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IN THE INTERPERSONAL PROCESS LABORATORY A HUMAN RELATIONS TRAINING GROUP

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Felice Schulman-Marcus

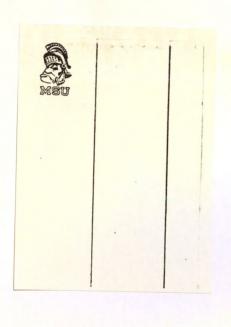
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Date November 9, 1978

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By

#### Felice Schulman-Marcus

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements

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DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Educational Psychology

#### ABSTRACT

# LEADER INTERVENTIONS AND THEIR CONSEQUENCES IN THE INTERPERSONAL PROCESS LABORATORY A HUMAN RELATIONS TRAINING GROUP

By

#### Felice Schulman-Marcus

This study examines the characteristics of effective and ineffective leader intervention behavior at certain critical points in a human relations training group, the Interpersonal Process Laboratory. It also examines the utility of several new concepts and techniques used to study leader intervention behavior: the critical incident, the intervention episode, and the stimulated recall technique. Effectiveness is defined in terms of student and observer perceptions and changes in student behavior/attitudes.

The Interpersonal Process Laboratory differs from many human relations training groups because it is objective based, graded, and required course-work. Students are expected to master eight interpersonal communication skills. The group leader has the responsibility of helping students attain and demonstrate the skills, and evaluates student performance on a Pass-Incomplete mastery model.

The intervention behavior of four volunteer leaders was studied, each facilitating one group of 14-17 students. Intervention behavior was studied in relation to ten critical incidents. These are events occurring throughout the group life that involve issues important to the successful functioning of the group, e.g., fear of self-disclosure. A new unit of analysis was developed, the intervention episode.

Perceived effectiveness was determined by analyzing student selfreport data and observer ratings of the intervention's impact. Selfreport data on student perceptions of leader behavior and the Laboratory
were gathered by administering post-session questionnaires. A stimulated
recall technique was sometimes used that asked students to react to a
tape recording of a past episode to get direct feedback. An observer recorded nonverbal behavior and student reactions. The interventions being
studied aimed at changing students' detrimental behaviors or attitudes.

Data were gathered to see if the interventions were successful and desired
changes occurred. Intervention episodes were categorized as Perceived
Effective, Perceived Ineffective or Neutral. Further breakdowns focused
on the immediate and long-term impact of the intervention, and the effects
of two modifying variables studied: group stage and the critical incident.

All sessions were tape recorded. Written transcriptions were made of each intervention episode. Complex quantitative analyses of intervention episodes in various categories were performed using a modified version of the Issacson Scale of Interaction Analysis (1976) and other variables.

effectiveness depended upon adequate amounts of caring and cognition.

Failure to exhibit caring behaviors was strongly associated with perceived ineffectiveness. Leaders also provided less cognitive information during ineffective episodes. The group stage and critical incident had little effect on the nature of perceived effectiveness or ineffectiveness. The intervention episode, critical incident, and stimulated recall technique all proved useful methods of studying leader behavior.

Further examination of the data based on clinical impressions led to the formulation of a descriptive model of effective leader intervention behavior which incorporated the original findings. The model is composed of six categories of behavior called the Six C's of Effectiveness: Caring, Cognition, Clarity, Communication, Consequences, and Closure. Caring deals with the leader's verbal and nonverbal behavior which reflects a genuine desire to understand and assist students. Cognitive behaviors help students conceptualize and attach meaning to individual and group experiences. Clarity refers to the leader's verbal ability to clearly communicate. Communication behaviors increase the personal nature and the amount of communication. Consequences deals with behaviors which ensure students are presented with the negative consequences of their behavior/attitudes. Closure involves behaviors which make sure the central cognitive and affective needs of students are adequately addressed. Behavior in the first four categories leads to perceived effectiveness while all six categories result in actual changes in behavior/attitudes.

The model has implications for training group leaders. It also suggests new methods of teaching communication skills.

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Above all, I see indebted to the group leaders and students who sellowed me to come into their groups and study them. They gave much more than they received, but I hope this dissertation will make a come tribution worthy of their generosity and helpfulness. Thank you bures,

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I am also grateful to my committee members who showed patience and conviction throughout this process. Thanks to Dr. Cyril Warby, who had no reason to give me his time and energy, but did with caring and integrity, and to Dr. John Lopis, who has given me genuine warmth and wisdom at many a moment in my graduate career. He has contributed to my being, not just this project. Lastly, I would like to thank Dr. Lee Shulman, a man I respect, enjoy and admire. He was the first to make learning a truly exciting experience for me and he will always hold a special place in my thoughts.

Above all, I am indebted to the group leaders and students who allowed me to come into their groups and study them. They gave much more than they received, but I hope this dissertation will make a contribution worthy of their generosity and helpfulness. Thank you Butch, Jim. Dick and John!

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Over the last reenty years there has been a trunchdous grown
in the use of human relations training maps to the training and
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## aducation were all ideas proposed to make the schools responsive to the

#### INTRODUCTION

Over the last twenty years there has been a tremendous growth in the use of human relations training groups in the fields of education, business and the health professions. The group movement exploded onto the American scene in the 1960s with the emphasis on humanistic ideals. It seemed a perfect answer to the calls to develop heightened awareness, interpersonal competence, and self-actualization. Group encounter, sensitivity training, and marathon became common words in the home as well as in psychology courses. Though there was a good deal of fadism in the rising interest in group experiences, behind it lay a lasting and deep-rooted realization that understanding of self and effective interpersonal communication skills are necessary in our complex, stressful society.

Education was also swept into the Zeitgeist of the 1960s. There was discussion on the need to educate the whole child; to meet his or her affective as well as intellectual needs. Schools had to now do more than impart information; they had to give the child personal and social skills for living, which included coming to understand self and others. This was not a new idea, but for the first time it began to weave itself into the standard fabric of education. There was also the cry to humanize education, to make the school a place where feelings, creativity and independent strivings could survive. Schools were described as cold, unfeeling, harsh places where intellectual abilities and self-esteem were

smothered instead of fostered. Open classrooms, alternative programs, individualized learning, elective courses, and importantly, affective education were all ideas proposed to make the schools responsive to the needs and desires of students.

Teachers had to be competent in the areas of interpersonal communication and group dynamics in order to deliver affective education programs and be responsive to students' affective and cognitive needs. They also had to be aware of self, especially their values, since these colored their interactions with students. This meant career preparation programs were needed to give these skills and abilities to prospective teachers. Educators turned to the group movement as the most visible model of how to teach these skills, i.e., participation in a human relations training group. Consequently the first groups in teacher education were patterned after so-called sensitivity or T-groups which originated from the National Training Laboratory at Bethel, Maine (Bradford, Gibb & Benne, 1964). This is evidenced by the fact that most of the reported literature on groups in education is still listed in the journals under the heading of "sensitivity" groups. The growth of human relations or sensitivity training in schools of education is documented by Issacson (1976). He found over twenty schools of education that reported some type of training in this area. As he noted, the number is probably higher since the figure only reflects reported usage.

Along with the rise in human relations training in teached education programs, there has been increased questioning of the utility of this training and its safety. These are important issues, particularly when students are required to participate and are graded on their performance. A failing grade can halt a student's progress through his or her program of study, and continued failure can mean the student is prevented from entering the field. Concerns over utility stem from the paucity of research to validate that this training results in improved teacher and, ultimately, pupil performance. Deciding to use this technique in spite of this lack of validation must be balanced against studies that show how participants can suffer lasting emotional problems from these experiences (Hartley, Roback & Abramowitz, 1976; Lieberman, Yalom & Miles, 1973).

One of the primary concerns of those who question the use of human relations training groups is the competency of the leaders. Group leaders are usually empowered with a great deal of real and psychological power in relation to participants. A major study of encounter groups found that leadership style can have a profound positive or negative impact (Lieberman et al., 1973). Yet very little is actually known about the characteristics of effective leadership behavior in human relations training groups. This is somewhat ironic given that most writers in the field feel the leader is the central factor in bringing about changes in group members (Lieberman, 1976). The dearth of information has and still does create difficulties in the screening, hiring and training of competent professionals. Relying on the leader's past experiences in leading groups is insufficient because leaders may have developed their skills in personal growth or therapy groups with populations and constraints that are different from those faced in academic settings. Even if the leader's experiences are similar, there are limited methods and criteria for actually measuring his or her abilities.

There are many aspects of human relations training in career preparation programs that deserve attention. As suggested, one of the

key areas warranting investigation is determining the characteristics of effective and ineffective leader behavior. The research project reported here is a step toward meeting this need.

#### Purpose and Rationale for the Study

The nature of an intervention is of paramount importance to both the understanding and control of group growth and development. If the fact is accepted that there is a large measure of regularity and consistency among groups over a period of time and if there are identifiable classes of responses available to the group leader, then an attempt to gather and systematize these incidents and apply appropriate modes of response would seem to be a necessity.

(Cohen & Smith, 1971, p. 105)

While we acknowledge that there is more than one set of responses to a given critical incident, we nevertheless assert that there are certain preferred alternatives that can be evaluated on the basis of empirical observations of their effects upon the group.

(Cohen & Smith, 1971, p. 104)

This study is based on the beliefs that leader interventions do have differential effects, and that research can and should proceed to define the characteristics of interventions that are facilitative and inhibitory in nature. It examines the characteristics of effective and ineffective interventions at certain critical points in a specialized human relations training group, the Interpersonal Process Laboratory (IFL). There has been a paucity of research on this particular type group with its unusual characteristics of being objective based, graded, and required coursework for teacher trainees. Such research is needed because of the growth of similar group experiences in career training programs. The required nature of these groups makes it especially important to provide the most effective leaders possible. As already discussed, there is a lack of substantive empirical data on the nature of effective leadership behavior in human relations training groups. The purpose of this study is to examine leader interventions at certain key

points in the IFL group to determine some of the variables associated with positive and negative impact.

The literature on groups suffers from a lack of carefully designed studies on the impact of trainer interventions. Though the importance of trainer or leader comments is constantly discussed, little work has been done to determine which aspects of the trainer's interventions are facilitative (Bradford et al., 1964; Cohen & Smith, 1971; Lakin, 1972; Lippitt, 1971; Psathas & Hardert, 1966). Many writers have advocated this type of research but few studies have been attempted because of the difficult measurement problems involved (Campbell & Dunnette, 1968; Lundgren, 1971; O'Day, 1968; Psathas & Hardert, 1966). The research that has been done has focused on the T-group leader's behavior. The only notable exception is the work on encounter group leaders by Lieberman, Yalom and Miles (1973). There were thought to be problems in generalizing the results of these studies to the IPL leader because there are significant differences between the IPL and the encounter or T-group. differences that are reflected in the leader's role in each. An understanding of these differences is prerequisite to appreciating the need for this study. The organizational and structural components of the IPL will be described so that they can be compared to those of the average T-group. 8. Process Model - the ability to use the process madel (Adams)

The Interpersonal Process Laboratory (IPL) is somewhat unique in the general human relations training movement. First, it is objective based, that is, there are a set of eight objectives that students are expected to achieve in order to reach mastery level in the course. These objectives involve interpersonal communication skills and can be briefly summarized as follows:

- 1. Interaction Analysis the ability to assess if a verbal

  message is primarily affective or cognitive and to respond
  appropriately
- 2. Self-description the ability to describe one's immediate
  feelings and thoughts as they relate to the on-going process
- 3. Active Listening the ability to execute the component parts
  of this skill such as maintaining focus, paraphrasing, tentative sharing, and so on, in a manner that assists the sender
  in exploring his/her feelings and ideas
- 4. Questioning the ability to ask clarifying and exploratory
  questions related to the sender's feelings, ideas and nonverbal behavior
- 5. Feedback the ability to give responsible positive and negative feedback according to the criteria outlined in the course
- 6. Observation Skill the ability to verbalize the perceived

  meanings and specific attributes of nonverbal behavior rele-
- 7. Values Awareness the ability to verbalize and explore one's belief system and the degree of consistency or inconsistency between stated beliefs and actual behaviors demonstrated
- 8. Process Model the ability to use the process model (Assessment, Goal Setting, Strategies, Evaluation) in relation to one's own interpersonal growth

The IFL has two other features that distinguish it from encounter or T-groups: it is a required part of a career training program and participants are graded on a mastery system. Specifically, it is part of the curriculum for teacher trainees at Michigan State University.

Grading on the mastery system means that the student either receives a Pass indicating acceptable competency with the skills, or an Incomplete, which requires the student to remain in the course. A more complete picture of the IFL is necessary to fully understand the nature of the experience.

Typically a group consists of 15-18 college sophomores and juniors who sign up for the IFL as a required part of the teacher education curriculum. This is the initial course in their teacher training program and few have past or concomitant teaching experience. Students are told they will have to learn and exhibit certain interpersonal communication skills in the IFL in order to receive a passing grade.

The group meets five hours each week in a two- and a three-hour time block over a period of ten weeks or one term. A teaching assistant (TA) is assigned as facilitator for each group. It is his responsibility to present the skills and lead the participants through a varied series of discussions aimed at attaining and demonstrating the skills.

An effort is made to develop an attitude toward the potential value of the skills in the classroom, the transfer situation of interest. At the same time students are encouraged to incorporate the skills into their general manner of functioning so that they can maintain them until the time they become classroom teachers. Acceptable student competence in the skills is determined by the TA with the assistance of informal and formal peer and self-evaluations. Twice during the term the TA gives each student a written evaluation on their progress toward mastery. As the brief description reveals, much of the leader's role is defined by environmental factors and his position as teacher and evaluator.

This somewhat sterile representation of the IFL is misleading since the actual process is far from that. In reality it is characterized by considerable enthusiasm, good feeling and learning as revealed by process observations and end-term evaluations. An overwhelming majority of the students (75-80%) report that retrospectively they would choose to take the IFL even if it were not required. Other data indicate a strong desire to participate in an advanced IFL or similar type group and a positive attitude toward the inclusion of such experiences in teacher training programs.

Contrast the IPL to the average T-group and the leader's role as described by Campbell and Dunnette (1968):

Thus, the T-group learning experience has as its focal point the small, unstructured, face-to-face group, usually consisting of 10-15 people. Typically, no activities or topics for discussion are planned. A trainer is usually present, but he does not accept, in fact he overtly rejects, the leadership role. The participants are to discuss themselves and the way they portray themselves in the group. . . the focus is on the "here and now" . . . cognitive aspects of problems are ancillary to [an] affect-laden orientation. Focusing on the here and now is facilitated by the trainer's abdication of the leadership role and his lack of responsiveness to the status symbols brought to the group by the participants. . . Frequently, the trainer merely specifies the length of time the group will be meeting and that the major concern is with seeking to understand one's own and others' behavior. He then falls silent or otherwise refuses further guidance. (p. 76)

Typically, hostility and frustration emerge in this setting as the group members try to determine their purpose and the norms they will be operating under. The behaviors exhibited by the members in this process become the initial topics for discussion. The trainer serves as a catalyst, reflecting the group dynamics and occasionally posing questions for the members to consider. Via this process the group comes to understand the nature of the experience and to learn about themselves, their behavior, feelings, perceptions of self and others. Issues discussed

usually center on the need for structure, feelings toward authority, ways of decision making and, significantly, feelings toward the leader. As this description reveals, the role of the leader in the IFL and the T-group is notably different. These differences are highlighted in Table 1.

The differences outlined in Table 1 are even more pronounced in the encounter group situation because the objectives are looser and the leader's role is less defined. The encounter group emphasizes experience for experience's sake and sensation awareness. A wider range of behavior is considered acceptable and exploration can lead into areas considered outside the content boundaries of the IPL. In addition, such groups are rarely required or related to on-the-job training or career preparation.

On a continuum of similarity the T-group would be much closer to the IPL than the average encounter group.

It would be a misrepresentation to portray the T-group and the IPL as totally different in nature. There are basic, important similarities such as the emphasis on the here and now, the general nature of the objectives, the focus on interpersonal feedback and communication skills, and the content for analysis being the behaviors generated by group members as they interact. If these similarities are underplayed it is to emphasize the seeming limitations of generalizing research done on the T-group leader to the IPL facilitator. In fact, it was the differential functioning of the leaders in carrying out the similar intent behind such groups that necessitated this study.

The importance of doing research on the IFL leader is accentuated if one considers the growth of such experiences in career training programs. Because of their required nature, participants are often prevented

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1. Leadership

The TA is the leader, he gives the goals and objectives to the students, brings in activities (exercises) and generally decides the structure of the sessions. He takes a very directive, structuring

2. Teacher

However the TA rejects the stereotyped teacher-student relationship as the IPL The TA is a teacher since the IPL is a class in a teacher education program. itself rejects the purely cognitive orientation of most courses.

students on the amount of learning that regular exams, but they are given writhas occurred. Students are not given ten feedback sheets on their progress The TA is an evaluator and grades the twice each term. Students who do not reach a certain skill level must take 3. Evaluator

4. Objectives

rects the group so that they are learned. certain body of cognitive knowledge about

This implies the need to transmit a

the nature of the skills and to provide

conditions for practice.

The TA has a specific set of objectives

the course over again.

that students are to master and he di-

role and tries to prevent the members from He does not present the objectives explicputting him in such an authority position. The T-group leader rejects the leadership itly, nor does he specifically structure group sessions. He takes a nondirective leadership role.

vent himself from being cast in the teacher role of giver of information and structure. The aim is to have the leader perceived as a resource person rather than a teacher or virtue of his position. He works to pre-The T-group leader is not a teacher by any similar type authority figure.

conditions of maximum psychological safety. a member who seems to have learned little. be as nonevaluative as possible to create The T-group leader is not an evaluator in He also does not have the power to apply any overt sanctions to any formal sense. No grades or progress In fact T-group leaders are cautioned to reports are given.

(non-behavioral) set of objectives or goals leader's role is mainly to insure that memthe methodology, e.g., here-and-now focus, but there is no body of knowledge to be The T-group leader has a loosely defined bers are working within the confines of that members are to strive toward. transmitted.

10

		11	
T-group Leader	The T-group leader, because of his more nondirective role, has less obvious responsibilities for learning. Members are responsible for the bulk of their learning. Also he has no set body of information to deliver.  The T-group leader rarely gives theory	lessons directly. If these are given at all they are done outside the group by another person. However, his interventions often spontaneously give theory on the dynamics of human learning in a group situation.	hey are not able to majorat- cess being presently evaluated or with a great deal of power rictpant, beth psychologically spariences by outside groups t
proc	The T-group leader nondirective role sponsibilities for responsible for ting. Also he has mation to deliver. The T-group leader	lessons directly all they are don another person, tions often spon the dynamics of situation.	or branch of advention and hele curvicula only than failed groups of students, expectedly feedem of expression of the ofer. All such group factors
IFL Leader	The TA is responsible for presenting the cognitive content and making sure the group is working toward attainment of the objectives. He assumes substantial responsibility for member learning.  The TA has to cover certain added con-	cepts from the textbook materials related to the tasks of teaching and learning in a group. At times this required content may be presented in a didactic mode for convenience or it may be given via TA interventions.	congerous brainwanings, consider of the Privacy of as they are a competent as a free serious and a continuous and a continuou
Roles & onsibilities	or Learning Cor Learning S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S	o D o E O A e limitations be derable of the I was little guara be modeled and c	tages Enoulodge of the feet of the feet of the lacking. Until these tree that the ensential since that the ensential since the treiting secretors and the

Mercant dasmas and skills.

from entering the profession involved if they are not able to successfully complete their group experience, success being primarily evaluated
by the group leader. This endows the leader with a great deal of power
in relation to the sometimes unwilling participant, both psychologically
and objectively. The interventions that has a professionally to be a sometimes of the someti

There is also resistance to such experiences by outside groups as pointed out by Kaplan and Sadock (1973):

What is of concern is the growing tendency of relatively few ultraconservatives to put great pressure on boards of education and
school administrators to cut out of their curricula any innovative
procedures involving dialogue within groups of students, especially
if the dialogue or discussions allows freedom of expression of the
students' personal feelings and fantasies. All such group discussions are now labeled sensitivity training by ultraconservatives
and then, by . . implication become dangerous brainwashings,
group criticism, self-criticism and invasion of the privacy of
the individual. (p. 90)

If such programs are to continue to flourish they need competent personnel and adequate procedures so that criticisms from outside groups can be counteracted or acknowledged and dealt with.

There were also concerns in the selection and training of group leaders. Though the IFL type group is considerably different from the therapy or T-group, the leaders of IFL groups usually have their background experience in such settings and need help to adjust to their new roles. This is typically done through modeling other experienced TAs and participation in training sessions on relevant issues. Unfortunately these practices had severe limitations because knowledge of the factors involved in effective leadership of the IFL was lacking. Until these factors were known there was little guarantee that the essential elements of leader behavior would be modeled and that training sessions would concentrate on the most important issues and skills.

composed it, the verbal utterences of the leader (Renet, 1974; Cohen &

There was and is an obvious need for refined research studies on the impact of leader interventions in human relations training groups.

This study is valuable because it went beyond being a piece of action research to meet the immediate needs of the IFL; it also explored a method of examining leader interventions that has generalizability to other group-oriented programs. Though the group work literature is replete with statements about the importance of variation in leader interventions, few serious studies have been done to study systematically the nature of interventions and their hypothesized impact. This study was designed to remedy partially this situation by providing information on the characteristics and consequences of selected trainer interventions.

#### General Approach

Following Banet's (1974) contention that "not every grunt uttered by the psychotherapist is an intervention," it can be argued that not all TA interventions are of equal importance. Though there is merit in looking at all interventions, this study examines only select cases of intervention at points where they appear of special significance. The type of intervention under consideration is one that aims at modifying, reversing or otherwise changing some behavior or attitude. The points are marked by certain "critical incidents" that serve as cues that an intervention is called for. The incidents are seen as symptoms of significant underlying issues which need to be addressed if the group is to successfully carry out its purpose.

A sequential unit of analysis is employed, the intervention episode. Previously researchers looked at an intervention in two ways: emphasizing its function, e.g., to convey theory, show support; or the sentences that composed it, the verbal utterances of the leader (Banet, 1974; Cohen &

Smith, 1976; Fiebert, 1968; O'Day, 1968). Both have limitations. By concentrating solely on the function of the intervention one loses the particulars that account for the variation among interventions with the same purpose. However, when the sentence is the unit the psychological import of the intervention can be lost. Neither allows the investigator to look at the intervention as a series of verbal remarks or moves that together account for the major impact of the intervention. The intervention episode is designed to do this. This sequence unit is defined by all the verbal exchanges that take place from the first TA utterance following detection of a critical incident to the point where the episode is implicitly or overtly resolved. Criteria for determining the terminal boundary are discussed at a later point in this chapter.

The TA's verbal remarks during an intervention episode are studied using a modified version of a content analytic system developed by Issacson (1976) for the IFL. With this system the TA's remarks are placed into one of nine categories which roughly correspond to the communication skills taught in the IFL, e.g., active listening, positive responsible feedback. Once a remark is categorized, its emotional tone is also rated as either positive, neutral or negative. The content area of the remark is not examined because this is seen as less important and it is already restricted since only interventions that pertain to certain topics are studied.

The impact of an intervention is assessed in several ways as it is felt that a multiple dependent variable approach is best. First, an observer in each group rates the overall impact of the intervention episode on the participants directly involved and the group in general. This is useful because the participants' nonverbal behavior can be taken into account. The observer is able to detect member hostility, comfort,

withdrawal and other emotions expressed nonverbally. This information would otherwise be lost since only audio-recordings of sessions are available. This index suffers from all of the problems related to live observer ratings; therefore data collected in this manner is intended to serve as a secondary source to be used in interpreting other impact measures.

Second, students are asked to fill out a post-session questionnaire at the end of each session. This form contains questions in four
areas: 1) student perceptions of TA behavior, 2) how they think others
see the TA's behavior, 3) perceptions of the level of group unity, and
4) overall reactions to the IPL experience. Questions are designed to
focus on the types of behavior TAs usually exhibit during intervention
episodes. Member responses should therefore be a reflection of the way
in which the TA handles an intervention episode during that session.
Again there are limitations on the conclusions that can be drawn from
these data since students may be reacting to aspects of the session other
than the intervention episode.

The third measure used involves a stimulated recall technique. Where possible an intervention episode is rerun for the group at the start of the next session. Participants are then asked to answer a series of questions about how they felt when the interaction originally occurred. This technique overcomes the limitations of the post-session questionnaire because participants are responding directly to the intervention. The stimulated recall technique has been extensively studied by Kagan (1969a, 1969b, 1972) and results indicate that this procedure greatly enhances the participants' ability to reinstate their feelings at the time of the interaction.

Finally, empirical data are gathered to assess the impact of the interventions on participant behavior. For example, if the intervention involved the need to self-disclose more, do the students involved now exhibit a higher rate of self-disclosure? Wherever possible the tape recordings are analyzed to determine if such behavioral changes follow intervention episodes. To guard against the confounding effects of extraneous variables, only the first three sessions following the intervention episode are examined for changes. The assumption is that if the intervention did have an impact, the effects should show up quickly and changes that occurred in the next few sessions could more safely be attributed to the intervention itself.

In summary, the impact of an intervention is studied in several ways, via perceived impact as determined by the observer and the participants, and empirically in terms of actual behavioral changes that appear to be associated with the intervention. This is a more comprehensive approach to investigating impact than has yet been tried.

Two other modifying variables are studied to account for the factors that contribute to the effectiveness of an intervention: the group stage and the type(s) of students involved. Whether an intervention occurs in the early, middle or late parts of the group life may influence how it should be carried out and the reactions of participants. Similarly, what might be seen as an effective intervention with one type of student, for example, a verbal, confident one, may not be perceived as such if the student is shy and withdrawn. Questionnaire data are gathered at the end of the third and seventh week to determine the perceptions students have of each other. This information is used to see if student reactions to TA behavior vary with the type of students involved in an intervention episode.

Four TAs participated in this study, each facilitating one group.

They are volunteers selected from a larger group of TAs to ensure variability in style and effectiveness. All are reasonably experienced having led groups for at least two years. Variability in style is desirable so that a range of effective interventions can be examined.

#### Further Description of Major Methodological Components

## Critical Incidents

In order to compare intervention patterns the situations or issues to which they are directed need to be comparable across groups. Cohen and Smith (1976) investigated such situations for the T-group and developed the concept of the critical incident. These incidents are said to occur in almost all T-groups with varying modifications and their effective handling by the leader is felt to have a great significance for the productive growth of the group. They define a critical incident as follows:

A critical incident is defined as the confrontation of a group leader with one or more members, in which an explicit or implicit opinion, decision, or action is demanded of the leader. It may also be observed conversation, a confrontation among members, an event taking place, or a period of silence. The essential property of a critical incident is that the phenomenon is judged important enough by a group leader to consider, consciously and explicitly, a decision to act in a way assumed to have an important impact on the group. This implies that the group leader is faced with a number of "choice points" or alternatives in both the content and style of possible responses. (p. 88, underlining mine)

As with the T-group, critical incidents occur in the life of an IFL group that reflect the unique demands of that group situation. In

Not to be confused with Flanagan's (1954) use of the term. Flanagan coined the term "critical incident technique" during World War II while studying the critical requirements of activities such as combat leadership and disorientation of pilots.

identifying these incidents certain features of a critical incident

- 1. Implications The proper handling of the incident by the leader is assumed to have substantial impact on the member(s) involved.

  It may also affect other group members via vicarious learning.

  If not handled correctly, nonfacilitative behaviors and/or feelings might ensue that would hamper the members from having a successful group experience. An effective intervention might also deflect or prevent negative behaviors or feelings from ever developing.
  - Relationship to Group Objectives The incident involves issues that are significantly related to the objectives of the group.
  - 3. Shared Meaning The issues implied in the incident have relevance for many group members because of their close connection to the objectives and the nature of the group experience.
  - 4. Frequency The incident occurs frequently across groups.

The critical incident as defined refers to the precipitating event that triggers an intervention episode. These incidents act as cues or signals that an intervention is called for. They are critical because they reflect underlying issues that need to be treated in a corrective manner by the intervention. Work was done to determine some of these critical incidents and underlying issues for the IPL.

A questionnaire was developed (see appendix B) consisting of ten issues and possible corresponding critical incidents. The form was given to seven experienced IFL leaders, all of whom had been conducting IFL groups for several years. First they were asked to decide if the issues and incidents qualified as critical given the criteria outlined above.

They were also asked to list any other issues they felt should be included.

Finally they were to rank the issues in terms of their frequency of occurrence across groups including in their ranking any issues they added.

Based on these data the ten most frequently occurring critical incident issues were picked for this study. 

They are listed along with examples of corresponding critical incidents:

#### Issues Involved

#### 1. Reluctance to Give Negative Feedback

#### Critical Incidents

- 1 discomfort expressed by members about giving it
  - verbalizing that it means criticism and someone might get hurt
  - expressing discomfort about group process right after negative feedback is given or trying to change the topic
- continually following their negative feedback with a "but" statement and positive feedback
- Nonparticipation by Group Member(s) - Withdrawn, Shy Member(s)
- 2 reluctance of members to give opinions, feelings, especially in a large group
  - feelings by some that they are doing all the work, that others are not contributing
  - verbalizations by some of feeling pressured to speak or pressuring others who do not want to
  - extended periods of silence in the group
  - same members speak all the time while the rest remain fairly silent
- Failure to Own One's Feelings
- 3 speaking for everyone, e.g., "This is how we feel"
  - not using the term "I" but using we, one, they, you, people in general, etc. when discussing ideas and feelings
  - blaming others for your feelings, e.g., "You make me angry"

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Henceforth the term critical incident will be used to refer to the critical incident issue, so that, for example, critical incident number 4 would be Resistance/Hostility.

## 4. Resistance/Hostility

- 4 questioning the right of the TA to evaluate their skill usage
  - claiming this is an artificial setting which is why they are not performing
  - saying they do it with children which is where it counts
  - feeling constantly evaluated/analyzed
  - attacking verbally the TA's comments, opinions

## 5. Refusing to be Responsible for Changing Self

- 5 comments such as "I've always been that way, I can't change," or "That's just the way I am"
- other statements to the effect that the person has little control over what they are, that their past or present environment prevents them group, but it does present many of the from changing

#### 6. TA put in Authority Position

- 6 continually addressing comments to the TA rather than directing them to the entire group
- saying it is the TA's responsibility to make sure things are con-One of the major problems in the structive, not theirs
- being overconcerned about what the TA has to say, his reactions and feedback

# 7. Nonfacilitative Emotional

- 7 nonverbal behaviors experienced or Nonverbal Behavior negatively by group members - e.g., uninvolved, angry, grim
- and the company (0 bay, 1960 Pastra cries or appears to be near crying whenever confronted
- wantions are defined in terms of the exhibits aggressive actions when disagreed with
- member rejects or has difficulty making nonverbal contact with intended purpose of an intervention is wothers but
- frequent and inappropriate giggling when discussing ideas and feelings

# Facilitate Self-Closure

- 8. Overtalk/Inability to 8 person monopolizes conversation, goes from one idea to the next Others become frustrated and confused
- not established effective oritaria to person presents a view and then proceeds to elaborate and exhaust interpolation For ingrance, o'Day deff all possibilities for discussion

- Here and Now
- 9. Failure to Stay with the 9 continually trying to discuss topics outside the group experience, e.g., roommates, friends, sports
- because there is no prychological or 1- continually rehashing past sessions without relating them to the present - continually telling how they use the skills outside the group
- 10. Expectations for the Group 10 expressing fears about what might the intervention episods. It is a "too happen in the group ...
- sharing rumors about negative exby Dankin and Biddle (1974): "tworfest periences others have had in groups - continually expressing desires to move the group more in the direction of therapy or encounter

This list does not include all the critical incidents that might occur, but it does present many of the more common ones confronting the impact. This view seems particularly applicable to the type vention being studied because of its corrective intent. The air is to

# The Intervention Episode Stal polynomia and the American Stale Sta

One of the major problems in the literature has been disagreement in defining an intervention. Though interventions have been defined for coding purposes, the rationale for most definitions seems to be based more on practicality than theory, i.e., sentence units; remarks between student comments (0'Day, 1968; Psathas & Hardert, 1966). Usually interventions are defined in terms of their general purpose, e.g., to show support (Fiebert, 1968; Lakin, 1972; Lippitt, 1971). Characterizing the intended purpose of an intervention is useful but this does not clarify the attributes or dimensions along which various interventions with the same general function can vary. Some attempts to do that have been made (Cohen & Smith, 1976; Mann, 1967; O'Day, 1968) but these authors have not established effective criteria for determining the boundaries of an intervention. For instance, O'Day defined the boundaries in terms of the "uninterrupted verbal intervention or comment made by the trainer

between two student comments." He then goes on to break the intervention into sentence units for coding purposes. This method seems incomplete because there is no psychological or theoretical rationale for defining an intervention in this manner.

As stated earlier, this study uses a sequence unit of analysis, the intervention episode. It is a "tactical sequence unit" as discussed by Dunkin and Biddle (1974): "tactical units concern the immediate give and take among classroom members as they concern themselves with but a single topic." This type of unit was chosen because it seems logical to view an intervention as a series of verbal moves that have cumulative impact. This view seems particularly applicable to the type of intervention being studied because of its corrective intent. The aim is to alter or modify a detrimental behavior or attitude which differentiates this type of intervention from others with a different intent, e.g., to clarify or direct.

Since the intervention episode is a tactical unit it pertains to a single topic, i.e., one of the critical incident issues already presented. It also meets the need for a sequence unit with reliably distinct boundaries. To fully understand its boundaries it is necessary to discuss the concept of an episode as developed by Smith and Meux (1962).

Smith and Meux developed the concept of an episode to study classroom interaction. They defined it as "one or more exchanges which comprise a completed verbal transaction between two or more speakers."

It is topic-centered and has three phases which serve as its core. Variations can occur within phases, especially the second one. The phases are as follows:

- 1. Opening Phase verbal entry move in the form of "a remark or set of remarks (questions, assertions, etc.) signaling it will be followed by discussion, and setting the direction of that discussion" (p. 22).
- 2. Continuing Phase "is made up of the remarks (verbal moves)
  which are: a) either replies or answers to questions; b) claims,
  comments or opinions; c) questions that sustain the entry under
  discussion; d) anomalous questions" (pp. 22-23).
  - 3. Terminal Phase Overt or Implicit
- a) Overt "remarks which serve to cut off the flow of discus-
- b) Implicit "the episode is taken as terminated by the occurrence of remarks which signal the opening of a new episode"

The criteria Smith and Meux used to designate the opening and terminal phases are used in determining the boundaries of the intervention episode. The entry move in the opening phase begins with the first verbal utterance of the TA as he moves into the ongoing interaction at the point where he senses a critical incident. The terminal phase is redefined in terms of overt and implicit resolutions. Examples of an overt resolution might be a person saying he/she does not want to continue or that the problem has been resolved. An implicit resolution results when the leader or a student prematurely redirects the focus to another student or topic.

#### Issacson's Scale of Interaction Analysis (ISIA)

A modified version of this content analytic system is used to analyze the TA's verbal remarks during an intervention episode. This instrument was chosen because it was specifically developed for the IFL and it is proven to be valid and reliable. It focuses on the communication skills being used by the subject(s). Another advantage of the ISIA is that it calls for low-inference judgments on the part of the rater.

Interaction analysis requires that verbal interactions be broken down into segments which are then categorized. Issacson calls each of these segments an "event," defining it as "the shortest possible act that a trained observer can identify and record." Each event is given one of 33 possible codes depending on the type of communication skill being used, who is speaking and whether the domain is primarily affective or cognitive. It is a multiple coding category system where each event is coded twice. As Issacson explains it,

The codes (in most instances two codes per event) come from two category clusters; the first category cluster (cluster A) identifies who is speaking (either teacher, student or silence) and in what domain the speaker is talking (either cognitive or affective). The second cluster (cluster B) identifies what particular communication skill the speaker is using. Every event is coded with one code from cluster A and one code from cluster B. . . . . The categories are listed below according to clusters.

Changes in the coder were also necessary. Innugh charter I was

(p. 203)

Cluster A	Cluster B
- Teacher - cognitive	1 - Positive Feedback a. responsible
- Teacher - affective	b. irresponsible
- Student - cognitive	2 - Active listening
- Student - affective	3 - Elicits Information
	4 - Directs or Suggests
in to determine the domain as a	5 - Offers Information
	6 - Self-Description
In This seach event receives a	7 - Negative Feedback
	a. responsible
	h irregnangihle

This system was designed to be used by a trained observer listening to audio-tapes or making live observations. The rater is expected
to identify and code events at a speed of one code every five seconds.

No record is made of who is speaking except to designate if it is a student or the leader. We are the event is except to a second the

only TA comments were of interest, it was not appropriate to use the criteria of one code every five seconds since this would also include student comments. It was also not acceptable to code each "event" since coding would be done from written transcriptions and this would usually result in one code per sentence. As discussed earlier, coding each sentence has practical advantages but the TA's overall strategy is disguised when the sentence is the unit of analysis. An event was therefore redefined as "a sentence or group of sentences having a single code." Designating an event in this manner emphasizes the strategies taken by the TA and reduces the problem of having to decide where a sentence begins and ends for coding purposes. This is difficult to determine at times since speech contains many overlapping, disconnected, embedded and broken sentences. Using this definition the decision does not have to be made as often.

Changes in the codes were also necessary. Though cluster B was used in its original form, modifications of cluster A were made. It was unnecessary to distinguish between student and leader comments since this was done when making the transcription. However, it still was important to determine the domain as affective or cognitive, to be coded A or C. Thus each event receives a two-part code consisting of a letter, A or C, and a numerical code from cluster B, for example, A6; Cla; C5; A2.

The affective quality of each event is coded as mainly positive, neutral or negative. This is a rather subjective judgment based on the tone of the speaker and the way in which the message is delivered.

General criteria are established to help in making these decisions with the guideline that when in doubt the event is coded as neutral. The criteria used are based on the work done by 0'Day (1968) to study the affective tone of T-group leader intervention. They are as follows:

- Positive (P) Expressions of liking, trust, praising
- It same Expressions of satisfaction with member performance, showing support for a member's actions pattern size or ideas
- Apologizing for prior hostility, denying the intent to hurt to be hostile

Neutral (Nu) - No clear affective message comes through

- Negative (Ne) Expressions of anger, dislike, strong disapproval
- Expressions of indifference, frustration, feelings of giving up on the individual(s) or group
  - Guilt-inducing behaviors, i.e., shaming, blaming
- Attacking members, parrying members' suggestions in an obvious attempt to "win"

# Impact Measures

Very little has been done to determine the impact of leader behavior in human relations training groups. In large part this is due to the difficult problems of assessing the impact of an entire session, let alone a particular intervention within that session. When participants have been asked to rate the leader it is usually on global variables such as warmth, directiveness, or empathy. The researcher then infers the reasons why the leader received the ratings. This study takes a more focused approach to examining the impact of leader interventions. Several types of outcome measure have been developed that direct the respondent's attention toward specific leader behaviors and interventions. Information is also gathered on a more consistent basis than is typical of most studies.

In the past group members usually rated the leader once or twice during the group's life which forced them to make generalized reactions. In this case the participants are asked to make several ratings and an observer is constantly present in the group. Also three different outcome measures are used to compensate for the limitations of each. These measures have already been discussed earlier in this chapter (see pp.14-16).

## Modifying Variables

It seemed to be misleading to speak of a single effective intervention pattern since it might differ depending on situational variables. Not all variables are of equal weight, though, and it is probable that knowledge of the more significant ones is sufficient to guide the leader in deciding how to intervene. With these key variables in mind, one can discuss the nature of an effective intervention under certain conditions although other environmental variables are still unknown. It is hypothesized that group stage and the type of student(s) involved are two of the most crucial modifying variables. Interventions that fail to consider these should have less chance of being effective in terms of their perceived and real impact.

Most authors in this field agree that groups go through a series of developmental stages where different issues are of primary concern (Bradford et al., 1964; Cohen & Smith, 1971; Fiebert, 1968; Lundgren, 1971). Though they differ on the number of stages and their exact nature, all seem to agree that groups go through some initial stage where problems of goal definition and self-disclosure are prominent, then a period of conflict and frustration where the leader is often attacked, and finally a period where the group seems to solidify and intensify constructive, goal-directed behavior. These stages represent the development as it

occurs in the T-group, but the idea of stages of development can be applied to any similar type group experience. It is probably that the leader's behavior is judged according to the dynamics operating during that stage of the group's development. For instance, a strong, assertive intervention in the early stages of the group could have negative effects on participant risk taking. Correspondingly, the same type of intervention during the eighth week of the term might be seen as highly effective and constructive. To deal with this, student reactions to an intervention episode are examined in light of the stage they occur in. Stages have been somewhat arbitrarily defined by dividing the number of sessions into thirds.

