. There appears to be a need for further analysis seeking an explanation in this area.

Although the literature strongly reflects the value of technology and administrative support in teachers' use of technology (Chin & Hortin, 1993; Hurley & Mundy, 1997; Jarrett, 1998; Lewis, 1999; Manouchehri & Goodman, 1998; Simpson, Payne, Munro, & Hughes, 1999; Weathersby & Harkreader, 1999) these two independent predictor variables were not significant. This may be due to the fact that the survey instrument asked only a few questions in these areas and did not probe to a deep level. Perhaps additional probing questions in these constructs would lend more predictive power. It should be noted however, that while these constructs were addressed in this survey, the purpose of the survey was to receive feedback on the perceived value of the educational program as a whole. If prediction is the goal, the more questions regarding teachers' perceptions of support and more highly correlated questions regarding access to technology should be used.

Demographic variables added no significant predictive power to the use of web-based activities but did contribute to the predictive power of the regression equation for the use of classroom activities. Gender is a positive predictor of the use of classroom activities while degree status is a negative predictor. This then would seem to indicate that a further analysis is needed for these variables with respect to the use of technology.

In summary, the perceptions of teachers' value of the use of technology were statistically significant and supported by the literature. Perceptions of access to and support of technology use were not significant predictors although strongly suggested by the literature. As Trotter (1999) suggests, more focused evaluations of programs over

greater periods of time are needed. It would also seem essential that more detailed questions probing teachers' perceptions of specific types of administrative and technology support should be explored.

Appendix I

Sample Survey Questions:

<u>Instructional Technology and Teaching</u>	Disagree	Agree	No Opinion
Instructional technology....	1 2 3 4 5		9
Enables teachers to teach more effectively	1 2 3 4 5		9
Enables teachers to accommodate different learning styles	1 2 3 4 5		9
<u>Instructional Programming and Technology in the Classroom</u>			
Increasingly, schools have greater access to instructional programs.	1 2 3 4 5		9
Teachers received the training and technical assistance to support classroom use of instructional technology	1 2 3 4 5		9
Administrators support and encourage teachers to use instructional technology in the classroom	1 2 3 4 5		9
<u>Overall Assessment</u>	Disagree	Agree	No Opinion
The programs met their stated objectives.	1 2 3 4 5		9
The program content was aligned with the National Mathematics and Science Standards.	1 2 3 4 5		9
The program programs presented science as a process requiring creativity, critical thinking, and problem solving skills.	1 2 3 4 5		9
<u>Lesson Guides</u>			
The directions/instructions in the lesson guides were easily understood.	1 2 3 4 5		9
The layout of the lesson guides presented the information clearly and was easy to read.	1 2 3 4 5		9
The lesson guides were a valuable instructional aid.	1 2 3 4 5		9
<u>Classroom Activity</u>			
The classroom activity (experiment) was easily implemented into my lesson plan.	1 2 3 4 5		9
The classroom activity (experiment) complemented the lesson for each show.	1 2 3 4 5		9
The classroom activity (experiment) was developmentally appropriate for the grade level.	1 2 3 4 5		9

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