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The effect of a performance curriculum in human relations on attitudes, verbal communication, and interpersonal relationship of teacher trainee

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The Effect of A Performance Curriculum in Human Relations
on Attitudes, Verbal Communication, and Interpersonal
Relationship of Teacher Trainee

A Dissertation
Presented to the Faculty of the School of Education
College of William and Mary in Virginia


by
Frances D. Graham

May, 1979


Approval Sheet

We, the undersigned, do certify that we have read this dissertation and that in our individual opinions it is acceptable in both scope and quality as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.

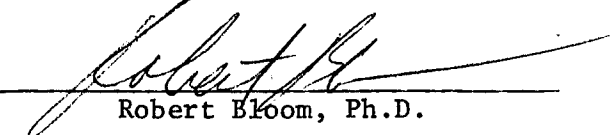
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Abstract

The Effect of A Performance Curriculum in Human Relations on Attitudes, Verbal Communication, and Interpersonal Relationship of Teacher Trainee

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William & Mary College of Virginia, 1979
Major Advisor: Dr. Kevin Geoffroy

The Study sought to test the effect of using an organized performance curriculum in human relations for nine weeks. The participants were senior teacher trainees in a predominantly black college. Forty volunteers were randomly assigned to the experimental and control groups.

The research design used in this replication study follows Rollins (1970) original study, with the additional adaptation of a Solomon Four Experimental Design.

The criterion measures which were applied in the study were: Adjective Check List (1965), Miskimins' Self-Goal-Other Scale (1967), and Flanders' Interaction Analysis (1970).

The Experimental Group was exposed to a sequentially designed, performance-based, Human Relations curriculum which employed a do, use, teach approach. A professional counselor directed the sessions. Following each exercise, appropriate measures were applied and participants were provided opportunities to do, to use, and finally, to teach the activity in the classroom with the young child. Trained observers evaluated the taped sessions of the trainees using Flanders' Interaction Matrix. The Control Group was exposed to some general information on classroom management techniques that were actual segments of the regular student-teaching practicum.

Analyses of variance and Chi Square procedures produced findings for the study which revealed that (1) there was no significant change between the experimental and control groups in the discrepancy score on self-concept, goal-concept, and trainees perception of how they were viewed by others; (2) there was no evidence that most of the trainees who received the training appeared to be more indirect; (3) there was statistically significant improvement in surgency and drive of the trainees; and (4) there was a significant difference in teacher-talk, and student-talk ratios of the experimental groups. Further, it should be noted that clinical evidence supported the fact that the experimental group had become more positive and personable in their interactions with others.

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I wish to express my gratitude to the Chairman of my Doctoral Committee for his strength and encouragement during very trying circumstances in my academic career. Relentlessly, Dr. Bloom offered suggestions, criticisms, and motivation throughout the experimental exercises. For this, I am very grateful.

Cheryl and Sheila, my daughters, and Sterling, my son-in-law, were always very helpful. Cheryl was the facilitator during the exercises, and Sterling's assistance is not measurable. Sheila offered support, and an opportunity to "get away from it all." Each deserves an expression of special gratitude.

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Black Analysis, Incorporated deserves a special note of acknowledgment since the financial support received from this organization, augmented the means to make this study possible.

The cooperation received from my Department Chairman, Dr. Mary Christian, and the students enrolled in the Department of Elementary Education at Hampton Institute was very instrumental in the initiation and the development of this study. I wish to thank each one very much.

Finally, I wish to express my sincerest personal thanks to my husband, Troy, and my other children, Teddie, Marian, and Miya for their patience and understanding. Just knowing that they all loved me provided the greatest incentive to finish this undertaking.

Frances Graham

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Curricula in education are moving toward a more humanistic philosophy. Hermaine Marshall (1972) has described this trend as a concept of "openness" or "acceptance" which must permeate the total climate of the elementary school. If this particularized environment of openness is to exist, there will be an evidenced need for principles of guidance and counseling in the elementary school to enhance teacher affectiveness. Also, counselor educators must be prepared to design, recommend, and support effective curriculum changes. These changes must occur concomitantly with innovative alterations in the elementary school curriculum designs.

Initially, the elementary school guidance counselor must have an intellectually sound understanding of the concept of openness in which elementary schools are involved. The counselor must also be able to determine what his/her role will be as openness permeates the total school environment. Clarification of the concepts of openness is best presented by Marshall (1972). Marshall uses a mertonian functionalist approach to the derivation of the concepts centered around openness. She clearly differentiates between the open classroom, informal education, integrated days, and the open space school.

One could further justify the rationale for elementary school guidance services in schools, based upon the particularized needs of children in the formative years and the assistance professionals in guidance can render to teachers of young children. Educators, psychologists,

and physiologists have long been able to document the differential in human growth and development rates in early childhood and later developmental stages. (Biggs and Hunt, 1962) Perhaps, if for no other reason than that, children grow and develop at a significantly faster rate during early childhood. Then this should be sufficient reason to ensure guidance its place in the elementary school. Therefore, guidance as an integrated component in the elementary curriculum, should represent a developmental approach to child adjustment. The developmental approach should represent all areas which are basic to a child becoming a psychological self in his own space. Adjustments during the early years are essential, if disequilibrium in its severest form is to be avoided in later periods of human maturation. (Redl, 1972)

The teacher's psychological attitude toward himself and the children, however, will foster the environment that encourages or discourages and sustains growth, vitality, and fulfillment. Hassett and Weisberg (1972) state that the teacher who attempts to promote positive psychological attitudes finds himself discovering ways to improve the physical, social, and instructional environment. As one reviews the various teacher training programs, one might ask the question: When does the teacher prepare for this facilitative role and for positive psychologically-oriented attitudes needed in the classroom, or is it automatically acquired?

Marshall (1975) in her speculations and conclusions asserts that the most misleading characteristics of openness are those which have an open spatial arrangement, but which lack the crucial underlying attitudes of

openness. Many times, these characteristics are labelled as open. Therefore, the essence of openness relies heavily on individual responsibility not just in public characteristics, but also in the teacher's style, talent, and personal development. A classroom teacher might appear to be effective in her ability to perpetuate cognitive outcomes and individual learning, but be completely unaware of how her modeling and interpersonal impact is directly influencing the learner. Very often, the teacher is the environment. (Flanders, 1971)

Hassett and Weisberg (1972) summarize the writings of three internationally recognized experts: Piaget on the meaning of the word environment as a household word in the same sense as ecology; Theodosius Dobzhousky and Rene Dubos as they move toward openness. They explain:

This environment in which living things must exist is all that surrounds the organism, including other organisms. It is from the environment that the organism gets what it needs to survive, and also to develop through the successive stages of its growth. If the environment is unsuitable or hostile to the organism, the organism adapts poorly to a given environment, and the organism cannot adapt to it, the organism dies. If a particular environment is a poor environment for this organism, or if a particular organism adapts poorly to a given environment, that organism may survive, but just barely. It will be underdeveloped and to some extent sick or diseased (p. 21).

Therefore, the environment is all that surrounds the organism, including other organisms. The classroom is viewed as a physical, psychological, social, and instructional environment which is extremely important,

especially to us as human organisms. In assessing the psychological attitudes, the value system, and the behavior patterns of the individual teacher, Hassett and Weisberg draw conclusions about an authoritative classroom as compared to an open or relaxed atmosphere. It is certainly obvious that the strict disciplinarian creates a psychological environment different from the more relaxed atmosphere of another teacher who encourages self-discipline conducive to a good learning situation.

(Hassett and Weisberg, 1972) It appears that Hassett and Weisberg have taken the position that there is a definite reality which is referred to as the psychological environment of the classroom; secondly, it has a day-to-day pervasive influence on the pupils; thirdly, teachers can do a great deal about creating the proper psychological attitudes in the classroom. Unless one is able to develop healthy, psychological attitudes and behavior patterns, one will be unable to help create a social environment in the classroom that aids in human growth and fulfillment.

If a teacher has a positive psychological attitude, then he will inevitably create for the child a positive social, physical, and instructional environment. On the other hand, the negative attitude of the teacher permeates the classroom environment and dampens the fires of insight and inspiration that spontaneously ignite in the minds and hearts of children. (Hassett and Weisberg, 1972) Therefore, in summary, the following awareness criteria are needed in the classroom. (Hassett and Weisberg, 1972) (See Appendix A for more detailed discussion.)

1. Realization that every pupil is first and foremost a human person--a unique child, different from all other children.

2. Importance of the teacher having matured to the point where he can accept, respect, and trust the realities of himself which is manifested by an acceptance of other human beings as others.
3. A teacher who is fearful, suspicious, and distrustful creates a fearful, suspicious, and distrustful atmosphere in the classroom.
4. Willingness to sincerely listen to each child.
5. Providing a classroom that is child-centered rather than teacher-centered.
6. Freedom that does not violate the freedom of others.

This information provides one with a very provocative question: Can skill affective curricula be taught? It is evident that most educators will accept the premise that affective objectives are important (Keats, 1974), but not very many would accept the fulfillment of affective factors through a program comparable to the content of cognitive factors. Krathwohl, (1964), Keat, (1974), has set forth some guidelines. However, the particular guideline that seems relevant states that, "If affective objectives are to be achieved with the students, learning experiences must be a two-way interchange in which the students and the teacher interact rather than the situation where one presents material to be learned by the other" (p. 190). The recommendation here is that there should and must be in an open system of education, the "merger" of the affective and the cognitive elements in individual and group learning. This is sometimes referred to as humanistic or psychological education. (Brown, 1971, p. 4; Keat, 1974, p. 199)

Therefore, after looking at criteria for moving toward openness in the elementary school, it is felt that a model characterized by an awareness of the specific needs of a specific school must evolve. The counselor becomes the trainer of the teacher for classroom guidance in an open environment.

In the research conducted, there are many unique programs for guiding the child into the open environment, but very few provisions for the self-contained, traditionally-oriented teacher who must serve as promoter of the environment. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to design an organized training program in confluent education for the teacher trainee in preparation for moving into an open environment. Specific objectives and plans are found in the Appendix B.

Statement of the Problem

Purpose

Research has shown that persons interacting or modeling, which is characteristic of the helping professions such as counseling, ministry, nursing, and teaching, produce behavioral change (Combs, 1969). In the process of these interactions, the influences are sometimes intentional with planned behavior, sometimes deliberate without planning, but in many instances the model is unaware of his behavior in the learning process. (Flanders & Amidon, 1971; Rogers, 1961; Seaburg, 1974; and Carkhuff, 1969)

Assuming that those in the helping professions will continue to interact, model and use their skills in various multi-racial and other social settings, these diverse settings will warrant curricula tailored

to the specific needs and problems exclusively characteristic of today's America. (Barrett, 1974)

Confluent education may be defined as "the integration of flowing together" of the affective and cognitive elements in individual and group learning--sometimes called humanistic or psychological education.

(Brown, 1971a, p. 3) The teacher trainee acquires most of the necessary skills required in the cognitive domain. However, most authorities would agree that the teacher training programs would rate high in the development of expertise in technical know-how, but would rate very low in the development of feeling or emotional aspects of experience and learning.

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to provide experiences for the teacher trainee which will promote development in confluent education in order to more effectively foster positive psychological attitudes through cognitive experiences. The teacher becomes a facilitator in the classroom, as he attempts to stress the important relationship between school success and the development of a positive self-concept. (Keat, 1974)

Brown (1971a) further stresses that the way that a child or adult feels about wanting to learn, or how he feels as he learns, and what he feels after he has learned, are all included in the affective domain. It is by adding an emotional dimension to learning that the learner will become personally involved and, as a consequence, there will be a change in the learner's behavior. (Brown, 1971b)

Therefore, it is very essential that we foster positive attitudes in the "becoming teacher" who must foster an environment that encourages and sustains positive physical, social, and instructional environments in the classroom. (Hassett and Weisberg, 1972)

Thus, the question is whether an affective curriculum can be taught. Most educators would not support the position that the affective skills are as important as the cognitive skills. (Keats, 1974) Throughout his interaction with the child lies the continuing impact of the teacher's own self-image. He must have matured to the point where he can accept, respect, and trust the realities of himself. This maturity will be manifested by an acceptance of other human beings "as others" (Flanders & Amidon, 1971; Rogers, 1961; and Carkhuff, 1969). The "fashionable" concept in education today is that the psychological educator will actively intervene in the life of institutions and teach healthy skills to others. (Flanders, 1973) Stanford further concluded in a recent empirical study that measuring the effects of affective activities on the behavior and attitudes of the participating students can have an important and positive effect on the students, in fact, even affect performance in humanistic skills. (Keats, 1975; Stanford and Flanders, 1973)

In spite of the fact that the educational system is continually looking at change and introducing a variety of innovative designs, the teacher is often weak in some areas of preparation for promotion of these designs. Teacher training programs are not always able to keep up with the continuous changes in their training programs and, as a

result, many beginning teachers move into the mainstream of the teaching profession lacking essential skills for effective operation in the classroom with the growing child. (Weinstein, 1973; Fantani and Young, 1970)

It is hypothesized that after having experience in a performance-based program in human relations, there will be significant changes in attitudes, verbal communication and interpersonal skills in the subjects involved.

Specific Hypothesis

The major hypothesis of this study may be cited as follows: After having experiences in a performance-based program in human relations, there will be no significant changes in attitudes, verbal communication, and interpersonal skills of the subject involved. It is hoped that as a result of this use of Rollins' Performance Model (1970), an organized sequential training course for teachers will involve equipping each teacher with facilitative skills. It is also hoped that the use of this model will extend the scope of the teacher training programs and, as a result, providing for the teacher a comprehensive guidance orientation which will be workable in the affective domain and utilized in classroom interactions with the young child. Further, variations in treatments will be used as recommended by Rollins (1970) in an effort to increase positive behavioral outcomes in these proposed procedures (see Appendix B).

The general hypothesis will be divided into specific hypotheses using the three instruments, Miskimins, (1971), Adjective Check List (1965) and Flanders Interaction Analysis (1965) to test skill or hierarchy.

The research hypotheses are stated in null form:

1. a. There will be no significant difference in the MSGO discrepancy score on the self-concept scale between those receiving the training and those not receiving the training.
- b. There will be no significant difference in the MSGO discrepancy score on the goal scale between those receiving the training and those not receiving the training.
- c. There will be no significant difference in the MSGO discrepancy score on the other scale between those receiving the training and those not receiving the training.
2. There will be no significant difference in surgency and drive between those receiving the training and those not receiving training as measured by the Adjective Check List.
3. a. There will be no significant difference between the trained and control groups in the proportion of direct and indirect teacher behavior as measured by Flanders Interaction Analysis.
- b. There will be no significant difference between the trained and control groups in the proportion of teacher-talk and student-talk as measured by Flanders Interaction Analysis.

Definition of Terms

Affective. Refers to the feeling or emotional aspect of experience and learning. How a child or adult feels about wanting to learn, how he

feels as he learns, and what he feels after he has learned are included in the affective domain. (Brown- 1971a, p. 4)

Cognitive. Refers to the activity of the mind in knowing an object; to intellectual functioning. What an individual learns and the intellectual process of learning would fall into the cognitive domain. (Brown, 1971a, p. 4)

Confluent Education. The integration of flowing together of the affective and cognitive elements in individual and group learning--sometimes called humanistic or psychological education. (Brown, 1971a, p. 4)

Humanistic Education. A broad conceptual approach to the educational process and sensitivity experiences. May be broadly defined as a multi-dimensional process of teaching people skills in affective communication. (Barrett, 1974, p. 2)

Intentionality. Power to choose one's own way of living.

Social Environment. The general interrelationship and interactions among human beings, the ways in which human beings relate to and deal with other human beings.

Learner Centered. Are those responses that have the intent of reassuring or commending the pupil; an intent to convey to the pupil the feeling that he was understood and help him elucidate his idea and feelings; or which provide information or raise questions in an objective manner with intent to facilitate learner's problem solving.

Teacher Centered. Are those responses that are directed to pupils with the intent of having pupils follow a recommended course of action; intended to deter pupils from continued indulgence in present "unacceptable" behavior; or intended to sustain or justify the teachers position or course of action.

Human Relations. This training is assisting people in utilizing what has been learned about group dynamics in their own lives for both improved personal satisfaction and improved efficiency within the organizations of groups which they are involved. Human relations is an educational experience; it is not meant to be a form of psychotherapy.

Group Dynamics. This is a field of inquiry dedicated to advancing knowledge about the nature of groups, the laws of their development and their interrelations with individuals and other groups and larger institutions.