Group member perceptions of an intervention can also be affected by the types of student involved. Three variables are being used in the definition of student type: activity level, verbalness, and personal security. At the end of each stage, approximately three and seven weeks, students are asked to fill out a brief questionnaire on every other student in the group. It contains eight 7-point semantic differential scales keyed to the three variables. The number of items and variables is limited since each student has to fill out the form twice on anywhere from twelve to sixteen other group members. Even with eight items, this comes to over 100 responses each administration, a somewhat time-consuming procedure. However, past experience indicates that the variables chosen have a significant impact on student perceptions of the "proper" approach to making an intervention. For example, students feel that the TA should take a tentative, gentle approach with peers seen as quiet and insecure.

Figure 1 presents an overall conceptualization of this study and a summary of its component parts. An overview of the remaining chapters is also given to guide the reader.

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Measures Impact

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	Secretary Name	
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a to Si	i	
Seriar Sere-e	Critical	
	E C	

# Component Parts

Intervention	- all that occurs from first verbal move to implicit or explicit resolution	Correction A.
Critical Incidents	1. Reluctance to Give Negative Feedback	2. Nonparticipation by Owere Group Members - Withdrawn, Shy Members

Scale of Interaction Analysis - three areas:

> 3. Failure to Own One's 4. Resistance/Hostility for Changing Self

Feelings

ing three preceding sessions to three sessions following

tudinal changes by compar-

look for behavioral/atti-

Individuals Involved -

- Type of communication skill used
- Domain affective or cognitive Affective quality - positive, neutral or negative 3.5

5. Refusing to be Responsible

- B. Additional analyses 1. Total time 2. TA/student TA put in Authority Position 7. Nonfacilitative Emotional
  - TA/student talk

Facilitate Self-closure or Nonverbal Behavior 8. Overtalk/Inability to

- Class as a Whole based on (PSQ), a determination will post-session questionnaire only interested in those behaviors/attitudes im-- also look at immediate only interested in the an intervention episode plied by the incident directly involved in consequences the episode issues
  - be made on perceived effec-Liveness

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# Variable modifications onestions expl Modifying

analysis described in Chapter 3.

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1, Stage Group

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Chapter 3, Methodology, provides a cutthat lose of the

Chapter 2, Review of the Literature, discusses the research that has been done on human relations training group leaders, with a special focus on the studies that examine effective and ineffective intervention behavior. It reveals the need for further in-depth research in this area, a need this study is designed to meet.

Chapter 3, Methodology, provides a further look at the Interpersonal Process Laboratory and describes the complex methodology used in this study. It includes a description of the sample, instrumentation, methods of analysis, the research questions, and statistical procedures.

Chapter 4, Results, presents the findings from the quantitative analysis described in Chapter 3. It also includes a description of the modifications made in the methodology and the final set of research questions explored.

Chapter 5, Discussion, begins with a summary of the findings from Chapter 4. It then outlines a new descriptive model of effective leader intervention behavior derived from clinical impressions and the results of the quantitative analysis. It also examines the utility of the methods used in this study.

Chapter 6, Summary and Conclusions, reviews the major findings and methodology. It also examines the implications of the work for the training of group leaders and teacher trainees.

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Almost all of the research on homen relations treating group less ore has focused on encounter and T-group leaders. As pointed not in the ter I, there may be problems in generalizing this research to the IM. leader, who has different demands placed on him. One of the secondary

## CHAPTER II

## REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Theories of personal change in groups emphasize the relationship of the leader to participants. . . In spite of fundamentally different conclusions about what leader inputs are crucial, all these theories agree on the centrality of the leader to the change process. It is he who sets up the learning experiences, who makes the interpretations or analyzes resistance, who establishes norms, who is the "model," and so forth. The specific content of the leader's actions and responsibilities may vary, but the underlying assumption is that the central factor in changing people is what the leader does or how he expresses himself.

(Lieberman, 1976, pp. 232-33)

One of the most widely held and unquestioned beliefs in the human relations training movement is that what the leader does or does not do will have an important impact on group process and participant learning. As Lieberman points out, many theories view the leader as central to the change process; that without him little or no learning would occur. Yet there has been little substantive research to support these claims and to examine how the leader's behavior affects the group. The result is that the group leader is given little information on how and when to intervene to promote group goals and prevent problems. It is only recently that investigators are beginning to realize the need for more systematic, in-depth studies of leader behavior and are developing the technologies needed to carry out this complicated research.

Almost all of the research on human relations training group leaders has focused on encounter and T-group leaders. As pointed out in chapter 1, there may be problems in generalizing this research to the IFL leader, who has different demands placed on him. One of the secondary

goals of this study is to determine the extent to which the literature on encounter and T-group leaders is generalizable to the IFL leader. In order to do this, this chapter will present a review of the work done to determine effective and ineffective intervention behavior for encounter and T-group leaders. Unfortunately there have been few studies on the impact of leader intervention behavior. More often the literature presents general guidelines and principles of intervening that leaders are advised to follow, taking as a given that doing so will have productive results. Though authors may not provide empirical proof to back up their suggestions, their validity cannot be automatically discounted since they are usually based on years of experience leading groups. Therefore these suggestions will also be examined to see what information they provide on the characteristics of effective and ineffective intervention behavior.

Discussion of the literature on guidelines for intervening will be organized around three questions: what should the leader do, how should it be done, and when should he do it? From discussing guidelines, the chapter will continue with a review of several models for studying intervention behavior. The last part will concentrate on those studies dealing with the impact of leader behavior on group process and participant learning. This should yield a picture of what is known about effective and ineffective behavior, and what directions future research needs to take.

# What Should the Leader Do?

Relying on the subjective truths of their own observations, many writers have outlined what they feel are the roles and activities the leader should perform. Tannenbaum, Weschler and Maszrik (1970) presented a list of activities that all trainers must engage in to some extent.

## They are: | leader can also do this by suggesting various directables re

- 1. creating situations conducive to learning this may involve introducing structured verbal and nonverbal exercises.
- establishing a model for behavior a model of what is acceptable, the ways to give feedback, what and when to self-disclose, how to analyze group process.
- 3. introducing new values in relation to the authority role,
  personal growth, the value of analysis, risk taking, and so on.
  The values will differ depending on the theoretical orientation of the leader and the group goals.
- 4. <u>facilitating the flow of communication</u> to step in as a moderator, to share perceptions about what is happening so as to clarify communication processes and feelings, to act as a guide.
- 5. participation as an expert to provide theory, knowledge,

  conceptual handles and a framework to help members extract

  meaning and generalizations needed for transfer.

These basic activities have been addressed and expanded upon by others. Relating to the first activity, creating conditions for learning, the role of the average T-group leader can be looked at from this view. As discussed in chapter 1, the T-group leader refuses to take the leadership role thereby frustrating the expectations of group members (Bradford, Gibb & Benne, 1964). In trying to resolve this problem and their feelings the members exhibit various behaviors toward the leader and each other. These behaviors become the data to be analyzed with resultant participant learning. Through his failure to take a traditional role the leader can be said to create the conditions for learning. Of

course the leader can also do this by suggesting various strategies or exercises that members can use to resolve an issue or reach further levels of understanding (Cohen & Smith, 1976; Fiebert, 1968; Lakin, 1972; Lippitt, 1972). In this same vein, Psathas and Hardert (1966) point out that the leader influences group process by affecting its normative structure. They conducted a study to show that trainer interventions are actually norm-sending messages on what should and should not be done. Though the trainer himself is not solely responsible for establishing all the norms, he influences them by reinforcing or punishing norms formed by group members. He does not simply reflect what is happening, he creates or helps to create it. The problem with this study is that although it establishes that trainers send norm messages in their interventions, it does not examine the effect of these messages on what actually occurs. The authors do present some indirect evidence of impact by showing that many of these norm-sending interventions are seen as "significant" by group members.

Concerning the idea of the leader acting as a model, many writers address this role (Bradford, et al., 1964; Culbert, 1968; Gordon, Jr., 1972; Lakin, 1972). This modeling function is especially crucial in the T-group where the participants are given very little structure and naturally look toward the leader for guidance. Interestingly enough, this reviewer was unable to locate any study on this phenomenon. Some work has been done to examine the general area of modeling and vicarious learning without special reference to the leader (Lieberman, Yalom, & Miles, 1973). They found that group members did see modeling and vicarious learning as important to their growth. However, viewing modeling as important did not distinguish between learners and non-learners although it did show some relationships to long-term maintenance of change.

As for the impact of the leader on participant values, the research by Lieberman, Yalom and Miles (1973) throws some light on the validity of this perception. Their study of seventeen encounter groups found that "changes in values and attitudes were the most systematically related to differences in leader style" (p. 249). For example, those leaders who emphasized other-oriented values produced changes in members valuation of things external to themselves. In another instance it was found that leaders who pushed the concept of growth and "experiencing" were successful in instilling these attitudes in group members. Changes in values and attitudes also persisted over time so that 6-8 months later they represented the most stable areas of change. The leader's impact cannot be attributed to the encounter nature of these groups because they included a wide spectrum of types including T-groups, psychoanalytic, and personal growth. As the authors point out, their findings show it is not the group label but the leader's behaviors that are important. Labels were not predictive of leader behavior or participant learning.

The leader is also seen as responsible for facilitating the flow of communication. It is his responsibility to highlight and clarify group processes especially when an impasse occurs (Bradford et al., 1964; Cohen & Smith, 1976; Kaplan & Sadock, 1973; Lakin, 1972). An offshoot of this role is the leader's function as protector of group members who may be under excessive stress. This frequently occurs when members are given large amounts of negative feedback resulting in a psychological "overload." It is up to the leader to determine if the person is okay and to halt or modify the incoming feedback. The importance of this function cannot be overestimated. Lieberman, Yalom and Miles (1973) found that many of the psychological casualties attributed their problems to an attack

by the group where the leader failed to intervene to stop the assault.

Finally the leader acts as an expert, someone who provides cognitive input and a framework participants can use to understand the meaning of group processes (Bradford et al., 1964; Cohen & Smith, 1976; Lippitt, 1972). As will be discussed later, this leader activity is significantly related to participant learning. What is more, it has been found that those who maintain their learning do so because they have the necessary cognitive schema to transfer their learning to other situations (Lieberman et al., 1973). The more the leader can do to provide such schema, the better and more long lasting the learning can be expected to be.

Other writers have emphasized the importance of the personal characteristics of the leader, that is, the way he presents himself while carrying out his activities or functions. Carl Rogers is the spokesman for this viewpoint. As he sees it, it is the leader's job to facilitate the growth of the participants, not to control the group process. The leader must exhibit certain characteristics to be successful in facilitating growth. First, he must be congruent, which implies consistency between words and behavior and the ability to communicate his internal reactions. Next he must be empathic; able to understand the internal states of others and to communicate this understanding. Finally, he must have unconditional positive regard for group members. Positive regard means a warm, accepting attitude and unconditionality implies that the person will be accepted no matter what he does. This nonevaluative stance is held to be a necessary condition for participant growth. T-group theory also encourages the leader to be as nonjudgmental as possible (Bradford et al., 1964). Other trainer characteristics thought to be facilitative of member growth are honesty, genuineness, commitment and self-disclosure (Gordon Jr., 1972).

The concern with leader roles and activities is based on the premise that his behavior will have a significant impact on participant learning (Back, 1972). His interventions are held to carry extra weight because of his position as an authority figure and someone who understands what should be happening (Golembiewski & Blumberg, 1970; Lakin, 1972). This is especially true in the T-group because members are initially given minimal guidance on what to discuss and how to proceed. Members naturally seek the leader's guidance and are likely at first to follow whatever suggestions or directives he gives (Golembiewski & Blumberg, 1976; Lakin, 1972; O'Day, 1968). Because of these factors, the leader's interpretations and viewpoints are usually accepted by group members. Culbert (1970) addresses this point:

Like individual behavior, group behavior is overdetermined. This means that any single event can be accurately understood from a number of perspectives. The trainer's comments can, to a large extent, determine the primary interpretation that group members assign to a group event. (p. 34)

The leader's interventions are seen as influencing which issues are discussed and the level at which they are dealt with (Banet Jr., 1974; Cohen & Smith, 1976). Appropriate interventions will promote participant learning and move the group toward greater cohesion, growth and independence (Cohen & Smith, 1976; Lippitt, 1972). On the other hand, if the leader intervenes at the wrong level or brings up issues prematurely, the group process can be significantly impeded (Banet Jr., 1974; Stock, Bradford & Horowitz, 1970). Cohen and Smith (1976) feel that the leader's interventions are especially important at certain times during the group life when "critical incidents" are occurring. For example, how the leader handles an attack on his competency will impact on future expressions of negative feelings toward him and others.

Though many writers claim there is a significant correlation between leader behavior and participant learning, only one study by Lieberman et al. (1973) has produced acceptable evidence of this. They were able to identify effective and ineffective leadership styles in their study of encounter groups. A detailed discussion of their findings will be included at a later point in this chapter.

# How and When Should A Leader Intervene?

Accepting for the moment that the leader's intervention behavior is important to the group, it is necessary to look at when the leader should intervene and how that intervention should be carried out. The leader must know when to be caring, provide meaning, and so on, for even the most seemingly positive action can be taken at times when it would hamper, rather than enhance, learning.

Most writers have discussed the issues and problems the leader should respond to. Usually these are albeit equivalent to the list of roles or functions the leader is supposed to play, so that a leader is told to intervene in order to:

- 1. help the group learn from its processes, to highlight important issues or feelings that may otherwise be missed (Bradford et al., 1964; Fiebert, 1968; Lakin, 1972; Lippitt, 1972)
- 2. help expose group and individual behavior for analysis (Argyris, 1971; Gordon Jr., 1972; Lakin, 1972; Lippitt, 1972)
- 3. protect a group member who is being attacked or overloaded (Cohen & Smith, 1976; Golembiewski & Blumberg, 1970, 1976; Lakin, 1972; Lippitt, 1972)
- 4. give and model feedback and self-disclosure (Gordon Jr., 1972; Lippitt, 1972)
- 5. convey understanding and acceptance to create psychological safety (Gordon Jr., 1972)
- 6. invite members to share their feelings and ideas (Fiebert, 1968; Lakin, 1972; Lippitt, 1972)

Such general guidelines are useful in that they sensitize the leader to important issues that might call for his intervention. However, their utility is limited because they do not help the leader in deciding how to make the intervention. After all, there is a difference between intervening and intervening effectively. A leader has to do more than simply recognize that an intervention might be called for; he needs to be aware that there are various ways of making that intervention that may have differential consequences. Then he has to have some basis for choosing among these alternative responses so that he can make the most appropriate, helpful response. Many writers feel that the first step in doing this is to take group goals and situational factors into account, i.e., the group phase and the individuals involved.

It seems to be one of those self-evident truths that the leader should take group goals into consideration when making an intervention. The goals will naturally influence which issues are given priority and whether the trainer focuses on group, interpersonal or individual concerns (Bradford et al., 1964; Golembiewski & Blumberg, 1976; Lippitt, 1972). Of course, there are other variables to be considered if the leader is to successfully intervene to help the group reach its goals. One of the most crucial variables is thought to be the individual(s) involved.

The question of who is involved can be looked at from two angles, overall group composition and the personalities of specific group members. Typically group composition is discussed in terms of volunteers versus nonvolunteers. Most human relation training groups are composed of volunteers. This has several advantages. Such participants are less resistant to change and experimenting with new behaviors. They are also more open to influence from the leader and other group members (Lieberman et al.,

1973). What is more, because they are looking for a positive experience they are simply more likely to feel they had one. Such qualities make the leader's job easier and he is usually not held as accountable as he would with unwilling recipients. Nonvolunteers not only bring resistance, they also raise ethical questions since they may be forced to participate in training groups because of work-related or academic program requirements. This is not to say that volunteerism works entirely toward the leader's benefit. Volunteers frequently have more emotional problems than a random sample of individuals and such people can be especially vulnerable and/or disruptive to the group process (Back, 1972; Lieberman, 1976). This brings in the other side of "who is involved," that is, the personalities of specific group members.

There is some evidence to suggest that certain types of indivuals who voluntarily enter encounter groups are more likely to be harmed than others (Hartley, Roback & Abramowitz, 1976). This is especially true when they come into contact with aggressive, confrontive leaders who attack them or leaders who allow attacks from group members. Lieberman et al. (1973) carefully studied the characteristics of those encounter group members categorized as "psychological casualties." A person was labeled as a casualty when he had an enduring negative psychological reaction that was directly related to his group experience. The authors found that characteristically casualties had:

- 1. low self esteem
- unrealistically high expectations about what the experience would yield, e.g., close friendships, solutions to important problems
- 3. negative attitudes toward people in general
- 4. feelings of low interpersonal adequacy yet high interpersonal

sensitivity. In other words, the misunderstood person who understands others well

## 5. a strong need for growth and change

It seems that it would be important for the leader to be especially cognizant of his interventions toward someone exhibiting a similar profile.

These findings also point to the need to assess each member's expectations and personal internal resources so that potential casualties can be identified and handled accordingly. Besides the study by Lieberman; Yalom and Miles, very little has been done to study the types of people that enter human relations training groups and how they are effected. Until now research has concentrated almost exclusively on the average level of improvement or the number of participants who changed. Future research should aim to correct this situation.

Another factor to be considered in making interventions is the group phase. It is hard to find a writer who does not agree to this though they have different opinions on how the leader should modify his behavior accordingly (Cohen & Smith, 1976; Dies, 1977; O'Day, 1968). One interesting study by Dies and Cohen (1976) involved the interaction between group phase and leader self-disclosure. They gave subjects a list of statements a leader might make involving his personal history and here-and-now reactions. Subjects were then asked to judge how helpful or harmful they thought it would be for the leader to share each statement during the first, eighth and fifteenth session of a weekly group. They found that subjects felt it was harmful for the leader to confront the group or individuals early on, especially if the confrontation involved the expression of angry or frustrated feelings. The data were unclear on which self-disclosures were helpful during various phases.

Fiebert (1968) deals with the issue of group phase and leader intervention strategies. The emphasis is on strategies because he contends that content and style are less important than the overall intervention strategies used. Fiebert conceptualizes the group as having three phases and suggests that the leader adopt different strategies for each phase. At first the leader should act as a catalyst to get things going in the right direction. This means helping group members to understand how to work effectively in the group by clarifying general procedures and norms, i.e., emphasis on the here-and-now; concentration on feelings, not just ideas; self-disclosure and risk taking. At this stage interventions should focus on the group as a whole, the way it is operating, making decisions and so on. During the next phase the leader becomes an orchestrator working to help deepen interpersonal exploration and sharing of feelings. The leader can suggest various structured exercises to increase self-other exploration, for example, sensory awareness techniques or the sharing of fantasies. Interventions are now directed toward interpersonal feelings and relationships. Finally, in phase three the leader becomes more of a group member, self-disclosing and relinquishing his control to the other participants. The number of interventions the leader makes should also decline as the group progresses.

Culbert (1970) also addresses the question of group phase and leader interventions but from a slightly different vantage point. He proposes that once the group establishes a specific set of training goals there are phases it must go through in order to reach its goals. Given this assumption, the leader can use his interventions to influence the group so that it moves productively through these phases. This means taking responsibility to insure that resolution of one phase is completed

Interventions are of two types, those required within a phase to increase participant learning and those that shift the group's focus from one phase to the next. Culbert offers some general suggestions on what to do when intervening. For example, he suggests that when making a phase-shifting intervention, the leader should give a rationale for the shift, summarizing the process of the group until that point and the need to move on. His contribution to understanding how to intervene is of less importance than his acknowledgement of group phases and the need for the leader to accommodate his interventions to them.

Blumberg and Golembiewski (1976) sidestep the whole issue of leader interventions by saying it is difficult to make any general statements on how and when to intervene. They feel that the number of factors to be considered make generalizations meaningless. Despite this, they present some ideas others have offered on interventions. For example, they cite Harrison (1970) who feels there are two criteria to be used in deciding how to intervene:

- 1. Interventions should be made at a level no deeper than is needed to produce lasting solutions to the immediate problem. The idea is to avoid interventions which focus on psychodynamic causes unapparent to the person involved since "a person is more likely to feel competent to deal with a problem that he sees and feels at the moment, rather than working abstractly with some other's interpretation of the problem" (p. 88).
- 2. Interventions need to take into consideration the energy and resources of the person involved so that they are not pushed beyond their capacities. Sometimes, it may be too costly to the person, in terms of anxiety and personal upheaval, to make changes and the leader needs to be aware of this and respect it. Excessive pressure to change could be harmful in such situations.

Blumberg and Golembiewski also cite Argyris (1971) who emphasizes that interventions should not take away from the group's responsibility

for being their own problem solvers. Consequently, the leader should intervene to help develop:

- 1. valid data on the problem
- 2. internal commitment to problem resolution
- 3. a climate of free choice

If these are present then the group will be able to resolve the problem themselves without the leader doing it for them.

# Models for Studying Intervention Behavior

The articles discussed so far offer very nonspecific guidelines on how to intervene, that is, the form and content of the intervention. This is an advantage in that they allow for individuality of approach thereby maintaining the spontaneous flavor of groups and leader flexibility. But it is a decided disadvantage in that they do not help the leader to choose among the various intervention responses that would satisfy such general guidelines. The need to choose is based on the assumption that different types of intervention will not have the same effects. Up to now the assumption seems to be the opposite, that different interventions have similar consequences. Which of these is true and to what extent is still an open question that warrants investigation. If leader interventions are as influential as many propose, then more needs to be done to study the intervention itself and how variations can affect the group process and participant learning. Three groups of researchers have made an attempt to develop the technology needed to do this, i.e., Cohen and Smith (1976), Psathas and Hardert (1966) and O'Day (1968). The most promising work is that of Cohen and Smith.

Cohen and Smith feel that not enough guidance is given to the group leader on how and when to intervene in the service of various goals.

More needs to be done to help the leader learn how to respond in the immediate give-and-take situations of group life. They disagree with those who feel that effective trainer interventions are essentially a matter of consistency, empathy, or being oneself. Rather they favor "a systematic technological approach to leader intervention with a focus upon specific outcomes and the probabilities of certain desired outcomes of specific interventions" (p. 86).

A technological approach involves examining the dimensions along with which an intervention can vary. They write that all interventions can be categorized according to their:

- Level The focus is either individual, interpersonal or toward the entire group. Focus depends on the individual recipient(s), not the content of the intervention
- 2. Type 3 major modes
  - a. Conceptual "attempts to abstract or conceptualize some significant idea or issue" (p. 91) Provides theory and concepts for understanding group process. It may be planned or a spontaneous reaction to ongoing process
  - b. Experiential involves the sharing of feelings about the ongoing situation; the leader may share how he is experiencing things and/or ask for student reactions to the here-and-now of group life
  - c. Structural use of structured activities including verbal and nonverbal exercises. They may be very conceptual and task oriented or emphasize the emotional level
- 3. Intensity -The emotional level of the intervention can be high, medium or low. It involves "the extent to which the underlying theme of behavior is exposed, interpreted and directly communicated to the individual, group or subgroups to achieve an awareness of the underlying dynamic of the behavior" (p. 102)

These three dimensions are said to comprise an Intervention Cube, "a model that can be used to observe, categorize and analyze interventions by group leaders, regardless of theoretical and/or practitioner orientation" (p. 87). Using this model, the leader or researcher can

begin to examine the effects of various types of styles, i.e., combinations of the dimensions. But comparisons require that situations be comparable or nearly so. To deal with this problem Cohen and Smith propose the critical incident model.

As discussed in chapter 1, it has been determined that there are certain incidents (issues, problems) common to most groups. The leader's intervention response to them is thought to have considerable significance for group growth and development. Accepting this, it follows that research should concentrate on examining the effects of different intervention responses to these recurring incidents. Cohen and Smith propose the critical incident model as a way of doing just that. The model "is a way of arranging events in sequence, from those that led up to and immediately preceded some critical incident to those that specify the consequences of certain interventions" (p. 123). An outline of the critical incident model reveals its component parts.

- 1. The context of the critical incident
  - a. phase of group beginning, middle, end and session number
  - b. climate of the group its mood, e.g., silent, hostile
  - c. brief description of person(s) involved includes past and current behaviors
- 2. Behavior and/or conversation immediately preceding the intervention
- 3. The surface issue(s) and the underlying issue(s) involved, e.g., the surface issue might be asking about how other groups have gone while the underlying issue could involve feelings that this group does not seem to be going well
- 4. The level, type and intensity of the leader's intervention response
- 5. The consequences for the group
  - a. the intended directional movement of the leader in making his response
  - b. the actual behaviors exhibited by the group members, e.g., agreement, silence, hostility

This model has several desirable features. First, it incorporates many of the modifying variables held to be important in making interventions, i.e., group phase, immediate climate, individuals involved. It also looks at consequences, something sadly lacking in the studies so far reviewed. The critical incident model should serve as the basis for substantive research into the effects of leader interventions. Of course it may turn out that it is more profitable to examine dimensions of an intervention other than the ones discussed.

Banet Jr. (1974) proposes a somewhat different scheme for categorizing the type of intervention. He breaks it down into five categories as follows:

- 1. Meaning-attribution describes or suggests a definite meaning to the process event. It connects here-and-now events to the past or context by means of theory, association or metaphor
- 2. Evocation attempts to elicit specific emotional responses
- 3. Structural exercises and all forms of the therapist's nonverbal behavior in relation to the members
- 4. Experiential self-disclosure in relation to group events
- Prescriptive telling patients to test behavior in another context outside the group and report back on what happened

No doubt other researchers will come up with their own category systems, but the comprehensiveness of the model should insure that its basic outline remains intact. It is the overall approach, rather than the individual categories, that seems to have considerable promise.

As discussed earlier, Psathas and Hardert (1966) have attempted to develop a methodology for examining the norm message sent by the leader. Norms refer to messages that imply or directly state what members should and should not do. Their study was based on seven T-group meetings over a two-week period. Participants and trainers were given a questionnaire

vention they considered the most significant. Later these chosen interventions were isolated on tape for further study. The data collected in this manner were combined with findings from the literature to develop normative dimensions into which leader interventions could reliably be categorized. Space does not allow for a detailed description of these categories but a brief list reveals the scope of the normative dimensions to which the leaders addressed themselves. They are as follows:

- 1. Feedback giving and receiving
- 2. Feelings expression, acceptance, encouragement of
- 3. Acceptance Concern promotion of trust, acceptance of self, others
- 4. Analyzing Group Interaction or Process past and present member interaction
- 5. Goal and Task Concern definition of, purpose, procedural concerns
- 6. Behavior Experimentation encouragement of
- 7. Leadership Behavior Among Members power, struggles, sharing leadership
- 8. Participation nature of, responsibility, encouragement of
- 9. Trainer Membership Authority Problems dependence, problems with
- 10. Decision Making procedures for, problems
- 11. Structure Concern member feelings, reactions to unstructured atmosphere

These normative dimensions are characteristic of the T-group and the list would probably vary with the type of group being considered.

Lieberman et al. (1973) found many other norms operating in the encounter groups they studied. The norms found in this study are of less importance than the fact that it attempted to develop a methodology for examining the norm messages being sent by the group leader. This method could be used in conjunction with other measurements to determine the influence

of these messages on the actual normative structure of the group. Such a study would seem to be what Lieberman (1976) called for when he said future research should focus on the leader's impact on the group social system. Normative structure would certainly qualify as an important intervening variable between leader input and member learning.

O'Day (1968) was also concerned with leader interventions in the T-group. However, his approach was more comprehensive as he developed a content analytic system for analyzing <u>all</u> trainer interventions. Using his system each intervention is classified in terms of three component parts:

- 1. definitional the issues being addressed, the content, e.g., dependency, participation
- behavioral the way in which the content is expressed, the form, e.g., a question, suggestion
- 3. emotional the feelings being expressed, e.g., hostility, caring
  Together these three components comprise a leader's intervention style.

  Leader intervention style can therefore be examined in various ways, for
  example, holding the issues constant and examining the behavior. Each
  component has a complex set of categories under it that are derived from
  the theoretical and empirical literature on T-groups. Many of the definitional categories reflect the typical concerns of the T-group, i.e.,
  dependency and problems with authority. Because of this, O'Day's system
  would not be applicable to other types of human relations training groups.

One interesting finding from his research was that the four T-group leaders he studied behaved in theoretically inappropriate ways. O'Day (1968) writes:

The description of training style derived in this study casts doubts on the typical image of the trainer as completely tolerant, accepting, self-assured and nondirective. . . . trainers frequently

function as evaluators, authority figures and experts and also express anxiety, depression and various forms of anger in response to many of the issues which arise in the sensitivity-training group experience. (p. 634)

This finding illustrates the important kinds of information that can be derived from detailed study of trainer interventions.

# Resistance and Support for Research on Effective Trainer Interventions

There are those who feel that research in the area of effective trainer interventions is essentially fruitless. Like Blumberg and Golembiewski (1976), they contend that the large number of situational factors makes it virtually impossible to generalize about the timing and quality of leader interventions. To them it is better to leave decisions about interventions to the leader's discretion. Frequently these same people make statements about the importance of the leader's contributions to the successful functioning of the group. If such statements are true, then it seems to this reviewer that a failure to engage in research on interventions constitutes dereliction of professional responsibility. Efforts to determine the nature of effective interventions must go on, no matter how difficult the methodological problems.

Resistance to research in general is especially high among those leaders who run encounter groups (Back, 1972; Hartley et al., 1976; Massarik, 1972). Such groups are typically more experiential in nature, emphasizing expression of feelings, nonverbal activities and risk taking. Leaders of such groups frequently shun any kind of evaluation, saying that it takes away from the "freeing" nature of their groups. They also argue that formal evaluation is unnecessary because they are the best judges of participant learning and the experience as a whole. The invalidity of this idea was demonstrated by Lieberman et al. (1973) when

and negative participant outcomes. They tended to overestimate the amount of benefit students experienced and seriously underestimated the number of psychological casualties. Even after leaders were told they had casualties in their groups they could only identify two out of sixteen of them.

For every skeptic of the value of research on trainer impact, there are numerous writers who advocate more work in this area. Campbell and Dunnette (1968) were among the first to call for more studies. In their comprehensive review of T-group research they noted that no systematic studies had been done to relate variation in trainer personality or behavior to outcome. Since then others have pushed for research to examine the trainer's influence on group process (Cooper, 1972; Lakin, 1972; Lundgren, 1971) and ultimately on participant learning (Fiebert, 1968; Harrison, 1970; Lieberman, 1976; O'Day, 1968). As recently as 1976, in a review of the literature on change-induction groups, Lieberman writes that though the concept of leader centrality remains prevalent, there is still little research to support this claim. He feels that the lack of findings is in part due to the tendency of many investigators to select single, generalized leader variables (i.e., directive vs. nondirective) for study. This approach has not produced results and is unlikely to because it fails to take into account the social system of the group. Instead of there being a direct relationship between leader behavior and outcome, the leader influences the system in various ways which in turn impact on the participants. He feels that future research needs to focus on the intervening variables between leader input and member outcome. Also more should be done to explore leader interventions in depth to determine variation in terms of time, frequency and type of intervention.

Because of the extreme difficulty of doing this kind of research, Lieberman ends by saying that the "role of research on leader variables in the group area is clouded" (p. 236). O'Day (1968) and Cohen and Smith (1976) feel that many of the problems in doing such research will be alleviated by the development of methodologies for describing leader behavior in detail. Their work toward this end has already been presented. As O'Day points out:

Before it is possible effectively to determine the impact of a trainer on a T-group, it is necessary to have a methodological procedure that permits a reliable and valid description of what it is that the trainer does in a group.

## The Trainer and Group Process

What does the leader do that affects group process? Some of the attempts to answer this question will now be discussed.

Many authors have addressed the question of the impact of leader self-disclosure. Encounter group leaders advocate it saying it makes the leader more of a person, someone the participant can relate to. T-group leaders typically are more reserved, especially in the early stages of a group (Bradford et al., 1964). On the other extreme are the psychoanalytically oriented leaders who refrain almost entirely from personal self-disclosure. Unfortunately there is little evidence to support the value of any of these positions.

Culbert (1968) studied the effects of trainer self-disclosure on T-groups. Leaders were given two sets of instructions, to be self-disclosing in one group and not in another. It was found that the group members with the more self-disclosing leader viewed relationships with the rest of the group as important to their learning. The group with the less disclosing leaders more often cited the trainer and one other

member as influential. Further, Culbert found that participants who experienced the more self-disclosing trainers had a higher degree of self-awareness in the early phases of the group though this advantage was lost over time. He concluded that members model their leader's self-disclosing behavior which leads to increased overall participation and group solidarity. Modeling and participation together seem to affect the rate at which self-awareness is achieved. However, and more importantly, they were not found to influence the total amount of self-awareness because in the end both groups were equal.

Bolman (1971) found that leader self-disclosure was unrelated to participant perceptions of learning for self or other group members. This study, combined with Culbert's, seems to cast doubt on the value of leader self-disclosure. But as Dies (1977) points out, both of these studies have a fatal flaw in that they treat self-disclosure as a generalized variable. He argues that it is a mistake to do this, that self-disclosure is modified by group phase, content of the disclosure, leader personality, and so on. The impact of the self-disclosure is contingent on these and other variables and must be studied taking this complex relationship into account. Dies' criticism echoes that of Lieberman (1976) when he writes about the need to avoid research which limits itself to studying generalized leadership variables. To use a statistical metaphor, it is as if they are saying that investigators should refrain from looking for "main effects" and instead should concentrate on determining if there are any meaningful "interactions." As it now stands, the impact of leader selfdisclosure is still undetermined.

Bolman (1971) studied the effects of other leader variables besides self-disclosure. He constructed questionnaires that examined T-group

member feelings about the leader, learning and group climate. Data were collected and factor analyzed. Of several factors only one was found to be important in that it correlated with member liking, identification with the leader, and self-rated learning. The items making up this factor, labeled "congruence-empathy," are as follows:

- 1. The things he says seem to be highly consistent with what he is feeling
- 2. He is secure and comfortable in the group
- 3. He seems to be in close touch with how members of the group are feeling
- 4. He sees things through the eyes of members of the group
- 5. He is quite comfortable and relaxed when the attention of the group focuses on him

These descriptive statements picture the leader as secure, consistent and empathic, qualities that Rogers (1970) has stated as important for anyone in a helping relationship. On the surface this finding would appear to be significant but unfortunately no studies have been reported that replicate it. Even if future research does confirm Bolman's work, there is still the question of determining the relationship of self-reported learning to actual change. The frequent inaccuracy of self-report data is demonstrated by findings from the study of encounter groups by Lieberman et al. (1973):

Positive testimony was inflated over our assessments of change.
... At termination only 57% of those who gave positive testimony actually did receive positive benefit; however, at six-month follow-up, 76% of those giving positive testimony actually benefited. So, just after the group there is a good deal of unfounded enthusiasm, but if several months have elapsed, we can be more confident that participants' views are trustworthy. (p. 427)

Another area of interest is the leader's effect on the normative structure of the group. The work of Lieberman et al. (1973) provides some information on this relationship. Unfortunately they were not able

to provide any definitive answers because each leader taught only one group. This meant that they could not determine if the leader was primarily responsible for creating the group norms or they developed and the leader only accommodated to them. Though the cause-effect relationship was unclear, the authors felt they did have some evidence to suggest the direction of influence. Prior to the groups, leaders and controls were asked to decide which of a list of behaviors would be appropriate during the group. These behaviors were supposed to reflect various norms typically found in encounter groups. Using this information the authors found that there was a relationship between leader expectations and the actual norms developed but it was not a one-to-one relationship. Rather the norms that developed seemed to reflect a combination of what the leader expected and the expectations of participants. Groups where both leader and participant norm expectations were met had the highest number of learners. Still, confirmation of the leader's expectations was more closely related to member learning. The authors summarize their findings this way:

It is not the case that high-yield group leaders were solely effective in imposing their desired set of norms on the group. Rather, they were simultaneously able to create conditions where their own norms expectations and general cultural expectations were realized.

(p. 297)

Group norms were also found to play an important part in determining learner outcomes. In fact their contribution was at least as important as the leader's. Again this highlights the idea that the social system of the group is crucial to the change process and more needs to be done to explore the leader's effect on it.

The most convincing evidence for the influence of the leader comes from the work of Lieberman et al. (1973). They found that leadership

encounter groups studied. This study merits special attention because it represents the first noteworthy research to support the belief that the leader's behavior has an effect on participant outcomes. Because of its importance this research project will now be discussed in greater detail.

Determination of leadership style was based on ratings of the leader on four dimensions extracted from numerous evaluation instruments filled out by participants, observers and the leaders themselves. Participant change (outcome) was also assessed using a variety of measures including peer ratings, self-report scales, outside observers and standardized tests. The four dimensions found to characterize leader behavior were as follows:

- 1. Emotional Stimulation eliciting, provoking, challenging members, especially in regard to expression of feelings. Emphasis is on modeling desired behaviors (e.g., self-disclosure of anger, love) and on challenging group members
- Caring expression of warmth, affection, concern for group participants. Leader gives large amounts of support, praise, encouragement and protection
- 3. Meaning-attribution those behaviors that help the participants to conceptualize, to understand the meaning of processes in the group. It "represents the naming function of leader behavior, wherein the leader gives meaning to experiences that members undergo. It refers to the translation of feelings and behavior into ideas" (p. 238)
- 4. Executive function managing the group, setting rules, limits, directing what will be done and how. It includes suggestions on approaches the group might take to work through a problem (e.g., nonverbal exercise, paraphrasing) as well as eliciting and questioning group members on their opinions, feelings, etc.

When these dimensions were combined to create leader typologies the authors found a significant relationship between leader style and outcome. Certain styles were associated with high numbers of learners while others were associated with few learners and psychological

casualties. Table 2 shows the relationship between trainer type and their ratings on the four dimensions. Table 3 shows the relationship between type and outcome.

TABLE 2.--Relationship Between Trainer Type and the Amount of Emphasis on Trainer Functions

			Trainer	functions	
	Trainer type	Emotional stimulation	Caring	Meaning attribution	<b>E</b> xecutive
1.	Energizer	High	High	Moderate- High	Moderate- High
2.	Provider	Moderate	High	High	Moderate
3.	Social Engineer	Low	Moderate	High	Low
4.	Impersonal	Moderate- High	Low	Moderate	Low
5.	Laissez faire	Low	Low	Moderate- High	Low
6.	Manager	Low	Moderate	Moderate	High

SOURCE: A. Blumberg and R. T. Golembiewski, <u>Learning and Change in Groups</u> (Maryland: Penguin Books Ltd., 1976), p. 77.

TABLE 3.--Leader Type and Outcome

Leader Type	N	High Learner	Moderate Changer	Un- changed	Negative Changer	Drop- out	Casu- alty	Weighte Impact Average
A Energizers	59	8-14%	12-20%	19-32%	4-07%	9-15%	7-12%	.17
B Providers	37	8-22%	13-35%	8-22%	3-08%	3-08%	1-03%	1.03
C Social Engineers	32	6-19%	3-09%	14-44%	6-19%	1-03%	2-06%	.16
D Impersonals	18	0-00%	7-39%	3-17%	2-11%	4-22%	2-11%	00
E Laissez- Faires	25	2-08%	1-04%	13-52%	0-00%	7-28%	2-08%	20
F Managers	11	0-00%	0-00%	8-70%	0-00%	2-10%	1-10%	45
G Tape Groups	24	3-13%	5.21%	13-54%	2-08%	1-04%	0-00%	. 58
Total	206							

SOURCE: M. A. Lieberman, I. D. Yalom and M. B. Miles, Encounter Groups: First Facts (New York: Basic Books Ltd., 1973), p. 245.

As the tables reveal, Providers were the most successful leader type in producing positive changes while minimizing the number of participants with negative outcomes. Social Engineers were next in line followed by Energizers. However, Energizers also had a high number of dropouts and psychological casualties to offset the number who learned.

Overall, the authors felt these three leadership styles could be categorized as beneficial.