T Group. Is a short term for training group; a relatively instructed group in which individuals participate as learners. T groups provide an educational vehicle for increasing communication skills, for learning about group (over development for leadership development, and for beginning institutional change).

Encounter Groups. An experience of intimate and sometimes volatile emotions and events - a here and now experience.

Group Counseling. This is seen as an experience which is educational, supportive, situational, and problem solving in nature. It deals primarily with conscious material within a group of normal individuals.

Humanizing Education. Is when one deeply cares about the reasons a student has for being in school, how he values himself, what his home life is like, what goals he has, and how he is viewed by other students - and places, these things first - then one humanizes education for the student.

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

Historical Development

Psychological education, humanistic education, and confluent education are synonomous terms. (Brown, 1971) The components of these terms are the affective and cognitive domain. Educators today include the psychomotor domain which has to do with development of fine perceptualmotor coordination, and the gross motor skills used in coordination. (Kratwohl, Bloom, and Masia, 1964)

During the development of the curricula or the many "fashions" of education, educators often refer to the importance of the affective domain in the educational setting, but would be very reluctant to project a planned curriculum placing as much emphasis on the affective as the cognitive elements. (Keats, 1974)

Ivey and Alschular (1969) have taken the position that because of the "magnitude of psycho-social problems" it is imperative that we take a new look at the traditional forms of counseling and teaching if we are to move effectively into the mainstream of "futuristic" education. It is obvious that our counseling and educational methods are geared toward remediations of crises and maladjusted groups or individuals, rather than the perpetuation of the psychological growth of all. The present design of our institutions cause mental illness and create major obstacles to normal development. (Ivey and Alschular, 1974) This certainly necessitates the need for a new route to educational training.

One very relevant statement which does not necessarily fall into "scientific rhetoric" is enumerated by Rogers (1967) concerning the issues on affective or human relations urgency. Especially as it describes the direction which the educational movement must take, he states:

I can only be passionate in my statement that people count, that interpersonal relationships are important, that we, knowing something about releasing human potential, that we could learn much more, and unless we give strong positive attention to the human interpersonal side of our educational dilemma, our civilization is on its way down the drain. Better courses, better curricula, better coverage, better teaching machines, will never solve our dilemma in a basic way. Only persons, acting like persons in their relationship with their students can even begin to make a dent on this most urgent problem of modern education (Rogers, 1967, p. 17).

Sensitivity awareness studies have pointed out that evaluation criteria in the form of grades, are not reliable or valid for future usefulness or predictions of life success. Counselors and teachers should not support an academic curriculum which is characterized as being irrelevant to those individuals or groups whom it is supposed to service. (Hoyt, 1965; Jencks, et. al, 1972, Kirshenbaum, Simon & Napier, 1971; Killberg, LaCrosse & Ricks, 1971)

It is because of this emergence of a more humanistic approach to education that psychological education courses are being designed to teach affective skills. Psychological education courses include interpersonal and intrapersonal skills and other aspects of ideal adult functioning. (Alschuler, 1975)

Historically, until Lewin assumed the leadership role during the Post World War II period, human relations functioned from a theoretical and programmatic trend of thought. (Goldberg, 1970) Lewin's (1951) theoretical orientation, or field theory, led him to advocate the experimental based learning approach to train people in the skills of human relations. Methodologically, he bridged the gap between theory and practice by offering practical human relations skills to solve social problems. (Barrett, 1974) Today, theoretical diversity is a "smorgasbord" of human relations training that is seen in field theory, psycho-analytical, existential, behavioristic, phenomenological, and eclectic models, all of which have had an impact on the movement in human relations. (Bates and Johnson, 1971)

Presently, the first conference on "affective education" was held in August, 1968, in Sausalito, California, under the sponsorship of the American Association of Humanistic Psychology and Esalen Institute. New centers of psychological education are emerging that offer these courses to the general public. The most well known organizations are Esalen Institute in Big Sur, California; National Training Laboratories in Bethel, Maine; Outward Bound, Incorporated, in Andover, Massachusetts; and Western Behavioral Sciences Institute in LaJolla, California. A number of large research and development projects have been funded to introduce this type of education into schools. Cooperative Program of Education Development (COOPED), sponsored by the National Training Laboratories and the National Education Association is one project. Others are: the Achievement Motivation Department project, sponsored by the Office of Education; foundation grants to Western Behavioral Science

Institutes to introduce a variety of "basic encounter" techniques into a school system; a grant to Esalem Institute to support the introduction of sensitivity training in elementary, junior, and senior high schools. This effort coupled with recent publications, undoubtedly will increase the demand from students and parents as well as teachers and counselors for these courses. (Alschuler, 1975)

Educational theorists have begun to draw attention to the importance of teaching and counseling activities that result in operant, voluntary, internalized student behavior. (Bloom, 1956; Krathwohl, et. al., 1956) The goals of psychological education courses will eventually change because of the development of specific experiences for specific needs. As is hypothesized, it is easy to envision the formation of courses for specific problems focused on intense training experiences for counselors and teachers.

Human Relations Training

Studies that are now appearing in the literature vary in terms of successful outcomes. For example, in a study dealing with specific assignments in human relations training and transactional analysis, they were described as follows:

1. To investigate the relative effectiveness of two programmed instructional courses: (a) Transactional analysis, and (b) Human relations in modifying counselor trainees' frame of reference from manipulative to altruistic.
2. To determine which of the above programmed courses had a greater significance in moving counselor trainees manipulative

frame to an altruistic one. Findings were that both the programmed instructional courses (transactional analysis and human relations) used with the experimental groups in the study significantly modified counselor trainees' interpersonal orientation from a manipulative to an altruistic form of reference (DeVincentis, 1974, p. 5014a).

Therefore, Transactional Analysis and Human Relations as a form of a programmed instruction course can modify counselor trainees interpersonal orientation from manipulative to altruistic, and hopefully may be extended to teachers. (DeVincentis, 1974)

Barrett (1974) has stated that human relations training, regardless of its diverse offerings, since its debut, has been applauded, condemned, misunderstood, and misrepresented. (Barrett, 1964) However, the implication of Barrett's training program of her study of beginning counselor trainees in a performance curriculum in human relations strongly suggests that a use of the do-and-teach model is a workable alternative to teaching specific human skills. However, it seemingly would become more sophisticated and effective with further refinement of instruments and additional human relations skills. (Barrett, 1974) This is certainly a positive inference and a possible tool for training the beginning teacher.

Even though the above study related to counselors, Zudick (1971), states that guidance and teaching, which put both the curriculum into operation, cannot be separated. They are part of the same process. Guidance and curriculum must be fully integrated and recognized as being of equal importance in effective education. Therefore, the teacher and counselor, because of the method in which Zudick has cast guidance as

"being inseparable from instruction" must possess many of the same cognitive and affective skills. (Zudick, 1971)

There are some original research efforts which have been conducted illustrating the nature of psychological education as a potentially long term research discipline. In a study of a three year impact of a series of achievement motivation courses given to adult businessmen (McClelland and Winter, 1969), findings demonstrated that achievement motivation training stimulated greater enterpreneurial activity than normal maturation and more than other current types of executive training program. Effectiveness was measured in terms of pay raises, promotions, and major new investments. (McClelland and Winter, 1969)

Weinstein's model is an example of an educational process explicitly designed to promote intentionality. Weinstein (1971), hypothesizes that, by training learners to perceive more accurately their relationship to themselves, others, and the world, and to anticipate more accurately the phenomena of their personal experience, their intentionality, or power to choose their own ways of being, will increase. This hypothesis was verified in the study by linking educational objectives derived from the study of stages of development in children reared in the tradition of Western civilization who were roughly between the ages of three and five years. Inferential methods were used. Educational goals were derived from the definition of humanistic education that is advanced from the data regarding the social development of young children that are described.

Coleman (1966), McClelland and Winter (1969), Luborsky, et. al. (1971) have explored the ideas that motivation, initial attitude, and interest

will influence how much is learned, more so than any other variables or combination of variables controlled by teachers. However, relationships differed depending on sex and teachers of the individuals. Also, the results demonstrated declining attitudes toward school and school related activities as students progress from lower to higher grades.

Ivey's technique has contributed much to the expansion and refinement of basic human relations skills in counselor training. Kratwohl, Kagan, and Farquher (1968) using interpersonal relations training further demonstrated the use of video tape as an effective tool in understanding the complexity of the counseling process. Consequently, this method may have value in researching supervision and training outcomes in other areas.

Ivey (1971) concludes that microtraining is both practical in terms of experience and efficient in terms of productivity. Ivey (1971) presents five basic propositions of microcounseling:

1. Trainer focuses on a single skill for a given period of time.
 2. Trainer practices self-observation and confrontation.
 3. Trainer observes video models of skill to be learned.
 4. Trainer can be exposed to a variety of theoretical approaches.
 5. Trainer participates in live interviewing sessions (Ivey, 1971, p. 11). Thus he practices until he learns the skill in question.
- The results support previous research and indicates that an integrated, didactic experiential training program can increase the level of facilitative functioning, whether assessed from written or oral responses. Also, a significant improvement or change in attitude of the trainees toward their ability to perform these various skills. (Ivey, 1971)

Another example of a systematic training program was Gluckstern's program for parents as community workers in drug education. She combined a group of models in a 60 hour program drawing strategies from each. Initially, she used Weinstein's suggestion to use the individual concerns and goals of each trainee. Team building concepts, counseling skill development, and community development and change techniques were drawn from Simon, Zide, and Shallcross (1973), Carkhuff (1966, 1969), and Ivey (1971). The implications of Gluckstern's findings were that it is not essential to spend as much time in training helpers as is projected by many in the helping profession. Also, if one has gained the skills, he has a unique repertoire of skills to help facilitate continuing rapport in the community. (Gluckstern, 1973)

Hedstrom (1974) in a program for counselor trainees, stated that the training assisted them in becoming more aware of nonverbal communication and described it as a valuable experience. However, in order to increase levels of facilitative skills, it was recommended that further investigation continue to develop and refine training models and instruments for assessing counselor nonverbal communication skills.

Sister Dove (1974) focused upon the changes in attitudes and behaviors which have been associated with participation in a sensitivity group of graduate students. The major result indicated that when group forces are deliberately assembled and utilized for positive growth by a group leader operating under the assumptions and biases of the National Training Laboratories, and employing its methods and techniques; statistically significant positive changes in the same areas of feeling and self-perception can result in certain graduate students after the group's termination.

Human Relations training, at this point of experimentation cannot be justifiably criticized as meaningless or useless. Research studies are appearing which is from the continuum of weak and strong. However, it is certainly evident that the strong studies are in the minority. (Barrett, 1974) Harrison, 1967, Lakin, 1972, Barrett, 1974, maintain that the reason for this may be varied, but the group goals and objectives are placed in an extremely broad context and consequently they confound experiments. The mass of variables operating during treatment in group process is still another consideration of importance. At this time, the position is that there are training variables which are unique and unpredictable, no basic exists for judging the potential worth of T group training from an institutional or organizational point of view. Instead its success or failure must be judged by each individual trainee in terms of his own personal goals. (Campbell and Dunnette, 1968, p. 98F)

Therefore, it is certainly evident that previous approaches seem inappropriate to measure human relation skills. The writer concluded, however, that a organized, sequential performance based on human relations training program may offer promise in improving some of the research issues. Also, the fact that even slight evidence that human relations curricula produce improvement in the acquisition of interpersonal skills is a basic issue which the following approach to human relations training will seek to address.

Theoretical Background of Rollins Model

The paradigm that was established was an integration of the behavioral objectives model of Mager (1962), the hierarchical approach of Wolpe and

Lazarus (1967) used in their therapeutic model of systematic desensitization, and the work of Ivey (1968c) in relaxation, non-verbal communication, attending behavior and decision-making. Mager's (1962) contribution to the building of this program in human relations was his instructional format. The use of behavioral objectives and instructional alternatives provided a format that made clear to the trainee what behaviors he would have and how he could learn these behaviors. The specificity, clarity and conciseness that Mager's format demanded was its major inducement. Wolpe and Lazarus' (1967) contribution was to provide an instructional structure for that format. Wolpe and Lazarus' use of hierarchies seemed to be a logical way to organize the material in a sequential manner. The hierarchies aided the trainee in seeing the interrelated quality of each behavioral objective and instructional alternative in each skill area. Ivey's (1968c) contribution was primarily in the development of instructional approaches and the listing of specific human relations skills. The four skills selected from Ivey's work were chosen due to both a priori and a postiori reasoning. More specifically, these four skills of relaxation, non-verbal communication, attending behavior and decision-making appeared to be basic components of human relations. This decision as indicated above was based on observation, intuition and review of the literature, both technical and popular. Basically, then, the training program was an admixture of three relatively diverse systems that were joined together, not in a force fit, but rather in a very natural marriage to form a workable training program in human relations. (Rollin, 1979, pp. 4-5)

The basic tenets of the training program have remained intact. The changes have been made in curriculum sequence. The rationale for these changes were to increase performance outcomes and to extend the length of time for the use and teach method.

The Rollin Model

Rollin has basically formulated his model from Polanyi (1966), using his concept of "tacit knowing." The main characteristic of tacit knowing is skill acquisition and use of spontaneity. Rollin has used the principles of "tacit knowing" (1966) by developing and using the do-use-teach process in developing an "individual behavioral repertoire." In other words, the procedure is to have the individual "do" a particular designated skill such as the behavioral constructs of sensory awakening and relaxation. Secondly, the individual "uses" the skill in the necessary context to gain some proficiency in using it. The final element is to assess if the desired competency has been achieved, by asking the individual to teach the skill to another person who has not had the training. The added dimension is to observe the trainee in the practicum setting using Flander's Interaction Matrix.

Rollin uses Mager's (1962) Instructional Behavioral Objectives as a basic design for his performance curriculum. These behavioral objectives and instructional alternatives, which are presented as hierarchical structure, provide the crux of Rollin's performance curriculum. The divisions in the hierarchies were derived from Wolpe and Lazarus' Systematic Desensitization Process.

The essential elements of Rollin's Performance Curriculum in human relations are:

1. specificity of human relations skills and target behaviors (Rollin, 1970);
2. utilization of humanistic learning processes (Brown, 1968); and
3. insight based on empirical data that group dynamics may improve interpersonal skills via the use of structured human relations activities (Lippitt, 1959).

This general hypothesis will be subdivided into hierarchies as defined by Rollin using two instruments to test each skill or hierarchy.

Rollin generated nine hypotheses to test the feasibility of the performance curriculum in human relations. Rollin's hierarchies are stated as follows:

Hypothesis 1: The discrepancy between the trainees' self-concept will become significantly smaller than the discrepancy between the self-concept and goal self-concept of those who did not receive the training.

The Miskimins' Self-Goal-Other Test (Miskimins, 1967) was used as the outcome measure for this hypothesis. A sign test was used to compute the change between the pre-test and post-test means for both the trained and non-trained groups.

Hierarchy I - Relaxation

Hypothesis 2: Those trainees who received training in physical awareness will manifest a significantly different DAF change score after training than those not trained.

The Delayed Auditory Feedback (DAF) was used as the measure on the dependent variable for this hypothesis. A sign test was used as the measure on the dependent variable for this hypothesis. A sign test was used to compute change between the pre-test and post-test scores for both the trained and non-trained group.

Hypothesis 3: The semantic differential scores on the concept of relaxation will become significantly more favorable in the experimental group than in the control group.

The semantic differential was used as the outcome measure for this hypothesis. A parametric statistic would not be used to test this hypothesis due to the failure of the data to meet the requirement of normal distribution of scores around the means. The sign test, a non-parametric statistic, was used instead to test the differences between pre-test and post-test scores for both groups.

Hierarchy II - Non-verbal Awareness

Hypothesis 4: Students receiving training will improve their non-verbal skills and will manifest a higher score on the NVPET after training than those not trained.

The Non-verbal Performance Evaluation Test was used as the outcome measure for this hypothesis. A sign test was used to examine changes in scores between the pre-test and post-test for both the trained and not trained groups.

Hypothesis 5: The semantic differential scores on the concept of 'non-verbal communication' will become significantly more favorable in the experimental group than in the control group.

A semantic differential was used as the outcome measure for this hypothesis. Due to the marked skewness of the distribution of scores, a parametric statistic could not be used. A non-parametric statistic, the sign test, was used to test this hypothesis. This statistic was used to test the differences between pre-test and post-test scores for both groups.