On the other hand, the three remaining styles were far from productive. The Impersonal, Laissez-Faire and Manager types all had more negative outcomes than they did positive or neutrals. The Impersonal and Laissez-Faire leaders produced no high learners at all. This is in

marked contrast with the 22% yielded by the Providers. The Manager was the worst type of leadership style in that it yielded no high or moderate changers and a few negative outcomes. However, it is difficult to make generalizations about this type because only one leader exhibited this leadership style.

High psychological casualty rates were associated with Energizers and Impersonals. Both types "were characterized by aggressive stimulation and relatively high charisma" (p. 246). The authors relate this to the finding that casualties were often associated with direct attacks by the leader or with the leader's failure to protect participants from attacks by other group members.

Interestingly enough, the taped groups did relatively well, with no casualties and only one dropout. They also had 34% high or moderate learners making them fourth in the number of high learners and third in moderate learners. The authors discuss these findings saying that these leaderless environments were safe because they provided structure through interventions (mainly Meaning-attribution and Executive functions); yet they avoided the high levels of leader stimulation associated with negative outcomes.

Clearly, what the leaders did, their style, was very important in determining if participants had a beneficial or harmful experience. Just how leaders influenced participant learning was less clear. There did not seem to be a simple cause-effect relationship between leader behavior and change. Rather the leader style affected the learning environment, and factors in this environment (other members, norms, goals) were influential in inducing change. As the authors put it:

Perhaps the most useful way of thinking about leader style is in terms of the overall impact it has on learning rather than in terms of specific areas in which people may change. Leader style creates conditions or a setting under which individuals can learn. The particular kinds of change that take place are probably mediated by many other conditions such as the individuals initial level and interests or the particular kinds of learning experiences (mechanisms) that occur to the person in the group. (pp. 258-59)

# Quality of the Research

Before concluding this chapter it seems obligatory to discuss the quality of the research that has been presented. Just how valid and reliable are the findings of the various studies discussed? The answer must be, not very, for all of them suffer from various types of important design problems. The list of problems is long: small sample sizes, lack of random assignment, failure to use control groups, exclusive use of self-report and other subjective measures of change, leaders having only one group thereby confounding group and leader effects, insufficient attention to the effects of testing, and so on. Even the major research effort of Lieberman et al. (1973) has several glaring flaws. Uppermost among these is the one group-one leader problem resulting in a confounding of the two. It is surprising that the investigators did not foresee and prevent this problem from occurring, given the large scale on which this project was conducted. In addition, it is very likely that there were reactive effects due to the extensive testing and observation of the groups. Despite this, there are many positive aspects about the design (e.g., use of controls, follow-up, measures of change) and it represents the best effort to date. It also pointed out the value and necessity of doing large-scale, carefully designed research. The objective here is not to present an extended critique of the research done so far; rather, it is to point out that the study of the group leader is still in its nascent stages.

# Conclusions

This chapter began with the aim of exploring the literature on human relations training group leaders to see what information was available to the group leader on the characteristics of effective and ineffective intervention behavior. A second aim was to determine the directions future research in this area should take.

The review found that the only noteworthy and validated information on effective leader behavior comes from the work of Lieberman, Yalom and Miles (1973). Their research on encounter group leaders showed a strong relationship between participant learning and a certain style of leader behavior. Participants were more likely to learn when leaders gave high amounts of cognition and caring. Though extremely useful as a first step in defining effective leader behavior, the study did not produce guidelines for determining when to give cognition and caring, or even exactly how. Aside from the findings in this study, all the group leader has to rely on are unsubstantiated claims by various authors that using a particular technique or approach to intervening will prove effective. Though of some worth, these discussions of general principles for intervening are inadequate when the leader is forced to make continuous decisions about his behavior in the here-and-now of group life.

As for future research directions, it is clear that in-depth studies are needed on the characteristics of effective and ineffective leader behavior. Research that focuses on generalized leader variables should be abandoned. All this entails developing methods to isolate and study leader behavior and its impact. This dissertation is designed to do just that. It develops and explores the utility of various methods of studying leader behavior and impact while trying to gather information on

effective and ineffective intervention behavior. There are several features which make it a unique contribution to the literature. Instead of looking at the general effects of leadership style, it focuses on the immediate and long-range consequences of selected interventions on group members. In other words, it tries to determine the characteristics of interventions that actually lead to changes in student behavior and attitudes, as well as looking for the factors that contribute to perceptions of effectiveness. In addition, it builds on the work of Cohen and Smith (1976) in developing a methodology for studying leader behavior by examining it in relation to critical incidents, while reformulating the concept of an intervention as a series of verbal moves within a specific time period called an episode. Finally, it attempts to study the effects of two key variables which are purported to influence the nature of effective leader behavior, namely, group stage and member personalities. Though on a small scale, this project is designed to overcome some of the limitations of prior research by trying to deal with the complexities of leader behavior and its effect on group members. The findings should constitute a meaningful addition to the knowledge available to group leaders on how to intervene effectively. It will also be possible to see if the guidelines and research on effective leader behavior for encounter and T-group leaders apply to the IPL leader.

#### CHAPTER III

#### METHODOLOGY

Review of the complex methodology used in this study will be organized around six key areas as follows:

- 1. Characteristics of the Sample and Sampling Techniques
- Description of Instruments and Observation Techniques used for
   Data Collection The Perceived Impact Measures and Peer Perceptions
- 3. Description of Analysis of Perceived and Real Impact Measures
- 4. Description of the Analysis of Intervention Episodes
- 5. Research Questions
- 6. Statistical Procedures

Before discussing the methodology, it is appropriate to give the reader a more complete picture of the IPL and the larger course of which it is a part. Doing so will reveal many of the special problems TAs face in conducting IPL groups, problems that other leaders of human relations training groups do not have. Research to determine effective TA behavior becomes all the more important in light of these obstacles.

# Program Description

The IPL is one of two parts of a larger course, Education 200.

These parts are identified as the Personal Demands of Teaching and the Task Demands. They are succinctly defined in the course outline given to students at the start of each term.

Because one seeks and wrestles with questions and answers regarding self-growth differently from the way he deals with the growth of others, the course is divided into two related but parallel sets of experiences—the personal and task demands of teaching.

The personal demands of teaching are taught through Interpersonal Process Labs (IPL) . . . Here the learning experiences involve direct interaction with people and ideas. . . . The focus is placed upon self-learning, self-development, and personal growth.

. . . the task demands of teaching are taught through reading materials, individualized carrel activities, tutorial sessions, etc.

Instruction is self-paced and students read the course handbook on their own. Optional individualized carrel programs are available to highlight the more important concepts in the text. When ready, the student comes to a special testing room where unit exams are given. Testing is based on a mastery model and the student must achieve an 80% level to receive a Pass. When a student fails to reach mastery on the first try, s/he can be reinstructed by a tutor on the concepts missed and then take a parallel test on these concepts. There are four units in the handbook, three of which cover the Tasks of Teaching. These tasks include Assessment, Goal Setting and Objectives, Behavior Modification Techniques, Modeling and Evaluation. In addition, Unit 1 examines the general concepts of Teaching and Learning and what should be taught to children.

Though the course is divided into two parts, TAs are encouraged to incorporate the handbook concepts into the IPL. They are also required to provide instruction on these concepts to prepare students for the exam.

As already discussed, the IPL is distinctive in the human relations training movement. Three factors account for this. First, it is required; all students must complete the experience to receive their teaching certificate. This lack of volunteerism affects the group

dynamics and the leader must work to overcome the resistance and scepticism of many participants who doubt the relevance of the IPL to their preparation for teaching.

Next, the IPL has an evaluation component. Contrary to the admonitions of T-group practitioners to create an evaluation-free atmosphere, the IPL leader formally and consistently evaluates group members. Students are actually graded although letter grades have been replaced by either a Pass or Incomplete. A student with an Incomplete is required to repeat the IPL the following term by participating in a regular group or as a member of special groups established for Incompletes.

The mastery model grading system has several advantages. The student's grade point average is unaffected if s/he needs more time to complete the course. Also there is no need to repay for the course. Besides these practical advantages there are the attitudinal benefits accrued by helping students see that it is acceptable for people to progress at their own rates and that a system can accommodate to meet these individual differences. However, for many, receiving an Incomplete is psychologically tantamount to failing even if it is not objectively equivalent. As a result, the sense of being evaluated and having to demonstrate the skills "to pass" is continually present and the TA must effectively deal with this if the group is to be a successful learning experience.

Finally the IPL is more goal directed than most training programs. Its purpose is to impart certain interpersonal communication skills that students need to be effective teachers. These skills are defined in behavioral objectives given to students along with detailed analyses of the constituent parts of the skills. For example, students are taught the behaviors associated with the skill of Active Listening, such as

paraphrasing, maintaining eye contact, and sharing perceptions tentatively. Written materials describe and illustrate these concepts and the IPL is used as the vehicle for practicing them and assessing their impact.

The TA has primary responsibility for choosing the activities of the IPL. He can use any techniques or strategies that will assist the group to reach competency level on the objectives. Consequently, though there is a common set of goals and objectives, the way in which they are taught can vary considerably across laboratory sessions. There are some boundaries since the IPL may not become a "sensitivity or therapy" group, nor is it allowed to imitate the didactic characteristics of a traditional classroom experience. This inbetween position is often difficult to maintain and at any particular moment the demands of the immediate situation may force the IPL to assume one approach or the other.

Though there is room for diversity, certain practices encourage bounds on the techniques used. To begin with, each TA is given a manual suggesting exercises to be used in the service of the different objectives. These exercises have been drawn from the work done in the field of human relations training and are similar to those used in many encounter and T-groups. Next, newly hired leaders are required to team teach one term with an experienced instructor. This introduces them to the basic IPL structure and provides guidelines on how to run their own groups. Third, all new TAs are observed by administrative staff to ensure that activities are appropriate to the IPL experience. Finally, a large part of weekly staff meetings is devoted to sharing common problems and useful strategies. All these elements work to increase the uniformity of the experience across the thirty to forty sections of the course offered

each term. This is not to say that all groups are run alike. On the contrary, TAs are given considerable latitude in determining group process and in implementing their unique style. This decision is based on the belief that diversity is not only healthy but inevitable when dealing with the individual differences of so many TAs and groups.

Other aspects of the course need to be considered. Since it is given in a college environment, IPL meetings are typically scheduled in classrooms with movable desks and chairs. Carpeting and comfortable furniture are not available and the rooms are frequently rather sterile in appearance. Because of this groups may move to more appealing surroundings such as lounges or apartments. More often this is not done because of inaccessibility and time restrictions since students usually have other classes before and after the IPL meetings.

One positive feature is the length of the IPL experience. Each group meets five hours per week in a two- and a three-hour session. This means over a ten-week term the group meets for approximately fifty hours, much longer than most human relations training groups. But if there is more time, it is needed because the nature of the IPL makes it difficult to accomplish its goals in a short time.

In many senses the IPL is difficult to describe—there is much that approximates sensitivity training yet it is far from being that; there is considerable freedom and emotion, yet pains are taken to maintain limits on these; students are urged to examine themselves candidly, yet they are being graded at the same time; it is definitely a class, and yet it is not a class in the traditional sense. The TA has the responsibility to balance these features and achieve a positive learning experience. He must guide and monitor the group to ensure that learning occurs and that

neither cognition nor affect suffers at the expense of the other. The nature of the IPL experience makes this an especially difficult task.

Because of this it is important to understand the factors that contribute to successful TA performance.

# Characteristics of the Sample and Sampling Techniques

## The Group Leaders

Four group leaders (TAs) were studied, each leading one group.

All were male, unmarried or divorced and physically attractive. Their ages ranged from 26-34 years. Three were white, the other black. Each had considerable experience leading IPL groups and was viewed as highly competent by colleagues.

#### The Students

Sixty-three students comprising four groups were involved in the study. Initially the number of participants in each group ranged from 14-17. However, two of the groups lost students during the term so that three finished with 15 members and one with 14. One group, Nat's, was distinctly different from the others because all the members had already taken the IPL and received an Incomplete. In the other groups only one or two students fell into this category. Nat's group was included because the group originally intended for study was cancelled and another comparable group was unavailable. It was felt that having a fourth group was valuable enough to compensate for its somewhat unusual nature.

Several demographic variables were collected and analyzed to see if differences existed between the groups. No meaningful differences were found between the average age of participants, their level of education, overall GPA, previous work experience or expectations for the course.

In general, most students were young (20 years or under), white, sophomores or juniors, single, and came from cities with populations less than 100,000. The average gradepoint varied somewhat with the majority being between 2.5 and 3.5 on a 4-point scale. Expectations were mixed since many reported hearing negative comments about the IPL. Also, some of the students in Nat's group said their first IPL experience had been unpleasant. Despite this most said they were adopting a wait-and-see attitude or were looking forward to the experience. Interestingly, approximately 30-40% reported having some sort of group experience prior to or concurrent with the IPL, for example, group therapy, T-group, growth group. Other descriptive variables have been summarized in Table 4.

TABLE 4.-- Descriptive Variables for the Four Groups

Descriptive Variables	1 Nat	Groups a 2 Ken	nd TAs 3 Hank	4 <b>M</b> ark
Total Number of Students	17	15	14	17
Number and Percentage of Male Students	6 (35%)	3 (20%)	7 (50%)	2 (12%)
Number and Percentage of Female Students	11 (65%)	12 (80%)	7 (50%)	15 <b>(</b> 88% <b>)</b>
Number of Minority Group Students	1	-	3	2
Number and Percentage of Students with an In- complete	17 (100%)	2 (13%)	1 (7%)	2 (12%)
Number of Students Drop- ping Course during the Term	2	-	-	2

#### Sampling

Since this was a required course there were certain constraints on the experimental manipulation of subjects. Student and leader scheduling demands made it impossible to randomly assign students to the four groups. However, a natural randomization occurred because the student's choice of a group is usually based only on finding one that will accommodate the rest of his or her schedule. In addition, students do not know who will be teaching a particular section when they register so selective bias is minimized. As it turns out, the groups were very similar on all variables examined except the male-female ratio. It is impossible to determine if these differences affected group process. There were active and passive males in each group and male-female issues did not arise.

Because of this it is unlikely that the sexual composition was an important factor in these groups.

More control was possible in selecting the group leaders (TAs) for the study. Though all were volunteers, they were invited to participate on a selective basis from the larger group of TAs (approximately 20). They were chosen to maximize homogeneity in the areas of physical attractiveness, experience, sex, and background. They were also asked because they represented a diversity of styles, some being extroverted and active, others introverted and passive. It was hoped this would lead to variation in their intervention patterns.

# Instruments and Observation Techniques Used for Data Collection

#### Perceived Impact Measures

#### Observer Ratings

The researcher acted as observer, being present during each session to record important nonverbal behaviors at the time of an intervention episode. She also rated the overall impact of the intervention episode on the participants directly involved and/or the class as a whole. Impact was rated as either clearly positive (+), clearly negative (-), indeterminate (I), or mixed (M), meaning some combination of the other categories. A simple form was developed for the observer to use in recording observations and judgments (see appendix B). The observer also made note of any unusual occurrences during each session that might affect student reactions.

# Post-Session Questionnaire (PSQ)

This 21-item form was developed to be given out to students at the end of a session. It contained statements to which the students indicated their level of agreement using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from (1) Strongly Agree, to (5) Strongly Disagree. Questions covered four areas of interest: (1) perceptions of TA behavior, both positive and negative, (2) how the student thinks others see the TA, (3) perceptions of group solidarity and openness, (4) overall reactions to the IPL experience. Questions were both positively and negatively phrased to prevent response sets and were randomly ordered within the four areas. To guard against reactive effects students were asked to fill the form out for sessions with and without intervention episodes.

Though originally it was planned that students would complete the form after each session, this did not always occur for a variety of reasons. Sometimes the form was inappropriate given the nature of the activities during a session, for example, students independently went on a "trust walk," TA gave content lecture only, or students worked in small groups without recordable input from the TA. On other occasions the TA would hold the class overtime and some students would have to leave because they were late for appointments. In these cases the student(s) leaving would be asked to take the form home to complete. Unfortunately, few students returned these forms and the low return rate made analysis impossible. These two explanations account for the majority of missing data. Two other sessions were missed because a replacement observer forgot to distribute the forms.

# Stimulated Recall Technique (SRT)

As discussed in chapter 1, this technique was used to overcome some of the problems of the PSQ which asked participants to react to an entire session. The idea of the SRT was to isolate an intervention episode on tape and rerun the tape segment for the group at the start of the next meeting. Students were then asked to complete a 13-item form with questions on how they felt when the interaction originally occurred. Certain of the questions were identical or equivalent to those on the PSQ and the same Likert scale was used. This allowed for direct comparisons between student reactions when the episode originally occurred (on the PSQ) and those given later during the stimulated recall (on the SRT).

Unfortunately, only two stimulated recalls were done, one with Hank's group, the other with Nat's. Another was attempted with Ken's group but the poor quality of the tape recordings made it impossible for

number of recall sessions. One, student permission had to be obtained before a segment involving that student could be replayed to the class. In two instances this was denied. Instructors were also reluctant to re-open some issues, especially when the episode had been lengthy or involved sensitive issues. They felt it would be detrimental for the group to go back to these incidents. Finally some episodes were either too short or too lengthy to replay.

#### Peer Perceptions

As discussed, it was of interest to determine if group member perceptions of an intervention episode would be affected by the type of student(s) involved. Three dimensions were used in the definition of student type--Activity Level, Verbalness, and Personal Security. At the end of each stage (approximately three and seven weeks), students were asked to fill out a brief questionnaire on every other student in the group. Henceforth these administrations will be known as Time 1 and Time 2. The form contained eight 7-point semantic differential scales developed to reflect the three dimensions of interest. The eight scales were:

- 1. Confident. . . . . . . . . Lacking in Confidence
- 2. Introverted . . . . . . Extroverted
- 3. Secure . . . . . . . . . . . . Insecure
- 4. Outgoing . . . . . . . . . . . . Shy
- 6. Leader . . . . . . . . . . . . Follower
- 8. Passive. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . Active

The data were factor analyzed for Time 1 and Time 2. Factor analysis revealed two factors, not three as expected. The Activity Level and Verbalness dimensions collapsed into one factor to be called Activity

Level. However, the Personal Security dimension, Factor 2, remained essentially intact. The factor structure at Time 1 and 2 was slightly different as seen in Table 5.

TABLE 5.--Factor Structure and Loadings for Peer Perception Data, Time 1 and Time 2

Time of	Scales and L	oadings
Administration	Factor 1	Factor 2
	2 - extroverted (.73)	1 - confident (.88)
1 <sup>a</sup>	4 - outgoing (.73)	3 - secure (.89)
(3 weeks)	6 - leader (.74)	•
	7 - aggressive (.86)	
	8 - active (.82)	
	1 - confident (.77)	3 - secure (.85)
	2 - extroverted (.91)	7 - aggressive (.71)
2	4 - outgoing (.89)	88
(7 weeks)	5 - talkative (.85)	
•	6 - leader (.84)	
	8 - active (.86)	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Scale 5 did not load significantly on either factor

Factor scores were computed for all students for both Time 1 and 2. The range of factor scores was then divided into thirds. A factor score was assigned a 1, 0, or 2 depending on which third of the range it fell into. A 1 meant that the person was high on the factor, e.g., high activity level, a 0 meant s/he was neutral, and a 2 indicated a low status, e.g., low activity level. Thus each individual received a two-part code for Time 1 and 2, e.g., 01, 22, 12. The code reflects their ratings on the two factors of Activity Level and Personal Security. A full list of students and their codes, by group, is given in Tables 6-9.

TABLE 6.--Student Types at Time 1 and Time 2 - Nat's Group

TABLE 8.--Student Types at Time 1 and Time 2 - Hank's Group

Student Name	Time 1	Time 2	<b>St</b> udent Name	Time 1	Time 2
Don Jan Lynn Bob Pam	01 21 12 00 02 12	01 01 22 21 01 02	Rick Lila Gary Mickey James	11 00 01 11 01 20	12 01 01 11 22 22
Mary Lisa Jack Carrie Tim Joan Sharrie Susan Byron Kurt	20 00 22 12 22 22 	10 22 02 22 22 22 20 11	Shari Peter Kate Mack Dana Joe Sarah Sandra Doreen	22 00 11 01 10 00 01 21	22 11 10 10 20 20 00

TABLE 7.--Student Types at Time 1 and Time 2 - Ken's Group

TABLE 9.--Student Types at Time 1 and Time 2 - Mark's Group

Student			Student		
Name	Time 1	Time 2	Name	Time 1	Time
Kitty	10	10	Sally	12	10
Jane	20	20	Ali	00	
Betty	20	20	Liz	11	11
Lana	20	02	Sherry	00	01
Caron	22	02	Tess	12	00
Meg	22	02	Lana	01	01
Joshua	21	20	Ruth	22	22
Jerry	12	10	Wally	22	22
Barry	22	22	Janie	01	11
Daisy	12	12	Suzie	22	
Bess	10	11	Rhoda	00	01
Annie	11	11	Rozie	11	11
Peg	11	10	Paula	11	12
Laura	02	20	Dawn	20	22
Dora	00	02	Noreen	01	01
			Ji11	22	22
			A1	10	10

Note: 11 - High Activity Level and High Personal Security

12 - High Activity Level and Low Personal Security

21 - Low Activity Level and High Personal Security

22 - Low Activity Level and Low Personal Security

Four student types were chosen for this study:

- 11 High Activity Level and High Personal Security
- 12 High Activity Level and Low Personal Security
- 21 Low Activity Level and High Personal Security
- 22 Low Activity Level and Low Personal Security

It was possible for a student to belong to a "type" at Time 1 and not at Time 2 and vice versa. Student type was noted so that it could be used in the analysis of data from the impact measures.

# Description of Perceived and Real Impact Measures

The impact measures were designed to collect information on student reactions to the TA, the group, and the IPL in general. The aim was to sort out those intervention episodes seen as effective and ineffective so that their characteristics could be determined. The PSQ supplied the main data source for this categorization.

#### Post-Session Questionnaire (PSQ)

It was originally proposed to factor analyze the data from each PSQ administration to determine if students had similar positive or negative views. This method was later rejected because of small sample sizes and a fairly high level of consistency in student reactions found in the raw data. Instead an alternative approach was taken. Further discussion of the structure of the PSQ is needed to understand the analysis done.

As discussed earlier, the PSQ covers four areas: (1) perceptions of TA behavior, both positive and negative, (2) how the student thinks others see the TA, (3) perceptions of group solidarity and openness, (4) overall reactions to the IPL experience. These can be viewed as four scales and will henceforth be referred to as View TA, Other TA,

View Group and View IPL. The items for each scale are as follows:

#### Scale 1 -- View TA

- 1. The TA seemed accepting of viewpoints different from his own
- 2. At times the TA acted overly critical and disapproving
- 3. The TA made a real effort to help others gain insight into their own behavior and/or feelings
- At times the TA pushed too hard, beyond a point where it was productive
- 5. The TA did a great deal to help build trust in the group today
- 6. At times the TA seemed too manipulative in getting others to react the way he wanted
- 7. The TA made a sincere attempt to understand why people reacted the way they did
- 8. The TA's actions did not help build trust in the group today

#### Scale 2 -- Other TA

- 9. Some people seemed to feel overly controlled and manipulated by the TA
- 10. Most members seem to trust the positive intent of the TA
- 11. Some members seemed to agree with the TA just for the sake of it
- 12. Most members seemed receptive to feedback from the TA
- 13. Most members seemed to feel that the TA made an honest attempt to understand and appreciate differences in opinion

#### Scale 3 -- View Group

- 14. Most members seemed to be guarded and hiding their feelings
- 15. Many members seemed uninvolved in the group
- 16. There is a strong sense of unity in the group
- 17. Many people seem to identify with one another's needs and/or problems

#### Scale 4 -- View IPL

- 18. I feel a low amount of trust towards this group
- 19. I feel I can rely on the TA to be understanding and constructive towards me
- 20. I am hesitant about expressing my feelings in class because I don't think the TA will give them fair consideration
- 21. I feel positive towards the IPL experience so far

Students were asked to agree or disagree with each statement using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from (1) Strongly Agree to (5) Strongly Disagree. Statements were purposely value laden to assess if students were reacting favorably or unfavorably. Scale scores were computed for each administration of the PSQ. This meant reversing some of the item scores so that a (5) always represented the most favorable rating and a (1) the least favorable.

It was initially reasoned that a scale score of 3.00 would represent the theoretically neutral point, that is, students were neither clearly positive nor negative, or the positive ratings cancelled out the negatives. Given this assumption, a two-tailed t test could be used to see if the actual mean scale score differed significantly from 3.00. If it did then the score could be categorized as positive (+), negative (-), or neutral (N).

Preliminary analysis proved 3.00 to be an inappropriate neutral point. Student reactions were so negatively skewed that using 3.00 almost every score would be categorized as positive. Such categorizations would be contrary to many observer ratings and student comments recorded in the transcriptions. The negative skewness is probably due to the tendency to give the TA and the IPL experience the benefit of the doubt, that is, to give fairly high ratings even in cases where the respondent is unsure or even feels slightly negative. As a result the distribution of responses moves up the scale and so does the "psychological" neutral point. Given this, a new neutral point, 3.50, was chosen. Analysis proved this to be more appropriate and categorizations were more in line with what would be expected from observer ratings and student comments.

# Determination of Behavioral/Attitudinal Changes

The interventions being studied all had a corrective aim, that is, to change some behavior and/or attitude that was inhibiting the person(s)' full participation in the group. To be totally effective the intervention episode should lead to behavioral and/or attitudinal changes in the desired direction. It was important to identify intervention episodes with real, as well as perceived, impact so that their characteristic features could be examined. To do this a group of intervention

episodes was studied to determine their impact on the participants involved.

Only a select group of intervention episodes could be examined because of financial and data-processing limitations. Selection was based on several criteria:

- There had to be three or more intervention episodes dealing with the same critical incident issue, e.g., Reluctance to Give Negative
   Feedback
- 2. Two or more TAs had to be represented
- 3. PSQ data had to be available for that session. In three instances this criterion was bypassed because there was clear evidence of the impact and the episode was judged as important for study

Altogether twenty-four episodes representing eight critical incident issues met the criteria.

In order to assess if change had occurred a baseline performance level was established using the three sessions directly preceding the intervention episode. Only the behaviors and/or attitudes of concern in the intervention episode were monitored. Performance measures were then taken on the three sessions following the episode to see if changes occurred. In addition, an assessment of the immediate impact of the episode at the time it occurred was also made. In both instances the impact will be described in paragraph form. The reasons for limiting the analysis to three sessions pre- and post-episode have already been discussed in chapter 1.

## Description of the Analysis of Intervention Episodes

# Recording of Sessions

Audio recordings were made of all sessions using two standing microphones placed at strategic places in the room. The researcher (observer) sat in one corner to run the equipment, gather forms, and answer questions, as well as collect nonverbal information at crucial times.

Each group used a different meeting room. They were all regular classrooms used at other times by various departments. This made it impossible to use a permanent overhead microphone or to leave equipment since security could not be guaranteed. The acoustics varied in quality from good to poor. In one room interference from overhead lighting produced tapes of such poor quality that students were unable to understand them when a stimulated recall technique was attempted. Future attempts to use this technique with this group had to be abandoned.

#### Determination of an Intervention Episode

The researcher (transcriber) had the responsibility of determining when an intervention episode occurred and its boundaries. This was done using the guidelines discussed in chapter 1 ( p. 23). Briefly, the episode was said to begin at the point where the TA became sensitive to the critical incident and made a move to address the problem. Consequently, each transcription begins with a comment by the TA. The terminal boundary of the episode could be either implicit or overt. To be implicit, the leader had to redirect the focus to another student and/or topic or a student did this. An overt resolution meant that at least one of the parties involved verbally acknowledged the resolution of the concern or asked to stop the interaction.

On occasion one intervention episode was nested within another so that they could not be separated without distorting the nature of the interaction. When this happened the episodes were not separated but a line was drawn across the transcription to indicate that another issue was being addressed. When two episodes occurred on the same transcription they were analyzed together. Episodes were separated for transcription and analysis purposes wherever possible.

# Transcriptions

Written transcripts were made of all intervention episodes. An example of a portion of transcript is included to illustrate the standardized format used (see following pages).

#### Coding

As described in chapter 1, a modified version of the Issacson Scale of Interaction Analysis was used to code the transcripts. Both TA and student comments were coded although only data relevant to the TAs were analyzed. Student comments were coded because future research may examine the interaction and sequence patterns between TAs and students. Given this possibility it seemed best to code all comments at the same time.

The author was responsible for coding all transcriptions. This was felt to be justified by reasonably high inter- and intra-rater reliability figures. Inter-rater reliability was determined by having the author and another graduate student code a sample of transcripts and comparing the results. It was found to be .78. Intra-rater reliability was determined by having the author re-code several transcripts after a three-month interim period. The extent of agreement was found to be .84.

# Sample of a Portion of Transcript

transcript:
each
of
top
the
across
appears
following
The

- A) The TA

  B) The session number

  C) The total time for the intervention by the TA

  E) A description of what was happening just prior to the intervention by the TA

C) The total time for the incident

The remainder of the transcript is standardized as follows:

- Column 1 Time in minutes (lines are used to mark off the time)
- Line number
- 3 Student comments
- 4 Coding of student comments
  - TA comments
- Coding of TA comments
  - blank

	6 7
	5
	·
	3
Columns	1 - 2

C) 3 minutes

- B) Session 13 A) Mark
- D) Critical Incident: #4 Resistance/Hostility
  E) Lee says she feels awkward, unnatural talking like that

<b>A</b> 2									<b>¥</b> 2
Like what? /									Hope we can do that in here too./
	<b>4</b> 2		-		ဌ				
	Lee: Like when I'm giving feedback and just the way, saying the concerns and		wondering what people think. Is it just	because we're practicing the skills and	you're sort of going to be awkward with	it at first or um, and then once we get	out of class we'll integrate it into the	way we are and stuff?/	
7	7 m	7	2	9	7	œ	6	10	11

Sample of a Portion of Transcript (continued)

1.	-	
	<b>A</b> A	
8./	What nart feels sukuard?/	A2
Like when I ask somebody how they feel.		!
I never talk like that, ya know, like		
so how do you	<b>A</b> 6	
feel about that. / I guess it's because		
before I got here that was so stereo-		
	90	
really having trouble breaking that./		
•	You see a reason for doing it?/	C
Doing what?/	C3	
	Asking somebody how they feel./	3
that was part		
_	2	
Paul: I thought the same thing too./	90	
	Well it's expected but that isn't what	<u>ვ</u>
	meant. / I ask if you saw a reason for	
	doing it./	C2
ind of feel that's,	A6	
I just feel kind of awkward. / I also		
	95	
the skills./		
	I think it's really great that you	
	brought that up. I support your sharing	Ala
	<pre>  that, I really do! (positive) /</pre>	
•	•	-

Sample of a Portion of Transcript (continued)

The sample portion reveals other features of the transcript as follows:

- Slashes (/) Often someone will be talking and there will be two or more different codable statements the code appearing in the column next to the text to which it applies. It was not possible to place within one segment of speech. A slash (/) is used to show which portions of text a code refers to, the codes within the text because this would distort the total length of the incident as well as presenting transcription difficulties.
- enough to transcribe it. The dotted line approximates the length of the missing section so that the Lines of Dots (.....) - A line of dots means that it was not possible to hear the recording well actual length of the entire intervention is not distorted by missing data. 5
- only once no matter how long the student talks. Unless a different name appears the reader can assume This means there is no need to specify the name of the TA in the text since this is already known and that the same student is speaking. In the sample transcript Lee's name appears only once to identify The name is written given at the top of the first page of each transcript. The following was done to distinguish among Indication of Who is Speaking - The TA/student distinction is made in the format of the transcripts with all TA comments being on the right hand side and all student comments on the left hand side. her and signal her entry into the conversation. The next name to appear is that of Paul. students. Each student is identified by name as s/he enters the conversation. re-enters the conversation her name is written again. ] <del>.</del>

To prevent bias, all coding was done prior to the examination of student reaction data. Some of the criteria for coding have already been discussed in chapter 1. For a fuller description see appendix B and Issacson (1976).

#### Summarization of Codes

Each transcript was coded using the modified version of the

Issacson Scale of Interaction Analysis. Once this was done the TA codes
had to be summarized. To do this each code was conceptualized as a

"verbal move" by the TA. It was then possible to determine the percentage of moves (codes) in a category, e.g., C3, A2, by dividing by the
total number of TA moves (total number of codes). This was done for all
B cluster categories resulting in nine percentages for each intervention
episode. The affective quality of the move was ignored in this calculation so that, for example, moves A2 (Affective Active Listening) and
C2 (Cognitive Active Listening) were placed in the same category. Other
percentages were calculated to examine different aspects of the TA's
behavior.

- 1. Percentages to look at the <u>Domain</u> of each move. It should be recalled that the domain could be affective or cognitive depending on its focus. Affective meant the focus was on feelings, cognitive that it dealt with thoughts or anything not related to feelings. Two percentages were calculated:
  - a) The number of Affective moves
    The total number of TA moves

    b) The number of Cognitive moves
    The total number of TA moves
- 2. Percentages to look at the Affective Quality of each move (see chapter 1,

<sup>1</sup> see chapter 1, p. 24 for description of B cluster categories.

- p. 26). Two percentages were calculated in this area:
- a) The number of Positive moves
  The total number of TA moves
- b) The number of Negative moves
  The total number of TA moves
- 3. Percentage of TA/Student Participation. This was done by comparing the number of lines of text spoken by the TA to the total number of lines of text in the intervention episode. The number of lines was used because it is much easier to calculate than time or words, yet it still provides a good picture of the proportion of TA to student talk.

These percentages and the actual frequencies were placed on a 5" x 8" index card along with other descriptive data for each intervention episode (see appendix B).

# Information on Summary Index Card for Each Intervention Episode

- 1. Critical Incident Number (1 10)
- 2. Session Number
- 3. TA Number (1 4)
- 4. Group Stage (1 3)
- 5. The Number of Students Directly Involved (for future data analyses)
- 6. Total Time (to the nearest half minute)
- 7. Type of Student(s) Involved (11, 12, 21, 22 and the number of each type)
- 8. Frequencies for all Code Categories broken down by Domain and Affective Quality
- 9. Percentages for all Code Categories plus the five special categories discussed (maximum of 14)
- 10. Resolution Type (Implicit or Overt)

These cards now became the source for analyses examining the nature of effective and ineffective intervention episodes.

# Research Questions

This project was designed as a fact-finding, hypothesis-generating piece of research on the characteristic features of effective leader interventions in the IPL setting. A secondary aim was to examine the features of interventions that have negative effects on the group. It was also desired to obtain information on the utility of the untested methods and the unit of analysis, especially the stimulated recall technique and the intervention episode unit of analysis. These aims are reflected in the original research questions of interest. As will be discussed in chapter 4, some of these questions were later dropped and others were substituted.

- LOOKING AT THE UTILITY OF METHODS AND THE UNIT OF ANALYSIS
  - a. Is the intervention episode a useful sequence unit of analysis?
  - b. Are there benefits to using stimulated recall techniques as opposed to post-session questionnaires?
- 2. LOOKING AT THE CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES OF EFFECTIVE INTERVENTION PATTERNS
  - a. What is the nature of those interventions perceived as effective by students which also lead to behavioral/attitudinal changes? (modifying variables are not controlled)

Dimensions of the intervention episode to be examined for this and all other questions:

- 1. Total Time
- 2. Percentages for ISIA categories
- 3. Percentages for Domains Affective & Cognitive
- 4. Percentages for Affective Quality Positive & Negative
- 5. Percentage of TA/Student Talk
- 6. Nature of an Acceptable Resolution Overt & Implicit
- b. What is the nature of those interventions perceived as effective by students but which do <u>not</u> lead to behavioral/attitudinal changes? (modifying variables are not controlled)

- c. Controlling for the critical incident issue only, what is the nature of those interventions perceived as effective by students which also lead to behavioral/attitudinal changes?
- d. Controlling for the critical incident issue only, what is the nature of those interventions perceived as effective by students which do <u>not</u> lead to behavioral/attitudinal changes?

#### 3. LOOKING AT THE EFFECTS OF MODIFYING VARIABLES

- a. Controlling for the type of student only, what is the nature of those interventions perceived as effective in each of the three group stages?
- b. Controlling for group stage only, what is the nature of those interventions perceived as effective with different types of students?
- c. What is the nature of those interventions that lead to behavioral/ attitudinal changes with different types of students?

## 4. LOOKING AT INTERVENTIONS WITH NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES

a. What is the nature of those interventions that are perceived as ineffective by students?

Perceived effectiveness was based on the analysis of the PSQ data. Though there were four scales in the PSQ, only two were of interest in determining perceived effectiveness, View TA and View Other. Both these scales focused on student perceptions of the TA's behavior. The significance level for these scales was the same in all cases, i.e., there was a positive correlation between significance on one scale and significance on the other. This uniformity meant that separate analyses were not needed.

In two cases the scale score for View TA was significant at the .01 level while the scale score for View Other was significant at the .05 level. Since both were acceptable significance levels this did not present a problem in categorizing the episode as Perceived Effective.

# Statistical Procedures

Due to the small sample size and the exploratory nature of the study, only descriptive statistics were employed. The data were organized into a series of tables according to the demands of the various questions and the dimensions to be explored. These frequency data were used to look for commonalities among effective and ineffective interventions. Commonality was assumed when at least two-thirds of the interventions being considered for a question shared a particular feature. This type of examination was done for all questions with the limitation that there had to be at least five acceptable interventions available for study before any attempt was made to look for commonalities.

Differences among the TAs were also examined. These will be discussed where appropriate to illuminate some of the factors that may have contributed to effective and ineffective intervention patterns. Findings in this area are based primarily on observer ratings and student comments.

#### CHAPTER IV

#### RESULTS

Once the intervention episodes (I.E.'s) were identified it became apparent that several research questions would have to be dropped because of inadequate sample sizes. New research questions were added and the methodology was modified to expand the possibilities for analysis of the data that were available. It is therefore necessary to describe the data and the methodological changes before proceeding to the final set of research questions and the corresponding results.

# Descriptive Statistics

Table 10 provides a breakdown of all I.E.'s by critical incident and TA. As shown, altogether there were forty-eight intervention episodes. All of the critical incidents were represented to varying degrees except number 5, "Refusing to be Responsible for Self." This exception is noteworthy since several experienced TAs had identified this critical incident as occurring frequently in groups. It may be that TAs see students failing to take responsibility for themselves but that they do not address this as a separate issue. Instead it is dealt with in the context of other incidents such as "Resistance/Hostility" or "TA put in Authority Position." Several other critical incidents were rare, number 3, "Failure to Own One's Feelings," number 8, "Overtalk/Inability to Facilitate Self-Closure," number 9, "Failure to Stay with the Here-and-Now," and number 10, "Negative Expectations." In the case of numbers 3 and 9,

the TA would usually ignore the incident or deal with it so briefly that the interaction could not be categorized as an intervention episode. The small sample size for number 10 is understandable since TAs typically deal with student expectations once, at the beginning of the term, and not after that. As for number 8, it seems this problem is just unusual.

TABLE 10.--Frequency of Intervention Episodes by Critical Incident and Group Leader

	(	Groups and	d Leaders		
Critical Incidents	1 Nat	2 Ken	3 Hank	4 Mark	Totals
l) Reluctance to Give Negative Feedback	-	-	2	2	4
<ol> <li>Non-Participation/ Withdrawn, Shy, Nontalkers</li> </ol>	8	3	-	6	17
3) Failure to Own One's Feelings	1	-	-	1	2
4) Resistance/Hostility	2	1	2	5	10
5) Refusing to be Responsible for Self	-	-	-	-	-
6) TA Put in Authority Position	1	3	1	2	7
7) Non-Facilitative Emo- tional or Nonverbal Behavior	2	-	1	-	3
8) Overtalk/Inability to Facilitate Self-Closu	e -	2	-	-	2
9) Failure to Stay with the Here-and-Now	-	1	-	-	1
) Negative Expectations	1	1	-	-	2
Totals	15	11	6	16	48

Looking at overall frequencies, the highest number of I.E.'s involved the critical incident "Nonparticipation/Withdrawn, Shy Nontalkers," followed by "Resistance/Hostility" and "TA Put in Authority Position." Together these accounted for 71% of the total number of I.E.'s. These critical incidents also appeared in several groups indicating the generality of the issues. They reflect the basic dynamics of IPL groups: the need to verbalize versus resistance to being evaluated and forced to participate, the desire for the TA to take responsibility for running the class versus the inherent necessity that students take a role in shaping the group if they are to display and practice the skills being taught. It is therefore not surprising that these critical incidents occurred in larger numbers across all groups.

The table is broken down by TA to reveal that differences were found in the type and frequency of critical incidents for each group.

However, it is beyond the scope of this project to fully explore the significance of these differences. It is the aim of this research to search for commonalities among the TAs in the way they handled the critical incidents and to relate these commonalities to the consequences of TA behavior.

# Changes in the Methodology

# Perceived Effectiveness

As discussed in chapter 3, determination of effectiveness was based on the analysis of data from the first two scales of the Post-Session Questionnaire (PSQ). As Table 11 shows, there were many sessions where PSQ data were not available, yet intervention episodes occurred.

TABLE 11.--Availability of Post-Session Questionnaire Data for Sessions with Intervention Episodes by Group Leader, in Percentages

	G	roups and	d Leaders		
Intervention Episodes/ PSQ Data	l Nat	2 Ken	3 Hank	4 Mark	Total
Sessions with Intervention Episodes & PSQ data	6	4	3	4	17
Sessions with Intervention Episodes but no PSQ data	4	5	2	3	14
Total Number of Sessions with Intervention Episodes	10	9	5	7	31

The reasons for this lack of data have already been addressed. In order to extract information from these sessions it was decided that observer ratings of effectiveness would also be utilized. Analysis of intervention episodes was carried out in two ways to account for the possibility that the observer might judge I.E.'s differently from the students. First, only those I.E.'s where PSQ data were available were analyzed for common characteristics. Then I.E.'s categorized using observer ratings were added to increase the size of the sample and another examination for commonalities was done. Results for each grouping will be discussed separately unless otherwise specified.

# Observer Ratings

Since observer ratings were used to categorize I.E.'s, it is important to take a closer look at how the ratings were made. Ratings

were based on direct observations, listening to tape recordings, and examination of the transcripts for signs of impact on the individuals directly involved and/or the entire class. Impact refers to the immediate reactions of those involved, be they positive, negative or indeterminate. The idea was for the observer to try to assess how the students were perceiving the I.E. The impact on the whole class was rated when the class itself was the object of the intervention episode or when the intensity of the episode was such that it had an indirect impact on everyone.

Four different ratings were given: (+) clearly positive,

(-) clearly negative, (I) indeterminate, meaning the observer could not

be sure of the reaction, and (M) for cases where the class was the object

of the intervention and there were different reactions. A rating of (M)

meant there was some combination of the other three categories. Table 12

summarizes the observer ratings for all intervention episodes. As shown,

whenever a rating of (M) is given the underlying ratings are also indicated. Table 12 also has two other features that need to be discussed.

Each intervention episode is uniquely numbered from 1 to 44. These identification numbers will be used in all tables whenever a particular intervention episode is being referred to. They also appear in the upper righthand corner of each transcript in appendix D. This should make it easy for the reader to quickly locate the corresponding transcript for any tabled intervention episode if so desired. The numbers also allow the reader to see when an intervention episode falls into

Appendix D can be found in the Reference Library of the Institute for Research on Teaching, College of Education, Michigan State University, E. Lansing, MI 48824.

TABLE 12. -- Observer Ratings of the Impact of Each Intervention Episode on Group Members.

				Int	erven	Intervention Episodes	piso	des							
	1	2	3	4	5	9	_	<b>&amp;</b>	6	10	11	12	13	14	15
Session Number	1	1	1	1	2	2	3	5	9	80	9	11	13	15	2
Critical Incident Number	10	7	2,3	6	2	2	4	7	2	2	2	2	2	7	10
Code Number of Students Involved and/or Class	07 01	15	Class(2) <sup>a</sup> (	Class	Class Class 04 07 15 Clas	8	60	05	13 14 15	Class	13	13	12	14	Class
Impact Ratings for Students Involved	I	I	+	N.A. N.A.	N.A.	1 - 1	ı	+	+ + H	N.A.	I	+	+	1	N.A.
Impact Ratings for Entire Class	N.A. Ņ.A.	Ą.A.	I	н	H	q(Ĭ)	. 1	N.A.	N.A.	ı	N.A.	N.A.	N.A. N.A.	N.A.	+

TABLE 12. -- Continued

				Intervention Episodes	ention	Ep18	sopos									
	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25 ;	26	27	28	29	30	
Session Number	3	5	5	10	11	13	14	15	19	e e	m	4	12	15	18	
Critical Incident Number	8	9	9	8,9	2	2	6	4	2	1	1	9	7	4	4	
Code Number of Students Involved and/or Class	37	Class	07	Class (6) 37 (8)	30	36	Class	37	77	23 24 24 18 25 19 17	25	26	22	22	24	
Impact Ratings for Students Involved	+	N.A.	+	+	+	+	N.A.	+	+	нінін	+	+	ı	+	+	
Impact Ratings for Entire Class	+	+	N.A.	м(ф)	N.A. N.A.	N.A.	H	A. A.	. A.	H.	.A.	N.A.N.A.M(±)N.A. N.A.	N.A.	N.A. N.A. N.A.	z.A.	

TABLE 12. -- Continued

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	77	35	2	74	cs	ရ	ر ر	గ్గ	39	40	41	74	43	44
Session Number	က	4	4	4	Ŋ	5	80	80	8	80	12	13	13	16
Critical Incident Number	2	2	Э	4,6	4	2	4	1,2	2	4	1	9	7	2
Code Number of Students Involved and/or Class	61 60 57 53 51 58 Class	45 55 46	49	46(6) 49(4) 45(4,6) 56(4)	61	51	50	53(1,2) 50(2) 58(2) 57(2) 48(2) 47(2)	Class	09	55	45	47	45
Impact Ratings for Students Involved	H H I + I +	1 H 1	1	I + + H	ı	+	H +	нннн+	N.A.	ı	1 14	+	+	н
Impact Ratings for Entire Class	M(±)	N.A.	N.A.	(Ţ)W	Z . A .	N. A.	A.	M(\frac{1}{4}) M(\frac{1}{4})	$M(\frac{1}{4})$	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.

NOTE: Ratings are as follows: (+) - clearly positive; (-) clearly negative; (I) indetermined; (M) = mixed. The letters N.A. stand for Not Applicable.

 $^{\mathrm{a}}\mathrm{The}$  number in parentheses indicates the corresponding critical incident.

 $^{ extstyle}$  The symbols in parentheses next to an M show the underlying ratings.

more than one category, which is often the case.

Each student also has a unique number ranging from 1 to 61. The list of corresponding names and numbers appears in appendix B. Since student names are used in the transcripts they will also be used in the text. Code numbers appear in certain tables due to space limitations.

# Intervention Episodes and Behavioral Change

One of the requirements of this study was to isolate I.E.'s with real, as well as perceived, impact. Real impact meant that behaviors or attitudes changed in the desired direction. This was done by looking for changes that occurred over the three sessions following an intervention episode. Once the analysis was begun it became evident that there would be few I.E.'s for study given this approach. Therefore a decision was made to look at immediate as well as long-range impact (over three sessions). This could be justified on two grounds, one that it would increase the sample size of I.E.'s with seemingly positive effects on student behaviors/attitudes. Second, there was evidence to show that positive immediate consequences are a supportive and possibly necessary condition for change in the desired direction to occur. The evidence comes from the research by Lieberman, Yalom and Miles (1973) and their findings on the "late bloomer" effect:

Encounter group practitioners often cite cases of "late blooming," probably in the belief that a period of "sorting out" has to take place before learnings are stabilized. The findings certainly do not suggest that this phenomenon is widespread. Only one person in the sample succeeded in moving from a negative change at Time 2 to positive at Time 3. . . . Thus, "late blooming," offered as a possible expectation to a participant

TA and student names have been changed to disguise the real identity of participants.

who has experienced poor outcomes, appears more a hope than a probability. (p. 110)

Lieberman and his associates were referring to the effects of an entire group experience, not a particular intervention. However, it seems plausible to expect the same phenomenon applies to intervention episodes, especially when they deal with emotionally laden issues.

It was up to the observer to judge the immediate consequences of the I.E. The observer looked for indications that the participants at least tentatively accepted the information or message of the episode. It must be remembered that the interventions being studied had a corrective aim, that is, to change some behavior and/or attitude inhibiting the person(s) full participation in the group. Though acceptance may have been displayed through immediate behavioral changes, more often it involved verbal acknowledgement. Indicators included comments showing increased awareness, acceptance of alternative viewpoints, pledges to change, and so on. Three ratings were given: (+) clearly positive, (-) clearly negative, or (I) indeterminate.

The procedures for determining long-range impact have already been discussed in chapter 3 (see p. 80). Again, it was up to the observer to judge if change had occurred. These judgments were very difficult to make for several reasons. First, when the class would break into small groups it was often impossible to follow students into these subgroups to watch their behavior. This limited data collection and therefore assessments of change. Determining if an attitude had changed was even harder to do since direct evidence was usually unavailable and the observer had to infer change from the person's behavior. Finally there was the possibility that the individual was feigning change because s/he wanted to pass the course. Given these problems the observer

chose to be conservative in making judgments of long-range change. Similar to the ratings for positive immediate consequences, there were three possibilities: (+) clearly positive, (-) clearly negative, or (I) indeterminate.

# Research Questions

The criterion had been established that there had to be five I.E.'s in a given category before any attempt to look for commonalities would be made. Using this criterion several research questions had to be dropped for lack of sufficient data. It was decided to substitute other questions based on what seemed logical and potentially fruitful given the data available. What follows is the final set of questions which will be explored in this chapter.

# Research Questions Pertaining to Methodology

- 1. Is the intervention episode a useful sequence unit of analysis?
- 2. Are there benefits to using stimulated recall techniques as opposed to post-session questionnaires?

Research Questions Pertaining to the Characteristics of Effective and Ineffective Intervention Episodes

# Perceived Effectiveness - Overall

- 1) What is the nature of those interventions perceived as effective based on Post-Session Questionnaire data only?
- 2) What is the nature of those interventions perceived as effective based on Post-Session Questionnaire data and observer ratings?
- 3) What is the nature of those interventions lasting over five minutes that are perceived as effective based on Post-Session Questionnaire data and observer ratings?

# Perceived Effectiveness by Critical Incident

- 4) For the critical incident, "Nonparticipation by Group Members," what is the nature of those interventions perceived as effective based on Post-Session Questionnaire data and observer ratings?
- 5) For the critical incident, "Resistance/Hostility," what is the nature of those interventions perceived as effective based on Post-Session Questionnaire data <u>and</u> observer ratings?

# Perceived Effectiveness by Group Stage

- 6) For group stage 1, what is the nature of those interventions perceived as effective based on Post-Session Questionnaire data and observer ratings?
- 7) For group stage 2, what is the nature of those interventions perceived as effective based on Post-Session Questionnaire data and observer ratings?

#### Perceived Ineffectiveness - Overall

- 8) What is the nature of those interventions perceived as ineffective based on Post-Session Questionnaire data only?
- 9) What is the nature of those interventions perceived as ineffective based on Post-Session Questionnaire data and observer ratings?

# Perceived Ineffectiveness by Critical Incident

10) For the critical incident, "Nonparticipation by Group Members," what is the nature of those interventions perceived as ineffective based on Post-Session Questionnaire data and observer ratings?

# Perceived Ineffectiveness by Group Stage

11) For group stage 1, what is the nature of those interventions perceived as ineffective based on Post-Session Questionnaire data and observer ratings?

# Positive Immediate Consequences - Overall and by Critical Incident

- 12) What is the nature of those interventions that have positive immediate consequences based on observer ratings?
- 13) For the critical incident, "Nonparticipation by Group Members," what is the nature of those interventions with positive immediate consequences?

# <u>Perceived Effectiveness and Long-Range Behavioral/Attitudinal Changes - Overall</u>

- 14) What is the nature of those interventions perceived as effective based on Post-Session Questionnaire data and observer ratings which also lead to long-range behavioral/attitudinal changes?
- 15) What is the nature of those interventions perceived as effective based on Post-Session Questionnaire data and observer ratings which do not lead to long-range behavioral/attitudinal changes?

# Foreword on Presentation of Results

The intervention episodes pertinent to each question were examined for common characteristics. Though tables were developed to display these comparisons they are not included in this chapter but in appendix C. Instead it was decided to present only the positive results, i.e., the commonalities found. A further decision was made to present these findings according to the eight major groupings outlined, rather than proceeding question by question. Consequently Tables 15 through 22 and 24 were developed to summarize the findings for each grouping. By comparing across questions in a grouping it is possible to see if the same commonalities appeared when slight modifications were made in the data source being used for classification. In order to interpret these tables and those in appendix C, it is necessary to discuss the concept of "commonality" and the use of single and double asterisks to indicate its different levels.

Commonality is said to occur when a specified percentage of interventions in a category share a common characteristic or feature. The characteristics or features are values or value ranges within one of eight major variables: Total Time of the Intervention Episode; TA/Student Talk Ratio; Domain - Affective or Cognitive; Affective Quality - Positive or Negative; Communication Skills - ISIA Categories; and the Nature of the

Resolution. Whenever a single asterisk (\*) appears in the summary or raw data tables, it means that 67% or more of the interventions share this feature. The double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the interventions had some commonality in this area. Though it was originally proposed to consider only the higher level criterion, a decision was later made during analysis to include the second level. This was done because it was felt that the 67% level might be too stringent. Given the exploratory nature of the study it seemed reasonable to take a more liberal stance in interpreting the findings so that possibly meaningful data would not be overlooked.

A standard format will be used to present the findings for the research questions comparing intervention episodes. Each of the variables will be looked at in turn, discussing which if any commonalities were found. Since there are two levels of commonality, single (\*) and double (\*\*) asterisks, each will be dealt with separately. The results are also presented in the corresponding summary table. Where appropriate the significance of the outcomes will also be addressed. Before presenting the results for the questions comparing intervention episodes, the findings for the questions on methodology will be presented since these questions are somewhat different in nature.

#### Results for Questions on Methodology

#### The Intervention Episode

The first question on methodology asks if the intervention episode is a useful sequence unit of analysis. This question can be broken down into two smaller ones--is it logically valid and useful, and does it have reliably distinct boundaries? The issue of its logical validity and

of its boundaries, the transcriber found it very easy to identify the opening move of an I.E. and somewhat more difficult to determine the point where it was finished.

The opening move of an I.E. is defined as the first TA comment following detection of an intervention indicator, i.e., a critical incident. Since the critical incidents could be readily identified, so could the first TA move to deal with one. In contrast, there was no stimulus to signal the end of an episode; the researcher (transcriber) had to make this judgment. On occasion this decision was hard to make, especially in the case of implicit resolutions where the topic drifted to someone or something else. However, in general there was no problem in determining that an episode was over although the exact point of termination could not be specified with perfect reliability.

While the criteria for establishing the boundaries of an intervention episode are fairly clear, further work is needed to refine the criteria for distinguishing between overt and implicit resolutions. It was frequently difficult to make this distinction. Also there probably should be more than two types of resolutions to reflect the level of closure brought to an episode, that is, are student concerns adequately dealt with or are participants left "hanging."

# Stimulated Recall Technique

The stimulated recall technique (SRT) was used to overcome some of the measurement problems of the post-session questionnaire (PSQ). Whereas the latter required group members to react to an entire session, the SRT asked for student reactions to a specified intervention episode.

The SRT involved isolating an I.E. on tape, rerunning it at a later point in the group, and asking participants to fill out a form with questions on how they felt when the I.E. initially occurred. Five of the questions on this form were identical or equivalent to ones on the PSQ form filled out at the close of the session in which the I.E. occurred. The idea was to compare responses to these equivalent questions to determine if the PSQ data accurately reflected student reactions to TA behavior during the I.E. It was important to have this information because classification of I.E.'s as effective or ineffective was based on PSQ data. The findings would also have implications beyond this study since post-session questionnaires are a primary data source for research on leader behavior in groups. A secondary aim in using the SRT was to make an assessment of the technique as a research tool, its advantages and disadvantages. This assessment will be left for the discussion chapter.

Two stimulated recalls were carried out, one with Nat's group, the other with Hank's. T-tests were done to compare the mean scores for the five parallel questions on the two forms. Tables 13 and 14 summarize the results of these tests for the two groups. The findings will be reviewed separately, followed by some overall comments on the technique itself.

For Nat's group, statistically significant differences were found on one question, "TA pushed too hard, beyond productive point." There was stronger disagreement with this statement after listening to the I.E. on tape. The standard deviation also decreased sharply with every respondent marking either Category 4 (Disagree) or 5 (Strongly Disagree). This does not necessarily mean that students changed their impressions since the PSQ dealt with reactions to the entire session and other events could have influenced the ratings on this question.

TABLE 13.-- Mean Scores and Results of T-test Comparisons of Parallel Questions on Stimulated Recall and Post-Session Questionnaires for Nat's Group

		i		Statistic	5		
	Questions	Paral Quest	Mean Score	Standard Deviation			ificance evel <sup>a</sup>
1)	TA over-controlling and manipulative	SRQ PSQ	3.73 4.22	1.03 .79	-1.175	*	(ns) (ns)
2)	TA overly critical and judgmental at times	SRQ PSQ	4.00 4.11	. 77 . 60	346	*	(ns) (ns)
3)	TA made sincere at- tempt to appreciate others feelings and ideas	SRQ PSQ	1.55 1.67	. 69 . 87	346	* **	(ns) (ns)
4)	TA actions helped others gain meaning- ful insight into behavior/feelings	SRQ PSQ	2.10 1.89	1.04 1.09	. 437		(ns) (ns)
5)	TA pushed too hard, beyond productive point	SRQ PSQ	4.55 3.67	. 52 1.41	1.920		<u>p</u> >.05 (ns)

NOTE: N=9 for all questions on the PSQ; N=11 for all questions on SRO

NOTE: Scale was as follows: (1) Strongly Agree, (2) Agree, (3) Unsure, (4) Disagree, (5) Strongly Disagree

<sup>a</sup>A single asterisk (\*) refers to a one-tailed test of significance, a double asterisk (\*\*) refers to a two-tailed test of significance.

In Hank's group statistically significant differences were found for three of the five questions. In each case the movement was in a less favorable direction than indicated by the PSQ data. The ratings for two of the questions were somewhat negative. The question focusing on overcontrol and manipulation by the TA had a mean score of 2.71, which meant that many students agreed with this after listening to the tape.

TABLE 14.-- Mean Scores and Results of T-test Comparisons of Parallel Questions on Stimulated Recall and Post-Session Questionnaires for Hank's Group

				Statistic	S	
(	Questions	Parallel Questions	Mean Score	Standard Deviation		Significance Level <sup>a</sup>
•	A over-controlling nd manipulative	SRQ #2 PSQ #6	2.71 3.43		-1.969	* p > .05 ** (ns)
a	A overly critical nd judgmental at imes	SRQ #3 PSQ #2	3.21 3.26		136	* (ns) ** (ns)
t o	A made sincere at- empts to appreciate thers' feelings and deas	SRQ #4 PSQ #7	2.36 1.93		1.444	* (ns) ** (ns)
o: fi	A actions helped thers gain meaning- ul insight into ehavior/feelings	SRQ #5 PSQ #3	2.43 1.53	.84 .50	3.454	* p>.01 ** p>.01
Ъ	A pushed too hard, eyond productive oint	SRQ #9 PSQ #4	3.08 3.93	.86 .48	-3.173	* p>.01 ** p>.01

NOTE: N=14 for both questionnaires, except for SRQ #9 where N=13.

NOTE: Scale was as follows: (1) Strongly Agree, (2) Agree, (3) Unsure, (4) Disagree, (5) Strongly Disagree

<sup>a</sup>A single asterisk refers to a one-tailed test of significance, a double asterisk refers to a two-tailed test of significance.

For the question, "TA pushed too hard, beyond productive point," the mean score was 3.08, with the majority of students marking either Category 2 (Agree) or 3 (Unsure). Though a significant difference was found for the third question, "TA actions helped others gain meaningful insight into behavior/feelings," the overall mean was still in the favorable zone (2.43).

Several students commented that their impressions had changed after listening to the tape. They attributed this to being less personally involved
during the recall session and having to make their judgments based on
verbal interchange alone.

What do these findings reveal about the accuracy of PSQ data as a measure of student reactions to TA behavior during I.E.'s? Looking only at statistical changes it appears that at least in the case of Hank's group, the PSQ did not prove to be accurate. However, this may be an unwarranted conclusion if student comments that they changed their minds are taken into account. The differences found might reflect these changes as opposed to showing the PSQ to be an insensitive measure of student feelings at the time of the I.E. Certainly the PSQ was sensitive for Nat's group.

The evidence seems to justify a tentative conclusion that the PSQ was an accurate measurement tool for the purposes of this research. It also shows that post-session questionnaires can be useful data sources for research on leadership behavior in general. One caution must be raised, though; in both cases the I.E. s were fairly lengthy and generated considerable emotional involvement from the other group members. These factors increase the likelihood that student reactions would be picked up by the PSQ. The same might not have been true with I.E. s that were shorter and less arousing. Unfortunately, stimulated recalls with I.E. s of this type were not available for study.

# Results for Questions Pertaining to the Characteristics of Perceived Effective and Ineffective Intervention Episodes

# Questions on Perceived Effectiveness - Overall

The first three questions look at all I.E.'s classified as perceived effective. Questions 1 and 2 are differentiated by the data source used for classification of the I.E.'s, with the first one using PSQ data only and the second, PSQ data plus observer ratings. Question 3 includes only I.E.'s over five minutes in length, again using PSQ data and observer ratings. It was asked because visual inspection of the data indicated that these I.E.'s might have special characteristics. Actually this was found to be true for only one variable. As explained earlier, each of the variables will be dealt with in turn, discussing which if any commonalities were found. Table 15 summarizes the results for all three questions by major variables.

#### Total Time

A double \*\* rating was found for the value range ">10 minutes" for questions 1 and 3. The rating is not very meaningful for question 3 since I.E.'s under five minutes were selected out. However, the 53% commonality for question 1 indicates a slight tendency for longer interventions to be seen as more effective. It may be that these longer interventions provide the needed time to successfully work through the issues involved. Also longer interventions probably have greater impact on student feelings. Consequently, there is a greater chance that their reactions will be reflected in responses to the PSQ filled out at the end of each session.

TABLE 15.--Commonalities Across Intervention Episodes for Questions 1-3, by Major Variables.

				(	Question:	8			
		erall-PS	•	PSQ &	bserver	ctiveness Ratings	Over PSQ &	Five Mi Observe	r Ratings
Variables		(Questic			estion 2	·	( Q	uestion	3)
	Level Comm.	Z Comm.	Comm. Value(s)	Level Comm.	% Comm.	Comm. Value(s)	Level Comm.	% Comma.	Comm. Value(s)
Total Time	**	53%	>10 min	• • •	•••	•••	**	61%	> 10 min
TA/Student Talk Ratio		•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	**	54%	25-50%
Affective Domain	*	80%	0-25%	*	85%	0-25%	*	77%	0-25%
Cognitive Domain	*	80%	75-100%	*	85%	75-100%	*	77%	75-100%
Positive Affect	*	100%	0-25%	*	100%	0-25%	*	100%	0-25%
Negative Affect	*	100%	0-25%	*	100%	0-25%	*	100%	0-25%
ISIA Categories	*	•••	2,3,5,6 4,7a	*	•••	2,3,5,6 7a	*	•••	2,3,5,6 4,7a
Nature of Resolution	*	73%	Overt	*	85%	Overt	*	92%	Overt
Number of Episodes		15			20			13	

NOTE: A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the intervention episodes shared the characteristic(s). A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the intervention episodes shared the characteristic(s).

NOTE: Figures in the column,  $% = 10^{-5}$  Comm., refer to the actual percentages of intervention episodes sharing the characteristic(s).

#### TA/Student Talk Ratio

A double \*\* rating was found for the value range "25-50%" for question 3. Of greater interest was the observation that in all but one instance, I.E.'s in this value range also lasted over ten minutes. This relationship was observed in later analyses for both perceived effective and ineffective I.E.'s.

#### Affective Domain

A single \* rating was found for all questions in the value range "0-25%." Seventy-five percent or more of the I.E.'s for each question fell within this value range. Putting it another way, only 15-23% of the TA codes were rated as having to do with affective issues. Clearly the image of the sensitivity training group leader who always deals with feelings did not apply to these I.E.'s. In part the low percentages are an artifact since not all of the TA codes can be affective. The ISIA categories 4 (Directs and Suggests Solutions) and 5 (Offers Information) can only be cognitive, and Category 5 was frequently coded. Still, the 3 to 1 ratio of cognitive to affective codes indicates that student and observer perceptions of I.E. effectiveness were associated with a high amount of cognitive input by the TA.

#### Cognitive Domain

Since the number of affective codes was found to be in the range "0-25%," it necessarily follows that the remaining codes fell into the "75-100%" range for this variable. The underlying percentages of I.E. sharing this feature are also identical to the figures for the Affective Domain.

#### Positive Affect

A single \* rating was found for the value range "0-25%" for all questions. In fact 100% of the I.E.'s fell within this range. Actually, most of the I.E.'s had no positive affect ratings. Only 5 (22%) of the 23 I.E.'s represented across all questions had any coded remarks that were rated as displaying positive affect. Does this mean that the TAs were not warm, supportive, and caring in their manner? The answer is no, because for the most part these ratings did not take into account the nonverbal behavior that accompanied TA comments. It is well accepted that nonverbals are crucial to interpreting verbal messages from others. Given this it is probable that many remarks that were not rated as expressing positive affect were perceived by students as doing just that. Observations showed that a good deal of positive affect was expressed nonverbally during I.E.'s classified as perceived effective. TAs had what could be called a caring attitude, characterized by smiling, attentiveness, body posture and occasionally touching group members. Moreover, they showed their caring by trying to elicit student feelings and by checking to make sure student concerns had been resolved. Some good examples of this type of checking are shown by Ken in I.E. number 16.

Ken: Daisy, you expressed a while ago some non-closure and not knowing where things are. Where we've gone, have you resolved that?

#### and

Jerry just expressed something to you, what's your reaction? Did that make you feel any differently? How does it feel any different now than it did ten, fifteen minutes ago? If so, what's different?

Based on this discussion, it may appear that the findings relating to this variable should be dismissed as having little meaning. But in fact they do provide a valuable piece of information because they reveal

among interventions perceived as effective. Again this is contradictory to the general stereotypic image of the sensitivity group leader effusively spouting words of caring, trust, and the desire to form intimate, personal relationships with group members. Instead these results and the observer's notations showed the instructor-student role distinction to remain in effect throughout the IPL experience although the boundaries varied somewhat across TAs.

# Negative Affect

Similar to the variable Positive Affect, a single \* rating was found for the value range "0-25%" with 100% of all I.E.'s having negative affect ratings in this range. Only 2 (9%) of the 23 sessions represented across the three questions had any coded remarks with attached negative affect. In contrast to the interdependency of percentages for the variables relating to Domain, the ratings on this variable are essentially independent of those for Positive Affect.

#### ISIA

Single \* ratings were found for the values 2, 3, 5, and 6, corresponding to the ISIA categories Active Listening, Eliciting Questions,

Offers Information, and Self-disclosure. Questions 1 and 3 had double \*\*

ratings for ISIA Category 4, Directs or Suggests Solutions, while for question 2 a double \*\* rating was found for Category 7a, Responsible

Negative Feedback. Though this gives some indication of the types of communication skills used by TAs, it seemed equally if not more important to know something about how frequently categories were used. Consequently, a rank ordering based on frequency of usage was performed within and across

the I.E.'s for each question. It turned out that cagegories 5 and 2 ranked first and second for all three questions. The third rank varied, being 7a for question 1, a tie between 7a, 6, and 3 for question 2, and no obvious third for question 3. The ISIA categories 5 and 2 merit further comment.

Category 5 includes many behaviors typically associated with being a teacher, i.e., establishing rules of conduct, offering cognitive information, providing cognitive frameworks for understanding, summarizing group process, and so on. Issacson (1976) defined it this way in his manual:

This type of talk presents responses to questions or self-initiated facts or information concerning the content, subject, or procedures being considered. It consists of facts outside of one's own experience. . . . Very often during a group the facilitator or a group member will comment on the ongoing interaction. These types of statements are explanations or observations of the group behavior and are called processing or critiquing in the field of group dynamics. (pp. 219-20)

Issacson supplements these criteria with various examples and guidelines to assist the coder in their application. For example, opinion offered as if it were fact is coded 5; so are side comments and social amenities. The inclusion of the latter tends to inflate to some degree the number of 5 codes given. However, the bulk of 5 codes are applied to the types of teaching behaviors just discussed.

The author expanded Issacson's definition to include all instances where the TA is providing information in the role of the leader or teacher, as opposed to being just another group member. A few examples should clarify this distinction. In these examples the leader is supplying information about how he wants to lead the group, his style of operation. They tell you something more about him as the leader, rather than revealing more of his personal self.

Well, I'd like to get those things out in the open so we know what we're dealing with, in terms of fears, expectations that you have. I figure that's real.

or

I would really like to take the time at the end of a Wednesday or Friday to say, hey, what's going on for you, how did you feel about the experience today.

or

Something that I hear a lot that really kind of frustrates me is people saying that gee, all you have to do is go in and talk and that is not where I'm coming from. For me it's not the quantity of what we say at all, it's the way we say what we say.

Contrast these statements to those that would be considered self-disclosure of a more personal nature.

And I believe that people, my bias is that people who believe in themselves can cope in most any situation. People who can be brilliant academically and do not believe in their abilities to cope beyond the academics lack confidence, socially for instance. I also would have some hassles with saying, I wouldn't call them an internally secure person.

or

You said something about people don't behave like this or you just don't act like this and I guess I'd have to say I do. I feel that the way I am in here is the way you'll see me wherever it is. . . . I live the way I am.

Though this distinction seems fairly obvious from the examples, in reality it was often difficult to make. Tone of voice and contextual cues had to be used to decide if a statement should be coded as a 5 or 6. Appendix B includes a summary of the guidelines used by the researcher (coder) to assist in making decisions between ISIA categories.

As already discussed, Category 5 was first in the rank ordering of ISIA categories based on frequency of usage in those I.E.'s classified as perceived effective. What can be concluded from this? First, that leaders in these groups do not relinquish their roles as instructors despite the nature of the content and being in a group experience. Rather they spend much of their time providing the cognitive framework students

need to understand the experience. Second, a predominance of cognitive input seems to be highly associated with those I.E.'s perceived to be effective. But successful leader behavior in these I.E.'s was not simply a matter of giving information. Ranked second in frequency of usage was Category 2, Active Listening. Here the leader acts to elicit information and feelings from the students. Issacson (1976) defined this category as follows:

For a statement to be coded B:2 it must meet two criteria: First the statement should keep the focus of the interaction on the person who has previously been talking and on the subject that person was talking about. Second, the statement must encourage the previous speaker to go further in the interaction, to elaborate on his/her ideas or feelings. Active listening serves as a reinforcement to the speaker in that it is communicating to the speaker that he has been heard and that someone is interested in what he said and would like to hear more. There are generally three types of statements which are coded as active listening: paraphrasing, clarifying statements, and exploratory statements. (pp. 212-13)

When actively listening the TA is trying to understand the speaker, to clarify feelings and ideas the person is expressing. As with Category 5, the high rank position for Category 2 reveals more than information about frequency of usage; it shows that sincere attempts by the TA to understand group members are an important contributor to student perceptions of effective TA behavior.

#### Nature of a Resolution

All three questions had a single \* rating for the value "overt."

The underlying percentages were high with approximately 73-92% of the

I.E. 's in each question qualifying as having an overt resolution. An

overt resolution means that some closure has been brought to the I.E.

by the TA and/or those involved. In order for an episode to be rated as

having an overt resolution there had to be some indication that it was

completed. This did not always mean that the issues had been resolved,

just that there was evidence to suggest that the episode was ended. Sometimes this involved a statement such as "That's all for today," "Let's take a break," or "I want to move on to something else now." Usually an attempt had to be made to check with those involved in the episode to ensure that some understanding had been reached before moving on to another topic. For example, in I.E. number 9 Nat checks out with Sharrie to see if she understands what he has been explaining to her before allowing the conversation to change direction:

Nat: (after some discussion about Sharon's behavior) Does that make sense to you?

Sharrie: Yeah, it does . . . (changes topic)

Or from I.E. number 21 with Ken:

Ken: I guess I want to know where you guys are, do you still want more feedback, do you want to work out some more things?

Joshua: No, I want . . . (changes topic)

A resolution was rated as implicit when the issues involved seemed to be dropped without any indication of closure. Rather the topic just seemed to drift to someone or something else. Often there was the impression that the people in the episode had been left "hanging," their concerns unaddressed.

Contextual and nonverbal cues often had to be used to decide if a resolution was implicit or overt. Nonverbal cues were especially important in making these decisions since an episode might be closed by giving nonverbal signals that further discussion on the matter was discouraged, for example, shifting eye contact or nodding for someone else to give their input.

Returning to the findings for this variable, it can be seen that the highest percentage of I.E.'s with overt resolutions was found for

question 3, PSQ data and observer ratings for I.E.'s over five minutes.

Two explanations can be given for this. First, longer interventions work to increase the probability of closure since it would be awkward to let the conversation drift off to another topic when so much time had been committed to discussing the initial concerns. Second, the inclusion of observer ratings works to increase the percentage of I.E.'s with overt resolutions as demonstrated in question 2. This seems to indicate that the observer found adequate closure to be one determinant of effectiveness.

# Questions on Perceived Effectiveness by Critical Incident

To review, a critical incident is the precipitating event that triggers an intervention episode. It is critical because it reflects some underlying issue that needs to be dealt with in a corrective manner so that those involved can have a productive group experience. The issue becomes the focus of the intervention episode. It was felt that there might be some relationship between the issue or topic of an I.E. and the characteristics of TA behavior perceived as effective. Sufficient data were available to examine this hypothesis for two critical incidents, "Nonparticipation" and "Resistance/Hostility." Table 16 summarizes the results. Perceived effectiveness was based on a combination of PSQ data and observer ratings. The findings for each variable will be presented briefly. Discussion will focus on those areas where the results were different from those obtained when all I.E.'s classified as perceived effective were examined together.

TABLE 16.--Commonalities Across Intervention Episodes for Questions 4 and 5, by Major Variables.

			Quest:	ions		
Variables		ived Effectitical Inc (Question	eident 2	1		ectiveness ncident 4 n 5)
	Level	%	Comm.	Level	%	Comm.
	Comm.	Comm.	Value(s)	Comm.	Comm.	Value(s)
Total Time	**	50%	> 10 min	**	50%	> 10 min
TA/Student Talk Ratio	**	63%	25-50%	•••	•••	•••
Affective Domain	*	75%	0-25%	*	83%	0-25%
Cognitive Domain	*	75%	75–100%	*	83%	75–100%
Positive Affect	*	100%	0-25%	*	100%	0-25%
Negative Affect	*	100%	0-25%	*	100%	0-25%
ISIA Categories	*	• • •	2,3,5,6 7a	*	•••	2,3,5,6
Nature of Resolution	*	88%	0vert	*	67%	Overt
Number of Episodes		8			6	

NOTE: A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the intervention episodes shared the characteristic(s). A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the intervention episodes shared the characteristic(s).

NOTE: Figures in the column, % Comm., refer to the actual percentages of intervention episodes sharing the characteristic(s).

#### Total Time

Double \*\* ratings were found for both questions in the value range ">10 minutes." The underlying percentage of 50% in each case is equivalent to the figure calculated when all I.E.'s classified as perceived effective were analyzed.

# TA/Student Talk Ratio

A double \*\* rating was found for the value range "25-50%" for question 4 on nonparticipation by group members. In contrast, no commonalities were found for question 5 when the critical incident involved resistance and hostility. All of the I.E.'s lasting over ten minutes had TA/Student Talk Ratios in this range for question 4, though this was not the case for question 5. Though commonality was not found for question 5, a noteworthy observation was made. Whereas two-thirds of the I.E.'s for question 4 showed the TA to talk 50% or less of the time, the trend was exactly reversed when the incident involved resistance and hostility. It may be that the leader feels a greater compulsion to take charge and personally resolve the problem when a student challenges him and/or the IPL experience. This response is not evoked when the critical incident involves nonparticipation because the issues involved are less threatening to the leader.

#### Affective Domain

A single \* rating was found for the value range "0-25%" for both questions. This is in line with the finding already discussed that the majority of leader comments are cognitive in nature.

#### Cognitive Domain

Both questions showed single \* ratings for the value range "75-100%." The significance of high cognitive input from the leader has already been addressed.

#### Positive and Negative Affect

As shown earlier, 100% of the I.E.'s classified as perceived effective fell into the value range "0-25%" for both these variables. Since the I.E.'s pertinent to question 4 and 5 are a subset of this larger group, it necessarily follows that they also had to fall into the same value range.

# ISIA

Again the findings for this variable paralleled those for the overall group. Both questions showed single \* ratings for the categories 2, 3, 5, and 6. Double \*\* ratings were found for Category 7a. The rank orderings showed a tie between categories 5 and 2 for question 4, followed by 7a. For question 5 the rank order was 5, 2, 6.

#### Nature of a Resolution

Both questions had a single \* rating for the value "overt." Though the underlying percentage for question 5 was low (67%), the small sample size makes it doubtful that this difference is meaningful.

In conclusion, it can be said that at least in these two cases, the type of critical incident involved did not seem to have much of an impact on the nature of those I.E.'s classified as perceived effective.

# Questions on Perceived Effectiveness by Group Stage

It was originally hypothesized that the group stage would have some impact on member perceptions of effective TA behavior during an

intervention episode. Many writers in the field contend that the focus of group dynamics changes over time corresponding to what can be called stages of group life. For example, in the early part of the group life the dynamics involve the development of trust needed for risk taking and self-disclosure. It was felt that TA behavior during an intervention episode would be interpreted in light of the dynamics operating during the stage in which the I.E. occurred. This might mean that in an earlier stage TA behavior that was supportive and helped establish trust would be particularly crucial whereas it might not be as important in later stages. Though the groups were divided into three stages, there was sufficient data to examine this hypothesis for only the first two stages. Table 17 summarizes the results of this analysis for commonalities. As the table reveals, most of the commonalities and underlying percentages were similar to those found when all I.E.'s perceived as effective were examined together. Consequently, instead of reviewing the findings for each variable, only those with unusual results will be discussed.

#### Total Time

Stage 1 showed double \*\* ratings in two value ranges, "0 ± 5 minutes" and ">10 minutes." The underlying percentages showed an exact 50-50 split of I.E.'s in each range. Finding commonality in I.E.'s under five minutes was unusual since the other analyses on I.E.'s classified as perceived effective had not produced this result. No commonalities were found for Stage 2 I.E.'s. A reasonable interpretation of the results for this variable is still unavailable.

TABLE 17.--Commonalities Across Intervention Episodes for Questions 6 and 7, by Major Variables.

·			Ques	stions		
Variables	x (	ived Eff Group St Question	_	x (	ived Eff Group St (Questic	_
	Level Comm.	% Comm	Comm. Value(s)	Level Comm.	% Comm.	Comm. Value(s)
Total Time	**	(50%) (50%)	O≝5 min >10 min	•••	•••	•••
TA/Student Talk Ratio	•••	•••	•••	*	71%	50-75%
Affective Domain	*	100%	0-25%	*	86%	0-25%
Cognitive Domain	*	100%	75-100%	*	86%	75-100%
Positive Affect	*	100%	0-25%	*	100%	0-25%
Negative Affect	*	100%	0-25%	*	100%	0-25%
ISIA Categories	* **	•••	2,3,5,6 7a	*	•••	2,3,5,6 7a
Nature of Resolution	**	63%	Overt	*	100%	Overt
Number of Episodes		8			7	,

NOTE: A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the intervention episodes shared the characteristic(s). A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the intervention episodes shared the characteristic(s).

NOTE: Figures in the column, % Comm., refer to the actual percentages of intervention episodes sharing the characteristic(s).

#### TA/Student Talk Ratio

Though no commonality was found for Stage 1, Stage 2 showed a single \* rating in the value range "50-75%." Further investigation revealed that three of the five I.E.'s in this value range also had total times in the range "0 \leq 5 minutes." The significance of this finding will be addressed at a later point. The lack of commonality for Stage 1 departs from previous analyses on I.E.'s perceived as effective.