Hierarchy III - Attending Behavior

Hypothesis 6: Those receiving training in attending behavior will significantly improve their scores on the ABS after training than those not trained.

The Attending Behavior Scale (ABS) was used as the outcome measure to test this hypothesis. A sign test was used to analyze the data generated as a result of the testing of Hypothesis 6.

Hypothesis 7: Semantic differential scores on the concept of 'attending behavior' will become significantly more favorable in the experimental group than in the control group.

A semantic differential was used as the outcome measure for this hypothesis. A sign test was used to test this hypothesis. The sign test was used because of the marked skewness of the data.

Hierarchy IV - Decision Making

Hypothesis 8: Those students receiving training in decision making will significantly improve their scores on the DMT while the untrained group will not improve.

The Decision Making Test (DMT) was used as the outcome measure for Hypothesis 8. A sign test was used to test any changes in scores

from pre-test to post-test for both the trained and non-trained groups.

Hypothesis 9: The semantic differential scores on the concept of 'decision making' will become significantly more favorable in the experimental group than in the control group.

A semantic differential was used as the outcome measure for this hypothesis. As in the results of all the data gathered from the semantic differentials used in this study, the results were not normally distributed and therefore a non-parametric statistic had to be employed. The sign test was used to make the statistical evaluations for this hypothesis (Rollin, 1970, pp. 55-58).

In summary, the above assumptions concerning the use of human relations training programs, systematic designs, and designs in combination with procedures, developed with a specific goal in mind have a greater chance for being effective than a 'hit and miss' approach to the development of psychological education. The literature also strongly suggests that even though there have been a variety of experiences in human relations development, there are no programs specifically designed to enhance teacher training. The study includes a review of the related alternative and some of the philosophical tenets that were found to be crucial to this study.

Affective Education Curriculum Programs

Soveaney (1974), in a study to determine the effects of an affective curriculum program on the awareness, self-concept, and social interaction

of first grade students in a public school setting, found some questionable results. At the very beginning of his study, Soveaney had a more general and far reaching goal for the study than presented in the purpose. Soveaney hoped to be able to evaluate the potentials of an affective curriculum supplement as a technique for use in a developmental counseling program. Statistical data obtained suggest the following: (1) there was no significant difference in self-concept in those receiving the training and those not receiving the training; (2) there was no significant differences in awareness in those receiving the training and those not receiving the training. However, the social interaction was questionable, because significant differences were found to exist between experimental and control groups on the pre-test measures and could be considered as equivalent in respect to the social interaction variable.

Another setting in which the humanistic education curriculum was used in evaluating the effects on attitude, self-concept, and anxiety was done by Kalunian (1974). He used two types of tests in his study, namely the "Dimensions of Personality Series" upon primary school teachers' attitudes, and school achievement of primary children. Subjects were 127 students and six teachers at grades, one, two, and three in a Southeastern Massachusetts school system. Subjects were assigned to treatment and control groups on the basis of random alphabetized selection and were administered to for one hour per week for thirty school weeks. The criterion measures administered were: (1) Self-Appraisal Inventory, (2) Test Anxiety Scale for Children, (3) Stanford Achievement Test, and (4) Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

The results indicated that the treatment process did not influence the development of enhancing positive teacher attitudes toward students. Hence, Hypothesis 1 was not supported. Students who experience the presentations of the humanistic education curriculum did experience a significantly greater increase in positive self-concept for all grade levels (Hypothesis 2), and did experience a significant reduction in test anxiety (Hypothesis 3) for grades two and three. No significant positive change in school achievement was noted, hence Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

The implications of the findings were that the inclusion of a Humanistic Education Curriculum within the school curriculum can play an important role in enhancing positive self-concepts and can assist in helping students reduce test anxiety. A need was indicated for further study of the utilization of a different treatment process and use of a different duration length of the treatment process.

The preceding study indicated positive findings. However, Slavson (1974) did a study with first and second graders to determine the impact of selected teacher characteristics on the self-concepts of the children within an affective education program. The characteristics of the teachers were measured by interaction analysis. The conclusions were:

1. There were no significant differences in self-concept from those in the regular school curriculum over the academic year.
2. The control group exhibited a small, but significant change toward positive congruency in the years duration, while the experimental group demonstrated no change.

3. Students who were exposed to indirect teacher influence were not significantly different from those exposed to direct influence in either self-concept or positive congruency.

4. Although teachers participating in the Human Development Program did not differ significantly in classroom verbal behavior patterns from non-program teachers, teachers did differ significantly from themselves in the two settings, that is the regular classroom and the program.

Other studies include one by Christensen (1960) where a significant positive relationship was found between the degrees of teacher warmth and student achievement level in measures of vocabulary and mathematics. Reed (1962) and Cogan (1958) found that teachers who offered high degrees of warmth favorably affected their students' interest. Truax and Tatum (1966) studied the effects of empathy, positive regard, and genuineness communicated to preschool children by their teachers and found the empathy and positive regard were significantly related to positive degrees in the child's adjustment to school. Griffin and Banks (1969) conducted systematic human relations training for teachers working with inner-city students. Following the training, the teachers demonstrated high levels of interpersonal skills, and the elementary students were unanimous in evaluating the learning as the best in their school years.

Sheerin (1974) explored the possibilities of an affective curriculum model in which the relationships between self-actualization and academic achievement were the base. The purpose of the study was to identify specific, developmental, linked educational objectives derived from a study of the stages of social development in children between the ages of three and five years reared in the tradition of Western Civilization.

Educational goals are derived inferentially from the definition of humanistic education and the data described regarding social development of young children.

The study suggests that both broad and specific areas for research in curriculum design and teacher preparation are needed if the goals outlined are to be translated into operational modes of working with children. She further indicates that literary works of contemporary and historical "romantic" educator, curricular models which deal with the affective dimension of learning, and descriptions of flexible models and actual learning environments (i.e., the British infant school design) are suggested as possible useful sources for a curricula model that incorporates the objectives identified in the study into a total growth-oriented environment for young children. It is suggested that since education is one of the helping professions, that the connection between the preparation and functioning of successful therapists, social workers, counselors, and other helpers, might fruitfully be investigated by educational researchers.

This study identifies specific areas to be researched in both the design of learning environments and the preparation of teachers. These areas provide necessary goals for developing teachers who are sensitive, competent adults who understand the need for and have the skills required for sound educational intervention. Intervention here is viewed as the facilitation of natural development.

Future investigations, relative to the multiple and effective use of affective education applicable to the classroom are definitely appropriate. Although research in this area is supportive, it is scarce. Nonetheless,

the practice by counselor educators of advocating that humanistically-oriented curricula is promising. (Barrett, 1975) However, there is an indication that further investigation is needed to determine whether these curricula should be performance based.

Chapter 3

Method and Procedure

Selection of Subjects

In this chapter, the methods and procedures used to test and evaluate the organized curriculum in human relations will be reviewed. Included within this section will be the selection of subjects, procedure, specific hypothesis, trainers, raters' skill and inter-raters' reliability, instrumentation, design and the statistical analysis.

Founded in 1868, Hampton Institute is a predominantly black, four year, co-educational, nonsectarian, privately supported institution of higher education. The middle-class, integrated student body of approximately 2900 students comes from 35 states and 19 foreign countries.

The college is organized into six academic divisions and majors are offered in 26 areas. Teacher Education is one of the academic divisions which is organized into departments. The Elementary Department has under its "umbrella" Elementary (including elementary/special endorsement) Department and Early Childhood Department.

An invitation to participate in a Human Relations Training program was mailed to all senior student teachers in Early Childhood and Elementary Education in May 1978. Students were informed that academic credit would not be offered for participation in the program; however, the study sought the interest of volunteers. Fortunately, all 49 volunteers included the total number of seniors in the department. Selection was conducted by placing each student's social security number in a box and randomly selecting 40 from the 49 volunteers. The entire

population consisted of females. The average age of the participants was 21, with two participants being 26 years old, and having had some previous teaching experience. Three of the participants were married. Once the total group of 40 was selected, 20 were randomly selected and assigned to the experimental group, and 20 were randomly selected and assigned to the control group.

The experimental group and the control group were further randomly divided into Solomon's four sub-groups and labeled Experimental Group One, Control Group One; Experimental Group Two, and Control Group Two, so as to be able to control and analyze for pre-test measures. In all random assignments only the social security numbers were used for each group's placement.

Procedure

The primary aim of the study was to examine the classroom effects and interpersonal learning that occurs as a result of training in a performance program in human relations skills. The program consisted of affective learning activities employed as an educational tool in the curricula. The procedure was to use a systematically organized, sequential approach to instruction. The organized program was taught as a regular course in the education sequence for Elementary and Early Childhood students for the experimental groups.

Initially, experimental group one and control group one of the randomly selected groups were pre-tested. These participants rated themselves on the following scales: Self-Concept (SC), the Perceived Response of Others (PRO), the Goal (G) scales of the Miskimins' Discrepancy

Scales (MSGO, 1971), and the Adjective Check List (ACL, 1965). The other two groups were post-tested only.

The classes were held in the evenings following student teaching classes. The program employed a do, use, and teach approach. That is, the trainer would demonstrate the use of the skill and the students would participate in simulated activities to demonstrate the use of the skill. The skills would be used later in the classroom of the young child. Various resource professionals participated as consultants in many of the phases of the program. Following each exercise, tests were administered within the groups according to Pfeiffer and Jones' (1974) outline of activities in the selected areas (see Appendix A). The subjects were rated either high or low following the teaching, the experimenting, and the opportunities for modeling the behavior of each hierarchy. Additionally, the experimenter was able to assess each student's attitudes toward a specific concept based on their scores and demonstrated use of the skills.

The control group received general lectures concerning teacher-pupil interaction. Also, lectures on classroom management, and some of the newer approaches to therapy, such as Rational Emotive, and Transactional Analysis, which can be used with the five to twelve year old child, were provided.

In the final phases of the session, all participants were taped by a trained observer in a classroom setting. These tapes were later transcribed and placed on Flanders Matrix for Classroom Observation of teacher-pupil verbal interactions. These transcriptions were used to

assess the levels of interactions between teacher and pupil after the training, and of those not receiving the training.

The outstanding characteristic of the training program was the element of flexibility which allowed the program to be altered according to the demonstrated needs of the groups.

The treatment consisted of the following phases (see chart on page 37):

1. Introduction and relevant discussion of the skill relative to the objectives for its inclusion in the curriculum.
2. Experimentation with activities related to the skill being taught.
3. Discussion of varied applications of the skill in the trainees' personal experiences and the utilization of the skill in the trainees' interpersonal relationships.
4. Instruction of the skill requiring that each trainee teach another trainee in the newly required skill.
5. Implementation of the microcounseling paradigm involving the training of undergraduate clients in the newly acquired skill and observation of interactions of the classroom.

Appropriate statistical application was implemented through the use of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Nie, et. al, 1970).

This replicate study differed from Rollin's study in Timing. Rollin trained his experimental group from six to eight hours per day over a period of thirty days; this training was administered for three hours each session for a period of nine weeks. Changes were made to modify the approach based on recommendations made by Rollin (1970) and Barrett (1974).

General Format For Teaching Skills In Hierarchies

| First Week | Second Week | Third Week |
|---|--|--|
| Initially, the first week of sessions will be organized for the purpose of getting acquainted, outlining the program, voicing personal concerns, and beginning assignments in didactic inputs. (Keats, (1974) | Open meeting of the group. (Keats, 1971, 1974) A. Purpose B. Didactic Input | Fundamentals of Counseling. A. Reality Therapy B. Behavioral Counseling |
| Fourth Week | Fifth Week | Sixth Week |
| Readings: "Social Modeling, Cognitive and Multiple Techniques." | Value Clarification Exercises Strategies | Psychological Education for Racial Awareness Readings - The Black Child Exercises - Racial Awareness Lecturer - "The Black Experience" Group Counseling in the School Transactional Analysis Lecturer |
| Seventh Week | Eighth Week | Ninth Week |
| Exercises: Growth Cards Role Nominations, Group Self-Evaluations, Complete Group-Climate Inventory. | Demonstrations of techniques used with child to develop specific affective skills. | Evaluations and Exercises. |

Trainers

The trainer, an advanced degree candidate in counselor education, conceptualized her task as one of perpetuating an environment which would promote interpersonal development and experience-based learning. The trainer had prior experience in teaching a curriculum experience in self-awareness to young children, and also, extensive other experiences in group interactions and human relations training.

The consultants were specialists in the various areas, most of whom had completed the terminal degree. For those who had not completed the terminal degree, all still possessed substantial experience in the selected area.

Raters' Skill and Inter-raters' Reliability

Flanders (1968) states that it is necessary that users of the Matrix have thorough knowledge of the categories since this is basic to the use of this technique for analyzing teacher-pupil interaction. Once the technique is mastered, Raters should practice by categorizing statements from tapes of various teaching situations.

In order to assure observer reliability, Flanders Training Process (Amidon, 1969) was used with all participating observers. Initially, it was necessary for the observers to work in groups categorizing tapes from a fixture-minute tape recording. Amidon's (1969) Levels I and II were used for eighteen hours, followed by discussions of the difficulties in assigning categories. After the first three sessions, the observers were beginning to develop the ability to make judgments easily and to

categorize consistently. Additional tapes were made for each observer to use at home for follow-up practice. Once the taped sessions were made by the participant, two observers individually listened to each tape in short segments, recording what was felt to be correct for that section of the tape. Two observers worked together and one would call out the number aloud as he recorded. When the two did not agree, that specific section of the tape would be replayed and the correct categorization would be discussed by the observers. At some points, it was necessary for the trainer to become involved in the discussion to help in the final designation of the categories. As asserted by Amidon (1967) during the early practice section, it was certainly obvious to the trainers that the discrimination required in observation is not authentic. A great deal of practice experiences are required to develop the skill to make accurate judgments necessary.

Kendall Tau (1962) was used to assess the degree of interaction reliability across selected segments of several tapes. The results of this reliability check revealed strong consistency across raters. All correlations were equivalent to $r = .85$ or higher.

Instrumentation

This section of the study addresses itself to the selection of instruments used to measure the effectiveness of the Human Relations Training Program. Three Instruments were used and may be described as follows:

1. Miskimins - Self Goal-Other Discrepancy Scale (1971). MSGO, (1971) used to measure self-concept changes. The scale was selected

because it provides data related to the general, social emotional, and personal ways an individual views himself. The test items presented on the instrument are arranged in a nine point semantic differential scale. There are a total of twenty items with five items in each of the above categories. For this study, as suggested by Rollins, (1970), the total discrepancy score, from pre-test to post-test, was used to assess major changes, rather than an assessment of the discrepancies in each individual category. Rollins, (1971) has reported, in testing the reliability of the MSGO with twenty-one subjects that the retest reliability was computed as .85. Miskinmins (1968) reported that reliability test, the MSGO with fifty-one individuals yielded the following correlations: Self-concept = .80, Perceived Response of Others $r = .73$, (p. 21), Miskinis (1968) stated that in a correlation of the MSGO with the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale (MAS) was .67 for fifteen items ($N = 63$), (8).

2. Adjective Check List (Gough, 1971). This scale was selected because it can be used to measure the improved feelings about one self via use of favorable and unfavorable adjectives. The ACL (1971) was used to obtain several indices related to self-esteem. The self-confidence index was developed by selecting self-descriptors of people rated high and low on traits such as poise and self-confidence. The number of adjectives checked which indicated low self-confidence are subtracted from those checked which are indicated of high confidence. Scores are also standardized according to the total numbers of adjectives checked. The list is composed of 300 words which may be described as an intuitive and subjective appraisal, empirical testing, and a three year over-all evaluation. (Gough, 1971)

A sample of 100 men filled out the check list twice, approximately six months apart. For each man a four-fold point surface was tallied, counting adjectives checked both times, neither time, the first but the second, and the second but not the first. Phi coefficients were then computed for each of the 100 distributions. These test-retest reliability coefficients varied from a low of + .01 to a high of + .86, with a mean + .54 and a standard deviation of .19. The mean reliability figure here is not high and suggested that the self-image that projected in ACL response is perhaps not as stable as that found in self-report inventories using items and questions.

However, in an assessment at the Institute of Personality Assessment and Research, 10 assesses are utilized to fill out ACL to describe each assesses. The check of each five are summed up these two total can then be correlated over the series of 300 adjectives, to show the agreement between the two groups of judges. From the study of 100 men already discussed, five cases were drawn for illustration: the 20th, 40th, 60th, 80th, and 100th subject. The five inter-groups reliability coefficient obtained were as follows (corrected by the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula, as we are interested in the reliability for the full group of 10 judges): .70, .63, .61, .75, .61. These values are satisfactory and indicate that the ACL can be used by trained observers to describe others with adequate reliability. (Gough, 1971)

Raters used to transcribe and evaluate Flanders Interaction taped lessons were trained until they achieved an inter-raters reliability of $r = .85$ or higher.

3. Flanders Interaction Analysis. The Flanders Interaction Analysis technique was used for its reliability in collecting the data regarding verbal classroom behavior. It was assumed that the verbal behavior that an individual displays is an adequate sample of his total behavior.

Flanders' levels of teaching are known as Flanders' Interaction Analysis Categories (FIAC). Interaction analysis in a classroom refers to many systems for coding spontaneous verbal communication, arranging the data into a useful display, and then analyzing the results in order to study patterns of teaching and learning. It can be useful whenever it is necessary to record the presence or absence of particular behavior patterns during a period of observations. (Flanders, 1970) This type of analysis can be used for in-service education in order to help teachers improve classroom instruction. Classroom interaction analysis is particularly concerned with the influence pattern of the teacher. This might be considered a bias, but it is a bias of purpose and interest. Flanders' (1968) purpose was to record a series of acts in terms of predetermined concepts. The concepts in this case refer to the teacher's control of the students' freedom of action. His interest was to distinguish those acts of the teacher that increase students' freedom of action from those acts that decrease such action, and to keep a record of both. A system of categories (Flanders, 1968) was used by an observer to separate those acts which result in compliance from those acts which invite more creative and voluntary participation; at the same time, it prevents him from being diverted by the subject matter since it was irrelevant to this study. Flanders (1968) describes it by stating:

Interaction is concerned primarily with verbal behavior because it can be observed with higher reliability than most nonverbal behavior. The assumption is made that the verbal behavior of the teacher is an adequate sample of his total behavior; that is, his verbal statements are consistent with his nonverbal gestures, in fact, his total behavior. This assumption seems reasonable in terms of our experience (Flanders, 1968, p. 258).

Scott's (1955) observers, conducting audio tape analyses using Flanders Matrix, found an inter-observer reliability of $r = .82$ or higher. This score was obtained by two independently trained observers. Barrett's (1974) Inter-observers, conducting observations obtained an inter-relaters reliability from all trained observers of $r = .85$ or higher.

Design

Basically, the design used in this study was a replication of Rollins (1970) performance based human relations skills design. Rollins (1970) used an adaption of Campbell and Stanley's (1963) experimental design number four. This design provided for the application of random assignment to treatment and control groups with the administration of pre- and post-test measures.

In this study, however, a Solomon Four Group Design was utilized in order to control and analyze the effect of pre-test reactive measures. Campbell and Stanley (1963) maintain that relevant to internal validity, eight different classes of extraneous variables must be controlled in the experimental design, might produce effects confounded with the effect

of the experimental stimulus. As a result, the Solomon Four Design was selected because of its strong internal validity.

Soloman Four Group Design

| | | | |
|-------|---|-------|---------------------------|
| O_1 | x | O_2 | Experimental ₁ |
| O_3 | | O_4 | Control ₁ |
| | x | O_5 | Experimental ₂ |
| | | O_6 | Control ₂ |

Also it differed from Rollins' study in timing. Rollins trained his experimental groups from six to eight hours per day, over a period of thirty days. The training period for this investigation involved the participants for three hours each session for a period of nine weeks. These changes were made to modify the approach based upon the recommendations made by Rollins (1970).

Statistical Analysis

The statistical analysis used in this study employed nonparametric and parametric techniques. Hypotheses 1 and 2 were submitted to a two-way analysis of variance.

Statistical Analysis for MSGO and ACL Data

| | | |
|----------------|----------|----------|
| | <u>E</u> | <u>C</u> |
| Pre-tested | O_1 | O_1 |
| Not Pre-tested | O_2 | O_2 |

Hypothesis 3 was tested by a test analysis of direct and indirect talk and the proportion of student and teacher talk for independent means.

In instances where correlations measures were necessary, the Kendall's table Tau was applied.

Specific Hypothesis

The major hypothesis of this study may be cited as follows: After having experiences in a performance based program in human relations, there will be no significant changes in attitudes, verbal communication, and interpersonal skills of the subject involved. It is hoped that as a result of this use of Rollins' Performance Model (1970), an organized sequential training course for teachers will involve equipping each teacher with facilitative skills. It is also hoped that the use of this model will extend the scope of the teacher training programs and as a result, providing for the teacher a comprehensive guidance orientation which will be workable in the affective domain and utilized in classroom interactions with the young child. Further, variations in treatments will be used as recommended by Rollins (1970) in an effort to increase positive behavioral outcomes in these proposed procedures (see Appendix B).

The general hypothesis will be divided into specific hypotheses using the three instruments--Miskimins, (1971), Adjective Check List, (1965), and Flanders Interaction Analysis, (1965), to test skill or hierarchy.

The statistical hypotheses are stated in null form:

1. a. There will be no significant difference in the MSGO discrepancy score on the self-concept scale between those receiving the training and those not receiving the training.
- b. There will be no significant difference in the MSGO discrepancy score on the goal scale between those receiving the training and those not receiving the training.
- c. There will be no significant difference in the MSGO discrepancy score on the Other scale between those receiving the training and those not receiving the training.
2. There will be no significant difference in surgency and drive between those receiving the training and those not receiving training as measured by the Adjective Check List.
3. a. There will be no significant difference between the trained and control groups in the proportion of direct and indirect teacher behavior as measured by Flanders Interaction Analysis.
- b. There will be no significant difference between the trained and control groups in the proportion of teacher-talk and student-talk as measured by Flanders Interaction Analysis.

Summary

The primary purpose of this study was to use a performance program in human relations consisting of skills in affective learning activities.

The participants were forty students in Early Childhood and Elementary Education. Twenty students made up the control group. The data was collected by using the Miskimins' Self-Goal-Other Discrepancy Scales (MSGO), the Adjective Check List (ACL) and Flanders' Interaction Analysis for classroom assessment. The procedure used in this study is a replication study of Rollin's (1970) original study and utilizes the Solomon Four Group Design. Hypotheses were tested statistically using two-way analysis of variance and T test for independent means.

Chapter 4

Results and Analyses

In this chapter, the statistical analysis for each hypothesis is presented. The MSGO (1971), Adjective Check List (1965), and Flanders Interaction Matrix (1968) were used to test the appropriate hypothesis generated by this study.

Hypothesis 1 - There will be no significant difference in the Miskimins' Self-Goal-Others concept scale of those receiving the training and those not receiving the training.

The participants rated themselves on the Self-Concept (SC), the Perceived Response of Others (PRO) Scale, and the Goal (G) scale of the Miskimins Self-Goal-Others Discrepancy test. The null hypothesis tested was that there were no significant differences between the experimental and control groups. The analysis produced (Tables, 1, 2, and 3) indicated completely that there were no significant differences between the experimental and control groups at post-testing. The results provided no reason to reject the null hypothesis. Therefore, since a statistically significant value was not obtained, it appears that there was no demonstrated change between the experimental and control group on the Self-Concept Measure. Finding for the MSGO are presented in Tables 1, 2 and 3.

Hypothesis 2 - There will be no significant difference in pre-to post-test change of surgency and drive for those receiving the training,

TABLE 1

Analysis of Post-Test Means of Miskimin's Self Scale

| | Treatment | | Control | | |
|---------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|-------|
| Pre-tested | \bar{x} = 50.9 | \bar{x} = 51.3 | \bar{x} = 45.4 | \bar{x} = 22.8 | |
| | (SD = 14.8) | (SD = 12.8) | (SD = 14.0) | (SD = 22.8) | |
| Not Pre-tested | \bar{x} = 48.5 | \bar{x} = 45.4 | \bar{x} = 45.4 | \bar{x} = 22.8 | |
| | (SD = 14.0) | (SD = 22.8) | (SD = 14.0) | (SD = 22.8) | |
| MSGO Self Post | | | | | |
| Analysis of Test | | | | | |
| Source of Variation | Sum of Sq. | DF | Mean Sq. | F | P |
| Main effects | 40353.7 | 2 | 20176.8 | 1.039 | 0.364 |
| Group | 10432.8 | 1 | 10432.8 | 0.537 | 0.468 |
| Pre-testing | 29920.8 | 1 | 29920.8 | 1.541 | 0.222 |
| Two Way Inter- | 10692.9 | 1 | 10692.9 | 0.551 | 0.463 |
| actions | 10692.8 | 1 | 10692.8 | 0.551 | 0.463 |

TABLE 2

Analysis of Post-Test Means of Miskimin's Goal Scale

| | Treatment | | Control | | |
|----------------------------|-------------|-------------------|-----------------|----------|----------|
| Pre-tested | \bar{x} = | 28.3 | \bar{x} = | 31.4 | |
| | (SD = | 4.66) | (SD = | 8.3) | |
| Non Pre-tested | \bar{x} = | 27.7 | \bar{x} = | 26.3 | |
| | (SD = | 4.87) | (SD = | 6.2) | |
| MSGO Goal-Post | | | | | |
| Analysis of Test | | | | | |
| <u>Source of Variation</u> | <u>DF</u> | <u>Sum of Sq.</u> | <u>Mean Sq.</u> | <u>F</u> | <u>P</u> |
| Main effects | 2 | 3918.8 | 1959.4 | 0.741 | 0.484 |
| Group | 1 | 18.2 | 18.2 | 0.007 | 0.934 |
| Pre-testing | 1 | 3900.6 | 3900.6 | 1.475 | 0.232 |
| Two Way Inter- | 1 | 30.6 | 30.6 | 0.012 | 0.915 |
| actions | 1 | 30.6 | 30.6 | 0.012 | 0.915 |

TABLE 3

Analysis of Post-Test Means of Miskimin's Other Scale

| | Treatment | | Control | |
|----------------|-------------|-------|-------------|-------|
| Pre-tested | \bar{x} = | 51.9 | \bar{x} = | 43.1 |
| | (SD = | 16.8) | (SD = | 11.9) |
| Not Pre-tested | \bar{x} = | 50.9 | \bar{x} = | 34.8 |
| | (SD = | 20.2) | (SD = | 8.7) |

| | MSGO Other Post | | | | |
|---------------------|-----------------|----|----------|-------|-------|
| Source of Variation | Sum of Sq. | DF | Mean Sq. | F | P |
| Main effects | 909.2 | 2 | 1959.4 | 0.294 | 0.747 |
| Group | 25.6 | 1 | 18.2 | 0.017 | 0.098 |
| Pre-testing | 883.6 | 1 | 3900.6 | 0.572 | 0.454 |
| Two Way Inter- | 1081.6 | 1 | 30.6 | 0.700 | 0.408 |
| actions | 1081.6 | 1 | 30.6 | 0.700 | 0.408 |

and those not receiving the training, as measured on the Adjective Check List.

To test Hypothesis 2, the Adjective Check List (ACL) was used since it measures the improved feelings about oneself, through the use of favorable and unfavorable adjectives. The number of adjectives checked which are indicative of low self-confidence are subtracted from those checked which are indicative of high self-confidence.

The data analyzed in Table 4 is a two-way analysis of variance using the Adjective Check List post-test scores. The results indicate that the null hypothesis can be rejected at the .05 level of significance. There was a treatment effect with no indication of pre-test sensitization.

There was a significant difference between the two groups at post-testing. Observing the mean for the experimental group shows higher performance ($\bar{x} = 140.0$ and a standard deviation of $SD = 67.3$) and (Mean Score $\bar{x} = 112.5$ and a standard deviation of $SD = 35.4$) when compared with the control group (Mean score of $\bar{x} = 88.6$ and standard deviation of $SD = 28.5$), and ($\bar{x} = 101.3$ and a standard deviation of $SD = 28.1$). A summary of the analysis is presented in Table 4.

Hypothesis 3 - There will be no significant difference between treatment and control groups in the proportion of direct-indirect ratios as measured on the Flanders' Interaction Analysis Matrix.

The null hypothesis was tested by the independent t-test analysis which indicated that there was no significant difference between the experimental and the control groups on direct and indirect ratios.

TABLE 4

Analysis of Post-Test Means of Adjective Check List

| | Treatment | Control |
|----------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Pre-tested | $\bar{x} = 140.0$ (SD = 67.3) | $\bar{x} = 88.6$ (SD = 28.5) |
| Non Pre-tested | $\bar{x} = 112.5$ (SD = 35.4) | $\bar{x} = 101.3$ (SD = 28.1) |

Analysis of the Adjective Check List Post-Test

| Source of Variation | Sum of Sq. | DF | Mean Sq. | F | P |
|---------------------|------------|----|----------|-------|-------|
| Main effects | 10344.4 | 2 | 5172.2 | 2.796 | 0.074 |
| Group | 9796.8 | 1 | 9796.8 | 5.296 | 0.027 |
| Pre-testing | 547.6 | 1 | 547.6 | 0.296 | 0.590 |
| Two Way Inter- | 4040.1 | 1 | 4040.1 | 2.184 | 0.148 |
| actions | 4040.1 | 1 | 4040.1 | 2.184 | 0.148 |

Table 5

Analysis of Teacher-Talk/Student-Talk
Indirect/Direct Ratios

| | <u>Treatment</u> | | <u>Control</u> | | T Value | P |
|---------------------------|------------------|------|----------------|------|---------|-------|
| | Mean | SD | Mean | SD | | |
| Teacher Talk | 51.4 | 10.1 | 38.0 | 10.5 | 4.09 | 0.000 |
| Student Talk | 45.0 | 9.5 | 44.5 | 17.9 | 0.19 | 0.904 |
| Indirect/ Direct Ratio | 61.1 | 23.9 | 57.8 | 22.8 | 0.45 | 0.658 |

38 degrees of freedom

N = 20

Therefore, a statistically significant value was not obtained. Hence, there was no change demonstrated between the experimental and control groups on this measure. Findings for the I-D ratio are presented in Table 5.

A supplementary analysis was done with 8's (student response) and 9's (student talk-initiation). Chi^2 Value = 3.20 was obtained when accompanying the proportion of experimental and control subjects with 8's and 9's. The required critical value with one degree of freedom was 3.84. Therefore, no significant differences are discernible at the 0.5 level of confidence.

Hypothesis 3B - There will be no significant difference between treatment and control groups in the proportion of teacher-talk and student-talk ratios as measured by Flanders' Interaction Analysis.

T-test analysis was used to test this hypothesis. As indicated in Table 5, the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternate hypothesis was supported. It was revealed that the significant difference between the proportion of teacher-talk and student-talk at the .001 level. The results indicated that there was significant difference between the two groups at post-testing.

Chapter 5

Summary

This study was designed to test the feasibility of using an organized, sequential training program in human relations in order to equip teachers with facilitative skills. Additionally, the future use of the model is intended to extend the scope of teacher training programs, and to enhance comprehensive guidance orientation programs which will be utilized in classroom interaction with the young child. The criterion measures applied in this study were: Adjective Check List (1965), Miskimins' Self-Goal-Other Discrepancy Scale (1967), and Flanders' Interaction Analysis (1970).

The trainees in the program were all seniors in the Early Childhood and Elementary Education student teaching block at Hampton Institute, a four year liberal arts college. Forty students were selected from a pool of 49 volunteers. Assignment to the experimental groups was conducted by using a table of random numbers coded only by the social security numbers of the volunteers. The trainer was a specialist in guidance and counseling and group processes. Consultants in guidance and counseling and selected areas were used at specific intervals to enhance and extend the scope of the training.

The research design used in this replication study follows Rollin's (1970) original study, with the additional adaptation of a Solomon Four experimental design in order measure and control for any reactive and sensitized effects that might occur or bias the results. This design was not used in the original study. Basically, the design provided for

application of random assignment to both the treatment and control groups with the administration of pre- and post-tests to two groups only, and the post-test to all groups.

The findings of the study were analyzed in an effort to examine the effect of a human relations training program on the verbal behavior and interactions of teachers in the classroom of the young child. Self-concepts, and changes in interpersonal and intrapersonal skills were also investigated. Another facet examined by the study was the degree of change in self-perception that occurred following the opportunity for interaction, and the actual participation in the program. The findings were discussed in regard to implications for further research, and the limitations of the present study.