#### Nature of a Resolution

Stage 1 showed a double \*\* rating for the value "overt" while a single \* was found for Stage 2. The underlying percentage of 63% for Stage 1 is somewhat lower than that for all I.E.'s classified as perceived effective, and considerably below the 100% for Stage 2. Investigating further, it was noted that two of the three I.E.'s with implicit resolutions for Stage 1 also had total times in the range "0 \( \preceq 5 \) minutes." A survey of other questions produced the same sort of relationship; I.E.'s with implicit resolutions were usually short.

Before summarizing the findings related to perceived effectiveness, it seems appropriate to first examine the characteristics of intervention episodes classified as ineffective. In this way a comparison can be made to determine the features unique to both classifications. As will be seen, most of the variables show the same commonalities for both classifications, thereby disqualifying them as discriminating features. The next section will address the questions related to perceived ineffectiveness.

# Questions on Perceived Ineffectiveness - Overall

The next two questions examine all I.E.'s classified as perceived ineffective. As before, they are differentiated by the data source used for classification of the I.E.'s as ineffective, with question 8 using PSQ data only and question 9 PSQ data plus observer ratings. Table 18 summarizes the findings.

#### Total Time

No commonalities were found for either of the two questions in this grouping. The length of an I.E. did not seem to bear any relationship to its classification as perceived ineffective.

#### TA/Student Talk Ratio

A single \* rating was found for the value range "50-75%" for question 8, PSQ data only. It was observed that of the six I.E.'s falling into this value range, four of them had total times under five minutes. An examination of the transcripts for these brief I.E.'s showed that TAs tend to be more controlling during shorter interventions; they do not allow the topic to develop. Implicitly or explicitly they prevent other group members from joining in and expanding the discussion. These behaviors cannot be associated with ineffectiveness, though, for a review of shorter I.E.'s classified as effective produced the same pattern.

No commonalities were found for question 9, which utilized PSQ data and observer ratings. It should be noted that there were many differences in the I.E.'s grouped under each question. Only four of the nine I.E.'s for question 8 were included under question 9. This means that the observer rated six I.E.'s as ineffective that were not classified as such based on PSQ data. The reason for this discrepancy became obvious when

TABLE 18.--Commonalities Across Intervention Episodes for Questions 8 and 9, by Major Variables.

			Quest	ions		
Variables	- 1	ived Inef PSQ Data Question				ffectiveness ver Ratings on 9)
	Level	%	Comm.	Level	%	Comm.
	Comm.	Comm.	Value(s)	Comm.	Comm.	Value(s)
Total Time	•••	• • •		• • •	• • •	• • •
TA/Student Talk Ratio	*	67%	50-75%	• • •	• • •	• • •
Affective Domain	*	78%	0-25%	**	60%	0-25%
Cognitive Domain	*	78%	75-100%	**	60%	75-100%
Positive Affect	*	100%	0-25%	*	100%	0-25%
Negative Affect	*	100%	0-25%	*	80%	0-25%
ISIA Categories	*	• • •	2,3,5,6	* **	• • •	2,3,4,5,6 7a
Nature of Resolution	**	56%	Overt	**	60%	Overt
Number of Episodes		9			10	and the section of th

NOTE: A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the intervention episodes shared the characteristic(s). A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the intervention episodes shared the characteristic(s).

NOTE: Figures in the column, % Comm., refer to the actual percentages of intervention episodes sharing the characteristic(s).

I.E. as ineffective the observer had to make some determination of its impact on the participants. As Table 12 shows, the observer gave a rating of indeterminate to four of the five I.E.'s for question 8. This made it impossible for them to qualify for question 9. In the remaining case, I.E. number 26, the observer gave a rating that was different from the PSQ data.

#### Affective Domain

A single \* rating in the value range "0-25%" was found for question 8, PSQ data only. The underlying percentage of 78% is comparable to that for I.E.'s perceived as effective (80%). However, a difference was noted when the data source was PSQ and observer ratings. Though there was double \*\* commonality, the underlying percentage dropped to 60%, considerably below any of the figures for I.E.'s perceived as effective. No meaningful significance has been attached to this finding as of yet.

# Cognitive Domain

As already discussed, the value ranges with commonalities for this variable are a mirror reflection of those for the Affective Domain. Consequently, a single \* rating was found for the value range "75-100%" for question 8, and a double \*\* in this range for question 9. The underlying percentages are identical to those for the Affective Domain.

#### Positive Affect

Both questions showed a single \* rating in the value range "0-25%."

Interestingly enough, the percentage of I.E.'s with positive affect codes

was <u>higher</u> than it was for those classified as perceived effective. For

question 8 it was found that 50% of the sessions had some positive affect codes, while the figure was 30% for question 9. An interpretation of this finding will follow after discussion of the results for the next variable.

### Negative Affect

Again both questions showed a single \* rating in the value range "0-25%." The percentage of sessions with negative affect ratings was also higher than it had been for the questions related to perceived effectiveness. For question 8 it was found that 33% of the I.E.'s had negative ratings, while for question 9 the figure was 60%. Looking at all the I.E.'s together, 40% had some negative affect ratings.

It was not difficult to understand the higher percentage of negative affect ratings since this was expected given the classification of these I.E.'s as perceived ineffective. However, the figures for positive affect did present a problem. A review of the transcripts involved quickly brought an answer. The I.E.'s with positive affect occurred immediately after some interaction where the TA behaved or was seen as behaving in a harsh or threatening manner. The I.E.'s involved some attempt by the leader to deny or compensate for this behavior. Consequently more positive affect was expressed as a way of apologizing, denying, or in a sense "making-up" for this prior hostility. A good example of this is seen in I.E. number 2 involving Nat. After making several strong, almost harsh and challenging remarks to the group, he asks for student reactions. Byron says he feels pressured and that he disagrees with Nat's implication that extroversion is superior to introversion.

Nat, realizing that he may have pressed his point too far, changes both

his tone and words. He supports Byron and modifies his position as follows:

Part of the message that I think came across and I wasn't, I wasn't intending to send it across so much, an extrovert has some advantages in that people know where they are coming from and that is an advantage most of the time. . . . You are introverts, but I want you to learn some extroverted behaviors. There are some very definite advantages to being an introvert.

The PSQ ratings which classified this I.E. as perceived ineffective probably relate more to the preceding events than to the I.E. itself. This brings up an important point--once the leader is seen as aggressive or threatening it is very difficult to reverse this impression. Negative comments by the leader are keenly felt and remembered. This brings us back to the original finding that a high percentage of I.E.'s classified as perceived ineffective had negative affect ratings.

Students are extremely sensitive to hostility from the leader. This is because he has a great deal of real and psychological power in relation to them due to his role as evaluator and authority figure. In addition, the TA is often the most admired person in the group so that rejection or attacks from him are doubly upsetting to students. Hostility does not always have to be of the aggressive type. It can also be displayed in situations where the leader seems unaccepting of individuals or unwilling to give them a chance to explain themselves. Still, the more blatant the hostility, the higher the threat value.

# ISIA

Both questions showed a single \* commonality level for the values 2, 3, 5, and 6, corresponding to ISIA categories Active Listening, Eliciting Questions, Offers Information, and Self-disclosure. Question 9 also had a single \* rating for ISIA Category 4, Directs or Suggests Solutions, and a double \*\* for 7a, Responsible Negative Feedback. The results to

this point are almost identical to those obtained for the I.E.'s perceived as effective. However, differences were found between the category ranking based on frequency of usage. For question 8, there was a tie rank between categories 5 and 2. On question 9, Category 2 was ranked first followed by number 5. In contrast, Category 5 was undeniably in first place for those I.E.'s perceived as effective. The rank ordering did not reveal a clear pattern of skill usage that could be associated with perceived ineffectiveness whereas a pattern was found for those I.E.'s classified as perceived effective.

#### Nature of Resolution

Both questions showed a double \*\* rating for the value "overt."

The underlying percentages were 56 and 60%, noticeably lower than the ones found for those I.E.'s classified as perceived effective. Though I.E.'s rated as perceived ineffective are more likely to have implicit resolutions, the association is a weak one since a double \*\* rating was found for the overt value.

# Questions on Perceived Ineffectiveness by Critical Incident

The concept of a critical incident and the rationale for exploring its relationship to student perceptions of effectiveness or, in this case, ineffectiveness, has already been presented. When all I.E.'s classified as ineffective were reviewed, sufficient data were available to study this relationship for one critical incident, "Nonparticipation." Perceived ineffectiveness was based on a combination of PSQ data and observer ratings. Table 19 summarizes the results. Discussion will concentrate on the differences between the results and those obtained when all I.E.'s classified as perceived ineffective were used. Since this critical

TABLE 19.--Commonalities Across Intervention Episodes for Question 10, by Major Variables.

Variables		Perceived Ineffectiven x Critical Incident (Question 10)	
	Level Comm.	% Comm.	Comm. Value(s)
Total Time	**	60%	5 <b>≐</b> 10 min
ΓA/Student Γalk Ratio	**	60%	50-75%
Affective Domain	**	60%	25-50%
Cognitive Domain	**	60%	50-75%
Positive Affect	*	100%	0-25%
Negative Affect	*	100%	0-25%
ISIA Categories	*	•••	2,3,5,6
Nature of Resolution	**	60%	Implicit
Number of Episodes		5	

NOTE: A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the intervention episodes shared the characteristic(s). A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the intervention episodes shared the characteristic(s).

NOTE: Figures in the column, % Comm., refer to the actual percentages of intervention episodes sharing the characteristic(s).

incident was also examined for perceived effective I.E. s, comparisons to those findings will be made as well.

#### Total Time

A double \*\* rating was found in the value range "5 \( \text{10 minutes} \)" with the underlying percentage being 60%. This is unusual since no commonality was found when all I.E.'s classified as perceived ineffective were looked at. The value range for I.E.'s perceived as effective was also different, being "> 10 minutes."

#### TA/Student Talk Ratio

A double \*\* rating was found in the value range "50-75%" with an underlying percentage of 60%. This is consistent with the findings for all perceived ineffective I.E. 's. In contrast, a double \*\* rating was found in the value range "25-50%" when perceived effective I.E. 's were examined.

### Affective Domain

A double \*\* rating was found in the value range "25-50%." Again this is different from that found for all I.E.'s classified as perceived ineffective and for perceived effective I.E.'s involving the critical incident "Nonparticipation." In the latter two cases a single \* commonality level was detected in the value range "0-25%." The transcripts reveal that the increased focus on affective issues can be attributed to two factors. First, the nature of the critical incident of "Nonparticipation" is such that it naturally fosters discussion about feelings. For the most part lack of participation is related to affective concerns such as fear of self-disclosure, not wanting to be judged, and anxiety

about saying the right things. Second, several students became highly emotional during the I.E.'s so that the TA was forced to deal with their affect.

# Cognitive Domain

Corresponding to the higher percentage of TA remarks in the affective domain, the number in the cognitive domain was lower, being in the range "50-75%."

#### Positive Affect

Similar to the finding for all I.E.'s classified as perceived ineffective, a single \* rating was found in the value range "0-25," with all I.E.'s falling in this range. However, the high percentage of sessions with positive affect ratings was not replicated. In fact only one of the five I.E.'s had any positive affect ratings. Overall the results were more consistent with those found for perceived effective I.E.'s involving this critical incident.

# Negative Affect

Again the findings were identical to those for all perceived ineffective I.E.'s when it came to the value range, but different in respect to the number of sessions with negative affect. A review of the
relevant transcripts showed that though little negative affect was
associated with the TA's comments, the content message was often threatening. For example, consider these two excerpts from I.E.'s number 3
and 10.

When we get all through with that, no matter how important that is to you, it doesn't mean one damn thing as far as graduating, getting out of here, passing Ed 200. . . . I see a whole bunch of introverts sitting here and I'm telling you you're going to

learn some foreign behaviors or you're going to be here again... yeah, it's hard, but you can do it, if you want to. If you don't, that's cool, but own it. Why invest more money, why invest more time, why set yourself up for pain? If you're not into doing that then bail out cause that's real. There's a lot of things to do in the world besides teach. (I.E. number 3)

Such comments could be interpreted as threatening at any point in the group; given they occurred in the first session, it is highly likely that many students were upset by them. Now, from I.E. number 10:

I feel a need for a break. I want to pose one thing before we take off. It feels like to me we've gone through some stages in the group and spent some time getting to know some folks. . . . spend a lot of time waiting for me to do some things. I don't feel like too many of you are much further now than you were when you first came in the group as far as passing. . . . I think each one of you is going to take some personal investment, some discomfort and accept that that's the way it is going to be for a while. I hope that you can begin to tell each other that is what you're doing and that you appreciate others doing that too, to give them support so you can receive support. But if we don't turn that corner, then you considering that you're going to pass 200 is rather pointless.

Naturally several students were seriously concerned about this message even though it was delivered in a nonaggressive, almost matter-of-fact way. The manner of delivery did not mask the fact that the TA was giving the group a warning and a challenge to change. Both of these excerpts come from I.E.'s with Nat, as did four of the five I.E.'s for question 10. Nat's confrontive style did not seem to be very effective as evidenced by the fact that he was still dealing with the issue of nonparticipation on a group level by session 8. Because only one TA is involved it is not possible to conclude from the data that early, aggressive confrontation of this issue would usually be ineffective. However, logic supports this even if the data are inconclusive. Most group members do not participate because they are afraid of something, trying to threaten them into participation only adds to their fears instead of diminishing them.

ISIA

Single \* ratings were found for the categories 2, 3, 5, and 6 and a double \*\* for Category 4. Ranking based on frequency of usage showed the typical 5, 2 pattern. The results for this variable did not produce anything new.

#### Nature of Resolution

A double \*\* rating was found for the value "implicit." In contrast, commonality was found for the value "overt" for both I.E.'s perceived as ineffective and those that were effective.

Though several noteworthy differences were found in the nature of those I.E.'s pertinent to this question, the small sample size of five makes the results questionable.

# Questions on Perceived Ineffectiveness by Group Stage

Unfortunately data to examine this relationship were only available for Stage 1. The results of the search for commonalities are summarized in Table 20. As with question 10, discussion will concentrate on the differences between the results and those obtained when all I.E.'s classified as perceived ineffective were used. Comparisons to the Stage 1 commonalities found for perceived effective I.E.'s will also be made.

# Total Time

A double \*\* rating was found in the value range ">10 minutes" with 50% of the I.E.'s falling in this range. This is different from the results for perceived ineffective I.E.'s overall or from that found for Stage 1 when perceived effective I.E.'s were looked at.

TABLE 20.—Commonalities Across Intervention Episodes for Question 11, by Major Variables.

Variables		Perceived Ineffectivenes x Group Stage 1 (Question 11)	S
	Level	% Comm.	Comm. Value(s)
Total Time	**	50%	>10 min
TA/Student Talk Ratio	**	50%	25-50%
Affective Domain	*	67%	25-50%
Cognitive Domain	*	67%	50-75%
Positive Affect	*	100%	0-25%
Negative Affect	*	83%	0-25%
ISIA Categories	*	•••	2,3,4,5,6 7a
Nature of Resolution	*	67%	Overt
Number of Episodes		6	

NOTE: A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the intervention episodes shared the characteristic(s). A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the intervention episodes shared the characteristic(s).

NOTE: Figures in the column, % Comm., refer to the actual percentages of intervention episodes sharing the characteristic(s).

#### TA/Student Talk Ratio

A double \*\* rating was found in the value range "25-50%." Though different from that found for perceived ineffective I.E.'s overall, it is consistent with the observations that I.E.'s over ten minutes are associated with ratios in this range. No commonality was found when perceived effective I.E.'s in Stage 1 were analyzed.

# Affective Domain

A single \* rating was found in the value range "25-50%." This differed from the results for perceived ineffective I.E.'s overall or for Stage 1 perceived effective I.E.'s. In the latter instances commonality was found in the value range "0-25%." A review of the transcripts pertinent to this question revealed an explanation for the differences. There was strong emotional involvement on the part of students and the leader in those I.E.'s with a high percentage of TA comments in the affective domain. Students expressed anger toward the TA or other group members in all of these I.E.'s which probably accounts for the increased attention to affect by the leader.

# Negative Affect

A single \* rating was found in the value range "0-25%." In this respect the findings are the same as those for Stage 1 perceived effective I.E.'s. However, consistent with the results for all perceived ineffective I.E.'s, a high percentage of the I.E.'s for this question showed some negative affect expressed by the TA. As already mentioned, there were several angry, emotional interchanges during these I.E.'s. When the TA was the target of the anger he tended to retaliate in kind. The negative affect was much weaker when others were the target.

ISIA

A single \* rating was found for the values 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7a. Basically the same results were found for perceived ineffective I.E.'s overall and for Stage 1 perceived effective I.E.'s. The rank ordering based on frequency of usage showed Category 2 to rank first, followed by Category 5. This ordering is identical to that found for all perceived ineffective I.E.'s. It may be that the higher number of instances of negative affect force the TA to deal with the students on a more personal and exploratory level. This means the TA has to question and paraphrase more, behaviors characteristic of ISIA Category 2.

#### Nature of Resolution

A single \* rating was found for the value "overt." The overt resolution was also found to be common to all perceived ineffective I.E.'s but to a lesser extent. It was also common to Stage 1 perceived effective I.E.'s.

# <u>Summary of Findings on Perceptions of Effectiveness</u> or Ineffectiveness

Table 21 summarizes the results for all of the research questions dealing with perceptions of effectiveness or ineffectiveness. As it shows, there were few differences in the commonalities for the overall groupings of perceived effective I.E.'s versus those classified as perceived ineffective. There was an increased number of differences when the overall categories were broken down by critical incident and group stage, especially within the perceived ineffective category. It is doubtful, though, that these differences are meaningful given the small sample sizes and the inability to generate reasonable interpretations of some

TABLE 21. -- Summary of Findings for Questions on Perceived Effective and Ineffective Intervention Episodes.

			Perceived	Perceived Effectiveness	ness			Perceived	Perceived Ineffectiveness	ness
VARIABLES	Overall PSQ Only Ob	all PSQ + Observer	Critical 2	Critical Incident	Group Stage 1	Group Stage 2	Ove	Overall PSQ + y Observer	Critical Incident	Group Stage 1
Total Time	**>10 min	:	**>10 min	**>10 min **>10 min	**0=5 min	:	:	•	**5£10 min	**>10 min
TA/Student Talk Ratio	:	:	**25-50%	:	:	*50-75%	*50-75%	:	**50-75%	**25-50%
Affective Domain	*0-25%	*0-25%	*0-25%	*0-25%	*0-25%	*0-25%	*0-25%	*0-25%	**25-50%	**25-50%
Cognitive Domain	*75-100%	*75-100%	*75-100%	*75-100%	*75-100%	*75-100%	*75-1002	*75-100%	**50-75%	*50-752
Positive Affect	*0-25%	*0-25%	*0-25%	*0-25%	*0-25%	*0-25%	*0-25%	*0-25%	*0-25%	*0-25%
Negative Affect	*0-25%	*0-25%	*0-25%	*0-25%	*0-25%	*0-25%	*0-25%	*0-25%	*0-25%	*0-25%
ISIA	*2,3,5,6 **4,7a	*2,3,5,6 **7a	*2,3,5,6 7a	*2,3,5,6	*2,3,5,6 **7a	*2,3,5,6 **7a	*2,3,5,6	*2,3,4, 5,6	*2,3,5,6 **4	*2,3,4,5, 7a
Nature of Resolution *Overt	*Overt	*Overt	*Overt	*Overt	*Overt	*Ove rt	**Overt	##Overt	**Implicit	*Overt

NOTE: A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the intervention episodes shared the characteristic(s). A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the intervention episodes shared the characteristic(s).

findings. It is therefore tentatively concluded that the modifying variables of group stage and critical incident have little impact on the characteristics that lead to perceived effective or ineffective leader behavior during an intervention episode. This conclusion runs contrary to expectations since it was hypothesized that they would have an impact.

Given the disappointing lack of differences between the commonalities for the overall categories, the question now becomes, "Does this study reveal anything of importance about the characteristics of effective leader intervention behavior?" The answer is yes, if one looks beyond the immediate analyses to the transcripts which provided the raw data for study. Information gathered from this source has been combined with the findings already presented to produce a comprehensive model for understanding the behaviors that lead to perceived, and real effectiveness. This model will be discussed in the next chapter.

Looking back to the findings that have been presented, they do provide some interesting information about TA behavior in general. To begin with, the majority or a very high percentage of TA remarks during I.E.'s had to do with cognitive issues. This showed that TAs frequently function in a manner similar to teachers of more traditional subject matter, providing students with a body of knowledge they can use to better understand themselves and their surroundings.

Another general finding was that TAs exercise considerable control over group process, at least during I.E.'s. As the TA/Student Talk Ratios reveal, TA input far exceeded that which would be expected if the TA was acting as an equal member of the group. Students acknowledged the TA's position as controller by deferring to him whenever he attempted to stop or otherwise modify the flow of the interaction. Even though TAs said

they would like group members to assume a greater share of the responsibility for processing, this usually did not occur. Nor did the amount of TA control change very much over time. Rather TAs seemed to adopt a certain level of control which they kept throughout the term. Ken's group was an exception to this. He did take a lesser role in processing as the term went on. Nat and Hank were initially very controlling and remained so throughout the term. In contrast, Mark said from the start that he was not going to take much responsibility for running the group and he stuck to this posture despite student pressure to change.

Lastly, as already discussed in the text, several interrelation-ships among the variables were found. During short I.E.'s, under five minutes, the leader dominated the conversation with his input being almost exclusively in the cognitive domain. With long I.E.'s this was much less likely to occur and leader input decreased substantially, usually to within the 25-50% range.

It is interesting to note that the IPLs were, and they remained, classes in teacher education. The touchy-feelly, high risk, encounter group atmosphere was basically absent. One of the IPLs bore a close resemblance to a T-group but none was of the encounter type. Despite this, the findings that caring and cognition were associated with effective leader behavior is just what Lieberman, Yalom and Miles (1973) found when they studied encounter group leaders. They described the most effective encounter group leaders this way:

Leaders of this type specialize in Caring and Meaning-Attribution. . . . These were individually focused leaders who gave love, as well as information and ideas about how to change. They exuded a quality of enlightened paternalism. They subscribed to a systematic theory about how individuals learn which they used in the group but did not press. (p. 243)

The parellels between effective leader behavior in the encounter group and the IPL is noteworthy because of the differences in the two settings, as just discussed. It may be that the qualities for effective leadership in human relations training groups are essentially independent of the group's theoretical orientation. The emphasis and goals may change but caring and cognition still need to be given by the leader.

The final part of this chapter will focus on the immediate and long-range consequences of I.E.'s on participants.

# Results for Questions on the Immediate Consequences of Intervention Episodes and Long-Range Behavioral/Attitudinal Changes

One of the unique features of this project was that it sought to examine the characteristics of I.E.'s with real, as well as perceived, impact on students. As discussed, impact would be looked at in two respects: the immediate consequences of the I.E. for those involved and the long-range changes in behavior/attitudes that occurred as a result of the episode.

Twenty-five I.E.'s across the four groups were selected for study. The observer rated the immediate and long-range consequences of these I.E.'s according to the criteria outlined on pages and . Table 22 summarizes the observer ratings. Once the ratings were made it was possible to examine the I.E.'s that fell into certain categories. Specifically, a search was made for commonalities among I.E.'s with positive immediate consequences and perceived effective I.E.'s that did and did not result in long-range change in the desired direction. The next section of this chapter will report the findings from these analyses.

TABLE 22.--Observer Notations and Ratings of the Immediate Consequences and Long-Range Impact of Selected Intervention Episodes.

Rat- ing <sup>b</sup>	(NC)	(I)	(NC)	(NC)
Long-Range Impact	Interaction level of class remains low. The issue of low participation is frequently brought up.	Sometimes "owns" his ideas, feelings, other times he does not.	Most members continue to look towards Nat when speaking.	Same group members continue to dominate class. Discussions focus on uneasiness, fear of self-disclosure, trust. There is difficulty maintaining topics of conversation.
Rat- ing <sup>a</sup>	Ĵ	÷	(1)	E
Immediate Consequences	Only one person comments positively. Others remain silent, seem frightened at Nat's confrontative manner.	Don seems open to the (+) correction by Nat that he "own" his statements.	No one comments. Some nonverbals indicate understanding, most are uninterpretable.	Some giggling. Bob is somewhat defensive, feels there is little to respond to. Jack clarifies Nat's position. Don supports Nat.
Baseline	First class - All students have Incompletes from last term. Nat does most of the talking.	First class - not possible to establish baseline.	Class members usually look towards Nat when speaking.	Class has been very quiet during this second meeting. There are long silences. Same group of students comment, others remain silent.
Group Membs.	Class	Don	Class	Class
Sess.	H	н	П	2
E CI	7	e e	9	8
H #	m	m	4	Ŋ

TABLE 22. -- Continued

Rat- ing <sup>b</sup>	(NC)	€	Ĵ
Long-Range Impact	Same as IE 5. Bob, Byron, Mary all interact at moderate level. They are part of the dominent group members.	Jack does not express anger. Is quiet next class, then misses class, then talks freely.	Continues to interact to moderate degree though still does not seem to accept approach of analyzing things.  Angrily drops out of class at end of Session 8 saying it is "meaningless."
Rat- ing <sup>a</sup>	<b>(</b>	<u>-</u>	<b>÷</b>
Immediate Consequences	Bob says he feels judged and inhibited. Byron wants to break up into small groups. Mary tells Nat it is hard to talk in large groups, gets defensive, tearful at his comments.	Jack gets defensive, angry during confrontation with Nat. Also says he fears Nat's angry reaction. Some students support Nat, others Jack.	Kurt seems to gain insight into how to understand processes in more concrete way by behavioralizing them. Later in session says things still need to be more concrete.
Baseline	Class has been very quiet during this second meeting. There are long silences. Same group of students comment, others remain silent.	Jack has been partici- pating at a moderate level, has been fairly receptive, involved.	Kurt has participated to a limited extent. Said he liked anger expressed in Session 3. Also that he did not care if people respond to him.
Group Membs.	Class	Jack	Kurt
Sess.	2	m	'n
Ŭ ₩	7	4	4
日幸	9	7	ω

TABLE 22. -- Continued

# IE	CI #	Sess.	Group Membs.	Baseline	Immediate R Consequences 1	Rat- ing <sup>a</sup>	Long-Range Impact	Rat-
6	7	9	Sharrie Susan Byron	Sharrie contributes fairly Sharrie - says she often especially in last understands Nat's session. Susan has made a explanations of he	h	÷	Sharrie - contributes little (NC) during next two sessions, then becomes center of	(NC)
				rew comments but is still a low contributor. Byron is active, a high contributor.	cate. Susan-same.  Byron - says he can	ŧ:	attention. Susan - remains fairly quiet. Byron - maintains active	(NC)
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·					be 11a- mnot ng inged.	3	level of participation.	(NC)
12	^	11	Sharrie	Sharrie frequently giggles in uncomforta- ble situations.	Realizes why she giggles. Says she will try to stop, giggles some during the interaction but much less during remainder of session.	£	Less giggling, however her level of interaction is also lower.	£
16	∞	m	Jerry	During first session Jerry confronted Ken saying he wants to make sure he gets his money's worth. Misses 2nd session. During this session he has been monopolizing, "nit- picking."	Initially disagrees with feedback on his behavior from students Puts others on the defensive. When Ken confronts him he changes his behavior, becomes accepting, apologetic and thankful for feedback.	£	Monopolizing behavior begins to decrease. Ken stops him once for this. Jerry seems more open to the group.	£

TABLE 22.--Continued

Rat- ing <sup>b</sup>	(I)	£	£	(NC)
Long-Range Impact	Data on next two sessions is missing so cannot make accurate assessment of change.	High level of participation in large and small groups. Openly expresses caring, warmth towards other group members.	Joshua's level of spontane- ous sharing increases markedly over the next few sessions.	Class discussions remain in here-and-now when in large group. However students tend to stray to outside events when in small groups.
Rat- ing <sup>a</sup>	(E)	<del>(</del>	<b>±</b>	÷ 8 a
Immediate Consequences	Two members respond; Pam says she will try to be more responsive, so does Jerry. Others remain silent, cannot judge their reactions.	Seems open to the feedback, asks for more. Says she worries that others will think she does not trust them because she does.	After initial resistance he sees value of sharing his feelings more spontaneously. Says he is glad for the feedback, is aware of the possible negative consequences.	A few people support the need to return to the here-and-now.Others are silent though some nonverbals show agreement. Discussion returns to here-and-now.
Baseline	Ken has asked for feedback on the group two or three times and received little.	Has been fairly active, especially in small groups; however she was reserved in first few meetings.	Moderate level of partici- pation. Gave feedback in the context of feedback exercises.	Members stay with the here- and-now most of the time.
Group Membs.	Class	Kitty	Joshua	Class
Seas.	٠	11	13	14
CI **	9	7	2	0
H #	17	20	21	22

TABLE 22. -- Continued

Rat- ing <sup>b</sup>	£	(NC)	(NC)	(NC)
Long-Range Impact	(+) In next class (last one) (+) she thanks the group for their feedback. Says she now realizes she may have been more closed than she thought.	(I) Does not give negative feedback.	(-) Does not give negative feedback.	(-) Does not give negative feedback. Says he is still somewhat fearful of hurting others. (I) Does not give negative feedback
Rat- inga	<b>€</b>	E	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
Immediate Consequences	Though resistant at first, now wanting to be "phony," she begins to see negative consequences for her behavior. At the end she thanks the group for the feedback, says she will give it thought.	Kate - expresses concern about giving it, but does not interact further. Cannot tell	taken care of.  Mack - feels negative feedback is mild attack and strategy should be modified to give person more control over what	happens.  Gary-feels threatened (-) Does not by technique. Says exercise needs to be changed. Stands firm in his belief.  Dana - says she is per-(I) Does not feedback.
Baseline	Contributes infrequently. Nonverbals often show disinterest. She does participate when the exercise demands this.	None have given negative feed- back, either spontaneously or as part of an exercise.		
Group Membs.	Dora	Kate Mack Gary Dana	Lila	
Sess.	19	က		
IE CI	7	н		
H ##	23	25		

TABLE 22.--Continued

Long-Range Impact ing <sup>b</sup>		Range Impact give negative	
			····
of giving it. Believes Hank will	sions ger	sels feed- (I sels feed- (I will not cern is	d s,
Believes Hank will not let sessions get	destructive.	Mickey - feels feed- back now is like an attack but will not be later. Cannot tell if his concern is addressed.	Mickey - feels feed- back now is like an attack but will not be later. Cannot tell if his concern is addressed. Lila - mixed emotions wants some hold on threat level but thinks it may be good to challenge defense mechanisms.
Or giving it. Believes Hank not let sessi		Mickey - f back now 1 attack but be later. if his con addressed.	Mickey - fe back now is attack but be later. C if his conc addressed. Lila - mixe wants some threat leve thinks it m to challeng mechanisms.
not 1	descr	Micke back attac be la 1f hi	Micke back attac attac be la if hi addre Lila wants threat think to ch mecha
Continued			

TABLE 22. -- Continued

Rat- ing <sup>b</sup>	(1)	(NC)	£	<b>£</b>
Long-Range Impact	Not possible to establish if his feelings of pressure to change are still there or not.	Continues active role. Says class has to be responsible for own learning but wants Mark to be more directive.	During next two sessions she becomes the object of anger when she expresses boredom. She misses Session 6.	Moderate level of communication. Clarifies others, gives positive and negative feedback.
Rat- ing <sup>a</sup>	(+)	Œ	(I)	<u> </u>
Immedi <b>ate</b> Consequences	Peter seems fairly relaxed after the episode. Says he realizes that maybe not everyone wants him to change.	Al - shares feelings of frustration, con- fusion, discomfort. Cannot tell if his concerns are taken care of.	Jill - after initial disclosure of fear, discomfort, she contributes little. Cannot tell if her feelings have changed.	Paula - gets angry, defensive at Mark's attempts to probe. Her fears about talk- ing do not seem resolved.
Baseline	Not possible to establish.	Al - missed one session.  During next he talked freely about self. Is quiet first part of this session.	Jill - has not spontaneously contributed during first two sessions, does during third.	Paula - low level of inter- action, primarily in response to cognitive questions.
Group Membs.	Peter	Al Jill Paula Jane Ruth Dawn		
Sess.	15	m		
IE CI	4	8		
TE #	29	31		

TABLE 22. -- Continued

Rat- ing <sup>b</sup>	(NC)	(NC)	£	Ĵ.	(NC)
1 Long-Range Impact	Remains at low level of participation though makes a few comments each class.	Remains very quiet. Only speaks when spoken to and still gets very nervous.	Make a few contributions (+) each class.	Next session Al again questions Mark's approach. Al seems frustrated at times with the way the group is going.	Participation pattern continues as before.
Rat- ing <sup>a</sup>		(-)	÷	<del>-</del>	÷
Immediate Consequences	Jane - says she feels better now that she is sharing. Feels people will open up with time.	Ruth - very nervous when asked to speak about self. Asks to have focus changed.	Expresses that she wants to work on opening up in large groups. Has a positive attitude towards the group.	Does not seem satis- fled with Mark's response, turns to the group for support.	Reacts well. Says she feels better now that she is speaking. Gives positive feedback to Al.
Baseline	Jane - misses first class. Has moderate level of interaction during next class.	Ruth - has made no comments.	Dawn - has made no comments.	Al has supported the group taking responsibility for learning - active participant.	Very quiet. Only speaks when spoken to and still gets very nervous.
Group Membs.	TI			A1	Ruth
Sess.	Continued			5	5
EI #	Cont —			4	2
IE #	31			35	36

TABLE 22.--Continued

IE CI	1	Group Sess. Membs.	Baseline	Immediate Consequences	Rat- inga	Long-Range Impact	Rat- ingb
41 1	12	Paula	Moderate to active level of participation. Gives positive and negative feedback.	Gets angry, defensive. (-) Does not seem to accept what others say. Asks to end the discussion.	Ĵ.	Interaction level drops. (-) Gives less negative feedback.	<u> </u>
43	13	Liz	High level of participation, shares feelings, ideas.	Seems to accept that using skills will be awkward at first.	<b>±</b>	Maintains high level of participation.	£
7	16	Sara	High level of participation, shares feelings, ideas. Much earlier in group expressed annoyance that others were not contributing.	Partially accepts feedback that she disapproved of people, not their behavior. But still questions if it is not their fault to some extent.	$\mathfrak{E}$	Misses next meeting. Participates during last session, no more expression of angry feelings towards those who do not participate.	<b>£</b>

NOTE: IE # stands for Intervention Episode Number; CI # stands for Critical Incident Number; Sess. stands for Session; Group Membs. stands for Group Members. \*\*Ratings were as follows: (+) clearly positive impact; (-) clearly negative impact; (I) indeterminate; (M) Mixed. <sup>b</sup>Ratings were as follows: (+) positive change; (-) negative change; (I) indeterminate; (NC) no change.

# Positive Immediate Consequences

Question 12 dealt with all I.E.'s with positive immediate consequences. Question 13 only included those that pertained to the critical incident "Nonparticipation." A decision was made to put the results from questions 12 and 13 into one table, number 23, since they both dealt with the area of positive immediate consequences. It was also of interest to compare the findings for the two questions since the I.E.'s for question 13 are actually a subset of those for question 12. As the table shows, the commonalities for both questions are very similar to those found for all perceived effective I.E.'s. This is because 79% of the I.E.'s with positive immediate consequences were also classified as perceived effective. Consequently the results will be only briefly outlined since their significance has already been addressed as part of the discussion for all perceived effective I.E.'s.

# Total Time

Question 12 showed a double \*\* rating in the value range ">10 minutes" with exactly 50% of the I.E.'s falling into this range. There were also a sizeable number of I.E.'s under five minutes (43%). It is difficult to interpret the meaning of this split and it may simply be a matter of chance. The split in value ranges was also seen in question 13. However, this cannot be viewed as additional evidence for some trend since the I.E.'s for question 13 are a subset of those for question 12.

# TA/Student Talk Ratio

No commonalities were found when all the I.E.'s were examined together for question 12, but a double \*\* rating was found in the value range "25-50%" for question 13. As observed in the past, there was a

TABLE 23.--Commonalities Across Intervention Episodes for Questions 12 and 13, by Major Variables.

	Questions								
Variables	Imme	.'s with I diate Cons	sequences	I.E.'s with Positive Immediate Consequences x Critical Incident 2 (Question 13)					
	Level	%	Comm.	Level	%	Comm.			
	Comm.	Comm.	Value(s)	Comm.	Comm.	Value(s)			
Total Time	**	50%	>10 min	** **	50% 50%	0≤5 min >10 min			
TA/Student Talk Ratio		•••	•••	**	50%	25-50%			
Affective Domain	*	93%	0-25%	*	100%	0-25%			
Cognitive Domain	*	93%	75–100%	*	100%	75-100%			
Positive Affect	*	100%	0-25%	*	100%	0-25%			
Negative Affect	*	100%	0-25%	*	100%	0-25%			
ISIA Categories	*	•••	2,3,5,6 7a	* **	• • •	2,5,6,7a 3			
Nature of Resolution	*	71%	Overt	*	67%	Overt			
Number of Episodes		14			6				

NOTE: A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the intervention episodes shared the characteristic(s). A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the intervention episodes shared the characteristic(s).

NOTE: Figures in the column, % Comm., refer to the actual percentages of intervention episodes sharing the characteristic(s).

strong relationship between I.E.'s lasting over ten minutes and TA/Student
Talk Ratios in this range. In the case of question 13 there was a perfect correspondence.

#### Affective Domain

Both questions had a single \* rating in the value range "0-25%." The underlying percentages were extremely high, being 93 and 100%. Of the 14 I.E. 's represented across the two questions, 4 (29%) had no ratings in the affective domain. As suspected, it was found that three of these I.E. 's were under five minutes, and their TA/Student Talk Ratios were in the value range "50-75%." As already noted, this pattern of short, heavily cognitive I.E. 's dominated by the leader appears in many questions. This combination of features seems to be independent of perceived effectiveness or ineffectiveness as is the relationship of long I.E. 's to TA/Student Talk Ratios in the value range "25-50%."

#### Cognitive Domain

Corresponding to the ratings for the Affective Domain, both questions showed single \* ratings in the value range "75-100%."

#### Positive Affect

Both questions had single \* ratings in the value range "0-25%."
Only four (29%) of the I.E.'s for question 12 had positive ratings. For question 13 the number was even less, with only one (17%) of the I.E.'s showing any ratings.

#### Negative Affect

Again both questions had single \* ratings in the value range "0-25%." Negative affect ratings were found in one I.E. for question 12 and none for question 13.

ISIA

Single \* ratings were found for the values 2, 5, and 6 for both questions and double \*\* ratings for 7a in question 12 and the value of 3 in question 13. As for the rank orderings, ISIA Category 5 was unequivocally in first place for both questions. There was a tie for second place between Category 2 and 7a for question 12, whereas it clearly went to 7a for question 13. The seemed to give more responsible negative feedback (7a) during these I.E.'s than was found for perceived effective I.E.'s.

#### Nature of Resolution

Single \* ratings were found for the value "overt" for both questions with the underlying percentages being 71% and 67%. These percentages are slightly lower than those found for perceived effective I.E.'s overall but the differences are probably not meaningful. Looking at the data, it was noticed that three of the four I.E.'s with implicit resolutions also had total times under five minutes. Further examination of all I.E.'s in the study showed that 69% of the I.E.'s with implicit resolutions were under five minutes. The relationship was not as strong in the opposite direction, that is, only 53% of all I.E.'s under five minutes had implicit endings. These observations are only of tangential interest to this investigation since no relationship was found between length of an I.E. and perceived effectiveness or positive immediate consequences.

## Long-Range Changes

The ultimate test of the effectiveness of an I.E. with a corrective intent is to see if changes in the desired direction occur. Questions 14 and 15 were aimed at determining the characteristics of I.E.'s

of this type. This could be done only with I.E.'s that were also perceived effective since only one perceived ineffective I.E. had positive long-range consequences.

Of the twenty-five I.E.'s selected for study, fifteen were classified as perceived effective. Of these seven were found to lead to long-range change in the desired direction, while five produced no change or a negative one. It was not possible to determine if change had occurred for the remaining I.E.'s. It was desired to compare the commonalities found for these two sets of I.E.'s to see if any distinguishing features would be obtained. Table 24 summarizes the results of this comparison. Only those commonalities which are different for the two groupings will be reviewed.