Three specific hypotheses were tested and analyzed by this study. These three hypotheses were subdivided into the following distinct groups:

That training would diminish the discrepancy existing between the trainee's present self-concepts, and how they were viewed by others.

That the training would increase the trainees' skills in surgency and drive.

That the training would result in differences in the proportions of direct and indirect ratios of teacher, and teacher-talk, student-talk ratios.

Findings of the study revealed that:

There was no significant change between the experimental and control groups in the discrepancy score on self-concept, goal concept, and trainees' perception of how they were viewed by others;

There was a statistically significant improvement in surgency and drive of the trainees;

There was no evidence that most of the trainees who received the training appeared to be more indirect; and

There was a significant difference in teacher-talk, student-talk ratios. Clinical evidence supports the fact that the experimental group had become more open positively and personally in their interactions with others.

Conclusions and Discussion

An initial question was whether training resulted in any changes in the trainees' self-concept. The MSGO (Miskimins' Self-Goal-Other) Discrepancy Scale was used to measure any changes in the self-concept of the trainees that might occur as a result of training. The results of MSGO did not reveal significant improvement between the pre-training and the post-training period for the experimental group. However, after reviewing each participant's MSGO performance, specific clinical observations can be made about those participants in the experimental group. For example, in the experimental group there was demonstrated improvement in how the participants referred to themselves even though measures of the self-concept did not identify a pattern that was considered statistically significant. The participants tended to evaluate themselves

more positively on the Self-Concept (SC) and Perceived Response of Others (PRO) scales of the MSGO as the training developed.

Another observation indicated that there was a positive interaction within the experimental group as they increased in self-awareness, and specifically in how others in the group viewed them. Barrett (1974), in her study, stated that although the test data appeared to provide only slight support of improvement in self-concept as a result of the human relations training experience, a clinical observation revealed that the experimental group members became more aware of self and increased their perception of how others in the group viewed them. Miskimins (1967), in the discussion of the value and impact of how one develops his concept and its relationship to the individual's perception of how others view him, concluded that this introspection acts as a catalyst for strong re-endorsement as illustrated by the open responses that follow.

During training sessions, one participant stated in an outburst:

This class to me has been a real Human Relations type setting which is to me being established and met. I'm pleased and excited!

As a result, other participants supplied similar responses describing changes in self-concepts. For example:

This class is teaching me how to communicate more readily and openly with others. I have become a lot closer and more talkative to my colleagues that I have known for quite some time. I did not know what to expect, but I am learning to communicate.

I had no idea what to expect from the class on Human Relations;

however, during the sessions, I have been able to view each

individual in a different aspect, as well as to be able to express

myself totally without fear of shame or complete disagreement.

I hope to get a better rapport with myself and class members as well as to be able to express myself more effectively without feeling guilty.

In spite of the Experimental participants' increased self-awareness, increased self-acceptance, increased interactions, openness and growth potential, the statistical findings did not support this change in self-concept. Campbell and Dunnette (1968) support the MSGO scale findings when they maintain in their extensive research that it is difficult, if not impossible, to say whether group learning experiences lead to significant changes in self-perception. In fact, Rollins (1970) concluded in his findings that his participants did not demonstrate significant changes in their self-concepts after the training in the human relations curriculum.

On the other hand, Zeevi (1970), Argyris (1964), and Underwood (1965), found that those participants in their human relations training program exhibited a significantly more positive awareness of self. In spite of the lack of support from statistical findings on the MSGO in the present study, the clinical observations offer real possibilities. This optimism is based upon an assertion made by Barrett (1974) and Rogers (1978) that a person initially must accept himself as he is before he can begin to make any change in attitude. Therefore, the assumption made from the clinical observations outlined above was that the experimental group was moving developmentally toward positive self-perceptual changes as concluded by Rollins (1970) and Barrett (1974).

The second outcome presented concerned surgency and drive. Could a human relations program train its subjects in decision-making, nonverbal behavior, self-disclosure, and confrontation? Could it produce changes which result in a more enthusiastic, wholesome, adventurous, frank person, devoid of repressive tendencies?

The introduction of the treatment in those areas which would produce surgency and drive as listed above were positive. The clinical evidence generated as a result of these experiences indicated that the trainee did learn the skills which were assessed on the Adjective Check List. (Gough and Heilbrun, 1965) The results of this study showed significant changes from pre-training to post-training for the experimental group, and also indicated that the group was not sensitized by the pre-test.

In one discussion overheard between one of the participants and her mother, the following statements were made:

Mom, this is something else! Can you believe I actually took charge of the session when the leader was late. I took over . . . and actually got things going!

The very idea of Janeen (not her real name), a meek and timid young lady, asserting herself in anything, is something to really get excited about! Of course, there were many other instances in which drive was demonstrated as it developed. On several occasions, the participants would extend the activities beyond the designated times out of sheer interest and involvement. The question, "Could we do some more"? became habitual.

The over-all results in this section seem to support the research of Carkhuff (1969), Ivey (1968), and Zeevie (1970 which verified the concepts

that human relations skills can be taught and learned effectively, even in a short period of time, and that the use of micro-training can enhance the efficiency of teaching affective skills. This study also tended to support this conclusion.

The schedule consisted of nine weeks of training. This compared to Rollins' (1970) six to eight hours daily for one month, and Barrett's (1974) two and one-half hours per session for four weeks. The results of this study indicated that organized human relations skills were definitely learned. Carkhuff (1969) had contended that the more significant and contemporary trends appear to stress systematic human relations training programs more and more. Perhaps, the most important implications here are to have the trainee experience in depth, personal growth and to master the facilitative conditions (Carkhuff, 1969) necessary for productive interpersonal relations. Barrett (1974) indicated that a performance curriculum has promising potential for any program whose goals are the enrichment of intrapersonal and interpersonal relations. It is the writer's position that all of these activities must be extended beyond a training program. The curriculum must become an intricate part of the total teacher training sequence. In fact, participants wanted to know if the course would be offered again the following semester. This is certainly an indication that an expressed need for further development and involvement was desired.

In the area of skill attainment, Flanders' Interaction Analysis (1970) revealed that in the proportion of direct-indirect ratio there was no significant difference between the groups. Even though these findings did not demonstrate a significant change on the Flanders

Interaction Analysis measures as a group, individual responses by the experimental group, observations and taped sessions of verbal interactions showed that the participants in the experimental group demonstrated characteristics of open behavior by (1) empathetic responses, and (2) acceptance and extension of pupil's ideas as described on Flanders' Matrix. Amidon and Flanders (1971) have indicated that there is not any way to designate some behaviors using the Matrix, that is, to determine if the participant is productive or non-productive in categories. For example, in Category 10 on the Matrix, silence may be the result of some threat or the silence may be because the students are very involved in a task--the Matrix does not differentiate. Further, the FIAC System (Flanders, 1973) was not designed to answer detailed questions about pupil talk and different kinds of silences. For example, in the clinical situation, a teacher was very excited and stated:

"Gee, you are a happy bunch! Tell me about your art class today." Or, "Class, have you ever seen a project so well done and so creative? I am proud of you!" Thus, the talk increased and increased positively. Yet, the students only smiled--a response, though a silent one.

Clinically and individually there were differences in teaching styles that developed from pre-training to post-training even though it was not shown statistically.

In contrast, teacher talk had increased significantly. (Flanders, 1974) A review of the literature indicates that most teachers talk at least two-thirds of the time in the elementary classroom. Amidon and Flanders (1974) found that certain types of students would learn more working with direct teachers and other types of students would learn

more working with indirect teachers. Oliver and Shiver (1968) found that it is not only important whether or not a teacher is sufficiently quick-witted and flexible to perform in a dialectical context, but also whether or not he can tolerate giving doses of "truth" when called for-- a relationship that can become operational only when a teacher has sufficient expertise in human relations skills and a natural creativity which may or may not be measurable statistically. A teacher may also need to vary his behavior (Cogan, 1956) under different conditions in order to achieve the desired consequences.

Hence, if the performance of the students were observed individually, the positive, open acceptance of/and respect for the student would be evident. Further, in skill attainment, Flanders' (1970) Interaction Analysis revealed that the teachers receiving the training (experimental) increased in teacher-talk. Proportionately, the students were responsive and involved in the classroom in clinical setting. On the other hand, in dealing with those teachers who were direct, students would usually exhibit behavior which was characterized by confusion and silence. The clinical results illustrated that only a small proportion of the teachers were exhibiting direct behavior after the training. Even in those instances of direct teacher behavior, the nature of the lesson necessitates the use of this style. Flanders (1971), Withall (1949), and Cogan (1956), contend that a sustained domineering pattern that is disliked by pupils, reduces their ability to recall the material studied, and produce disruptive anxiety when galvanic skin responses, and changes in heartbeat rates were examined. The opposite phenomena were noticed in pupils' reactions to integrative contracts. Additionally, the major difference

was found to be that the direct teachers did not use those social skills of communication that are involved in accepting, clarifying, and making use of the ideas and feelings of students.

The direct teachers may already possess these skills, even though they are not in use a major portion of the time. Even when used sparingly, they are effective when needed. The research of Truax and Tatum (1966) further supports this concept when they contend that the effects of empathy, positive regard, and genuineness communicated to preschool children by their teachers were significantly related to positive degrees in the child's adjustment to school. As Barrett (1974) has observed, one of the most important implications to be drawn from this concept is the possible redefinition of the teacher's role from that of traditional information-giver, to that of a human relations specialist. Barrett's (1974) research position would support this section, in that a do, use, and teach model can improve teacher effectiveness as has been statistically verified in this study. Also, all indications are that a performance curriculum has a great deal of promise when the end results are the enhancing of interpersonal relations.

The supplementary analysis between student-response and student-talk-initiation did not reveal significant differences. However, the direct observation of teacher-students of the experimental group in the classroom, students appeared to be more involved and more often in the type of positive responses that evolved between teacher and student. The teachers were bubbling with enthusiasm and unfortunately the students expressional responses could not be statistically assessed.

Limitation of the Study

Regardless of the designing or implementing of a study, there are certain weaknesses that limit the study. This study contained certain limiting aspects which must be considered by anyone attempting to replicate this study. At any time, when one is dealing with aspects of human behavior, the evaluative problem is a crucial and difficult one. Harrison (1967) and Rogers (1969) ascertained that there is great difficulty in studying the effects of human relations programs. Even though the study has been described as a replicative one, it is not possible or practical to replicate all aspects of the former study even when goals are precise and operationally defined.

Another limitation was that direct measures were not used for each skill, for example, Flanders' Matrix individual cells evaluation should produce interesting patterns for observing and identifying teaching styles for evaluation and improvement of teaching methods.

The following limitation is the necessity for having to use machinery and people often at the same time and the same place. Also, the study was limited by having to use the interpretations of observers which might have at the time been biased or incorrect in what they thought they heard. Another existing limitation was that the control and experimental groups were volunteers. An explication of the results of this study must be restricted to similar audiences with similar characteristics.

The small number used in the experimental was certainly a serious limitation. However, due to the drop in enrollment, it was necessary

to use the students who were available and willing to participate, thus limiting the possibility to use a more powerful parametric statistic.

In the limitation in using Flanders' categories is that it is difficult at times to distinguish certain categories from a voice tape recording, sometimes impossible. Lives observational settings with well trained observers and video tapes would produce opportunities for higher reliability.

Time limitation is often a factor in most research. In the present experiment the time was extended as compared to former experiments. However, it did increase possibilities for change as the human relation skills were an integral part of the total teacher education program, thus, skills did become developmental in an organized curriculum.

Recommendations For Further Research

This replication study (Rollins, 1970) has provided the framework for developing a specific measurable affective and cognitive curriculum. The rationale for this study is that an organized affective/cognitive curriculum can improve black teacher-pupil interactions in the classroom-- thus, increasing learning outcomes. This combined curriculum simultaneously contributes to producing organized and planned positive outcomes in human relations skills. The present study has explored the impact of this do, use, and teach approach and has demonstrated that an organized performance curriculum has the potential for producing positive changes in cognitive and affective skills in human relations. The study also demonstrated that the training is characteristically flexible.

It was obvious during the study, however, that even though an increase in teacher talk is described as being direct, there were instances in which participants that were totally introverted began to respond and become more involved. Yet, the statistical analysis does not vouch for these occurrences. Perhaps another aspect should be added which would present the use of a combination of direct/indirect. In this instance, the skillful teacher would be sensitive to the usage of the appropriate techniques, and, hence, would employ the correct technique when circumstances called for it. This position was confirmed after comparing Rollins' (1970) six hour daily training schedule for four weeks to the hour and 45 minutes for nine weeks maintained in this study. It is also important to note that changes in the application of specific exercises in the treatment did not negatively affect the final training results. This was because, clinically, the observations showed an increase in the positive way the experimental participants interacted with one another.

There are several possibilities for research which could expand probable conclusions. For example, research could include a study which would determine what influence the training styles and personalities of two trainers, working with two similar groups, would have a group results. Also, the possible influence of modeling behavior on the part of these trainers could be ascertained. Significantly, it has been found that modeling behavior and prior personal involvement on the part of the trainer does have a definite effect on the total involvement process.

Another area of research possibility could be found through testing each treatment in order to provide data that would substantiate the

validity and reliability criteria necessary for its application. It should be of interest to identify those treatments which would produce a specific outcome and develop a training program based on these findings. Additional areas of research which indicate a need for further study are:

1. Designing of different curricula by participants as a result of pre-assessing and diagnosing of participants' needs.
2. Experimenting with additional treatments of cognitive, affective, and psychomotor experiences.
3. Developing mini-schemes to be used throughout the teacher-trainees' training and comparing outcomes to prior studies which were sequential.
4. Initiating of a program in which the early childhood teacher and elementary counselor would teach human relations curriculum to young children.
5. Permitting teacher-trainees to practice different patterns of influence while alternating from direct to indirect. A qualified observer would collect the interaction analysis data, tabulate the matrices, and use the information for student conferences or for research purposes.
6. Exposing teachers to some type of human relations training that will help them attain the following objectives:
 - a. using the social skills of accepting, clarifying, and using the ideas of students in planning work and diagnosing difficulties.

b. understanding those acts of influence that restrict student reactions and those that expand student reactions.

7. A human relations training curriculum implemented in several different Schools of Education for comparison rather than within one school.

8. Post-test only design to assure lack of initial bias between groups randomization. Because (Campbell et. al, 1963) within the limits of confidence stated by the tests of significance, randomization can suffice without the pre-test. (p. 25)

These are some research possibilities which would probably produce some interesting research outcomes. The increasing use of affective curricula further emphasizes the need for extensive research in the area, and an indepth study of all available instruments which purport to openness.

In conclusion, the major contribution of the study is that it definitely supplies a comprehensive operational model of the human relations curriculum and demonstrates the positive effects of a training experience in a sequentially developed human relations program. It supports Rollin's (1970) model that a performance based organized curriculum can produce positive changes in an individual's operational behavior. Even though the attitudes and self-concept of the participants did not change significantly toward the selected human relations skills-clinical observation demonstrated that the participants had become more open positively and personally in their interactions with others.

This study has demonstrated that there is a need for further refinements of the measurements, and for the identification of specific categories of human relations skills to enhance maximum effectiveness of the Rollin's model.

This chapter has reviewed a discussion of the data analysis, implications for further research and limitations of the study has been presented.

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Appendix A

Awareness Criteria

1. Realization that every pupil is first and foremost a human person--a unique child, different from all other children.
2. Acknowledge intellectually that each child is different, and create the total classroom environment that will make this truth become a living reality in the classroom.
3. The importance of teacher self-image. It helps considerably if the teacher has matured to the point where he can accept, respect, and trust the realities of himself. This maturity will be manifested by an acceptance of other human beings as "others."
4. The knowledge that a teacher who is fearful, suspicious, and distrustful creates a fearful, suspicious, and distrustful atmosphere in the classroom. Discipline is rigid because the teacher does not trust the children to behave in an acceptable fashion.
5. To sincerely listen to each child. Listening attentively to each individual child is an art that perhaps too many teachers have not developed sufficiently. Before one can listen attentively, he must be convinced that the child has something pertinent to say, and must develop the attitude that, "I must think 'worthwhile' to hear and to understand."
6. Providing a classroom that is child-centered rather than teacher centered. A child-centered classroom does not mean chaos. It does not mean allowing children complete license to do what they want, when they want. It does not mean permitting disorder,

uncleanliness, discourtesy, unnecessary noise, or lack of discipline. In an ideally child-centered classroom, the function of the teacher is to assist each child in growing as best he can. But, each child is a natural learner. So, how then can one best help each child to learn how to learn.

7. Freedom is important. However, it must be an individual freedom that does not violate the freedom of others. The children learn cooperative action, mutual respect, and trust. They come to realize that for any group to cooperate successfully, the members of the group must agree to common objectives and to the appropriate means of attaining those goals. Experience shows that children learn those things, given a positive psychological environment in the classroom (Hassett and Weisberg, 1972, pp. 18-20).

Summary of Categories for Interaction Analysis

| | | | |
|--------------|--------------------|---|--|
| Teacher Talk | Indirect Influence | <p>1. <u>*Accepts Feeling</u>: accepts and clarifies the feeling tone of the students in a nonthreatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative. Predicting or recalling feelings is included.</p> <p>2. <u>*Praises or Encourages</u>: praises or encourages student action or behavior. Jokes that release tension, but not at the expense of another individual; nodding head, or saying "un hm?" or "go on" are included.</p> <p>3. <u>*Accepts or Uses Ideas of Students</u>: clarifying, building, or developing ideas suggested by a student. As teacher brings more of his own ideas into play, shift to Category 5.</p> <p>4. <u>*Asks Questions</u>: asking a question about content or procedure with the intent that a student answer.</p> | |
| | | Direct Influence | <p>5. <u>*Lecturing</u>: giving facts or opinions about content or procedures; expressing his own ideas, asking rhetorical questions.</p> <p>6. <u>*Giving Directions</u>: directions, commands, or orders with which a student is expected to comply.</p> <p>7. <u>*Criticizing or Justifying Authority</u>: statements intended to change student behavior from nonacceptable to acceptable pattern; bawling someone out; stating why the teacher is doing what he/she is doing; extreme self-reference.</p> |
| | | | <p>8. <u>*Student Talk - Response</u>: talk by students in response to teacher. Teacher initiates the contact or solicits students statement.</p> <p>9. <u>*Student Talk - Initiation</u>: talk by students, which they initiate. If "calling on" student is only to indicate who may talk next, observer must decide whether student wanted to talk. If he did, use this category.</p> |
| | | | <p>10. <u>*Silence or Confusion</u>: pauses, short periods of silence, and periods of confusion in which communication cannot be understood by the observer.</p> |

* There is NO scale implied by these numbers. Each number is classificatory; it denotes a particular kind of communication event. To write these numbers down during observation is to enumerate--not to judge a position on a scale. (Amidon and Flanders, 1971, p. 14)

HAMPTON INSTITUTE
HAMPTON, VIRGINIA

Department of Elementary Education

To Whom It May Concern:

You have been selected to participate in the Human Relations Program. We will meet _____, _____, in room 300, Phenix Hall at 7:00 p.m. If you cannot come, please call Frances Graham at 727-5429 or 722-8263. Hope to see you next Monday.

Sincerely yours,

Frances D. Graham
Assistant Professor

FDG:mp

Appendix B

A Training Program in Confluent Education

Weekly Schedule

First Week

Initially, the first week of sessions will be organized for the purpose of getting acquainted, outlining the program, voicing personal concerns, and beginning assignments in didactic inputs. (Keats, 1974)

Exercises

Group experiences. (Pfeiffer and Jones, No. 51, Vol. P, pp. 620-622. Psychological Ed.)

Lemons: A Sensory-Awareness Activity. (Pfeiffer and Jones, No. 71, Vol. 3)

Think-Feel: A verbal progression. (Pfeiffer and Jones, No. 65, Vol. 3)

At the completion of each morning group exercise, group members will have follow-up or reinforcing exercises and demonstrations including participating as leaders in the afternoon session as outlined in the planning sessions.

Readings

Keats, Donald. Fundamentals of Child Counseling:

"An Overview of Elementary School Counseling and the Counselor,"
Chapter I, pp. 4-10.

"Curriculum Development: Focus on the Affective Domain,"
Chapter 7, pp. 186-197.

Psychological Education, American Personnel and Guidance Association, Washington, D. C., 1973, Vol. 51, No. 9.

"Psychological Education Is . . .," p. 588.

"An Introduction to the Field," p. 591.

"Group Dynamics Techniques," pp. 620-622.

"Psychological Education for Racial Awareness," pp. 666-671.

Second Week

Sample (Morning Session)

I. Open meeting of the group. (Keats, 1971, 1974)

9 a.m. - 10 a.m.

A. Purpose -

1. Get acquainted
2. Initiate discussion (outline program)
3. Group conductor can share facts about himself (personal

concerns)

10 a.m. - 11 a.m.

B. Didactic Input -

1. Confluent education/cognitive affective
2. Guidance learnings ("Moral and Value Oriented Education,"

Keats, Chapter I).

3. Use of filmstrip entitled "First Things: A Strategy for Teaching Values," distributed by Guidance Associates of Pleasantville, New York. (Keats, p. 200)

Accompanying the meeting is a recommended reading center including the following:

Gazda, George M. Human Relations Development.

- Glasser, William M. Reality Therapy.
- Greer, Mary and Bonnie Rubinstein. Will The Real Teacher Stand Up.
- Ginott, Haim G. Teacher and Child.
- Kent, Donald B. Fundamental of Child Counseling.
- Krumboltz, John D. and Carl E. Thorenson. Behavioral Counseling.
- Marshall, Hermaine H. Young Children.
- Mahler, Clarence A. Group Counseling in the Schools.
- Pfeiffer and Jones. A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training, Vols. I, II, III, IV.
- Personnel and Guidance Journal. Psychological Education: "A Prime Function of the Counselor", May, 1973, Vol. 51, No. 9.

Assignment II

1. Complete exercise in Gazda's Human Relations Manual, Chapters 7-18.
2. Didactic discussions and experiences (mornings of the first week).
3. Review of Appendix E on vocabulary of Affective Adjectives (Gazda).
4. Group Dynamics techniques, (Psychological Education, pp. 620-622).
5. Exercise:
 - a. Pfeiffer and Jones. "Team Building: A Feed-back Experience," Vol. 3, No. 66, pp. 76-77.
 - b. Pfeiffer and Jones. "Complete Interview Guide," Vol. 3, No. 66, pp. 76-77.
 - c. Pfeiffer and Jones. "Not-Listening: A Didactic Role Play," Vol. 3, No. 52.

6. Lecturer-Groups: Techniques and Dynamics.

7. Lecturette: Conditions Which Hinder Effective Communication ('73 Annual).

Third Week

Shertzter and Stone. Fundamentals of Counseling.

1. Overview of techniques (lecturer).

2. Readings:

a. Glasser, William D. Reality Therapy. (The need to love and the need to feel that we are worthwhile to ourselves and to others.)

Chapters I and II, "Background Responsibility" (the basic concept and comparison between reality therapy and conventional therapy).

b. Krumboltz, John. Behavioral Counseling.

Chapter 30, "Consulting with the Classroom Teacher," pp. 260-266; also, "Life Career Game," p. 431.

3. Exercise

a. "Brainstorming: A Problem-Solving Activity" (Pfeiffer and Jones, Vol. 3, No. 53).

b. "Towers: An Inter-group Competition" (Pfeiffer and Jones, Vol. 3, No. 54).

Fourth Week

1. Readings:

"Social Modeling, Cognitive and Multiple Techniques" (Krumboltz).

2. Exercise:

a. "Model Building: An Inter-group Competition" (Pfeiffer and Jones, Vol. 2, No. 32).

b. Rumor Clinic: A Communication Experiment

c. Completion: Rumor Clinic/Observation Form (Pfeiffer and Jones, Vol. 2, p. 15).

Fifth Week

1. Value Clarification Exercises

a. Time Week

b. "Value Clarification--A Tool for Counselors," Psychological Education, pp. 614-617

2. Strategies

a. Either or forced choice

b. Spread or opinion

c. Alternatives search

d. Twenty things you love to do

e. "I learned" statements

3. References

a. Values Clarification: Simon, Sidney, and Howard Kirschenbaun.

b. Human Values in the Classroom: Hawley, R. and I. Hawley.

c. "Moral Conflict and Change in Correctional Settings," Psychological Education, p. 660.

Sixth Week

"Psychological Education for Racial Awareness" (p. 666).

1. Readings

The Black Child.

2. Exercises

Racial Awareness. (Psych. Ed., p. 671)

3. "The Black Experience" (Lecturer)

"Classroom Processes" (Gazda).

Exercise: Graphics - Self-Disclosure Activities

Group Counseling in the School (Mahler, Clarence).

Chapters 3, 4, 5

Transactional Analysis Lecturer.

Seventh Week

1. Exercise

a. Growth Cards: Experimenting with New Behavior (Pfeiffer and Jones, Vol. 4, No. 109).

b. Role Nominations: A Feed-Back Experience (Pfeiffer and Jones, Vol. 2, No. 8).

c. Group Self-Evaluations: A Collection of Instruments (Pfeiffer and Jones, Vol. 3, No. 55).

d. Complete Group-Climate Inventory

2. Readings

Fundamentals of Child Counseling (Keat)

Special Topics:

"Modeling and Behavior Rehearsals" (p. 115).

"Implementation" (p. 112).

"Biblio-Counseling" (p. 112).

"Child Guidance Groups" (p. 151).

"Group Counseling with Children" (pp. 96-127).

Eighth Week

Demonstrations of techniques used with children to develop specific affective skills.

References:

Keats, Donald B. Helping Children to Feel.

Ginott, Haim G. Teacher and Child.

Greer, Mary. Will the Real Teacher Please Stand Up.

Ninth Week

Evaluations and Exercises

1. Children will participate if possible.
2. Suggested activities in Transactional Analysis as applied to children. (Keats, 1974, p. 119)
3. Evening--A Guide to Affective Curriculum Materials.
4. Workshop.

Suggested Lecturers

Dr. Mary T. Christian. Director, Division of Teacher Education, Hampton Institute.

Mr. Mark Delp. "In-Side-Out" Representative, Virginia State Department.

Dr. John W. Handy. Acting Dean of Faculty, Hampton Institute.

Dr. J. A. Johnson. Chairman, Department of Elementary Education, Hampton Institute.

Mrs. Elizabeth Jordan. Supervisor of Human Relations, Hampton City Schools.

Dr. Matthews. Group Techniques and Dynamics, The College of William and Mary.

Mrs. Lois Fears. Instructor, Hampton Institute. "Puppetry for Role Playing and Psychodrama."

Exercise I

Empty Chair: An Extended Group Design. (Pfeiffer and Jones,
Vol. 3, No. 51)

Goal

To allow all participants to become involved voluntarily in a group-on-group experience when the size of the total group makes discussion impractical.

Group Size

Unlimited. (The example described here is based on a total group of more than fifteen participants.)

Time Required

Open.

Physical Settings

Circle of seven chairs in the center of the room, with an outer circle of chairs for the rest of the group.

Process

1. The facilitator solicits six volunteers for an inner-circle to sit in the chairs provided. (This leaves one vacant chair.)
2. Individuals from the outer group are told they may join the inner group, one at a time, when they want to contribute some data or to clarify inner-group data. (Remaining outer-group members may not talk.) An outer-group individual may stay in the inner group only for the time required to process his input and then he must vacate the seventh chair to make room for another outer-group individual. Under no circumstances may anyone become a permanent member of the inner group. The facilitator

may need to enforce this rule. It is not necessary for an outer group member to be in the inner circle at all times; outer group members may participate when they wish.

Variations

1. The permanent members of the inner circle may be polarized: In a university setting, for instance, they may consist solely of deans and radical students, while members of the outer circle may be professors and conservative students.

2. The permanent members of the inner circle may be hierarchical: In a business setting, for instance, they may consist solely of managers, while the outer circle contains only hourly employees.

3. The number of empty chairs in the inner circle may be varied. The inner circle may contain enough chairs for the total group.

4. The facilitator may require that the person who occupies the empty chair wait for a "natural" opening in the discussion to offer his comments. Members of the inner circle may be instructed to "open the gate" for that person.

5. After about thirty minutes the inner and outer groups can be reversed, or a new inner group can be selected.

6. Members of the inner group may be free to leave the circle, allowing more than one outer group member at one time to join the inner circle.

Think-Feel: A Verbal Progression. (Pfeiffer and Jones, Vol. 3, No. 65)

Goals

1. To make distinctions between thoughts and feelings.

2. To learn to link feeling feedback to observable behavior.
3. To practice empathizing.

Group Size

Unlimited number of groups of three to five members each.

Time Required

Forty-five minutes.

Materials

Newsprint and felt-tipped marker.

Physical Setting

A room large enough to permit each small group to interact verbally without disturbing other groups.

Process

1. The facilitator discusses goals. Then he forms small groups. (Count the number of participants and divide by 3, 4, or 5 to determine the number of groups. Have participants count off by this number to form relatively heterogeneous groups.)
2. The facilitator explains that there will be four rounds of communication and that he will be interrupting each round as necessary. A few minutes of processing within the small group follows each round.
3. Round 1. The facilitator writes on newsprint the phrase "Now I see." He tells participants to describe the nonverbal behavior of the other members of their group by statements that begin with the phrase "Now I see." He illustrates briefly by describing the movements of some nearby participants. Round 1 takes five minutes. The facilitator may

have to interrupt if participants begin to move away from behavior description toward discussion. The round should be followed by about two minutes for processing.

4. Round 2. The facilitator writes the phrase "Now I think" and instructs participants to continue their conversation by beginning each sentence with the phrase "Now I think." He may wish to give an example. Round 2 takes five minutes, followed by two minutes for processing.

5. Round 3. The third phrase is "Now I feel." After about two minutes of interaction, the facilitator interrupts to explain that groups that focus on feeling data commonly confuse thoughts and feelings. He suggests that members avoid the following two phrases in the remainder of this round:

I feel that . . .

I feel like . . .

Instead, members are to use the phrase "Now I feel," followed by an adjective. They should be mindful of the tendency to center their attention on the other person rather than to express their own feelings. Round 3 takes about ten minutes followed by about three minutes for processing.

6. Round 4. The facilitator posts the fourth phrase, "Now I think you feel", which participants are to use to begin each of their communications to other members. Since this round focuses on empathic understanding, conversations should be two-way, to determine the accuracy of the members' perceptions of each other's feelings. Round 4 takes ten minutes, followed by three minutes of processing.

7. Total Group Processing. The facilitator leads a discussion of the results of the experience, focusing on the learning goals specified.

Variations

1. The activity can be carried out in dyads.
2. The timing of each round can be varied from that described.
3. The activity can be "staged" in front of the group as a demonstration.

Not-Listening: A Dyadic Role-Play. (Pfeiffer and Jones, Vol. 3, No. 52)

Goals

1. To allow participants to experience the frustration of now being heard.
2. To promote listening readiness.

Group Size

Unlimited numbers of dyads.

Time Required

Approximately thirty minutes.

Materials

1. For each dyad, copies of the two roles to be played.
2. Newsprint and felt-tipped marker.

Physical Setting

A room large enough for the dyad members to confront each other in their respective roles, with minimum disturbance of other dyads.

Process

Note: This structured experience is intended to be the first activity in a training event. It should be followed by a success

experience in effective listening (e.g. Vol. I: Structured Experience 8).

1. The facilitator discusses the goals of the activity.
2. The group forms dyads, and the facilitator gives each dyad a copy of each role. These may be devised by the facilitator; or, Not-Listening Role-Briefing Sheets (Option No. 1 or Option No. 2) may be used.
3. The dyads then have about three minutes to study their roles.
4. All dyads should begin the exercise at the same time.
5. The facilitator makes sure that dyad participants are not listening to each other. He confronts those participants who appear to be doing so.
6. When the facilitator feels that the group is experiencing maximal frustration (usually indicated by a sharp, sustained increase in noise), he stops the activity.
7. The remaining time is spent listing participants' responses to the frustration. The group discusses these observations.

Variations

1. Participants can develop their own role-play situations.
2. Triads can be used, with the third person acting as an observer/judge, who notes evidence of frustration and enforces the "no-listening" rule.
3. As a part of step 3, the total group can be divided in half, with all participants in each half preparing to play the same role. Subgroups can be formed to rehearse the role-play.

Lemons: A Sensory-Awareness Activity (Pfeiffer and Jones, Vol. 3, No. 71).

Goal

To increase sensory awareness.

Group Size

Eight to twelve participants.

Time Required

One hour.