# TA/Student Talk Ratio

A double \*\* rating was found in the value range "25-50% for those I.E.'s that lead to long-range change whereas no commonality was found for those that did not. It is doubtful that this difference has significance because of the small sample size for question 15 (5 I.E.'s).

#### ISIA

Single \* ratings were found for the categories 2, 3, and 5 for both questions. However, a single \* rating was also found for categories 6 and 7a in I.E.'s leading to change compared to those that did not. It may be that TA self-disclosure and responsible negative feedback increase the chances of influencing those involved. The rank ordering of 5, 2 applied to both questions.

TABLE 24.--Commonalities Across Intervention Episodes for Questions 14 and 15, by Major Variables.

Variables	Questions							
			ective I.E.'s o Changes on 14)	Perceived Effective I.E.'s but No Changes (Question 15)				
	Level	% Comm.		Level	% Comm.			
	Comm.	Comm.	Value(s)	Comm.	Comm.	Value(s)		
Total Time	**	57%	>10 min	**	60%	>10 min		
TA/Student Talk Ratio	**	57%	25-50%	•••	•••	• • •		
Affective Domain	*	86%	0-25%	*	100%	0-25%		
Cognitive Domain	*	86%	75-100%	*	100%	75-100%		
Positive Affect	*	100%	0-25%	*	100%	0-25%		
Negative Affect	*	100%	0-25%	*	100%	0-25%		
ISIA Categories	*	• • •	2,3,5,6,7a	*	•••	2,3,5		
Nature of Resolution	*	100%	Overt	*	80%	Implicit		
Number of Episodes					5			

NOTE: A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the intervention episodes shared the characteristic(s). A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the intervention episodes shared the characteristic(s).

NOTE: Figures in the column, % Comm., refer to the actual percentages of intervention episodes sharing the characteristic(s).

#### Nature of Resolution

The most interesting difference between the two groups was found in the nature of their resolution. All the I.E.'s leading to long-range change had overt resolutions. In contrast, four of the five I.E.'s that did not lead to desirable change had implicit resolutions. It may be that lack of adequate closure leaves students with unresolved concerns so that they are less likely to change.

# <u>Positive Immediate Consequences and Long-Range</u> Consequences (Changes)

A few words are needed on the relationship of positive immediate consequences to long-range consequences. While six of the seven I.E.'s with long-range positive consequences also had positive immediate consequences, so did three of the five I.E.'s which did not result in changes. This shows that positive immediate consequences do not always lead to long-range changes in the desired direction. However, only one case, I.E. number 7, was noted where long-range change occurred in the absence of positive immediate consequences. This I.E. involved resistance/ hostility and it is clear from reading the transcript that the student changed because he feared the TA. So, it appears that positive immedate consequences are a necessary but not sufficient condition for desirable long-range changes in behavior and attitudes.

There also seemed to be a strong relationship between positive immediate consequences and perceived effectiveness. Of the fourteen I.E.'s with positive immediate consequences, twelve were rated as perceived effective I.E.'s.

#### CHAPTER V

#### DISCUSSION

A discussion chapter serves as a bridge between the past and the future. The author looks back over the project and tries to explain why things did or did not occur as expected, as well as summarizing the results and exploring them in greater depth. The focus then turns to implications of the work for future research. This chapter will try to fulfill both these roles. First, discussion will center on the findings for the eight major groupings of research questions outlined in the Results chapter. Then additional information and findings based on observational data and examination of the transcripts will be presented. This qualitative data will help to clarify and expand upon the quantitative data analysis conducted. Finally, issues of methodology will be addressed along with the implications for research on leadership behavior in human relations training groups.

# Review of Findings for Research Questions

# Questions on Perceived Effectiveness - Overall

The commonalities found among the intervention episodes classified as perceived effective showed that leader behavior during these episodes was characterized by high amounts of cognitive input, followed by behavior aimed at eliciting and exploring students' feelings and ideas. Little positive or negative affect was expressed in the leader's (TA's) comments. Most of the episodes in this category had overt resolutions, meaning that

closure had been brought to the episode by the TA and/or those involved. There was a sense of completion although the issues precipitating the intervention episode may not have been resolved. The length of the episode and the proportion of time the TA spoke were unrelated to perceived effectiveness.

High cognitive input was seen in the rank ordering of the ISIA categories based on frequency of usage. Category 5, Offering Information, was ranked first. This category includes behavior such as establishing rules of conduct, offering cognitive information, providing frameworks for change, and summarizing group process. These behaviors attach meaning to group dynamics and individual behavior. Category 2, Active Listening, was ranked second in frequency of usage. This code was given when the TA demonstrated active listening behavior by asking clarifying and exploratory questions or by paraphrasing student comments. Active listening helped the TA to understand student feelings and thoughts and it let the participants know that the leader was listening to them. The high rank position for Category 2 shows that sincere attempts by the leader to understand group members are an important component of perceived effective leadership behavior.

Contrary to expectation, TA verbal expressions of caring, warmth and support were very infrequent. However, the TAs did exhibit nonverbal expressions of positive affect by smiling, being attentive, and occasionally touching group members.

# Questions on Perceived Effectiveness by Critical Incident

The aim of these questions was to determine if the nature of intervention episodes and TA behavior perceived as effective would change

with the type of critical incident involved. Data were available to examine this interaction for two critical incidents, "Nonparticipation by Group Members" and "Resistance/Hostility." Contrary to expectation, no differences were found in the commonalities for both critical incidents. Considering the dissimilarity between the issues at the core of the two critical incidents examined, it is likely that the same result would be found for other critical incidents. The characteristics that are associated with perceived effectiveness seem to be independent of the issues discussed during the episode.

# Questions on Perceived Effectiveness by Group Stage

The literature on human relations training groups suggests that groups go through several stages of development where particular issues are of central concern. The leader is advised to modify his behavior in accordance with the special needs of participants in each stage. It was therefore hypothesized that student perceptions of effective TA behavior would differ according to the stage in which the intervention episode occurred. Analysis of intervention episodes in Stages 1 and 2 failed to confirm this hypothesis. Like the critical incident, group stage did not seem to affect student perceptions of effectiveness. Some care must be taken in making this conclusion, though, because of small sample sizes and the inability to examine intervention episodes across all three stages for this reason. There is also another factor that may account for the lack of differences and merits discussion.

Almost all of the literature on stages in human relations training groups comes out of the laboratory training movement, i.e., T-groups.

Though each T-group is somewhat different from the next, they share a basic approach that identifies them as belonging to this theoretical

orientation. The essence of the approach is that the leader fails to accept the traditional leadership role thereby setting certain fairly predictable processes in motion. Given this structure the group will move through various stages, first trying to define its purpose and goals, then attacking the leader, and finally resolving its problems and engaging in constructive goal behaviors. Though this simplifies things, the important point is that the structure leads to a predictable sequence of stages. The problem with the Interpersonal Process Laboratory (IPL) is that there really is no IPL structure. The groups studied shared the same goals but the way they were carried out and the overall leadership styles of the TAs were quite different. Nat provided little structure, yet he was very controlling and directive. Ken was also directive but he structured the experience through many large and small group exercises, including didactic presentations. Activities in the early stages were heavily cognitive and didactic. In contrast, Hank concentrated on the development of trust so that the objectives were not even formally presented for several sessions. Finally, Mark ran his group as if it were a T-group, offering little structure or guidance on how students were to proceed. Whereas Mark's group went through a stage where definitional questions were prominent, and then where the leader was attacked, this was not the case for the other three groups.

There may be certain issues that all groups confront regardless of their structure, for example, trust. The attempts to resolve such issues could be seen as stages of development. However, it seems probable that the stages through which a group moves are also determined to a large degree by the structure of the group. Accepting this, it may be that there were no differences in student perceptions of TA behavior during

each stage because there is no such thing as Stage 1 or 2 in an IPL group. It cannot be defined because there is so much variability in structure across groups.

# Questions on Perceived Ineffectiveness - Overall

Leader behavior during intervention episodes classified as perceived ineffective was characterized by a high level of affective expression, either positive or negative. Analysis of commonalities showed that 40% of the intervention episodes in this category had TA comments with attached positive affect, and the same percentage had attached negative affect. In marked contrast, the figures for perceived effective intervention episodes were 22% with positive affect and 9% with negative affect. Analysis also showed that while TAs still provided cognitive input, they spent more time actively listening to students than was true for perceived effective intervention episodes. Though the majority of episodes had overt resolutions, the percentage with implicit resolutions was noticeably higher than it had been for perceived effective episodes. An implicit resolution meant there was incomplete closure because the focus had been inappropriately shifted to another person or topic. The length of the intervention episode, the proportion of time the TA spoke, and the emphasis placed on cognition or affect were all found to be unrelated to perceived ineffectiveness.

In order for a TA comment to be coded as having attached positive affect there had to be clear verbal or nonverbal evidence that it expressed liking, caring, trust, support or apologies for behavior. An explanation for the surprising level of positive affect in several of the episodes was found by reviewing the transcripts. They showed that positive affect usually followed an unpleasant interaction between the TA and group members

in which the TA had been particularly hostile or disapproving. The positive affect was therefore a way of apologizing or making reparations for the negative behavior. Ratings on the post-session questionnaire (PSQ) distributed at the end of the session seemed to reflect student reactions to the negative interaction, rather than to the intervention episode that followed it where the TA was especially agreeable. Since the PSQ data were used as the basis for making classifications, these intervention episodes were categorized as perceived ineffective.

Expressions of negative affect involved hostility, rejection, indifference or nonsupport of some kind. Often there were angry exchanges between the TA and one or more group members and power struggles. Besides being hostile, TAs were often unaccepting, pressuring and insensitive to student feelings. Students reacted with angry words and tears. In the end the TA almost always "won" because of his objective and psychological power over the students as evaluator and leader.

The increased attention to active listening probably results from the high level of emotionality that characterized many of the episodes. The leader was forced to deal with strong student feelings which necessitated active listening behavior to explore and understand these feelings. Cognitive information was also given but its utility was lessened given low student receptivity to such information in a negatively charged atmosphere.

# Questions on Perceived Ineffectiveness by Critical Incident

Questions in this grouping focused on the impact of different critical incidents on the nature of perceived ineffective leader behavior and intervention episodes. Data were available to examine this relationship for one critical incident, "Nonparticipation of Group Members."

A comparison of the commonalities found in this analysis to those for all perceived ineffective intervention episodes revealed two notable differences. Leaders in these episodes addressed more of their comments to affective issues but expressed less positive and negative affect.

The increased emphasis on affective issues is attributed to two factors, the nature of the issues involved and the emotional level of student participation in some of the episodes. Lack of participation almost always stems from affective concerns, not cognitive ones. The individual or group is inhibited by fears of some sort, such as fear of rejection, failure or ridicule. Therefore discussions about the reasons why people are not participating naturally focus on affective issues. The feelings behind the lack of participation are often intense, as witnessed by the emotional reactions of some students when the TA confronted their behavior and asked them to change.

As for the finding that few TA comments had attached positive or negative affect, this departure from the findings for all perceived ineffective episodes was explained by reviewing the transcripts. There was little positive affect because none of the intervention episodes in this category was of the kind where the TA is trying to compensate for past behavior. The lack of negative affect was more puzzling and disconcerting given the categorization of these episodes as perceived ineffective. The transcripts showed that though the TAs did not express negative affect, the content message they gave was often threatening. In more than one instance the leader calmly, but pointedly, told students they would have to change their behavior or else, the or else being receipt of an Incomplete and possibly never getting the chance to become teachers. The blunt honesty with which these messages were delivered was almost certainly

viewed as pressure and insensitivity to student feelings.

One other difference was noted between intervention episodes in this category and the entire group of perceived ineffective episodes. Whereas the majority of all ineffective episodes had overt resolutions, the trend was reversed for episodes in this category with the majority having implicit resolutions. The inadequate closure associated with implicit resolutions and the threatening nature of the content messages seem to be important reasons for the classification of these episodes as ineffective.

It is difficult to generalize about the impact of critical incidents on the nature of perceived ineffectiveness since only one incident was studied and the sample size was small. What this analysis did highlight is that perceived ineffectiveness can be due to the content part of a message, as well as the manner in which the message is delivered.

#### Questions on Perceived Ineffectiveness by Group Stage

A sufficient number of ineffective episodes were found in Stage 1 to examine the relationship between group stage and the characteristics associated with perceived ineffectiveness. A comparison of the commonalities for episodes in this stage to the entire group of perceived ineffective episodes showed the former to be distinguished by the high number of TA comments that focused on the affective domain. This pattern was noted in two-thirds of the episodes in Stage 1. Review of the transcripts showed these episodes to be marked by emotional exchanges, with student expressions of anger toward the leader or group members in almost every case. The group leaders were equally emotional, especially when they were the target of student attacks. Their reactions are exemplified in the high percentage of TA comments with attached negative

affect. Given these situations it is not surprising that TAs addressed many of their comments to affective issues.

The attention to affect was matched by increases in active listening behavior. The rank ordering of ISIA categories based on frequency of usage showed that Category 2, Active Listening, was in first place, followed by Category 5, Offers Information. This is consistent with the findings for all perceived ineffective intervention episodes. Likewise, the majority of episodes in Stage 1 had overt resolutions.

Again it is difficult to generalize about the effects of group stage on the characteristics of perceived ineffectiveness since only one stage was examined. However, it can be expected that the aggressive, hostile TA behavior exhibited in these episodes would be seen as ineffective regardless of the stage. Of course one can speculate that the consequences of this behavior are more severe in the early stages of group life but the data do not present evidence to test this hypothesis. As with critical incidents, the data on the effects of group stage on perceived ineffectiveness are inconclusive. Despite this, if the nature of TA behavior perceived as ineffective is considered, i.e., hostility and insensitivity, it is highly likely that these characteristics are fairly independent of both group stage and the critical incident involved.

# Questions on the Characteristics of Intervention Episodes with Positive Immediate Consequences

These questions looked at intervention episodes that were classified as perceived effective and also rated as having positive immediate consequences. The observer gave this rating when there was some indication that those involved at least tentatively accepted the information or message the TA was trying to convey. Acceptance could be shown through

verbal acknowledgement or behavioral change in the desired direction.

The commonalities for intervention episodes with positive immediate consequences were found to be almost identical to those for the entire group of perceived effective intervention episodes. Only one meaningful difference was noted: TAs gave more responsible negative feedback in these episodes as revealed by the rank ordering of ISIA categories based on frequency of usage. Category 7a, Responsible Negative Feedback, ranked second in usage for one of the questions in this grouping and it tied for second place in the other question. In comparison, Category 2, Active Listening, was clearly ranked second in usage for all perceived effective episodes. This finding suggests that a sufficient amount of responsible negative feedback is a key ingredient in getting students to change their behavior and attitudes.

# Questions on the Characteristics of Intervention Episodes that Do and Do Not Lead to Long-range Changes in Attitudes and Behavior

The purpose of each of the intervention episodes studied was to bring about some long-range change in behavior or attitudes. Therefore, episodes that led to such changes would be the most successful. It was of interest to determine if these episodes had any special characteristics that might account for their success. Toward this end a comparison was made of the commonalities for perceived effective intervention episodes that did and did not result in long-range changes in behavior or attitudes. Long-range meant that change in the desired direction occurred within three sessions following the episode.

Two differences in the commonalities merit discussion. The rank ordering of ISIA categories based on frequency of usage showed that a higher percentage of episodes leading to changes had TA comments in the

categories of Self-Disclosure and Responsible Negative Feedback. It seems reasonable to assume that these TA behaviors increase the chances that the TA will be able to influence the participants to change. Of greater significance was the finding that while 100% of the episodes leading to changes had overt resolutions, 80% of those that did not lead to changes had implicit resolutions. This dramatic difference provides a clue to the importance of reaching adequate closure with a student or group if the TA expects the intervention to have lasting impact. By working with students to achieve closure the leader ensures that all their concerns are addressed and that they clearly understand the reasons why change is needed.

# Qualitative Data

The quantitative analysis led to several important findings on the nature of effective and ineffective intervention behavior. Perceived effectiveness was found to be associated with high cognitive input and active listening, while ineffectiveness was related to expressions of negative affect. Behavioral and attitudinal changes were more likely to occur in episodes with overt resolutions where adequate closure had been reached. Review of pertinent transcripts shed additional light on the meaning and significance of the findings. Despite this, the findings seemed limited because they failed to reflect many of the insights gained from observing the groups and examining transcripts. There was still much to be said on effectiveness and leadership behavior.

The second portion of this chapter will focus on the insights gained from observational data and transcripts. These insights form the basis of a new, more comprehensive descriptive model of effective and

ineffective intervention behavior. It is grounded in clinical impressions formed over countless hours of attending group sessions and examining transcripts. The model also incorporates the findings from the quantitative analysis.

It is proposed that perceived effectiveness is a function of TA behavior in four categories: Caring, Cognition, Clarity, and Communication. Furthermore, in order for an intervention to lead to behavioral and attitudinal change, the TA must address two other areas, Consequences and Closure. These will be known as the Six C's of Effectiveness. Perceived ineffectiveness occurs when the leader omits one or more needed categories of behavior or acts in ways that are antagonistic to the desired behavior.

None of the six categories of behavior is mutually exclusive.

The leaders gave cognition in caring ways, just as they blended consequences and cognition, or communication with clarity and closure. The categories have been separated for discussion and teaching pruposes, but in reality most behaviors served the goals of at least two categories.

Still, the primary goal of the behavior could be isolated allowing classification into one or another category. Each of the six C's will be discussed in turn by describing the category, and giving positive and negative examples of representative behaviors from the transcripts.

## Caring

This category deals with the TA's verbal and nonverbal behavior which reflected a genuine desire to understand and assist students. Nonverbal expressions included attending to the speaker, nodding in support, smiling, and maintaining a gentle, accepting tone of voice. Verbal expressions centered on active listening behavior aimed at eliciting

student feelings and ideas. This involved paraphrasing for understanding, asking clarifying and exploratory questions, and generally showing an interest in what the students had to say. Positive feedback, words of encouragement and concern are also indicative of this category. However, direct expressions of caring, trust and liking were infrequent although they would qualify. A good example of the use of behaviors in this category is found in transcript number 13 (lines 1-39). The TA, Nat, is discussing the feelings of a female student who has been extremely quiet in class for most of the term.

- (1) Nat: What happens for you here that it is satisfying for you to be quiet? (in a gentle tone of voice)
- (3) Joan: I don't know. It's just always been, just to sit back and listen . . . other than that. I just do that, I do it all the time.
- (7) Nat: Are you comfortable with it?
- (8) Joan: Most of the time, yeah.
- (9) Nat: Does that mean you're comfortable with it other than in here?
- (11) Joan: . . Yeah.
- (12) Nat: Okay, so then I would say that you have a pretty good reward system built in for you to remain relatively quiet. You're not punished for being quiet. You probably are given some rewards. I'm not sure what they would be for you but some rewards for being quiet. Family expectations are that you will be relatively quiet and rewards you for being quiet.
- (23) Joan: My family is pretty quiet most of the time too so.
- (25) Nat: Easy to become noisy all of a sudden, huh! (supportive)
- (26) Joan: Yeah.
- (27) Nat: You're married too, aren't you?
- (28) Joan: Yeah.
- (29) Nat: Is your husband quiet?
- (30) Joan: Not really, he's a lot more extroverted than I am.
- (32) Nat: That makes it helpful.
- (33) Joan: Yeah.
- (34) Nat: You look as though you're nervous.
- (35) Joan: I am.
- (36) Nat: Am I helping you be there, nervous?
- (37) Joan: No, it's just because the focus is on me. My face is red, isn't it?
- (39) Nat: No, you're doing a good job.

Line numbers here reflect those in the original transcript where there were fewer words on a line. As a result, the numbers do not always correspond to the actual number of lines presented in this text.

The leader explored and clarified the student's feelings and behavior at points 1, 7, 9 and 34. He also asked if he was making her nervous, showing concern for her feelings. Lastly, he demonstrated understanding and gave support at points 25 and 39. This conversation continued with Nat giving Joan positive feedback that she should give herself credit because she had tried and made progress although she was not receiving a passing grade. She thanked him, saying he had helped to raise her spirits. The leader showed keen sensitivity to the student's low self-esteem and her struggle to speak in class.

Expressions of caring were not always as obvious. Sometimes they constituted sentences as simple as, "Did that help?" or "That's a good suggestion, glad you said it." Concern for student feelings and needs was shown in other ways, as in Ken's response to a student who felt judged during intervention episode number 18 (lines 29-43).

Ken: I've heard that before in some IPLs, a hesitancy to explore some feelings because somebody in the group or Ken might label that as a change of focus or nonownership or something like that. At least I want to share my position with you that the intent is not to be judgmental. I'm sure not going to be locked into that, I don't feel. But I hope you will share any inconsistencies you see happening with me so that I can become aware of that. That's the kind of attitude I have rather than to lock you into a bad place. I just wanted to share that in terms of an awareness thing.

Of course verbal statements about being open and supportive cannot stand alone; the TA had to act in accordance with them or else they became empty words. Students were quick to pick up on such inconsistencies as evidenced by the fact that they remained wary of TAs who followed interactions where they had been hostile or unaccepting with especially positive messages. The negativism was not easily forgotten or probably forgiven, which brings up the area of Perceived Ineffectiveness.

The most prominent feature of the episodes rated as perceived ineffective by students and the observer was the TA's expression of negative affect. Not only was a caring atmosphere absent from these episodes, it was replaced with hostility, cold indifference and frequently a "winlose" type of game. One of the best examples of this game occurs in episode number 6 (lines 127-60). Nat tries to tell Mary that she is giving up control of her life to others when she does not talk because she fears they will be bored. He begins to lose patience when she does not understand and he has to repeat himself, as shown by his tone of voice and facial expressions.

Nat: Do you see where you are giving up control of your life to me, Don, Bill?

Mary: Yes, but I think that's my choice if I want to. (defensively)

Nat: Yeah, I agree with you but I'm wondering if you know what you're doing?

Mary: Yeah, I know what I'm doing. (defensively)

Nat: Okay, then I'm wondering then if you're comfortable with the consequences of doing it?

Mary: I suppose I am or else I wouldn't do it. (nervously)
Nat: Okay, then you're making an intelligent decision about how you're behaving.

Mary: I can't say it is intelligent. It may be bad in the end but if I feel comfortable with it. (no longer defensive)

Nat: Well intelligent means you know what the hell you are doing (laughs softly). Now whether it brings you bad or good is a whole different matter. Okay, what I hear you saying is you're content to give up control of your life to other people. (somewhat irritated)

Mary: (interrupts) I'm content to a certain point but if I feel I have something really important to tell everybody, I will. (defensively)

Nat: Okay, and if you don't?

Mary: I'll shut up.

Nat: Then if you don't and therefore you shut up the majority of the time in here you understand the consequences of that. (threateningly)

Mary: Yeah, that's what happened last term.

Nat: That's called a deferred, that's right. (threateningly)

This interaction continued with Mary becoming angry and close to tears. As the excerpt reveals, Nat pursued her until he had made his

point and "won the game." He wins both logically and emotionally since she was reduced to tears and a child-like defensive stance. The leader failed to show the student that he understood her position and continued to challenge her despite clear signs that doing so was unproductive. This intervention episode had a pronounced impact on the other group members because it occurred in the second session of a group where many members had similar problems in speaking. In the third session (I.E. number 7, lines 1-23), Nat actually got into a shouting match with a student. Jack got up in the middle of class, slammed the door, and then sat back down and asked for feedback.

Nat: Yeah, it pisses me off.

Jack: Okay, my point is,

Nat: (interrupts) It better be good cause I'm going to be very angry. (threateningly)

Jack: It is, okay, if I can get this down. Last term in my class that happened. A guy came back and asked for feedback as if he was asking for feedback and showing that he can ask for feedback.

Nat: (interrupts) I don't give a shit what happened last term! (angrily)

Jack: Can I get to what I said, you asked me to explain it. (angrily)

Nat: I want to know what is going on now! (angrily)

Jack: That's what I'm telling you, right now, that's what's going on in my mind right now.

Nat: Jack, you're getting close. You're talking about last term and I want to know why the fuck you went over there and opened and shut that door and what is right now. You got it?! (angrily)

Jack: Yup.

Nat: Lay it out!

This interaction continued in a negative vein for some time.

Later students reported feeling frightened, defensive, tense and angry at either Nat, Jack or both of them. Following so closely the interaction with Mary, this episode created an atmosphere of distrust and fear that persisted for several sessions. Fortunately Nat began to modify his challenging type of behavior and he showed greater sensitivity to student

feelings during later intervention episodes. Correspondingly, his ratings as perceived effective rose steadily over the term. However, group unity remained at a low level and most of the members received a grade of Incomplete because they failed to speak up in class and exhibit the skills. The conclusion must be reached that Nat contributed to this by failing to exhibit appropriate behaviors in this category during the early stages of the group.

### Cognition

Leader behavior in this category helped students to conceptualize and attach meaning to individual and group experiences. The leader identified and labeled events, pointed out the principles governing interpersonal processes, and provided students with the cognitive framework needed to bring about changes in themselves and others. When the leader was exhibiting these behaviors he was most recognizable as the teacher. This category is equivalent to what Lieberman, Yalom and Miles (1973) called the Meaning-Attribution function of the leader. They summarized the category by writing that it deals with "the translation of feelings and behaviors into ideas" (p. 238). More specifically, they described the category this way:

Meaning-Attribution involves cognitizing behavior--providing concepts for how to understand, explaining, clarifying, interpreting, and providing frameworks for change. . . . attaching meaning to a person or a group's behavior. . . [When leaders display this function] they offer explanations for consideration. These leaders name experiences individual members or the group are having, they may suggest that they look into the experience or they may tell a person directly what he's feeling. (p. 238)

The authors found that the most successful leaders were high on this variable. Likewise, perceived effective leadership behavior in this study was associated with high levels of cognition as reflected in the

rank ordering of ISIA categories based on frequency of usage. The ISIA Category 5, Offers Information, was clearly ranked first in the analysis of all perceived effective intervention episodes. Cognition was also provided in the ineffective episodes, but to a lesser extent.

The significance and impact of cognitive input seemed to vary in direct proportion to its specificity and immediacy to the group situation. For example, in episode number 17, Pam says that she has not been talking because she feels uncomfortable because no one else is talking. Ken gets Pam to see her behavior in a new light by explaining its negative consequences (lines 50-75).

Ken: Uh huh, the silence is uncomfortable.

Pam: Yeah, I don't want to be the one to break it.

Ken: So that reinforces the silence, that the silence remains because that temporarily takes you out of the limelight but the discomfort is still there. I know some of you have said it in your journals, gee, I'd like to become more active and share more responsibility. I'm feeling, I feel the best time to do that is when you feel discomfort.

Pam: That's fine with me. (seems happy and relieved)

Ken: I'm looking at some of the best growth experiences are the result of some discomfort and some anxiety that has been worked through. . . I'm saying that as soon as you find yourself in an uncomfortable situation, the more you can do to take control, to deal with it, so that discomfort is gone and you can respond to your needs as well as where the other person is, I think the more you can do to get there is going to be helpful.

In this excerpt Ken has done more than explain what is happening, he has given the student suggestions on how to change in the group and outside of it. Cognitive input which included such features had the greatest impact on participants.

Another good example of making the information relevant to the here-and-now of group life is found in episode number 9 (lines 106-15, 134-40). Nat intervenes with two students who are having trouble expressing the reasons why they find it hard to talk about their feelings in a

group of strangers. He makes them aware of some of the dynamics which are probably underlying their fears.

Nat: I think . . . what you are both saying and maybe I can be helpful there. I think your terms cognitive and affective are getting away from your feelings of if I self-disclose somebody's not going to understand. I think it might be easier for both of you to look at what kind of personal investment you have. There is less personal investment in cognition than there is in feelings. . . . If you say something you have a personal investment in and people kind of look at it and say what the hell is that, so what, there is pain there, cause of your personal investment so where we are is that most of us have learned to keep the personal investment back inside.

Both students found Nat's comment enlightening. However, their behavior changed little. Nat had made the information relevant and immediate, but he failed to teach them how to overcome their fears, or at least to point out the negative consequences of allowing the fears to rule them.

Also included in this category are comments that tied group experiences to the students future situation as classroom teachers. These maintained the focus on the long-term goals of the IPL, to train participants to deal with the social-emotional needs of their pupils when they became professional teachers. For example, in episode number 7 (lines 927-32, 984-92) Nat tries to explain that it is necessary for them to deal with anger because it will occur in their classrooms.

Nat: Anger is painful, tears are paintul. And so a multitude of things teach us those concepts, those values if you like, and we find different ways of being angry, different ways to confront without being up front about it. . . . You're going to get angry. You get angry all the time. There are healthy ways to express that. That is to own that you're angry. You're going to have kids get angry at you when you're a teacher. If you get freaked out by anger, well how are you going to handle that? How are you going to handle your anger and anger coming back at you?

Unfortunately this information came after a particularly destructive interaction between the TA and a student so that its impact was diminished

in the emotionally charged environment. Still, it represents a good example of making the bridge between the IPL and the students' future roles.

When the leader failed to provide the necessary cognition the group often floundered and negative consequences ensued. Mark was particularly deficient in this category. On several occasions he explored student feelings but did not give information which would help students understand what was happening and how to change things. Sometimes he failed to do either. For example, in one of the early sessions a few students grew impatient with other members for not participating. Two students said they did not see any reason why people should be apprehensive about talking and appeared very unaccepting. They expressed this in the form of a question to Mark, who answered, "For their own reasons, they have their own reasons." The students' opinions were clearly left unchanged and the feelings of other group members were never probed. A more appropriate response would have been to give some cognitive information about why people do not talk while exploring the feelings of the quiet group members who were being singled out for criticism.

Problems arose also when students were given insufficient information on the goals and procedures of the IPL. Again Mark was the primary offender. He ran his group on the T-group model which meant he was supposed to give little guidance initially on how to proceed. This model requires the leader to skillfully make theory and process interventions that gradually reveal the nature of the experience. Unfortunately Mark was not adept at doing this and there were recurrent discussions and problems around the issues of goals and procedures. The confusion generated by the lack of cognition led to diminished student learning. It is interesting to note that at the end of Mark's group, the main thing that

people said they learned from the experience was to risk more, meaning to self-disclose their inner feelings and ideas and to take chances. Few students seemed to have developed the cognitive schema needed to go into other interpersonal situations and understand and affect what is happening.

### Clarity

This category is slightly different in that it does not deal with specific behaviors as much as it describes the leader's verbal ability to clearly communicate his messages, whatever their nature. Clarity therefore cuts across the other categories since one can discuss it in relation to caring behaviors, offering cognition, and so on. In general, leaders who had abilities in this area spoke clearly, logically, specifically and did not get off on tangents. This was true whether or not they were dealing with their own personal feelings or presenting cognitive information. These abilities seemed to give students a sense of confidence in the leader, that he was knowledgeable and in control of things, which probably contributed to their perception of him as effective.

The impact of leader abilities in this area was particularly noticeable in relation to the category Cognition. As discussed, the central message in the intervention episodes studied was to change some behavior or attitude. Although the TA did not always have sole responsibility for giving negative feedback and handling episodes, he usually had the primary role in facilitating the interaction and students looked to him to furnish needed cognition and guidance on how to proceed. Therefore it was important that he had the ability to clearly state what the problem was, how he felt about it, what needed to be changed and why.

Leaders who were able to do this seemed to have more of an impact on students.

The detrimental consequences of lack of clarity were also available. Mark had the most trouble expressing himself clearly and specifically. He often spoke awkwardly, and in general terms that made it difficult for students to understand. For example, when someone asked him why he felt he had to label things and did he think it would help the group, Mark responded this way:

Mark: In a way, some things I think it's important to label, others not so. It's hard to give a clear answer on that. I hears what you were saying about that (pause), . . . have to stop and make sure (pause). I'm not trying to label for the reasons that you say.

(I.E. number 34, lines 331-37)

Mark never really addresses the student's question. In a similar instance a student asked for guidance on what she should talk about in class because she was unclear on this.

Mark: Okay, if you can, I hear you sharing your feelings about a question you have, and sharing your thoughts about that, okay. That can help me to clarify some things that can help you make decisions. That's an appropriate thing to say, I would say. Um, it's hard early on too. One thing I'm keeping a lot of responsibility out onto members of the class early on, trying not to let it get too frustrating. Each person has their own places they need and their own way they are going to develop and places they need to go and steps along the way. I don't know what all of those are. (I.E. number 34, lines 559-73)

Contrast this to Ken's response when he was asked by students what he expected them to do.

Ken: For me, I would like to see some labeling, that was a change of focus, that was paraphrasing, being able to identify those kinds of skills and being able to use those skills in appropriate times. . . . I would really like to take the time at the end of a Wed. or Fri. to say, hey, what's going on for you, how did you feel about the experience today. Okay. I see that as a pretty appropriate time to say, 'Annie, when you were talking to

Pam I thought you were really constructive in the way you helped her deal with the question. I felt you really maintained the focus.

(I.E. number 15, lines 303-7, 312-20)

Ken provided students with specific examples of what they were expected to do whereas Mark responded with vague, somewhat confusing guidelines. Students frequently asked Mark this question and received the same sort of "nonanswer." The result was that in session 8 students were still confused about what they were supposed to be doing in the IPL. It is highly likely that some group members never did fully understand the purpose of the class.

## Communication

Behavior in this category served to increase the personal nature and the amount of communication among group members. The personal nature of communication increased as students shared more of their personal feelings about each other and themselves. Leader behavior which fostered this included asking people to talk directly to each other instead of to him or the group, making sure they shared their feelings about each other not just their observations, ensuring that others responded to people who make risky self-disclosures, and generally building an atmosphere where it was appropriate and safe to share sensitive impressions and feelings.

When the TA acted as a catalyst to increase the amount of communication he was also exhibiting behaviors in this category. This was done by questioning students on their opinions, feelings and nonverbal behavior, making sure one or two people did not monopolize conversations and importantly, seeking feedback about the group process and his own behavior as the leader. When a TA responded appreciatively and acceptingly to this feedback, the students were encouraged to continue giving it.

Additional behaviors in this category include suggesting that students share their feelings inside the group, not outside, and providing structured as well as unstructured opportunities for doing this. Intervention episode number 16 provides several good examples of leader behavior in this category. The leader's comments occurred at various points throughout the lengthy episode. They show how he continually and unobtrusively worked to increase the personal nature and the amount of communication.

Ken: What happened as a result of the discourse between Jerry and I? (lines 1-2)

Kitty, can you help us identify why that frustration is there for you? (lines 242-43)

Why don't you check that out with other folks? (lines 360-61)

How can we break the circle? (line 295)

Jerry's just expressed something to you, what's your reaction? Did that make you feel any differently? How does it feel any different now than it did? (lines 633-38)

Daisy, you were going to say something? (lines 652-53)

What I heard Jerry say is that it would be helpful if you feel some distancing is happening due to the way he's speaking to you or discussing things, that it's helpful to him to say, this is happening for me. I want to check it out with other people. I feel very comfortable doing that. I'm feeling some of you might not be as comfortable at least at this point, saying Jerry, that's really starting to put me off. (lines 577-87)

These examples also show how the leader enlisted the help of the group in dealing with a particular student. Instead of taking total responsibility, Ken tried to make it the group's problem by asking for their reactions and using the term "we." Another approach taken by some leaders was to work with troublesome students by themselves for a while, and then ask for input from other group members. This seemed to lessen student input when they were finally given the chance to respond.

The group was also reinforced that the leader would take care of their problems; they did not have to deal with them.

Overt appeals to the value of communication were useful, but of greater impact were occasions where the leader pointed out how open communication might have prevented a problem. For example, in episode number 21 (lines 242-48), Ken pointed out the value of sharing immediately with two students who were trying to work out some old concerns but could not recall the details of the interaction.

Ken: I'm feeling you both said you both felt something but you never checked it out with each other. So it's the seventh week and you finally get at it and by the seventh week things have changed a whole lot for both of you so it's hard to be specific.

Without the flow of communication undercurrents of feelings remained and prohibited student growth. It was therefore a central function of the leader to keep the flow of communication as open as possible. This flow is a fundamental part of a human relations training group since without it there are limited opportunities for students to receive feedback on their behavior and to learn about group dynamics.

#### Consequences

Whereas the first four C's led to perceived effectiveness, two additional categories were needed to explain why change did or did not occur following intervention episodes. The first category, Consequences, deals with TA behaviors which ensured that students were presented with the negative consequences of their behavior. This could be done solely by the TA or in combination with feedback from other students. Participants had to be shown why change was needed and just how their current behavior or attitude prevented them from obtaining some desired goals, such as developing relationships with others or being a responsible

professional. Making students fully aware of the negative consequences was found to be strongly related to changes in the desired direction.

In episode number 24 (lines 286-307), Ken points out to Dora how her inconsistent participation has created problems for others and herself.

Ken: The trouble I have with highs and lows and activity and nonactivity and ups and downs is that god, I never really know how to react cause I don't have that ongoing information like Jerry was talking about. You say that's really important, that you get off on sharing spontaneously with people in a very honest, right on way, but then sometimes I don't have that information either and that doesn't seem to be an honest, open, ongoing way so that leaves me with a question mark. . . . I want to open a lot of doors so that we can become more aware of our thoughts and things and it seems like you don't choose to walk through a lot.

Ken goes on to explain that though he respects Dora's choice, it has consequences in the group and may also later as a teacher if she remains inconsistent. This excerpt reveals several features that added to the effectiveness of giving negative consequences. The TA gave his personal feelings, showed how the behavior or attitude was actually hurting the person, but still left the recipient with some degree of choice on whether to change or not.

As with the category Cognition, the more immediate and specific the feedback, the greater its impact was. This meant the recipient was given specific instances where their behavior or attitude had caused difficulties in the immediate group situation. Though some leaders took total responsibility for doing this, the most effective technique included soliciting examples from the group members as well. The recipient now had concrete, real examples to deal with rather than postulated ones of future negative consequences. While it was easy for students to refute conjectures about what was likely to happen, it was much harder to deny present realities. For example, a student in Ken's group firmly

denied there were negative consequences to his sporadic participation and passive nonverbal behavior because he had never been criticized for either in the past. However, once group members told him they had felt hurt and confused by this behavior, the student said he would reconsider his position. His behavior underwent a noticeable change in the next few sessions.

Students were also more likely to consider changing when given specific information on what they were doing incorrectly, when they did it, and how it impacted on others. General comments on the order of "You haven't participated enough" or "You don't seem interested in what others have to say" were ineffective with most students. Often group members were unable to recall the details of past interactions and it was up to the leader to supply the missing data or help students to remember. Ken gives an excellent example of specific feedback in this excerpt from episode number 21 (lines 1-21):

Ken: I'm feeling at times I see you physically withdraw, like you'll be a foot and a half back from a lot of folks in the circle. The consequences for me is that I sense intuitively less involvement. . . . it's a distraction in the sense that I'm concerned about what's going on for you and up to the last couple of times you haven't been very vocal about what's going on for you. So it seems like for someone who does not know your intent or does not know where you are coming from, that could really be misinterpreted and it might be a distancing factor. . . . I see those consequences as being something you might really want to look at.

It was very important that students were presented with the negative consequences but not made to feel guilty about past behavior. Leaders who showed some understanding for why the person may have behaved in a certain way made it easier for the recipient to accept the negative feedback.

Leaders who were inadequate in this category failed to make sure that students were presented with the negative consequences of their behavior or cast the consequences in the guise of, "If you do not do this you will not pass the course." Such threats had marginal success, especially when basic personality changes were being discussed. Failure to make examples specific and immediate to the group situation was also a problem, as was admonishing students for their past behavior without showing some understanding of why they felt or acted that way.

## Closure

This category includes all TA behavior which ensured that the central cognitive and affective needs of students during an intervention episode were adequately addressed if not resolved. The importance of TA behavior in this category increased with the length of the episode and its affective quality. Completeness of closure was found to be associated with long-range changes in behavior and attitudes.

Leader behaviors that addressed cognitive needs included checking to see that students knew what they were or were not supposed to do in the future, asking for content questions, summarizing what had happened, explaining the relationship of an episode to the IPL goals, and giving students a reasonable chance to continue discussion if they required additional information and feedback.

In dealing with affective needs, TAs asked students how they were feeling, if they had other feelings they would like to share, and whether they felt ready to move on to another topic. They also asked for reactions from silent members and questioned participants on the meaning of their nonverbal behavior. Leader behavior aimed at achieving closure on affective needs was especially crucial during episodes where

the discussion had involved highly emotional or sensitive issues.