Materials

A lemon for each participant.

Physical Setting

A large enough space for participants to sit comfortably in a circle on the floor.

Process

1. The facilitator asks the participants to sit on the floor in a large circle. He gives a lemon to each participant and explains that since no two lemons are identical, each person is to get to know his special lemon very well.
2. The facilitator allows the participants ten minutes to "become acquainted" with their lemons. They should spend the first five minutes observing the visual qualities of their lemons and the second five minutes with their eyes closed, sensing through touch the unique tactile qualities of their lemons.
3. After ten minutes, the facilitator asks the participants to form dyads. Each member of a dyad then "introduces his lemon to his partner by acquainting him with its particular characteristics."

4. The facilitator then asks the dyad partners to exchange lemons and feel them to note the differences.

5. The facilitator now groups the dyads into intermediate groups of four or six. He asks the members of each new group to form a small circle and to place their lemons in a pile in the middle. He then asks them to close their eyes and to find their own lemons.

6. The facilitator asks all participants again to form a large circle. He then collects the lemons and redistributes them to the participants. He asks the participants to close their eyes and pass the lemons to their right, feeling each one in order to identify their own. When a participant has identified his lemon, he is to put it in his lap and continue passing lemons until all participants have their own lemons.

7. The facilitator discusses the experience with the group members, eliciting their reactions to utilizing the sensory skills involved.

Variations

1. Other fruits besides lemons can be used.
2. The entire process can be carried out nonverbally.
3. Step 5 can be eliminated.
4. In step 6, the lemons can be piled in the center of the room and participants can be instructed to find theirs with their eyes open.

Team Building: A Feedback Experience (Pfeiffer and Jones, Vol. 3, No. 66).

Goals

1. To help an intact work group diagnose its functioning.

2. To establish a cooperative expectation within a task group.
3. To assist a "real-life" group or business manager (leader, chairman, supervisor) to develop norms of openness, trust, and interdependence among team members and/or members of his organization.
4. To help team members clarify and evaluate their personal goals, the team's goals, and the relationship between these two sets of aims.

Group Size

No more than twelve members.

Time Required

A minimum of one day. (The time required varies according to the depth of the intervention. The example described here required three days.)

Materials

1. Sensing Interview Guide.
2. Newsprint and felt-tipped marker.

Physical Setting

A private room with wall space for posting.

Process

1. Phase 1: Sensing. Prior to the team-building meeting, the facilitator interviews each of the team members privately. He indicates to each what his purposes are, what the limits of confidentiality are, and what he is going to do with the interview data. The Sensing Interview Guide may be used and/or adapted in preparation for these interviews.

Team-Building: Sensing Interview Guide

- Name _____ Interviewer _____
- Date _____ Time _____ to _____
- Format: Face to Face _____ Or by Telephone _____ Place _____
1. Title(s) of interviewee _____
 2. Relation to the team _____

 3. Satisfaction with team's current functioning _____

 4. Goals of the team _____

 5. Personal goals _____

 6. How decisions are made _____

 7. Problems of the team right now _____

 8. Personal problems related to the team right now _____

 9. Action strategies needed right now _____

 10. Feelings about the team-building meeting _____

11. Relationships with other team members
(give first names and titles--e.g., manager/leader/chairman/
supervisor).

A. _____

B. _____

C. _____

D. _____

E. _____

F. _____

G. _____

H. _____

I. _____

12. Other comments _____

Group Dynamics: Twelve techniques

1. Milling. All students are asked to keep moving leisurely around the room, exchanging brief comments or information. Milling can also be done without talking.

2. Monad. A student sits alone in a comfortable position to think about a need, a feeling, a concern, or an issue.

3. Dyads, Triads, Quartets. Two, three, or four students get together to communicate either verbally or nonverbally.

4. Summary Repeat. An individual listens to what another is saying. Before the individual can make a comment or discuss anything with the person who has been speaking, the individual must summarize and repeat what the other has said.

5. Perceptions. In a dyad setting, one student, Elliott, states how he feels about another student, Michele. Elliott begins with the statement "I see you to be" Michele then repeats the process. No interaction is allowed until Michele has stated how she "sees" Elliott.

6. Projecting. In a dyad setting, one student, Richard, states how he thinks the other student, Beth, feels about him. Richard begins the activity by making the statement "You see me to be" and goes on to project how he thinks Beth feels about him. No interaction is allowed. Beth then reverses the procedure.

7. Positive Votes. Each student in turn approaches a member of the group and expresses something positive about the other in a warm manner. The student receiving the "vote" is allowed to respond to what was said.

8. Process Observer. In triads and quartet, one person is responsible for observing the successes and difficulties in the group's work. Periodically (e.g., every five minutes) the process observer is asked to report his or her observations and suggestions.

9. Fishbowl. Six or eight students sit together in a circle to discuss an issue, an experience, or specific learnings. Other students position themselves on the outside of the circle and observe what is going on inside the circle. The inner and outer circles can reverse positions at some point to carry on the discussion or comment on what was said. An empty chair can be placed in the inner circle so that an observer can enter to ask a question or make a statement. This person must immediately return to the outer circle to listen to the responses.

10. Report-Out. After a task group has been working on a project, a group member is selected to report to the entire class what was accomplished in the group and how individual members worked as members of the group toward accomplishing the group goals.

11. Modeling. The teacher models the behavior being asked of the students, in other words, behaves in the same way the students are to behave. (If students are in a monad or dyad setting, for example, the teacher is as well.)

12. Mini-Lecture. Specific content information is shared in a short period of time (approximately 10 minutes). The individuals who listened to the information form small groups (of from three to eight) to discuss the information present and their reactions to it. (APGA, 1973, 51, 620-621)

Group-Climate Inventory

Directions. Think about how your fellow group members as a whole normally behave toward you. Within the parentheses in front of the items below place the letter that corresponds to your perceptions of their behavior.

A - They can always be counted on to behave this way.

T - Typically I would expect them to behave this way.

U - I would usually expect them to behave this way.

S - They would seldom behave this way.

R - They would rarely behave this way.

N - I would never expect them to behave this way.

I would Expect My Fellow Group Member To -

1. (____) level with me.
2. (____) get the drift of what I am trying to say.
3. (____) interrupt or ignore my comments.
4. (____) accept me for what I am.
5. (____) feel free to let me know when I "bug" them.
6. (____) misconstrue things I say or do.
7. (____) be interested in me.
8. (____) provide an atmosphere in which I can be myself.
9. (____) keep things to themselves to spare my feelings.
10. (____) perceive what kind of person I really am.
11. (____) include me in what's going on.

12. () act "judgmental" with me.
13. () be completely frank with me.
14. () recognize when something is bothering me.
15. () respect me, apart from my skills or status.
16. () ridicule or disapprove of my peculiarities.

Brainstorming: A Problem-Solving Activity (Pfeiffer and Jones, Vol. 3, No. 63)

Goals

1. To generate an extensive number of ideas or solutions to a problem by suspending criticism and evaluation.
2. To develop skills in creative problem-solving.

Group Size

Any number of small groups composed of approximately six participants each.

Time Required

Approximately one hour, for the described example.

Materials

Newsprint and felt-tipped marker for each group.

Physical Setting

Movable chairs for all participants.

Process

(The facilitator may wish to do the sample experience which follows as a preliminary to a problem-solving session involving a "real" problem.)

1. The facilitator forms small groups of approximately six participants each. Each group selects a secretary.
2. The facilitator instructs each group to form a circle. He provides newsprint and a felt-tipped marker for each secretary and asks him to record every idea generated by the group.
3. The facilitator states the following rules:
 - a. There will be no criticism during the brainstorming phase.
 - b. Far-fetched ideas are encouraged because they may trigger more practical ideas.
 - c. Many ideas are desirable.
4. The facilitator announces that participants are to imagine being cast ashore on a desert island, nude and with nothing but a belt. What can be done with the belt? He tells the groups they have fifteen minutes to generate ideas.
5. At the end of the generating phase, the facilitator tells the groups that the ban on criticism is over. He directs them to evaluate their ideas and to select the best ones. (If there are four or more groups, the facilitator instructs two groups to share their best ideas and to form a single list.)
6. The facilitator then asks participants to form one large group again. Secretaries act as spokesmen and take turns presenting the best ideas from their groups. Participants explore how two or more ideas might be used in combination.
7. The facilitator writes the final list of ideas on newsprint, and the group is asked to rand-order them on the basis of feasibility.

8. The facilitator leads a discussion of brainstorming as an approach to creative problem-solving.

Variations

1. The exercise can be preceded by a loosening-up activity, such as playing with modeling clay.

2. Groups may be set up to compete with one another. Judges may be selected to determine criteria for ideas and to choose winning groups.

3. Other objects can be used in the problem. Participants may brainstorm uses for a flashlight, a rope, an oar, or a corkscrew. Props may be used.

Towers: An Intergroup Competition (Pfeiffer and Jones, Vol. 3, No. 54)

Goals

1. To study phenomena of competition among groups.

2. To explore the feeling content and behavioral outcomes of winning and losing.

3. To provide a basis for feedback to group members on their relations with other group members and their productivity in a task situation.

Group Size

Unlimited. (This is a multigroup exercise; each group should have no more than nine members and their productivity in a task situation.)

Time Required

Approximately one and one-half hours.

Materials

1. Articles for auction: staplers, scissors, glue, string and construction paper.
2. Tower Judges' Role-Briefing Sheet for each group.
3. Tower Observers' Role-Briefing Sheet for each group.

Physical Setting

A large room big enough to permit several groups to work separately, but in sight of each other. For Process Step 1, each group should be seated separately as a group, facing one table on which all the articles for auction are displayed.

Process

1. The facilitator briefly discusses goals of the activity and forms groups.
2. Each group selects a representative to be on a panel of judges. These persons separate and form a group and then read the Tower Judges' Role-Briefing Sheets.
3. An observer is selected for each group who goes away by himself to read the Tower Observers' Role-Briefing Sheet.

Model-Building: An Intergroup Competition (Pfeiffer and Jones, Vol. 2, No. 32)

Goals

1. To study interpersonal and intergroup competition phenomena.
2. To explore the feeling content and behavioral results of winning and losing.

3. To provide feedback to group members on their contributions in a task situation.

Group Size

This is a multigroup exercise; each group should be composed of no more than eight members. Any number of groups can be accommodated.

Time Required

Approximately one and one-half hours.

Materials

Sets of toy building materials, such as Lock-A-Blocks, Lego Blocks, Tinkertoys, or Rig-A-Jigs. There should be enough materials so that each group can duplicate a model constructed by the facilitator.

Physical Setting

The members of each group should be seated together, preferably on the floor, with the groups arranged in clusters around a small table placed in the center of the room.

Process

1. Before the meeting, the facilitator constructs a toy model which is to be duplicated by each of the groups. The model should be complex enough to require some work to duplicate, but there must be enough materials for each group to duplicate the model. All the materials are piled under the table in the center of the room, and the model is covered until further instructions are given.

2. After the groups have been arranged, the facilitator announces that each group is to choose a judge from among its members.

Lutts and Mipps Reaction Form

1. Whose participation was most helpful in the accomplishment of the task:
2. What behavior was helpful?
3. Whose participation seemed to hinder the accomplishment of the task?
4. What behavior seemed to be a hindrance?
5. What feeling reactions did you experience during the problem-solving exercise?
6. What role(s) did you play in the group?

Variations

1. When the forms have been completed, the facilitator can collect them and read them aloud anonymously.
2. Individual members can be instructed to predict the nominations that they will receive.
3. The number of nominations can be restricted to one per person, or one per role.
4. The activity can be accelerated by using fewer roles.

5. Following the activity the facilitator can structure a practice session on shared leadership. Members work on a task and attempt to play all the task and maintenance roles. Then the nominations are repeated.

Growth Cards: Experimenting With New Behavior (Pfeiffer and Jones, Vol. 14, No. 109)

Goals

1. To develop an accepting atmosphere for risk-taking and self-disclosure.
2. To give those within a larger laboratory community a legitimate entry point for the provision of individual feedback to participants in other groups.
3. To supply participants with specific, individual feedback to aid them in making decisions concerning an agenda for modifying their own behavior.
4. To increase understanding and acceptance of personality components which decrease interpersonal effectiveness.
5. To strengthen individual commitment to behavioral change through open verbalization and the development of a method or prescription for modification.
6. To reinforce group skills of decision-making and task performance.

Group Size

This experience is specifically designed for a laboratory or workshop community, although the facilitator may wish to devise ways of

adapting the structure for a single group. The exercise as presented here involves all of the participants and facilitators within a laboratory community.

Time Required

Approximately two hours.

Materials

Felt-tipped markers, 5" x 8" cards, straight pins.

Physical Setting

One large general meeting place and the normal meeting places for the individual groups.

Process

1. The facilitator assembles the entire laboratory community to introduce the experience. He suggests that, although individuals may have been receiving feedback and interpersonal experiences through the interaction of their own groups, there is a valuable resource that has not yet been tapped--the participants in other groups within the community. He emphasizes the goals of the human relations group experience must concern individual growth. This growth depends to a large extent on the openness, trust, and willingness of the individual participants to give and accept both positive and negative feedback. He adds that exploration of one's less effective behaviors within a group setting is often a difficult undertaking, since it involves the kind of self-disclosure that most individuals strive to avoid in their day-to-day contacts with others. However, it is the effort to become more effective interpersonally that motivates individuals to participate in

human relations training experiences. Therefore, self-disclosure and feedback from others concerning negative aspects of one's personality are essential to purposeful growth.

2. The facilitator discusses the goals of this activity with the objective of instilling a commitment on the part of participants to become fully involved in the exercise.

3. The facilitator instructs the participants to return to their groups to develop behavioral prescriptions for each group member. He suggests that individuals begin by disclosing to the other members some personal characteristic which they feel is dysfunctional to them interpersonally and by stating their need for modification in behavioral terms: for example, "I ought not to apologize so often." If this selection is not seemingly appropriate to the group, then the matter is discussed by the group, and alternative suggestions are made by other participants or by the individual himself. When a final prescription is agreed upon, the group helps the individual to express it in a statement which makes a behavioral request of other people. For example, the request, "Help me not to be so apologetic," elicits help from others in gaining a more positive self-concept. These group-developed prescriptions are clearly written on 5' x 8" cards and pinned on the participants' clothing. (Facilitators of the groups also participate to legitimize openness and trust and to promote a sense of total community involvement.)

4. The groups are reassembled in the large room and are asked to walk around the room, encountering as many of the other participants as possible. The facilitator emphasizes that they are not to speak during

this phase. They should read each other's cards carefully and attempt to associate faces with prescriptions.

Discrimination: Simulation Activities (Pfeiffer and Jones,
Vol. 3, No. 63)

Each of the following experiences is designed to explore interpersonal stereotyping and discrimination.

1. By an arbitrary procedure, a "minority" group is selected and is required to wear black masks during a group meeting. Masked members are instructed to follow rather than to lead, to address others as "sir" and "ma'am," and to "think Black." Nonmasked members may address them as "boy", "girl", and "you people." Members later explore the effects of the masks and the ways racial discrimination is experienced and reinforced.

2. A group that consists of less than half of the participants is selected and asked to wear bead necklaces for the duration of the event. This group is instructed to sit together at meals. Toward the end of the event, a meeting is held to process the experience of designating a minority as "different."

3. Participants count off "black, white, black, white, black, white", etc. "Blacks" are asked to leave the room. "Whites" stay, take off their shoes, and pile them in the center of the floor. "Blacks" are asked to return, match shoes, find the owner of a pair, and put them on the owner's feet--all without speaking. The two groups meet separately to share their observations and feeling reactions. There is then a general discussion.

Racial Awareness Activities

1. Have students write an essay or short story depicting what they think the ideal society should or would be like in terms of the relationship between racial, ethnic, and other societal groups.

2. Ask that poems, essays, stories, and plays written by students be read to the class by the authors.

3. Appoint a play committee to present a skit for an assembly, such as an excerpt from Duberman's In White America (1964) or an original play that has been developed in class. Students from other schools could be invited to play some of the roles if your school is not integrated.

4. Ask students to hand in suggestions as to what the school system should do to help in the development of human rights. Discuss the suggestions.

5. Have a bulletin board committee work on different contributions to American culture--examples of paintings, sculptures, inventions, and medicine--made by members of various cultural groups.

6. Ask each student to imagine being a black American arguing before the U. S. Supreme Court for the right to live in any section of the city. Ask students to use the Constitution and write an argument to convince the court. (APGA, 1973, Vol. 51, No. 9, 669)

Graphics: Trust Activities (Pfeiffer and Jones, Vol. 1, No. 20)

Below are listed several structures experiences that generate self-disclosure data through graphics. One advantage of these methods is that participants often can disclose themselves more quickly and straightforwardly than through verbal transactions. The facilitator should ensure that there is adequate processing time for each activity.

1. The Road of Life. Participants are given sheets of newsprint and felt-tipped markers. Each places a dot on the paper to represent his birth. Without lifting the market from the paper, he portrays a series of critical incidents in his lifetime.

2. Advertisement for Myself. Using collage materials (such as construction paper, scissors, glue, tape, newspapers, and magazines), participants create brochures advertising themselves.

3. Coat of Arms. After a brief introduction to heraldry, participants create coats of arms to represent themselves.

4. Comic Strip. Participants are given paper and pencils and draw lines to divide the paper into twelve equal-sized sections. In each section they are to depict a significant event in which they were involved. (These may be limited to events within the group's life.)

5. Silhouettes. The facilitator forms dyads. Participants take turns drawing full-sized silhouettes of their partners on large sheets of paper. These drawings are posted and identified. Participants then add features that they associate with the person.

6. The Group and I. At the end of the first meeting of a group, the facilitator passes out newsprint and felt-tipped markers. Participants divide these papers into as many sections as there will be group sessions and post these sheets. Each participant graphically portrays on his sheet his relationship with the group after each session.

7. Collaborative Drawing. Dyads are given one sheet of paper and one felt-tipped marker. Without talking, they collaborate on creating a drawing.

8. Group Collage. Given materials such as those in item 2 above, the group creates a collage representing itself.

9. Mural. A large group, such as an entire laboratory community, can create a montage depicting itself. This can be made on a roll of wrapping paper using cutouts from magazines. The mural is affixed to a wall, and each participant briefly explains his contribution.

Group Self-Evaluations: A Collection of Instruments (Pfeiffer and Jones, Vol. 3, No. 55)

Goals

1. To help a group evaluate its own functioning.
2. To provide a way to examine objectively the participation of group members.
3. To explore the norms that have developed in a group which has been meeting for some time.

Group Size

Eight to twelve members.

Time Required

Varies according to the evaluative procedures used.

Materials

1. Select one of the following forms and prepare copies of it for all participants:

Group-Climate Inventory

Group-Growth Evaluation Form

Feedback Rating Scales

Post-Meeting Reactions Form

2. Pencils.

3. Newsprint and felt-tipped marker.

Physical Setting

Participants should be seated comfortably for writing, where they can see the posted results.

Process

Each of the following forms focuses on some aspect of group life which the facilitator may wish to discuss. A general process is suggested for the use of these inventories.

1. After a typical meeting of an ongoing group, the facilitator distributes copies of the form selected. Members are instructed to complete the form individually.

2. As soon as members finish, the data are posted on newsprint.

3. The facilitator leads a discussion of the data, eliciting specific instances of behavioral trends. He may offer appropriate theory material during this analytical stage.

4. Group members are asked to plan new behavior for the next meeting in the light of the findings.

Variations

1. The facilitator may wish to use a different form at the end of each meeting in a sequence. Or the same form may be used several successive times, in order to study trends in the data; a group may thus chart its progress toward effective functioning.

2. Participants can predict the results of the analysis.

3. Forms may be modified to elicit expectations from new group members.

4. Group members can collaborate on designing an instrument to measure the growth of the group.

Scoring Instructions: Group-Climate Inventory

Items 3, 6, 9, 12, and 16 are negative behaviors; they should be scored first: A = 0, T = 1, U = 2, S = 3, R = 4, and N = 5. All other items are scored the reverse: A = 5, T = 4, U = 3, S = 2, R = 1, and N = 0. The ratings in each of the four columns may then be added to obtain scores for each of the following aspects of group climate:

Column 1. Genuineness

Column 2. Understanding

Column 3. Valuing

Column 4. Acceptance

Rumor Clinic: A communications Experiment (Pfeiffer and Jones, Vol. 2, No. 28)

Goal

To illustrate distortions which may occur in transmission of information from an original source through several individuals to a final destination.

Group Size

Unlimited. There should be a minimum of eight participants.

Time Required

Thirty minutes.

Materials

1. Copies of the Rumor-Clinic Observation Form for process observers.
2. Newsprint and a felt-tipped marker.

Physical Setting

1. A meeting room. All observers are seated facing an area where the rumor clinic is staged.

2. A separate room in which volunteers can be isolated.

Process

1. The facilitator asks for six volunteers. (The rest of the group remains to act as process observer.)
2. Five of the six volunteers are asked to go into the isolation room. One remains in the meeting room with the facilitator and the observers.
3. The facilitator distributes Rumor-Clinic Observation Forms to the observers, who are to take notes on the proceedings.
4. He then reads the "accident report" on the Observation Form to the volunteer, who may not take notes on what he hears.
5. The facilitator asks a volunteer in the isolation room to return.
6. The first volunteer repeats to the second what he heard from the facilitator. It is important that each volunteer transmit the message in his own way, without help.
7. A third volunteer returns and the second repeats what he heard from the first.
8. The process is repeated until all volunteers but the sixth have had the message transmitted to them.
9. Then the sixth volunteer returns to the room. He is told that he is to assume the role of policeman. The fifth participant repeats the message to the policeman. Afterwards, the policeman writes the message on newsprint so the group can read it.
10. The facilitator then posts the original message (previously prepared on newsprint) so it can be compared with the policeman's version.

11. Observers are asked to report their notes. Volunteers then discuss their experience. The facilitator leads a discussion with the entire group on implications of the Rumor Clinic.

Variations

1. The succession of messages can be recorded (either audio or video) for replay during the processing.

2. The message can be rewritten to be more pertinent to the particular group.

3. A brief silent film, "Fidelity of Report," can be used as the message (see '72 Annual, p. 246, for a reference).

4. The entire group can be used as conveyors of messages. (No observers are used.) Groups of six are formed, and five persons from each group are sent to the isolation room. The facilitator reads the message to the remaining participants. One member from each group is brought back into the meeting room at the same time to receive the message. The final members simultaneously write the message for all to see.

Rumor-Clinic Observation Form

Accident Report: "I cannot wait to report this accident to the police. I must get to the hospital as soon as possible."

"The delivery truck, heading south, was turning right at the intersection when the sports car, heading north, attempted to turn left. When they saw that they were turning into the same lane, they both honked their horns but continued to turn without slowing down. In fact, the sports car seemed to be accelerating just before the crash."

| Volunteer | Additions | Deletions | Distortions |
|----------------|-----------|-----------|-------------|
| 1 | | | |
| 2 | | | |
| 3 | | | |
| 4 | | | |
| 5 | | | |
| 6 Policeman | | | |

Role Nominations: A Feedback Experience (Pfeiffer and Jones,
Vol. 2, No. 38)

Goals

1. To provide feedback to group members on the roles fellow members see them playing.

2. To study various types of roles in relation to groups goals.
3. To demonstrate that leadership in a small group consists of several functions which should be shared among members.

Group Size

Five to twelve members.

Time Required

Approximately one and one-half hours.

Materials

1. Copies of the Role Nominations Form for all participants.
2. Pencil and paper for all participants.

Physical Setting

Participants should be seated so that they can write comfortably, preferably at tables or desk chairs.

Process

1. The facilitator gives a lecturette on roles which group members often play. He explains that some roles relate to the group's task, some maintain and enhance the functioning of the group, and some detract from the group's work. He distributes the Role Nominations Forms and explains each of the fifteen roles included. (Names of members should be written in the same order on all the forms before the meeting begins.) Participants follow the instructions on the form.

2. When every participant has completed the form, each member calls out all the marks he put down, and each participant makes a complete tally for the entire group.

3. The group has a discussion of the array of tallies. Individual members are encouraged to solicit feedback on their distribution of

nominations. Attention may be given to whether persons play various functional roles and to methods of coping with dysfunctional roles.

Form 1

Name _____

Date _____

Metep

Decision Making

Directions: On the following pages you will find six classroom incidents that are taken from actual classroom events that have occurred recently in an elementary school setting. Please respond to each event by first defining what you see as the main issue and then the alternative approaches you might use to handle the problem. Try and make each response short and limit all responses to the answer sheet provided. Order all your responses as to the one you would attempt to use first, second, third, etc. You will have thirty minutes to complete this assignment. Please begin when the proctor signals. You may turn in your paper if you complete it before the time is up.

1. One of your fifth grade girls has shoplifted some clothing. Her parents tell her to keep the article. She comes to you for guidance.

Answer

2. A third grader slaps you on the rear end and runs down the hall to some older students who have dared him.

Answer

3. One of your sixth grade boys yells in class, "You think you're so damn smart because you're a teacher!"

Answer

4. You have just spent six weeks building up the morale of your fourth graders when a colleague parades into your room and in front of your children says she has never seen such a terrible class.

Answer

5. An unusually stubborn second grader who refuses to undertake an assignment screams, crumples his paper, scribbles on his desk and kicks you.

Answer

6. Your children are contributing food for a class party. "I won't eat Mickey's food," one child shouts. "It might have germs on it." Mickey starts to dash about the room yelling, "dirty, dirty, dirty, look out, dirty!"

Answer

Non-Verbal Rating Scale

Eye Contact

| | | | | | | |
|------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------------------|
| 1. Comfortable | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Uncomfortable |
| 2. Non-Attentive | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Attentive |
| 3. Good | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Bad |
| 4. Flexible | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Rigid |
| 5. Passive | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Active |
| 6. Confident | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Doubts his ability |
| 7. Secure | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Insecure |
| 8. Bold | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Shy |
| 9. Calm | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Jittery |
| 10. Interested | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Disinterested |

Individuals Body Movements

| | | | | | | |
|----------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-----------------|
| 1. Active | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Passive |
| 2. Distracting | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Not Distracting |
| 3. Clumsy | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Skillful |
| 4. Tense | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Relaxed |
| 5. Apathetic | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Enthusiastic |
| 6. Comfortable | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Uncomfortable |
| 7. Immature | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Mature |
| 8. Polite | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Rude |
| 9. Bold | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Shy |
| 10. Sure | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Unsure |

Posture

| | | | | | | |
|-------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|----------------|
| 1. Relaxed | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Tense |
| 2. Comfortable | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Uncomfortable |
| 3. Attentive | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Unattentive |
| 4. Socially inept | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Socially adept |
| 5. Careless | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Careful |
| 6. Good | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Bad |
| 7. Flexible | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Rigid |
| 8. Calm | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Jittery |
| 9. Polite | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Rude |
| 10. Active | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Inactive |

Non-Verbal Communication Skills

| | | | | | | |
|------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-----------------|
| 1. Coherent | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Incoherent |
| 2. Tense | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Relaxed |
| 3. Successful | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Unsuccessful |
| 4. Polite | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Rude |
| 5. Complimentary | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Uncomplimentary |
| 6. Good | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Bad |
| 7. Flexible | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Rigid |
| 8. Comfortable | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Uncomfortable |
| 9. Active | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Passive |
| 10. Skillful | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Unskillful |

S.D.*
Form 1

Student I.D. _____

Date _____

| | | Concept | | | | | |
|-----|-------------|---------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------------|
| 1. | Good | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Bad |
| 2. | Potent | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Impotent |
| 3. | Pessimistic | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Optimistic |
| 4. | Dark | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Light |
| 5. | Commonplace | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Bizarre |
| 6. | Incomplete | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Complete |
| 7. | Current | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Untimely |
| 8. | Deep | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Shallow |
| 9. | Successful | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Unsuccessful |
| 10. | Small | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Large |
| 11. | Falling | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Rising |
| 12. | Bottom | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Top |
| 13. | Male | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Female |
| 14. | Meaningless | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Meaningful |
| 15. | Passive | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Active |
| 16. | Useful | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Useless |
| 17. | Slow | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Fast |
| 18. | Forward | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Backward |
| 19. | Complex | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Simple |
| 20. | True | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | False |

* Semantic Differential

| | | | | | | | |
|-----|-------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|---------------|
| 21. | Sharp | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Dull |
| 22. | Negative | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Positive |
| 23. | New | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Old |
| 24. | Dishonest | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Honest |
| 25. | Tough | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Tender |
| 26. | Open | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Closed |
| 27. | Bland | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Savory |
| 28. | Respectful | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Disrespectful |
| 29. | Thoughtful | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Thoughtless |
| 30. | Interesting | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Uninteresting |
| 31. | Religious | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Irreligious |
| 32. | Smooth | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Rough |
| 33. | Wet | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Dry |
| 34. | Sloppy | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Neat |
| 35. | Cold | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Hot |
| 36. | Friend | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Enemy |

Vitae

Name: Graham, Frances D.
Place of Birth: Atlanta, Georgia
Title: Assistant Professor of Education
Graduate and Undergraduate Faculty
Appointed: September, 1965

Earned Degrees

B.S. Degree, Sophia University, 1966 (Major: Sociology; Minor: History)
M.S. Degree, Hampton Institute, 1969 (Major: Guidance and Counseling)
M.A. Degree, New York University, 1975 (Major: Early Childhood Education)
Advanced Certificate, William and Mary College, 1976 (Guidance and Counseling)

Further Study, Colorado College,

Education Experience

Substitute Teacher, all grades
Shreveport, Louisiana, 1957-59

Teacher
NK, Tokyo, Japan, USAD, 1960-63

Head Teacher of Early Childhood
Hampton Public Schools, First Grade, 1975-76

Assistant Professor of Education (Early Childhood, Elementary, and Special)
Hampton Institute, 1966-Present

Instructor - Elementary Education and Early Childhood
William and Mary, 1967-68

Supervisor of Student Teachers in Early Childhood Education
William and Mary, Summer 1968

Instructor - English Department
Langley Air Force Base, 1968 (part-time)

Consultant - In-Service Workshop in Early Childhood for the Disadvantaged
Hampton Institute, Summer 1968

Teacher - Hampton Public Schools - 4 years
Teacher - Nursery - Kindergarten Dependent Schools
Tokyo, Japan - 3 years

Instructor - Teacher Corp
Guidance in the Elementary School
Summer 1969

Consultant in the Nongraded Follow Through Model
Hampton Institute (Arkansas, Tennessee, Atlantic City, New York),
1969-Present

Instructor - Teacher Corp
Literature in the Primary Grades
Hampton Institute, 1969-70

Coordinator of Practicum, Special Supervisor for Elementary Education,
Fellows and Assistant to the Program Director in the Educational
Personnel Development Program
Hampton Institute, 1969-70

Faculty Lecturer on the Three R's of Education, 1971

Member of Faculty Lecture Series Committee

Secretary, Hampton Institute Chapter, Department of Higher Education,
Virginia Education Association

Supervisor, Student Activities for Disadvantaged Youth
Hampton, Virginia

Representative to Leadership Training Institute, Special Education Projects
Washington, D. C.

Summer School for further study, New York University, 1969

Student Supervisor for students in the Cluster Program, 1969-70

Delta Sigma Theta Sorority representative to the Pan Council of
Newport News and Hampton, 1969-70

Chairman of Time and Place Committee of Delta Sigma Theta Sorority, 1969-70

Member of Student Appeals Committee, Hampton Institute, 1969-71

Student Advisor for Freshmen and Juniors, 1969-70

Set-up Orientation for supervising teachers of Newport News at Nelson
School, Spring Semester

Participated in orientation for supervising teachers of student teaching,
1969-70

Supervisor of students in Observation and Participation in
Hampton Schools, 1969-70

Assistant Director, Supervisor and Administrative Assistant for EPDA
Fellowship Program, 1969-72

Evaluate Institute for Educational Development
New York Public Schools, Summer 1970

Evaluator of EPDA Fellowship Program
Norfolk State College, 1971

Representative to LTI Conference
Atlanta, Georgia, 1971

Consultant in Children's Literature and Classroom Environment, Follow
Through Program, 1971

Consultant, Elementary School Methods
Surry County, Virginia

Consultant, Hampton Public Schools, In-Service for Teachers

Chairman of Faculty Committee on Committees, 1976-77

Acting Director of Teacher Education, Summer 1978

Task Force for Recruiting for Hampton Institute, 1978-79

Awards

Faculty Development Research Grant
Hampton Institute, 1978-79

BAI Fellowship, 1977-78

Member of Board of the Gifted
Hampton Public Schools, 1977-78