Review of the transcripts showed that the process of bringing closure to an episode actually began some time before its end. By continually addressing the students affective and cognitive needs, in addition to questioning for understanding, the leader would slowly bring the intervention to an end and closure. At that point any questions or statements falling into this category of behavior were almost formalities because the leader was already fairly certain that closure had been reached and it was appropriate to move on. However, if the leader had not done these things all along it was imperative that he do so in the final part of the episode if adequate closure was to be reached.

Inadequate closure was characterized by several features: premature changes in focus, dealing only with cognitive or affective needs, and failure to make sure understanding had been reached. The impact of inadequate closure was shown in the quantitative analysis where 100% of the episodes leading to changes had overt resolutions, while 80% of those not leading to changes had implicit resolutions, i.e., poor closure.

An example of inadequate closure occurs in intervention episode number 8. A student, Kurt, says that he does not see why they have to analyze people all the time and that he wants the group to be more structured so he can get something out of it. Nat tries to help him see that he can make the group process concrete and orderly by looking at in in terms of reinforcement theory. After Nat presents an example of this, Kurt gives some evidence that he gets the point by saying, "I see what you mean." Nat then continues for several minutes on the general principles of reinforcement theory and how it applies to their group and classroom teachers, but he never returns to Kurt to see if his initial

concerns are still there, nor does he ever deal with the feelings behind the concerns.

The type of situation just described was characteristic of the intervention episodes not leading to change. It was difficult to tell if the recipients of negative feedback in these episodes did accept or fully comprehend the feedback. Their comments were usually brief, on the order of "Yeah, I see what you mean" or "I get it, yeah, you're probably right." Unfortunately the leader did not follow up to make sure the person did understand the feedback in its entirety. Since the individuals continued to behave in the same way it is likely that there was some misunderstanding or nonacceptance. This might have been avoided if the leader had acted differently.

## The Six C's and Modifying Variables

In the quantitative analysis, the factors contributing to perceived effectiveness and ineffectiveness seemed to be fairly independent of the group stage or the type of critical incident involved. Clinical impressions of the data supported this conclusion. Behavior in each of the categories outlined was required to achieve perceived effectiveness regardless of the group stage, critical incident, or even the student type. However, it did appear that it was more detrimental to omit certain categories or exhibit undesirable behaviors at some points than at others. For example, the exhibition of hostile and noncaring behavior by Nat in the early sessions of his group seemed to create an atmosphere of distrust that was never fully overcome. In contrast, when Hank acted similarly during an episode at a later point in group life, the negative effects on his group were short in duration. Students had already developed a trusting atmosphere and positive regard for Hank so that they

could weigh his behavior against their prior experiences.

Caring behavior was also particularly needed with students perceived by their classmates as insecure and passive. There were angry reactions to any signs that the leader was pressuring these students or was insensitive to them. In truth, these students did respond best to interventions with a preponderance of caring behaviors, whereas students who were secure and verbal responded better to interventions which emphasized cognition and consequences.

# Integration of the Six C's and Strategies

Perhaps due to the overlap of categories, it was hard to pick out any particular leader strategies of combining the categories of behavior that proved more or less successful. No special sequences of usage could be found either, apart from frequently addressing the category Closure toward the end of an episode. However, as already discussed, there were some strategies that seemed to further or hinder the goals of behavior in a category. For example, working with students one-on-one and then asking for student input was a less effective way of increasing communication than encouraging and integrating student input throughout the episode. Similarly, getting students to give examples of negative consequences was better than having the TA alone provide them. Using examples from the group situation was also more effective than hypothetical ones. Though an in-depth search for strategies was not undertaken, this would appear to be a promising avenue for research efforts.

Though no overall strategies of combining strategies could be discerned, it was possible to identify cases where the leader exhibited behavior in all the categories to achieve a successful intervention.

Episode number 16 provides the best example of this and has been included in appendix C for reference and illustrative purposes.

# Generalizability of the Model

This model of effective leadership behavior is based on studying intervention episodes where the aim was to change behavior or attitudes. Just how generalizable it is to other episodes with dissimilar themes is still unknown. Asking someone to change involves different dynamics than discussing a philosophical or procedural issue, for example, and the latter may therefore require other types of behavior. It might also be hard to set criteria for objective success in such episodes, though measures of perceived effectiveness could still be obtained. In the episodes studied objective success was defined in terms of immediate and long-range changes in behavior or attitudes.

Though the evidence is not yet available, it seems reasonable to suppose that five of the C's--Caring, Cognition, Clarity, Communication, and Closure--are fairly central to effective leadership in a wide variety of episodes. The sixth category, Consequences, is very specific to cases where in fact there are negative consequences to some behavior or attitude.

The issue of generalizability not only applies to other types of intervention, it also relates to different types of group experiences.

Some evidence of generalizability comes from the work of Lieberman, Yalom and Miles (1973) who also found that caring and cognition were important components of overall effectiveness. Despite this, the extent to which the model is generalizable to other group experiences is undetermined.

One other facet of the model needs discussion. It is based primarily on the analysis of leader behavior during intervention episodes

where the focus was on one or two students. It is possible that a slightly different model would be developed if one examined effective leader behavior during episodes where the group was the focus. Group problems are harder to deal with since the leader is often alone in his perceptions of the causes and is usually a major contributing factor himself. Unfortunately this study produced few examples of effective leader behavior in dealing with group problems so answers on this issue await further research.

## Discussion of the Methodology

Many of the methods used in this project to study leader interventions are uncommon. Therefore it is appropriate that these methods be discussed to assess their utility for further research. Five aspects of the methodology will be dealt with: critical incidents, intervention episodes, the variables, ISIA, and the stimulated recall technique.

# Critical Incidents

The assumption behind the interest in critical incidents is that how the leader handles an incident will have a significant impact on the individuals involved and the group. If this is true, then it is crucial to identify critical incidents and evaluate alternative leader responses. Doing so should provide valuable information on the nature of effective and ineffective intervention behavior. The findings from this study support the validity of this assumption and the utility of following this course of action.

Looking at the critical incident from the standpoint of methodology, one realizes that not only is it important to identify critical incidents so that alternative leader responses can be examined to see

what factors account for effectiveness, but it would be almost impossible to make this comparison without a concept like the critical incident.

Making comparisons between intervention responses demands that they be directed toward a common source or type of stimulus. The concept of a critical incident provides these sources, for it implies that there are certain kinds of events which occur with regularity across groups that can be equated on the basis of the issues involved. Once this assumption is accepted, it becomes possible to compare intervention responses to these varying events as if they were all directed toward some common event. The methodological benefits of doing this are obvious.

Since identifying critical incidents promises to be a central component in further research on leader intervention behavior, it was comforting to find that the critical incidents in this study were readily identifiable. Also leader responses in relation to them did seem to have a profound impact on the group, especially when the incidents reflected the basic issues of the IPL, such as fear of participation or resistance to being judged. Even when the issues were less central to group process, the manner in which the incident was handled often had a profound effect on the group. The best example of this is episode number 16. Here the critical incident was "Overtalk/Inability to Facilitate Self-Closure." The TA masterfully guided the group through a potentially disastrous confrontation with a group member. By carefully working through the feelings of group members, giving constructive positive and negative feedback and ensuring that adequate closure was reached, he modeled all of the IPL skills and demonstrated their value. As Ken put it at the end of this episode (lines 1134-39, 1149-57):

We might not have resolved where we began, but at least there is more understanding. And the only way to facilitate that

understanding is having the patience and the skill to methodically work that through, and sometimes that's a lengthy process but that's the only way that I'm aware of where we can constructively come to an understanding. . . . to skillfully work through what we did and if it ever arises again, to more skillfully deal with it before it ever reaches that point is what we're all about. And to learn concepts to be able to label what went on, what exactly happened, what people did that was skillful and not skillful, that's what the class is about.

Other examples could be given, many negative as well as positive. Perhaps the best evidence of the impact of leader behavior is that incidents that were not dealt with effectively kept recurring. This was true in both Nat's and Mark's groups, where the incidents involving participation and resistance/hostility kept coming up, session after session. One is forced to speculate that this would not have happened if the leader had taken a different approach to dealing with these issues.

In summary, identifying critical incidents and evaluating alternative responses is a fruitful method of studying intervention behavior and should be pursued. As will be discussed in chapter 6, the study of alternative responses to critical incidents can also serve as the core of a training program for future group leaders.

#### Intervention Episodes

To review, the intervention episode is a sequence unit of analysis which conceptualizes an intervention as a series of verbal moves related to a single topic that together have cumulative value or impact. These verbal moves form an episode, the boundaries of which are specified according to established criteria. The idea of an intervention episode grew out of the limitations of previous conceptualizations.

Being a new concept, a research question was included which called for an evaluation of the intervention episode as a sequence unit of analysis and a method of viewing leadership behavior. Such an evaluation can be

made on logical and practical grounds. The two flow together as one examines the advantages of utilizing this concept.

Observations of groups show that much of the interaction can be seen as a series of discussions, each with its own central topic. It therefore makes sense to study these discussions to determine the patterns that emerge as participants attempt to deal with an issue. Examining the sequence of verbal moves within each discussion seems logically superior to treating comments as if they were unrelated. The intervention episode is really a more formalized version of the discussion.

By looking at an intervention as an episode composed of verbal moves, it should also be possible to uncover the strategies different leaders use when addressing similar topics. The consequences of these strategies can then be compared to see which approaches are beneficial or harmful. As discussed, certain strategies were found to be more effective in facilitating the goals of the six C's. An intervention episode should not be equated with a strategy, though, since an episode is a unit of analysis, not an approach to dealing with some issue.

Actually, a leader can employ several strategies within an intervention episode.

Another advantage of the intervention episode is that it has reliably distinct boundaries. Previously the question of boundaries was often ignored or decisions were made on the basis of ease of coding. In contrast, the intervention episode has a definite set of criteria for determining its boundaries.

It is necessary to remember that the intervention episode is a unit of analysis, not a method of analysis. This means that the researcher can use various methods to study the interaction of verbal moves within

the episode. Thus s/he has the advantages of a sequence unit with reliable boundaries and the flexibility to apply different methods of analysis to the content.

Overall, the intervention episode is a valuable concept and should be used by other researchers in the study of leadership behavior.

### The Variables

There are numerous dimensions along which interventions vary. It was therefore a difficult task to select which variables would be best to include in this study of the characteristics of effective leader interventions. While not wanting to take a shotgun approach, it was felt that several variables should be included to maximize the chances that some would prove to be good discriminators of effectiveness. The final choices were based on suggestions from the literature on leader behavior, intuition, and the desire to concentrate on the objective characteristics of interventions. This would reduce the need for high-inference judgments when classifying events. The fewer inferences the coder had to make, the more reliable and less biased the categorizations were likely to be. The requirement of high-inference judgments was a flaw of past research where raters were asked to categorize interventions on variables such as "Ego State of Trainer," "Quality of Enactment," or "Distribution of Power and Control" (O'Day, 1968). Based on these criteria, eight variables were chosen: Total Time of the Intervention Episode; the TA/Student Talk Ratio; Domain - Affective or Cognitive; Affective Quality - Positive or Negative; Communication Skills - ISIA categories; and Nature of Resolution - Overt or Implicit.

The results showed most of the variables to be poor discriminators of effective versus ineffective interventions. Observed differences

on some variables did hint at discriminating characteristics. These hints were followed up by studying the transcripts to further identify, define and elaborate these characteristics. Three variables of this type were ISIA, Affective Quality - Positive or Negative, and Nature of a Resolution. The ISIA will be discussed separately. In the new model proposed, Affective Quality has been incorporated into the category Caring, while Nature of a Resolution went into Closure. It is suggested that any refinements and development work be done on these new categories of behavior, instead of the original variables.

The detailed quantitative analysis pointed out some of the limitations of using variables that call for low-inference judgments. In the quest to make the coder's judgments more reliable, there is the risk that the phenomenon under study is broken down into categories that have little meaning. This problem of interpretation was true for all of the variables chosen. It was necessary to constantly return to the original raw data and make inferences about the meaning of the results. Using high-inference variables may decrease reliability, but it aids interpretation since they usually correlate better with the criterion.

### ISIA

The ISIA deserves special mention because of its complexity and the fact that it is a system in itself. It was picked for several reasons. First, consistent with the criteria for selecting variables, it required low-inference judgments of the communication skills being used by the TA. Second, the instrument is reliable and valid in the sense that it was developed specifically for the IFL situation. Its validity as an instrument to study leader interventions would be tested in the study. Previous research had never intensively examined the leader's communication skills,

probably because reliable instruments for this purpose were unavailable until recently. Finally, it seemed reasonable to ask the question, what does the leader do during effective and ineffective intervention episodes, does he self-disclose, provide cognition, give responsible or irresponsible feedback, etc.? It was decided to concentrate on the behavior since the overall topic of the intervention episode would be known.

As it turned out, simply identifying the communication skills used by the TA provided little information on the characteristics of effective leader intervention behavior. Leaders exhibited the same skills in perceived effective and ineffective intervention episodes. A rank ordering of the skills based on frequency of usage proved more fruitful in revealing patterns associated with effectiveness, i.e., the heavy emphasis on cognition followed by active listening (caring behaviors). The ISIA should not be used in future studies to determine the characteristics of effective leader behavior. Instead a content analytic system is needed that would reflect the Six C's of Effectiveness. One can envision a system where each of the C's would be a major variable with its own set of values. Criteria for making judgments about the classification of events would be established. Researchers could then look at the level or type of caring behavior exhibited, for example, and begin to identify which types were most facilitative. An instrument developed along these lines would call for higher-inference judgments since the focus would be on the goal of the leader's behavior, e.g., to increase communication, show caring, ensure closure.

## Stimulated Recall Technique

The stimulated recall technique (SRT) was found to have several advantages and disadvantages as a research tool. On the plus side, it provided the TA with specific and direct feedback on his behavior during the intervention episode being reviewed. Both TAs who used the SRT said they valued the experience and saw things in their behavior they were previously unaware of. They also modified their behavior toward the individuals involved in the intervention episode by demonstrating increased understanding and sensitivity to their needs during future interactions.

The SRT gave students a chance to share negative feelings about TA behavior in a more socially acceptable and therefore less threatening environment. Whereas few had given negative feedback to the TAs at the time of the intervention episodes, several students did so after the tape recordings were played. The questions on the form students filled out following the recall also served as the basis for giving specific, responsible feedback, as well as helping students pinpoint the reasons for their negative or positive reactions. Overall the students had little trouble reinstating their feelings and seemed to enjoy the recall experience, with almost all calling it worthwhile and interesting.

Several disadvantages were also noted. The audiotape recordings provided only partial information about the intervention episodes since nonverbal behavior was missing. Several students remarked that this omission probably influenced their responses to some degree though they could not specify in which direction, more or less favorable. The importance of nonverbal behavior cannot be overlooked since it plays a crucial role in our interpretation of events as helpful, threatening,

and so on. If such techniques are used in the future, videotaping should be done.

Another disadvantage is the length of time it takes to rerun the tape, fill out the forms and discuss reactions. It is questionable if the time investment is worth the gains. Such recalls might prove beneficial during the early stages of the group to encourage open expression of feelings, particularly negative ones. However, later in the group life this encouragement is needed less and the time could be better used in other ways. The problem is that though it could be helpful at times to replay and process episodes, having this option necessitates recording all sessions. This is difficult and costly when many groups are involved because of equipment and additional personnel requirements. Though it does seem worthwhile to continue using the SRT for research purposes, at present the evidence does not suggest that IPLs should be taped as standard procedure.

# Implications for Research on Leader Intervention Behavior

Reviewing, the following aspects of the methodology show promise for research on the characteristics of effective intervention behavior:

- identifying critical incidents and evaluating alternative responses and their consequences
- the intervention episode as a unit of analysis and a way of conceptualizing interventions
- a content analytic system based on the Six C's of Effectiveness which would replace the ISIA and the remaining variables used in the study
- 4. the stimulated recall technique

Other suggestions for future research investigations emerge out of the limitations of this project; consequently both will be discussed together.

- 1. Replication of the Results with Larger Samples.
  - Sample sizes were very small for many of the questions which lessens the reliability of the findings. Several of the questions originally posed could not be answered completely because of insufficient data, i.e., the interaction of all critical incidents, group stages, and student types with group member perceptions of TA behavior. It is therefore especially imperative that attempts be made to replicate the outcomes of the quantitative analysis and assess the validity of the clinically based descriptive model in other situations.
- 2. Use of High-Inference Variables and Elaboration of the six C's. The findings from this investigation suggest the abandonment of low-inference variables in research on leader behavior. Almost all of the low-inference variables were poor discriminators and it was hard to make meaningful interpretations of the differences that were found. It seems unlikely that future research using low-inference variables would prove more fruitful. Instead research should concentrate on elaborating and defining the six categories (C's) in the new descriptive model proposed. Doing so would substantially increase their utility in teaching and research efforts. As it now stands, they are only rough guidelines for intervening effectively.
- 3. Further Use of the Stimulated Recall Technique.
  Unfortunately only two stimulated recalls were carried out. A more thorough test of this technique's research potential is needed. This should include various ways of using the SRT, for example, with

videotapes, immediate versus delayed recalls, open discussions versus questionnaires.

4. Developing Post-Session Questionnaires.

Such questionnaires can be a valuable data source for the study of leader behavior if care is taken in selecting the questions. Of course there are limits on the number of questions that can reasonably be asked and the areas covered on one form. In this investigation the forms were well designed to single out problems of TA overmanipulation, aggressiveness, and excessive pressure. On the positive side, they looked at trust building, acceptance and helping students gain insight into their behavior. However, the questions were not sensitive to TA behavior that was detrimental in a passive sense. One of the leaders was extremely nondirective and this often led to hostility, confusion, and other negative consequences. This was not detected by the post-session questionnaires because they focused on assessing active behaviors. Given that it is unreasonable to include questions on several areas because of length restrictions, the following suggestion is made. Since students tire of answering the same questions session after session, it is suggested that some of the questions on the forms be switched on an alternating basis to increase the amount of information gathered. This would allow the researcher to collect data on a wider range of TA behavior.

5. Study of Leader Impact on the Total Learning Environment.

Research on the characteristics of effective interventions is a worthwhile pursuit. But it is important not to take a narrow view of the leader's influence as occurring only during these intervention episodes. The leader's influence extends far beyond these interactions.

As Lieberman (1976) suggested, research should concentrate on the leader's impact on the total learning environment. This is especially true in the IPL because the lack of volunteerism and the evaluative component vest the leader with more power than in other types of human relations training groups. They were the ones who set the norms via their position as teacher and authority figure. Like any other class, students came in, wanted to know the requirements and then how they should behave to meet those requirements. The TA could create whatever type of learning environment he wanted to. Though it cannot be explored in detail here, the data showed that not all of the environments were equally successful. The leaders were tremendously influential in determining the course of each group and TA effects were far greater than those due to individual student differences. More needs to be done to establish which learning environments are most conducive to the attainment of the IPL goals and how to help TAs create them.

### CHAPTER VI

# SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The chief purpose of this dissertation was to answer the question, "What are the characteristics of effective leader interventions at certain critical points in a human relations training group for future teachers, the Interpersonal Process Laboratory?" A related purpose was to determine the characteristics of ineffective interventions. In order to accomplish this a complex quantitative analysis of leader interventions at these points was performed using several variables including a content analytic system which examined the leader's communication skills. A new unit of analysis was developed, the intervention episode, to isolate the time in which the leader's remarks would be examined. Effectiveness was determined by analyzing student self-report data and observer ratings of the impact of the intervention.

As reported, the research had limited success in answering these questions. The quantitative analysis did suggest that certain leader behaviors were associated with effective and ineffective interventions, but the results were not at the level of specificity expected. Further examination of the data based on clinical impressions from reading transcripts and observing sessions led to the formulation of a new descriptive model of effective leader behavior which incorporated and expanded upon the findings from the quantitative analysis.

The original analysis indicated that student and observer perceptions of leader effectiveness depended upon adequate amounts of

cognition and caring. Cognitive information helped students increase their awareness, understanding and control over individual and group dynamics. Caring behaviors were needed to develop an atmosphere of trust and concern so students would be willing to accept the feedback and information being given. This was especially important since the intervention episodes being studied all had a corrective aim, that is, there was some attitude or behavior the leader (TA) wanted to modify because it had detrimental consequences. It was therefore necessary to give negative feedback to those involved. Transcripts and observer notations showed that two more categories of behavior were needed to account for perceptions of effective intervention behavior, clarity of expression, and communication. Together these categories form part of a six-component model of effective leader behavior, called the Six C's of Effectiveness: Caring, Cognition, Clarity, Communication, Consequences, and Closure. Interventions that included behavior from the last two categories had real as well as perceived effectiveness, i.e., students were more likely to change their behavior or attitudes after the intervention episode. A brief description of each category reveals its distinguishing features.

# The Six C's of Effectiveness

### Caring

This category deals with the leader's verbal and nonverbal behavior which reflected a genuine desire to understand and assist students.

Nonverbal expressions included attending to the speaker, nodding in support, smiling, and maintaining a gentle, accepting tone of voice. Examples of verbal expressions included paraphrasing for understanding and asking clarifying questions. As if following the old bromide, "Listen to

what a man does, not what he says," so students appeared to be influenced more by the leader's honest effort to elicit and appreciate their feelings and ideas than they were by verbal expressions of caring. This was confirmed by the observation that students continued to be wary of leaders who expressed positive intentions and support following angry or otherwise hostile actions.

Failure to exhibit caring behavior was strongly associated with perceived ineffectiveness. Leaders not only omitted this category of behavior, they frequently replaced it with hostility, cold indifference, and verbal games aimed at "winning" rather than helping.

### Cognition

Leader behavior in this category helped students to conceptualize and attach meaning to individual and group experiences. Examples of behavior in this category included labeling events, providing frameworks for change, pointing out the relationship of group process to the students' future responsibilities as teachers, and explaining group procedures and goals. Offering information or cognition was the most frequently used communication skill for all interventions rated as having real and perceived effectiveness. Cognition was also provided in the ineffective episodes, but to a lesser extent.

Lack of cognition led to confusion about group process and why the Interpersonal Process Laboratory (IPL) was being included as part of the preparation to become classroom teachers. The end result of inadequate cognition was that fewer students grasped the basic, underlying principles of interpersonal communication, principles that could be applied to almost any situation.

# Clarity

Clarity refers to the leader's verbal ability to clearly communicate messages to the students, be they of an affective or cognitive nature. Behaviors in this category were needed to give direction to group process and to instill confidence in the leader as someone who was knowledgeable and in control of things. Leaders with abilities in this area not only spoke clearly, they were logical, specific, and stayed with the topic instead of getting off on tangents.

Lack of clarity diminished student trust in the leader. It led to confusion, frustration, interruptions in the flow, and a generally less productive experience. One of the four leaders studied was noticeably deficient in this category and his group floundered for the majority of its existence because he was unable to clearly explain what he wanted them to do.

### Communication

Leader behaviors in this category served to increase the personal nature and the amount of communication among group members. The personal nature of discussions was increased as students shared more of their personal feelings about each other and themselves. Some of the leader's behaviors which fostered this included asking people to express their feelings, praising and protecting students who made risky self-disclosures, and bringing up issues which focused on feelings.

The amount of communication increased with the frequency of student participation. Leaders encouraged participation by asking students questions about their ideas and feelings, soliciting and rewarding feedback on the group and their own behavior, and providing structured opportunities for many people to express themselves. Leader behavior in this

category served a vital purpose since open communication is a fundamental part of having a successful human relations training group experience.

The personal nature and amount of communication were decreased when leaders consciously or inadvertently punished students for expressing themselves, or allowed other students to do so. Other leader behaviors which depressed open communication included allowing the group to spend time discussing outside, irrelevant issues, taking care of problem situations himself instead of encouraging student input, and failing to provide structured opportunities for participants to share feelings and ideas about each other, themselves, and the group experience.

# Consequences

This category deals with leader behavior which ensured that students were presented with, and fully understood, the negative consequences of their current behavior or attitude. The leader could furnish examples of negative consequences himself and/or encourage other students to do so, the combination being the best approach. Specific examples drawn from the group experience were more effective in getting students to change their behavior and attitudes than were hypothesized examples of future negative consequences. Pointing out the rewards for changing was another powerful inducement.

Leaders who were inadequate in this category failed to make sure students were fully aware of the negative consequences of their behavior. They concentrated more on giving examples of possible negative consequences instead of looking for the ones that had already occurred. In addition, they often admonished students for their past behavior or a ttitude without demonstrating understanding of the reasons why the students felt or acted that way.

Analysis of transcripts showed that making students aware of the negative consequences of their behavior, particularly within the group, was strongly related to changes in the desired direction. It was one of two features which distinguished intervention episodes that led to changes from those that did not. The other feature was the degree to which closure was reached.

# Closure

Included in this category are leader behaviors which made sure the central cognitive and affective needs of students during an intervention episode were adequately addressed if not resolved. Examples of leader behaviors which addressed cognitive needs included summarizing what had happened, asking for content questions, and explaining the relationship of the episode to the goals of the Interpersonal Process Laboratory. Examples of attempts to deal with affective needs included asking students how they felt as a result of the episode, if they still wanted to share feelings, and whether or not they felt ready to move on to another topic. The importance of leader behavior in this category increased with the length of the episode and its affective quality. Attempts to reach adequate closure was one of the features which distinguished intervention episodes with real effectiveness from those with only perceived effectiveness.

Behaviors which led to inadequate closure included allowing or personally making premature changes in focus, failing to deal with both cognitive and affective concerns, and failing to check that students fully understood what was expected of them. The leader might ask the student(s) if they understood, but he settled for a yes-no answer instead of probing to make sure understanding was reached.

# Integration of the Six C's and Strategies

Most behaviors served the goals of more than one category since the categories were not mutually exclusive. For example, a piece of cognition could be given in a clear and caring way. However, it was possible to identify the primary goal of the behavior thereby allowing classification.

Strategies of combining the categories did not seem to affect perceived or real effectiveness to any significant extent, although some strategies within a category appeared superior to others in furthering its goals, e.g., to increase communication, present consequences. Additional work is needed to identify and study the effects of varying strategies.

# The Effects of Modifying Variables

One of the objectives of the study was to assess the effects of different modifying variables on student perceptions of leader behavior. Three modifying variables were looked at, the type of student(s) involved in the intervention episode, the critical incident, and the group stage.

each other on a series of semantic differential questions twice during the term. The data were analyzed to enable classification of students into several types. Unfortunately it was not possible to systematically examine the effects of student type on perceptions of leader behavior because of small sample sizes when the data were broken down by type and episodes perceived as effective or ineffective. In spite of this, clinical impressions did indicate that student type was significant when the individual was perceived as insecure and passive.

As for the effect of critical incidents and group stage, the quantitative analysis showed the factors contributing to perceived

effectiveness and ineffectiveness to be fairly independent of these modifying variables. Clinical impressions supported this conclusion in the main. Still, it is somewhat premature to conclude that the critical incident and group stage have little impact because of small sample sizes. However, the findings indicate that their impact is far less than many writers in the field have suggested.

# Methods for Studying Leader Intervention Behavior

Several different methods or approaches to studying leader intervention behavior were used in this project. Those with promise for future research include: the critical incident, the intervention episode, the stimulated recall technique, and post-session questionnaires.

Critical incidents are events occurring throughout the group life that involve issues which are important to the successful functioning of the group. Since these incidents can vary with the type of group, efforts were made to identify some of them for the IPL with its unique demands. Ten were finally selected. It is assumed that how the leader handles these incidents will have a significant impact on participants and will therefore further or impede attainment of group goals. The findings support this assumption and argue for continued work to identify critical incidents and evaluate alternative leader responses.

The intervention episode is a new unit of analysis created for this dissertation. It looks at the intervention as an episode composed of verbal moves related to a single topic that together have cumulative impact. The topics in this case were the critical incidents. Criteria were established which enabled reliable determination of the boundaries of the episode. This new way of conceptualizing an intervention has

logical and practical advantages and should be used in other investigations.

The stimulated recall technique is based on the work of Kagan (1969a, 1969b, 1972). Students were presented with a tape-recorded segment of a previously recorded intervention episode and asked to give their reactions to the leader's behavior in written and oral form. This recall session provided the opportunity to gather specific, direct feedback on leader behavior. An evaluation of the advantages and disadvantages of the technique argued for its continuation as a research tool, but not as a routine part of human relations training groups like the IPL.

Post-session questionnaires were distributed at the end of each session to assess student reactions to the leader's behavior during that session and the IPL in general. The forms were designed to focus on leader behaviors which were likely to occur in intervention episodes and influence student perceptions of effectiveness or ineffectiveness. The data from these forms were used to classify intervention episodes into one of three categories: perceived effective, perceived ineffective, or neutral. A comparison was made of answers to these questionnaires to those given during recall sessions. Few significant differences were found indicating the questionnaires were sensitive to the phenomena they were designed to detect.

# Implications of the Results

# Training Group Leaders

One of the reasons for this study was the need to upgrade the training given to IPL group leaders. Training was left to modeling experienced leaders (TAs) and general staff discussions of the "what to do when" type. These practices had limited utility because of the lack of

knowledge about effective leadership in the IPL. Without this, there was little guarantee that new TAs would model the essential elements of effective leader behavior or that training sessions would impart needed information and skills. This study partially remedies this situation by providing information on the factors associated with effective leader interventions. It also suggests methods of training group leaders which are superior to those currently used.

The study of critical incidents and alternative ways of handling them can serve as the basis for a systematic training program for IPL group leaders. They could view videotaped critical incidents and then discuss alternative ways of approaching them. All kinds of critical incidents could be shown, those that are problematic and others that simply reveal opportunities to facilitate attainment of group goals. The training program would have several objectives. First, it would help TAs learn to recognize problems and opportunities as they arise. Then it would assist them to identify possible underlying causes or issues behind the surface behaviors, and finally, the program would train them to intervene in a way that maximized their chances of being successful, thereby moving the group/individuals in the desired direction. Besides critical incidents, the videotapes could show effective and ineffective intervention responses, pointing out the behaviors that lead to both. These behaviors would be the ones identified in this study as the six C's. Role-playing exercises could supplement viewing tapes and discussions. Another advantage of pre-recorded videotapes is that they can be designed to slowly increase the complexity of the issues and factors to be considered in making an appropriate intervention. A training program designed along these lines would far surpass current practices.

It would help develop a shared conceptual framework that would give new meaning to staff discussions and co-training experiences.

A comprehensive training program might also include reviewing tape recordings of the TA leading his own group. Every so often a TA could tape-record a session and bring this back to a supervisor or support group for discussion and analysis. Though somewhat threatening, if handled correctly this would give the leader valuable feedback. Together they might decide that the TA should carry out a stimulated recall with the entire group. Reviewing tape recordings with supervisors is a standard part of many counselor training programs. There is every reason to believe it would be useful for training group leaders as well. Occasional observations of the TA, which is the technique currently used in IPLs, does not provide the leader with the in-depth kind of feedback on intervention style that is needed if improvements are to occur. Also, listening to a tape-recorded interaction can be a beneficial experience in and of itself, as the two TAs who were part of the stimulated recalls found out.

This type of training program is based on the belief that training someone to intervene can be done in a similar fashion to teaching other complicated skills. The discriminations, rules, and responses required may be exceedingly complex, but the standard methods of teaching can still be applied. Even if one accepts that modeling and learning by doing are necessary to becoming an expert leader, this does not diminish the value of formal, systematic training to help leaders identify the behaviors to model, or the factors that account for effectiveness in one case and failure in another. Certainly this is what occurs when the TAs teach the IPL communication skills to the students in their groups.

Students are taught when and how to respond to numerous verbal and non-verbal cues. They learn concepts, discriminations, principles and rules of generation. The skills required by a leader go beyond those dealt with in the IPL, but the basic approach to imparting these skills should still be the same.

Of course a TA has to know more than how to intervene effectively.

As discussed, the learning environment established by the leader is also crucial. Research is needed to determine the type(s) of learning environment(s) that best lead to attainment of the IPL goals. Once known, leaders can be trained to create this atmosphere.

Looking beyond the immediate situation, the IPL is similar in its goals and many of its methods to other human relations training groups in career preparation programs for the health sciences, social service fields, and business. The idea of imparting interpersonal communication skills through participation in a group experience is widespread in most fields where the job requirements entail dealing with people. Developing methods to ensure the competency of the leaders of these groups is therefore something of interest to responsible professionals in many areas, not the least of which is education. The training program proposed would be a major step toward meeting this end.

# Teaching Communication Skills

It may be time to seriously examine the approach of using human relations training groups as the sole vehicle for teaching interpersonal communication skills and group dynamics. Just as group leaders can benefit from more formal, systematic training which guarantees that certain things will happen and be taught, so can teacher trainees benefit from

this type of training. This training would be similar to that given to group leaders except in this case the critical incidents would be replaced by examples of regularly occurring classroom situations that require the teacher to effectively utilize interpersonal communication skills. As before, there would be discussions and examples of effective and ineffective responses. Training of this type would be more likely to transfer to actual classroom behavior when students entered the field. It should be viewed as a supplement to participation in a group experience rather than a substitution since the latter is needed to give students feedback on their behavior and increase self-awareness. Finally, it would ensure that all students were receiving the same core body of knowledge and training, instead of having the leader's abilities and decisions determine what is learned.

To conclude, it is hoped that this study will serve as the impetus for the development of training programs along the lines discussed, especially for group leaders. It is incumbent on those who require group experiences as part of career preparation courses of study to provide the most competent personnel possible. Not only do students deserve this on moral grounds, the instructional benefits of the experience will increase proportionately to the skills of the leader. Efforts to increase the effectiveness of human relations training group leaders will surely have positive consequences.

APPENDIX A

STUDENT FORMS

# Post-Session Questionnaire (PSQ)

		₹	i i
Di:	rections:	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	
Fo	rall questions above the dividing line (nos. 1-19), se sure to base your answers on today's session only!	18 1 2 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	1
Po:	all questions below the dividing line (nos. 20-23), se your answers on your feelings in general.		
	ease use the following scale when making your decision	ns:	
	congly Agree Agree Unsure Disagree	Strongly Disagree	
<b>J</b> 0.	1 2 3	5	
		•	
1.	The TA seemed accepting of viewpoints different from	his own	
2.	At times the TA acted overly critical and disapprovi	ng	
3.	The TA made a real effort to help others gain insigh behavior and/or feelings		
4.	At times the TA pushed too hard, beyond a point wher	e it was productive	
5.	The TA did a great deal to help build trust in the g	roup today	
6.	At times the TA seemed too manipulative in getting o	thers to react the	
7.	Way he wanted  The TA made a sincere attempt to understand why peop they did	le reacted the way	•
8.	The TA's actions did not help build trust in the gro	up today	
9.	Some people seemed to feel overly controlled and man	ipulated by the TA.	:
10.	Most members seem to trust the positive intent of th	e TA	
11.	Some members seemed to agree with the TA just for the	e sake of it	
12.	Most members seemed receptive to feedback from the T	A	
13.	Most members seemed to be guarded and hiding their ${\bf f}$	eelings	
14.	Most members seemed to feel that the TA made an hone understand and appreciate differences of opinion		
15.	Many members seemed uninvolved with the group	•••••	
16.	There is a strong sense of unity in the group	•••••	
17.	Many people seem to identify with one another's need	s and/or problems	
			·
18.	I feel a low amount of trust towards this group	•••••	
19.	I feel I can rely on the TA to be understanding and		
20.	I am hesitant about expressing my feelings in class		
J	think the TA will give them fair consideration	•••••••	:
21.	I feel positive towards the IPL experience so far	•••••	

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# Stimulated Recall Questionnaire (SRQ)

# Directions: You have just neard a portion of the previous meeting. Try to recall the feelings you had at the time the incident occured and answer the questions based on your reaction at Please use the following scale when making your decisions: Unsure Disagree Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree Agree 4 2 1 3 1. The TA seemed to have a good understanding of the issues/problems involved in the situation..... 2. The TA seemed overly controlling and manipulative in getting those involved to react in the way(s) he wanted................ 3. The TA seemed overly critical and judgmental at times during the interaction..... 4. The TA made an honest effort to understand and appreciate the feelings and ideas of those involved..... 5. The TA's actions seemed very helpful in getting those involved to gain meaningful insight into their behavior and/or feelings...... 6. The TA put too much pressure on the individual(s) to change...... 7. I felt the TA handled the situation very skillfully..... 8. The TA seemed to be sensitive to the feelings of those involved as the interaction proceeded..... 9. The TA pushed too hard, beyond a point where it was productive..... 10. I think this interaction may have some destructive consequences for those involved..... 11. I felt those involved in the interaction had a positive experience... 12. The issues/problems being discussed were ones I could personally relate to...... 13. This incident produced strong feelings in me when it occured......

---

# Semantic Differential Peer Perception Form

Directions:	best describ Base your ar	es 1	that rs or	pers	on us	ing t	he i	50C	which of the adjective n point scale below. n the person behave in f the person.
TA # SC #					•				
Classmate's Name:	•			<del>,</del>	, ,			,	<del></del>
		Arek.	Very Contract Land	17.75	Moue y	WATES	13/2 / 10		
	Confident	1	2	3	ŗ	5	ó	?	Lacking in Confidence
	Introverted	1	2	3	Ţ	5	6	7	Extroverted
	Secure	1	2	3	Ţŧ	5	6	7	Insecure
	Outgoing	1	2	3	ļi	5	6	7	Shy
	Quiet	1	2	3	Ţ	5	6	7	Talkative
	Leader	1	2	3	Ţ	5	6	7	Follower
	Aggressive	1	2	3	ŗ	5	6	7	Unaggressive
	Passive	1	2	3	Ţ	5	6	7	Active

# APPENDIX B

DATA ANALYSIS FORMS AND MATERIALS

# Observer Rating Form

TA # Session # Critical Incident Issue Wo. of Students Directly Involved Unusual Occurences During the Session
Non-Verbal Reactions - Those Directly Involved  Positive Impact for how many students  Behaviors indicating this reaction:
Beutral Impact for how many students Behaviors indicating this reaction:
Negative Impact for how many students Behaviors indicating this reaction:
Non-Verbal Reactions - for Entire Class  Positive  Behaviors indicating this reaction:
Neutral Behaviors indicating this reaction:
Reparting indicating this reaction:

# Intervention Episode Coding Form

1	רנואוכסין דעכום בעו ד	Lucide	10		1	35.55	365510n H		+ 1/-
5	Group Stage	260	E i		who had	# of Students	student ol ved	,	Total Time
1	Type of Students 11	Student	52		15	12	1	7	21 22
A	Nest		Pos Neg	U	C Next	Pos	Neg	%	Other Percentages
la	ore de	ge.		ام	10				TA/Student -
10	11			19					Talk Ratio
7				7					
3				3					A = C =
1				1-					
b			1	8					
3		1		9					Pos _ Neg _
72		1		70					1-
16				176					
FD A	2 2 3							100%	

Note: A = Affective Domain; C = Cognitive Domain; Pos = Positive Affect; Neg = Negative Affect; Neut = No clear affective message.

C = The no. of TA cognitive domain codes
T Total no. of TA codes Pos = The no. of TA positive affect codes

T Total no. of TA codes A = The no. of TA affective domain codes
T Total no. of TA codes

Neg = The no. of TA negative affect codes
T Total no. of TA codes Total no. of TA codes

# Guidelines Used in ISIA Coding

# A. Coding of Affective and Cognitive Domain

### Affective

- refers to the person's feelings or the feelings of someone else.
- includes statements saying how the person would feel hypothetically if they were in someone else's place.
- includes affective states such as worried, concerned, upset, excited, troubled, even though some of these may be mild.
- if a person says I am shy, for example, you have to decide if they are telling a fact about themselves or actually describing their affective state at the moment. If the former, it is cognitive; if it is a description of their state at the moment, interpreted as "I'm feeling shy," then code it affective. Make it correspond to what the speaker hears, not what the person meant.
- look for feeling words.

### Cognitive

- statement of fact or what the person believes to be fact. Can talk about the facts related to feelings, e.g., people get frustrated when they let others control their lives.
- how the person thinks about something, e.g., I think it is good that people share their feelings.
- statements that do not include how the person is feeling.
- most statements where you can substitute "I think" for "I feel," except where there is also a feeling word.
- all B-5 and B-4 statements are cognitive.

### Groundrules

1. If a person is talking affectively and someone actively listens to that person, keeping the subject the same, code the active listening affective even if the person doing the active listening does not refer to the speaker's feelings directly.

This groundrule by Issacson implies that you do not make a distinction between whether or not the listener responds to the cognitive or affective part of the message being given. I have departed from this at times when the listener is clearly responding to the cognitive part of the message and the listener responds cognitively as well.

2. In situations where there has been a flow of conversation that has been affective, do not change the coding to cognitive unless the subject is changed.

Idea: In situations where the group knows the topic is about someone's feelings, that speaker does not need to label that feeling all the time for the statement to be coded affective.

If the speaker labels the feelings and then goes on to discuss the reasons why he/she feels that way, the cause of the feeling, it is left as affective.

If the speaker gives the reasons for a feeling, and then states it, it is left as affective, e.g., "When Jane did....... I felt happy."

If the essence of an interaction has been cognitive, and there is only a brief reference to the person's feelings, unless clearly stated and distinct, it is not coded as affective but cognitive to go with the flow of the interaction.

3. Feedback is affective if it is directed toward the receiver's affective behavior (sharing of feelings, manner in which he shares feelings) and/or if it indicates the sender's feelings associated with the stimulus behavior.

# B. Active Listening (Category 2)

- the focus must be kept on the <u>person</u> or <u>topic</u> currently under discussion.
- the statement must encourage the person to go further with the interaction, to elaborate on his/her feelings or ideas. The following should be coded as active listening:
  - a. paraphrasing includes brief observations of person's actions. If the observation is long and includes some information that changes the focus to the person speaking, it is coded 5, but if it is very brief it remains active listening.
  - b. clarifying questions
  - c. exploratory questioning may ask the person to look at some new information or think about things in a different way.
- will include such brief statements as "Yeah," "for sure," words or phrases that occur as another person is talking, that provide confirmation and are likely to support the other person so that they will expand on what they are saying. If, however, the person does not expand it may be that the TA's nonverbal behavior indicated that he wants someone else to go on. This is a difficult judgment to make.
- when a person actively listens often the person will not understand and will ask the <u>listener</u> to clarify, e.g.:

How do you feel about what happened? (listener)

I don't know what you mean. (speaker)

How do you feel about what Mary said to Jane? (listener) In this situation the codes should read: A:2, C:3, A:2
All re-statements are in the same category as the original statement. This goes for all codes.

# C. Elicits Information (Category 3)

- anytime the focus of the interaction is changed to another individual or topic, or from group to individuals, the question is coded 3
- questions or statements phrased like questions about the content, process or procedures or subject under discussion. The information is for the person asking, not to act as encouragement for the other person to continue talking. Hard to judge between this and B:2. When doubt exists, code as 3.
- if several questions follow in a row (person is throwing out several questions), just code this once.
- if a question starts a conversation or topic, code it 3.

# D. Directs or Suggests Solutions (Category 4)

- gives directions, suggestions, instructions, orders or assignments with which the person is expected to comply.
- compliance is tricky as sometimes the person may give a suggestion that seems to provide an answer to the problem, but there is no mechanism for compliance. Suggestions that are given firmly and which are attempts to answer the problem and cut off further discussion, even if unsuccessful, are coded 4.
- statements which are part of active listening, and direct the person to a specific solution, tending to cut off further exploration, are coded 4. However, if only put as a possible alternative then they are still coded as a 2.

# E. Offers Information (Category 5)

- all cognitive information, theory.
- what a student or TA saw happening, observations of group process and others. Code all these 5 unless there is clear evidence of support or non-support, then it would be feedback. If the person is relating to it personally, saying, for example, John did this and this and I felt ..... then it is self-disclosure, but if the observations are made more matter-of-fact or as "this is what I saw happening," code it 5.
- when someone is talking about something with a tone that seems to convey their opinion like it is fact, even though they may say "I think," code it 5. Often this offering opinion as if it were fact is evident because the first sentence starts with "I think" but other sentences are like facts.
- when the TA is talking about how he will run the class, his role as the TA, the leader of the group, rather than himself as a person, code it 5.
  - This is often hard to tell. One way to think about it is how are the students responding, what are they probably perceiving, the TA talking or a person talking.
- statements that relate the ongoing situation to the teaching situation are usually coded 5 unless the TA is talking about his personal experiences. But if he says, "I think teachers ought to do this,"

- "As a teacher you need to ....," then he is acting as the TA, the instructor, so code 5.
- information that does not tell you much about the speaker as a person, what he is experiencing or has experienced. Ask how much of the "person" is in the message. Often this is carried by the manner in which the statement is made, the personal investment in the message.

# F. Self-Disclosure (Category 6)

- whenever someone says how they were feeling or are feeling and it is not part of a feedback message.
- does <u>not</u> include statements such as "I knew someone who" unless the person includes their personal reactions, feelings about it. You have to ask if the essence is to tell a story about someone else or is the person trying to reveal their own feelings. Must go on how the message is received, not the intent.
- opinions, beliefs, values, that are stated as such, as belonging to the person and not facts.
- when a person fails to "own" something or is inconsistent in owning, switching from you to I, if it is obvious that the person means "I," code it 6. If it is unclear if the person really means "I" or believes it is true for all people, code it 5, since they are offering opinion as if it were fact.
- brief self-disclosures during active listening are <u>not</u> coded as such unless they are extended and change the focus.

# G. Feedback (Categories 1 and 7)

- if support or non-support of a behavior is given. Include in this the consequences for not changing the behavior.
- the person does not have to state the behavior for it to be responsible feedback if the individual knows what is being referred to.
- consequences of feedback often include statements that seem to fall into the 5 category. If the description of consequences becomes exceptionally long, as if the focus is no longer on the person but on teaching, not for the person's benefit, but general discussion with the group, code it 5. Otherwise these statements are considered part of the feedback.
- feedback is to a person, his behavior or actions. Simple agreement or disagreement with what someone is saying, their position, is not feedback, rather it is usually self-disclosure.

# Student Names and Code Numbers

Student Name	Code No.	Student Name	Code No.
Don	01	Betty	32
Jan	02	Lana	33
Lynn	03	Caron	34
Bob	04	Meg	35
Kurt	05	Joshua	36
Pam	06	Jerry	37
Mary	07	Barry	38
Lisa	08	Daisy	39
Jack	09	Bess	40
Carrie	10	Annie	41
Tim	11	Peg	42
Joan	12	Laura	43
Sharrie	13	Dora	44
Susan	14	Sally	45
Byron	15	Ali	46
Rick	16	Liz	47
Lila	17	Sherry	48
Gary	18	Tess	49
Mickey	19	Lana	50
James	20	Ruth	51
Shari	21	Wally	52
Peter	22	Janie	53
Kate	23	Suzie	54
Mack	24	Rhoda	55
Dana	25	Roz	56
Joe	26	Paula	57
Sarah	27	Dawn	58
Sandra	28	Noreen	59
Doreen	29	<b>Ji</b> 11	60
Kitty	30	A1	61
Jane	31		

# Form for Determining Critical Incidents in the IPL

TA	Name	Years of	Expe	erience	
		teaching	the	IPL	

### Directions:

Below you will find a definition of what is called "a critical incident." Please read the definition carefully, paying close attention to the four criteria listed that are to be used in deciding if an incident qualifies as being "critical."

After reading this, please turn to page two where you will find a list of hypothesized critical incidents. I would like you to make two types of judgments regarding this list.

- 1. Based on the defintion below, decide if each of the incidents listed qualifies as being a "critical incident." If you feel one does not, please put an X next to it and indicate which of the criteria (1,2,3,4) you feel it fails to meet. In addition, if you feel that some other critical incidents have been left off the list, please add them in the space provided.
- 2. Using all the incidents, including any you added, rank order them in terms of the frequency of occurence. Frequency of occurence should be viewed in terms of how often the incident occurs across groups. For instance, if you have taught ten groups and an incident occured in nine out of the ten, it would have a high frequency of occurence. However, if it occured in only one out of the ten groups, but in that groups it occured five times, it would still have a low frequency of occurence.

# Definition of a Critical Incident

"A critical incident is defined as the confrontation of a group leader with one or more members, in which an explicit or implicit opinion, decision, or action is demanded of the leader.... The essential property of a critical incident is that the phenomenon is judged important enough by a group leader to consider, consciously and explicitly, a decision to act in a way assumed to have an important impact on the group."

The criteria to be considered when judging if something is a critical incident are:

- 1. Implications The proper handling of the incident by the leader is assumed to have substantial impact for the member(s) involved. It may also effect other group members via vicarious learning. If not handled correctly, nonfacilitative behaviors and/or feelings might prevail that would hamper the members from having a successful group experience.
- Relationship to the IPL objectives the incident involves issues that are significantly related to the IPL objectives.
- 3. Shared Meaning the issues implied in the incident have relevance for many group members because of their close connection to the objectives and the nature of the group experience.
- 4. Frequency the incident occurs frequently across groups.

	Freq. of Occurence Rank	Issue(s) Involved	Potential Indicators leading to an Intervention by the TA and a Critical Incident
1.		Fear of Self- Disclosure/ Lack of Trust	<ul> <li>Actual verbalization of such by group member(s)</li> <li>References to the artificiality of getting to know someone in such a setting</li> <li>Reluctance of students to give opinions, feelings when asked.</li> </ul>
2.		Reluctance to Give Negative Feedback	<ul> <li>Discomfort expressed by members about giving it</li> <li>Actions that support irresponsible positive feedback after negative feedback has just been given to someone.</li> <li>Continually beginning negative feedback with sentences such as, "Of course I could be wrong about this,"</li> </ul>
3.		Failing to Own One's Feelings by Speaking for Everyone	- Uses phrases such as "this is how we feel", "why do we have to do this", "everyone seems confused."
և.		Failure to stay with the Here and Now/Focusing on People, Events Outside the Group	- Self-disclosure is limited to past events - Continually bringing in problems about events, people, outside the group, ex. "My roommate is always how can I change her?"
5.		Withdrawn, Shy, Non-talkers	<ul> <li>Group comments on why certain individuals aren't contributing</li> <li>Verbalizations of feelings of pressure to speak</li> <li>Non-contributing members in large group only</li> <li>Comments about the cleavage of the group into talkers and nontalkers</li> </ul>
6.		Resistance/Hostility	<ul> <li>Continual questioning of the usefulness of such a group for them as potential teachers</li> <li>Denial of the need for the skills</li> <li>Questioning of the right of the TA being an evaluator of their skill usage</li> <li>attacking verbally the TA's comments, opinions</li> </ul>
7.		Approval Seeking Behavior	continually looking at the facilitator for non-verbal acceptance  - Cued questions that continually ask for support, ex.  "You all feel the same way, don't you?"
8.		Nonfacilitative Emotional Expression	<ul> <li>aggressive actions if disagreed with</li> <li>frequently crying is someone gives the person negative feedback</li> </ul>

(continued)

	Freq. of Occurence Rank	Issue(s) Involves	Potential Indiactors leading to an Intervention by the TA and a Critical Incident
9.		Refusal to take Responsibility for Changing Self	- Says, "I've always been that way, I can't change."  - Other statements that reflect that the person has no choice about what they are, that the environment keeps them that way
10.		Overtalk/ Inability to facilitate Self-Closure.	<ul> <li>Person rambles when they talk, going from one idea to the next without giving others a chance to respond. Others become frustrated and confused.</li> <li>Person presents a view and then proceeds to elaborate and exhaust all possibilities for discussion.</li> </ul>
11.		(Other)	
12.		(Other)	

# APPENDIX C

DATA ANALYSIS TABLES AND SAMPLE TRANSCRIPT

TABLE C1.--Comparison of Intervention Episodes Perceived as Effective based on Post-Session Questionnaire Data Only - Question 1.

					I	nte	rve	nti	on i	Epi:	sod	28					
Variab:	168		8 9	11	12	15	16	20	21	20	36	37	42	43	<i>1.1.</i>	45	Common- ality <sup>a</sup>
		Min.				<del></del>	-	<u>x</u>		<del> </del>	<u> </u>	x		<del></del>	<del></del>	<del>-</del>	ality
Total Time		Min.			x	<u> </u>	<u> </u>		<u> </u>	<u> </u>			<del>-</del>	<u> </u>	<del>^</del>		
TOTAL TIME		Min.	хх			x	x		х	x			x			х	**
TA/Student	0 -	25%		_	_				_			<u> </u>	x			_	-
Talk Ratio	25 <b>-</b>		- x	×	_	×	×	_	х	×	_	_	_	_	_	x	-
	50 -	75%		_	х	-	_	ж	_	_	×	-	_	x	X	-	-
	75 <b>-</b>	100%	x -	_	_	_	_	-	_	_		_	_	_	_	_	_
	0 -		хх	х	х	х	х	х	х	_	x	x	х	_	х	_	*
Affective	25 <b>–</b>				_					х		_	_	X		X	
Domain	50 <b>-</b>		==			_	_						_				
	75 –	100%	=	_	_					_		_					
	0 -	25%		_	_	_	_				_		_	_	_	-	-
Cognitive	25 -	50%										_	_	_		_	
Domain	50 <b>-</b> 75 <b>-</b>		 x x		<u>-</u>		<u>-</u>	x	x	<u>x</u>			<del>_</del>	<u> </u>		<u> </u>	
	75																
	0 -	25%		<u> </u>	х	х	x	Х	х	X	X	X	<u> x</u>	X	x	<u> x</u>	*
Positive	25 <b>-</b>						_					_		_			
Affect	50 <b>-</b> 75 <b>-</b>	75% 100%	==	<del>-</del>			_	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>		<u> </u>		<del>-</del>			
	• •																
	0 -	25%		<u> </u>	<u>x</u>	<u> </u>	X	<u> </u>	<u> x</u>	х	Х	х	X	<u> </u>	X	x	*
Negative	25 -	50%	==														
Affect	50 <b>-</b> 75 <b>-</b>		==		<del>-</del>	<del>-</del>	_	<del>-</del>	<u> </u>	<del>-</del>		<u> </u>	<u> </u>	=		<del>-</del>	
		1a	==				<u> </u>		X					<u> </u>		Х	
		1ь 2	 x x		-	-		-					<del>-</del>	<del>-</del>	<del>-</del>	x	*
ISIA		3	X X	<u>x</u> x	x x	X X	X X	_	X X	X X	_ <u>x</u> _	<u>x</u>	X X	$\frac{x}{x}$	x x		*
Categories		4	- x	x	x	x	X	_		×	_	_	x			x	**
		5	хх	×	×	x	x	×	×	×	x	×	x	x	×	x	*
		6	хх	x	x	×	x		x	×	<del>-</del>		<del>-</del>	x	x	ж	*
		7a	- x	x	х		X	x	x	x	_	_	x	_	_	x	**
		7ъ		_	_	_	_	_	x	_	_	_	_	_	_	х	
Nature of		0vert	- x	х	х	х	х	x	x	х	_	_	_	х	x	x	*
Resolution		licit				_	_	_	_	_	x	x	x	_	_	-	-

 $<sup>^{</sup>a}$ A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the episodes share this feature. A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the episodes share this feature.

TABLE C2.--Comparison of Intervention Episodes Perceived as Effective based on Post-Session Questionnaire Data and Observer Ratings - Question 2.

			1										n E									ì
Variable	s		8 9	11	12	13	15	16	17	18	20	21	23	24	27	29	30	37	38	43	44	Commonality
	0	≤ 5Min.			-	-	-	-	x	х	х	-	-	-	х	_	-	x	х	-	x	-
otal Time	5	≤10Min.		x	х	x	-	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	×	_	_	x	_	-
		>10Min.	x x	Ξ	_	_	х	х	Ξ	_	_	х	x	х	-	х	_	_	_	_	_	
	_																					<del> </del>
	0	- 25%	==	_=									x					x		_=	_=	<del>-</del>
A/Student	25	- 50%	- x				X	x				x		X		x					_=	
alk Ratio	50	- 75%	==		<u>x</u>				x		X			_	_x				_ <u>x</u>	X	<u> x</u>	<del></del>
	75	-100%	x -	<u> </u>	<u>x</u>	-	_		-	x		-			-	-	x		-			<del> </del>
	0	- 25%	x x	×	×	_	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	_	×	×	×	_	×	*
fective	25	- 50%			_	x	_	_	_	-	_	_	_	_	_	x	_	_		×	_	-
omain	50	- 75%		-		-	-	_	-	-	_	_	_	_	_	_	-	_	-	-	_	-
	75	-100%	==	Ξ	_	Ξ	_	-	Ξ	_	-	_	Ξ	_	-	_	_	_	_	_		
	^	25=																				
	0	- 25%														<u> </u>						<u> </u>
gnitive	25	- 50%	==							_			-		-					_		<del>-</del>
main	50	- 75%	==	_=		х						<u> </u>			-	х				X		<del> </del>
	75	-100%	x x	<u> </u>	<u> x</u>		<u>x</u>	<u> </u>	<u> x</u>	x	x	x	x	X	<u>x</u>		x	X	<u>x</u>		<u> </u>	*
	0	- 25%	хх	×	x	x	×	×	x	×	×	x	×	x	×	x	x	×	×	x	x	*
sitive	25	- 50%		_	_	-	_	-	-	_		_	_	_	_	_	_	-	_	_	_	-
ffect	50	- 75%		_	_	_	-	_	-	-	_	_	_	_	-	_	-	_	_	_	_	-
	75	-100%	==	_		Ξ	Ξ	Ξ	Ξ	_	_	Ξ	Ξ	Ξ	_	Ξ	Ξ	_	Ξ	Ξ	Ξ	<u> </u>
	^	254	<u></u>																			<del>                                     </del>
	0	- 25%	x x	<u>x</u>	_ <u>x</u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	x	<u>x</u>	<u> </u>	<u>x</u>	X	X	X	<u>×</u>	<u>x</u>	<u>×</u>	_ <u>x</u>	<u> </u>	<u>x</u>	<del></del>
gative	25	- 50%												-								<del></del>
fect	50	- 75%	==		_=		_	<u> </u>					_									<del></del>
	75	-100%	==				-			-		<u> </u>					-	<u> </u>	-	-	-	
		la			_	x	_	x	x	_	_	×	×	x	_	_	-	_	_	x		-
		1ъ		_		-	_	_	-	-	-	-	-	_	_	_	x	_	-	_	-	-
		2	хх	x	×	×	x	x	×	_	-	×	x	x	_	×	×	x	x	×	×	*
SIA		3	x x			×	×	x	x	x	-	x	x	x	x	x	-	-	-	x	х	*
tegories		4	- x			x	x	х	_		_	_	_	_	x	x	x	-	_	-	-	-
Ç		5	хх			×	x	x	×	x	x	×	x	×	_	x	x	x	×	x	x	*
		6	x x	×		×	×	x	<del>-</del>	_ <u></u>	_	×	x	×	×	×	×	-	x	x	x	*
		7 <b>a</b>	- x			×	-	×	×	×	x	x	-	×	x	×	<del>-</del>	_	-		_	**
		7b	==	Ξ	Ξ	Ξ	Ξ		=	=	Ξ	х	_	Ξ	Ξ	_	Ξ	Ξ	Ξ			-
																						*
ature of		Overt	- x	X	X	X	_ <u>x</u>	x	_	<u> x</u>	X		<u> x</u>	<u>x</u>	x	X	_ X		_ <u>x</u>	_ <u>x</u>	_ <u>x</u>	-

 $<sup>^{</sup>a}$ A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the episodes share this feature. A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the episodes share this feature.

TABLE C3.--Comparison of Intervention Episodes Perceived as Effective Lasting Over Five Minutes, based on Post-Session Questionnaire Data and Observer Ratings - Question 3.

				L	ntei	vei	ntio	on l	Epi	sode	28				C
Varial	100	8	9	11	12	12	15	16	21	23	2/1	20	30	43	Common-
Valla	0€ 5 Min.	_	<del>-</del>					<del>-</del> -		<del>-</del> -	-	-	<del></del>	<del></del> -	ality -
otal Time	5≤10 Min.				<del>_</del>	<del>_</del> _		<del>-</del>		<u> </u>					
ocal lime	>10 Min			<u> </u>	<u>x</u>	<u> </u>							_ <u>x</u>	<u> </u>	**
	>10 MIII.	` <del> </del>	<u> </u>				X	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>			
	0 - 25%	Ε	_							х	_		_		
A/Student	25 - 50%	<u> </u>	х	X			x	x	<u>x</u>		x	X			**
alk Ratio	50 - 75%	上	_			_					_	_	_	х	
	75 -100%	x			<u> </u>	x		_		_	_	_	<u> </u>		-
	0 - 25%	x	×	x	×		×	x	×	×	×		x		*
ffective	25 - 50%	É				x	_					x		x	_
omain	50 - 75%	E	_	_	_	-	_	_	_	_	_	-	-		-
	75 -100%	E	_	_	_	_	_	_		_	_	=	-	_	-
	0 - 25%	<u> </u>									_	_	_		
ognitive	25 - 50%		_		_	_	_	_	_		_	_	_		
omain	50 - 75%	_	_			×	_	-			_	×	_	×	_
7muzii	75 -100%	x	х	х	x	=	x	x	x	х	x	=	x		*
	0 - 25%	x	X	X	X	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	X	<u>X</u>	X	X	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	X	*
ositive	25 - 50%	_													ļ <del>.</del>
ffect	50 - 75%	=					_								<u> </u>
	75 - 100%	F						_	_						<del>  -</del>
	0 - 25%	x	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	x	×	×	×	*
egative	25 - 50%	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	-	-	_
ffect	50 - 75%	-	_	-	_	_	_	_		_	_	_	-	_	-
	75 - 100%	E	_		_	_		_	_	_	_	_	_		_
	•	-													
	la	-				_ <u>x</u>	_	<u>_</u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>		<u> </u>	<del></del>
	1b			<del>-</del>							=		_ <u>x</u>		*
P.T.A	2	X	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	_ <u>x</u>	X	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	X	<u> </u>	<u>X</u>	*
SIA	3	X	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	X	X	X	X	<u>x</u>		<u>x</u>	X		<u>x</u>	**
ategories	4	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	X	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	X				<u> </u>	<u> </u>		*
	5	X	<u> </u>	X	<u> </u>	X	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	X	X	<u> </u>	X	<u> </u>	_ <u>x</u>	*
	6	X	X	X	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	X	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u>x</u>	<u> </u>	X	<u> </u>	<u>x</u>	**
	7a 7b		<u>x</u>	<u>x</u>	<u>x</u>	<u>x</u>	<del>-</del>	<u> </u>	X X	<u>-</u>	<u>x</u>	<u> </u>	<del>-</del>	<del>-</del>	-
	,,,														
ature of	Overt	=	x	x	x	_x	х	х	x	х	x	ж	х	х	*
esolution	Implicit	x	-	_	_	_	_	-	-	_	_	_	_	-	-

 $<sup>^{</sup>a}$ A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the episodes share this feature. A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the episodes share this feature.

TABLE C4.--Comparison of Intervention Episodes Perceived as Effective based on Post-Session Questionnaire Data and Observer Ratings for the Critical Incident "Non-Participation" - Question 4.

				Inte	rvent	ion E	pisod	28	***************************************	:
Variable	28	9	11	13	20_	21	24	37	45	Commonality
	0≤ 5 Min.	_			x			ж	-	-
Total Time	5≤10 Min.		х	х		_	_			-
	>10 Min.	x				X	х		x	**
	0 - 25%	-	-	-				х		<u>-</u>
TA/Student	25 - 50%	X	хх			X	х		Х	**
Talk Ratio	50 - 75%	_			х					-
	75 -100%	-	<del>-</del> -	х					_	<del>-</del>
	0 - 25%	x	х		х	х	х	х		*
Affective	25 - 50%	=		<u> </u>					X	-
Domain	50 - 75%	-								-
	75 -100%	-								_
	0 - 25%							_		_
Cognitive	25 - 50%	_						_	_	-
Domain	50 - 75%	_		х					х	-
	75 -100%	x	<u> </u>		<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u>x</u>	<u> </u>		*
	0 - 25%	x	x	х	×	×	×	x	х	*
Positive	25 - 50%	-		-		-	_			-
Affect	50 - 75%		_		_					-
	75 -100%	<u> </u>	_==							-
	0 - 25%	x	×	х	×	x	×	×	×	*
Negative	25 - 50%	-	-	_	_	_	_	_	_	-
Affect	50 - 75%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	75 - 100%	-	-	-		-		-		_
	la	-	_	х		×	x		×	_
	1b	-	-	_	-	_	-	_	-	-
	2	х	x	×		x	x	ж	x	*
ISIA	3	x	x	x		х	x	_	х	*
Categories	4	x	х	х		-	_	_	x	-
_	5	x	x	х	х	ж	x	х	х	*
	6	x	x	х		х	ж	-	x	*
	7a	х	х	х	x	х	х	_	х	*
	7b	=				х			x	-
Nature of	0vert	x	х	ж	×	×	×	-	ж	*
Resolution	Implicit	_		_	-		_	x	-	_

 $<sup>^{</sup>a}$ A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the episodes share this feature. A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the episodes share this feature.

TABLE C5.--Comparison of Intervention Episodes Perceived as Effective based on Post-Session Questionnaire and Observer Ratings for the Critical Incident "Resistance/Hostility" - Question 5.

				Inter	ventio	n Epis	odes		
Variables			8	23	29	30	36	44	Commonality
	0=	5 Min.	_	_	-		x	x	-
Total Time	5€	10 Min.	-	_		x	_	-	_
	>	10 Min.	х	х	х	-			**
	0	- 25%	-	х					
TA/Student	25	- 50%	_	-	x		_		_
Talk Ratio	50	<del>-</del> 75%	_	_	_		х	х	-
	75	-100%	х	-	_	х	-	-	_
	0	- 25%	x	х		x	x	х	*
Affective	25	- 50%	-		х				<del>-</del>
Domain	50	- 75%	_	-					-
	75	-100%	=			-		=	
			-						
Cognitive	0	- 25%	_						_
Domain	25	<del>-</del> 50%							-
	50	- 75%			х				
	75	-100%	х	x		X	х	x	*
Po <b>siti</b> ve	0	- 25%	х	х	х	х	х	х	*
Affect	25	- 50%	-						-
	50	- 75%	-						
	75	-100%	-	<del></del>					
	0	- 25%	х	х	x	x	х	х	*
legative	25	<b>-</b> 50%	-		_		_	-	
Affect	50	<b>-</b> 75%	-	-	_			-	_
	75	-100%			_		-	-	_
		la	-	х		-	-	-	_
		1b	_			х		-	-
		2	х	х	х	х	x	х	*
SIA		3	х	х	ж			х	*
Categories		4			<u> </u>	x			
		5	x	x	<u> </u>	x	<u> </u>	x	*
		6	х	х	<u> </u>	<u> </u>		x	*
		7a			X				-
		7ъ		<del>-</del>					
lature of		Overt	_	х	х	х		х	*
Resolution	Ιm	plicit	x	-			x	-	-

 $<sup>^{4}</sup>$ A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the episodes share this feature. A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the episodes share this feature.

TABLE C6.--Comparison of Intervention Episodes Perceived as Effective based on Post-Session Questionnaire and Observer Ratings for Group Stage 1 - Question 6.

		T	In	terv	enti	on E	piso	des	1	
Variabl		8	9	15	16	17	18	27	37	Commonalitya
	$0 \le 5 \text{ Min.}$		-	-		Х	x	х	х	**
Total Time	5 ≤10 Min.	-	_	_	-	-		_		•
	>10 Min.	x	х	х	х					**
	0 - 25%	-								
TA/Student	25 - 50%	<del>-</del>				<del>-</del>			x	
Talk Ratio	50 - 75%		<u> </u>	<u>x</u>	<u>x</u>					
Talk Ratio	75 - 100%	<del></del>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>		<u>x</u>	<del>-</del>	<u>x</u>		
	75 - 100%	X					х		-	-
	0 - 25%	x	х	х	х	х	x	х	х	*
Affective	25 - 50%	-	_		_	_	_	_	-	-
Domain	50 - 75%	_	_	_	_	_		_	-	-
	75 - 100%		_				_		-	-
	0 - 25%	<u> </u>								<b></b>
Cognitive	25 - 50%		-	<del>-</del>	<del>-</del>		<del>-</del>			
Domain	50 - 75%			<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<del>-</del>	<del>-</del>	<del>-</del>		_
Domarii	75 - 100%	×		x	x	x	x	×	×	*
	73 - 100%									
	C - 25%	×	х	×	x	×	×	×	×	*
Positive	25 - 50%	_	_	_	-		_	-	-	-
Affect	50 - 75%	-	_	_	_	_	-	-	-	-
	75 - 100%	_							_	-
	0 05	-								*
	0 - 25%	X	X	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	X	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	
Negative	25 - 50%	<del>-</del>								-
Affect	50 - 75% 75 - 100%	-								-
	73 - 100%	-	<u> </u>							
	1a	-	_		ж	×	_			-
	1ъ	-	-	-	-	-	-	_	-	-
	2	x	х	х	х	х	-	-	х	*
ISIA	3	x	x	х	х	х	x	х	-	*
Categories	4	_	х	х	х			x		-
	5	x	х	x	х	х	х		х	*
	6	х	х	х	x		х	х	_	*
	7a	-	х	_	х	х	х	х	_	**
	7ъ		_		_					-
Nature of	O									**
Resolution	Overt	-	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u>x</u>		<u> </u>	<u> </u>		
VERGITATION	Implicit	X				<u> </u>			X	1

A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the episodes share this feature. A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the episodes share this feature.

TABLE C7.--Comparison of Intervention Episodes Perceived as Effective based on Post-Session Questionnaire Data and Observer Ratings for Group Stage 2 - Question 7.

				Inte			Episo			
Varial			11	12	20	21	38	43	44	Commonality <sup>a</sup>
		≤ 5 Min.	_		х		х		х	
Total Time	5	≤10 Min.	x	х	_			x	-	
		>10 Min.	-			х				•
	0	- 25%	<del>-</del>							
TA/Student	25	- 25% - 50%								
Talk Ratio	50	- 75%	<u>x</u>			<u> </u>		<del>-</del>		*
Idik Katio	75	- 100%	<u> </u>	<u>x</u>	<u> </u>		<u> </u>	<u> </u>		
	/ 5	100%	<del> -</del>							<del></del>
	0	- 25%	x	х	x	х	х		x	*
Affective	25	<b>-</b> 50%		-	-	_	_	x	1	-
Domain	50	<del>-</del> 75%	-		-	_	_	_	1	-
	75	- 100%	-	-	-				_	_
	0	- 25%	-							_
Cognitive	25	- 50%	-	<del>-</del> -		<u> </u>	<del></del> -		<del>-</del>	
Cognicive Domain	50	- 75%	-	<del>-</del> -		<del>-</del>				
DOMATH	75	- 100%	l ——					<u> </u>		*
	/ 5	- 100%	X	х	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	х		х	
	0	<b>-</b> 25%	x	х	х	х	х	х	х	*
Positive	25	<b>-</b> 50%	_	_				_	_	-
Affect	50	<b>–</b> 75%	_			_		-	_	**
	75	<b>- 100%</b>	_							-
	0	- 25%	x	x	x	×	x	x	х	*
Negative	25	- 50%	-							_
Affect	50	<b>-</b> 75%	_							
	75	- 100%	-	-	-	_		-	_	-
		_								
		la	<u> </u>			<u> </u>		<u> x</u>		-
		1b	<u> </u>							<u> </u>
		2	X	<u> </u>		X	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	x	*
ISIA		3	X	x		<u> </u>		x	x	*
Categories		4	X	X						-
		5	X	<u>x</u>	x	<u> x</u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u>x</u>	*
		6	X	<u> </u>		<u> </u>	X	<u>x</u>	<u>x</u>	*
		7a	X	X	X	<u> </u>	-			**
		7b	<u> </u>			x				
Nature of		Overt	×	×	×	×	x	×	×	*
Resolution	]	[mplicit	_	-	_	_	_	_		_

 $<sup>^{</sup>a}$ A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the episodes share this feature. A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the episodes share this feature.

TABLE C8.--Comparison of Intervention Episodes Perceived as Ineffective based on Post-Session Questionnaire Data only - Question 8.

		+	Tw	+ 0 **		+10	× 17.	piso	300		
Variable	es	1	2"	3	4	5	"6"	25	26	28	Commonalitya
	$0 \le 5 \text{ Min.}$		х	х	x	-			x		-
Total Time	5 ≤10 Min.			-	_	х	х	_	_		-
	>10 Min.	x	_	_	_	_		х		x	-
	0 - 25%		_					х			
TA/Student	25 - 50%	X			х		_				-
Talk Ratio	50 - 75%	-	x	х	_	x	x		х	х	*
	75 <b>-</b> 100%	_		_	_						_
	0 - 25%	X	x	<u>x</u>	x	_	_	<u>x</u>	X	x	*
Affective	25 - 50%	_	_			<u> </u>	x		_		_
Domain	50 - 75%	_	_		_	_	_				_
	75 <b>- 100</b> %	<u></u>			_						-
	0 - 25%	-									-
Cognitive	25 - 50%										-
Domain	50 - 75%	-				x	Х				<u>-</u>
	75 - 100%	X	X	x	X			X	<u>x</u>	Х	*
		-									
	0 - 25%	X	x	x	x	x	X	<u> </u>	X	X	*
Positive	25 - 50%							<del>-</del>			<del>-</del>
Affect	50 - 75%										<del>-</del>
	75 - 100%										-
	0 05%	-									
	0 - 25%	X	<u>x</u>	x	X	<u>x</u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	*
Negative	25 - 50%	<u> -</u>					_				-
Affect	50 - 75%	-	_	-		_	_				-
	75 - 100%	<u> </u>			_	-					-
	-	-									
	la	X	X								-
	1b	<u> </u>	_		_						<u> </u>
TOT 4	2	X		<u>x</u>		X	X	<u> </u>		Х	*
ISIA	3	X	X	X	X	X	<u> </u>	X	X	Х	
Categories	4	-		X	_		X	<u>x</u>		х	4
	5	X	X	X	<u> </u>	x	X	X	X	х	*
	6	X	X	X		X		X	<u>X</u> _	X	*
	7a	<u> </u>	_		Х		<u> </u>	X		x	-
	7ъ	-		_						_=	-
Noture - f	<b>^</b>	<del></del>									**
Nature of	Overt	X	<del>-</del>	<del>-</del>			X	х	<u> </u>	х	
Resolution	Implicit		x	X	<u> </u>	X					-

 $<sup>^{</sup>a}$ A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the episodes share this feature. A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the episodes share this feature.

TABLE C9.--Comparison of Intervention Episodes Perceived as Ineffective based on Post-Session Questionnaire Data and Observer Ratings - Question 9.

				In	terv	enti	on E	piso	des			
Variab1	.es	3	6	7	10	14	25	28	32	33	41	Commonality
	0 ≤ 5 Min.	х	-			х				_	х	-
Total Time	5≤ 10 Min.	-	x	-	X	-	-	-	_	x	_	_
	>10 Min.	=	-	х			x	х	х		-	-
	0 - 25%						х		_			-
TA/Student	25 - 50%	_		х	_	х	_		х	x		_
Talk Ratio	50 <b>-</b> 75%	х	X	_		_	_	x	_			-
	75 - 100%	-		-	x						х	-
	0 - 25%	х			x	ж	х	x			ж	**
Affective	25 <b>-</b> 50%	_	<u> </u>	X					x	x	_	-
Domain	50 - 75%	_		-	_	_		_	_	_	_	_
	75 - 100%	-										-
	0 - 25%	=										-
Cognitive	25 - 50%				_	_			_	_	_	-
Oomain	50 - 75%	_	х	х		_			x	X		-
	75 - 100%	x			х	X	<u> </u>	X			х	**
	0 - 25%	x	х	х	х	х	х	х	x	х	х	*
ositive	25 - 50%	_									_	! -
Affect	50 - 75%									_		_
	75 - 100%	-										_
	0 - 25%	x	х	_	х	х	x	х	х	х	х	*
legative	25 - 50%	_	_	<u> </u>	_	_		_	_		<u> x</u>	-
Affect	50 - 75%	_	_				_		_	_	_	-
	75 - 100%	-										-
	la	=	_	х	х	_		_		х		-
	1b	-	-								_	-
	2	X	<u>x</u>	x	x		Х	<u> </u>	х	<u> x</u>		*
SIA	3	х	<u> </u>	X	х	<u> </u>	X	<u>X</u>	X	X	х	*
ategories	4	x	x	X	х	x	x	X			_	*
	5	х	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	X	<u> </u>	<u>x</u> _	X	x	х	X	*
	6	х		x	х	х	х	х	x	х	х	*
	7a	_	x	x		X	X	x	_	х		**
	7b	-		-	х							-
lature of	0vert	_	х	х	х	_	х	х		х		**
Resolution	Implicit	x	-	_	_	x	_	_	X	-	x	_

 $<sup>^{</sup>a}$ A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the episodes share this feature. A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the episodes share this feature.

TABLE 10.--Comparison of Intervention Episodes Perceived as Ineffective based on Post-Session Questionnaire Data and Observer Ratings for the Critical Incident "Non-Participation" - Question 10.

	_			Int	erven		Episode	8	A
Variab				_3	5	6	10	32	Commonality
	0 :		Min.	X					
Total Time	5 :		Min.	-	X	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	-	**
		>10	Min.	-	-	-	-	×	<del></del>
	0	-	25%	_					_
TA/Student	25	-	50%		-	-		x	-
Talk Ratio	50	-	<b>7</b> 5%	X	x	х	_	-	**
	75	- 1	.00%		_	-	х	-	_
	0	_	25%				x	_	
Affective	25	_	50%	_	х	x	_	х	**
Domain	50	_	75%	_	_	_	-		-
	75	- 1	.00%						
	0	_	25%		<del></del> -				_
Cognitive	25	_	50%	_		-	-	_	<del>-</del>
Domain	50	_	75%	_	×	x	_	x	**
Dona III	75		.00%	х			x	-	-
	0	_	25%	<u> </u>					*
Positive	25	_	50%	<u> </u>	<u>x</u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	X	<del></del>
									<b>_</b>
Affect	50	- ,	75%						_
	75	- 1	.00%						
	0	-	25%	x	х	х	ж	х	*
Negative	25	-	50%	_		_			
Affect	50	-	75%		_		-	-	-
	75	- 1	.00%	_					-
			1a		-				-
			1Ъ		_	-	-	-	-
			2	x	x	х	x	x	*
ISIA			3	x	x	х	x	х	*
Categories			4	x	_	x	х	-	**
			5	х	х	ж	х	х	*
			6	x	x	_	х_	x	*
			7a	=		×		-	-
			7b	=			х		
		_							
Nature of			rert			х	х		
Resolution		Imp1	cit	x	X	_	-	x	**

A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the episodes share this feature. A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 5066% of the episodes share this feature.

TABLE Cll.--Comparison of Intervention Episodes Perceived as Ineffective based on Post-Session Questionnaire Data and Observer Ratings for Group Stage 1 - Question 11.

			İ	Inter	rventi	on Epi	sodes		_
Variab			3	6	7	25	32	33	Commonality
		≤ 5 Min.	x						_
Total Time	5	≤10 Min.	_	x	-	_		x	-
		>10 Min.	-		х	х	х		**
	0	_ 25%	_			х			**
TA/Student	25	- 50%	_		×		×	×	
Talk Ratio	50	- 75%	x	×		_		<del></del> -	_
	75	_100%	=		_				-
	0	_ 25%	×	_	_	×	_		_
Affective	25	- 50%	-						*
Domain	50	- 75%	_	<u> </u>	<u> </u>		<u>x</u>	<u> </u>	
JOINE TH	75	-100%	-						-
	,,	-100%							_
	0	<b>- 25%</b>	-	_	-			_	-
Cognitive	25	_ 50%	-	-	_		-	_	-
Oomain	50	<b>-</b> 75%	_	x	x	_	х	x	*
	75	_100%	х	_	-	х			-
	0	- 25%	x	x	x	x	x	x	*
Positive	25	- 50%	-	_	_	_	-	_	_
Affect	50	- 75%	-	_	_	_	-	_	-
	75	-100%	_					-	_
	0	- 25%	×			×	×	x	*
Negative	25	<b>-</b> 50%	-	<del></del> -	x		<del></del> -		<del> </del>
Affect	50	<b>-</b> 75%	-			_	_		-
22200	75	-100%	_		_	_			-
		1.							
		1a	-		X		<del></del>	X	
		1b	-						<del></del>
TOT A		2 3	X	<u> </u>	<u>x</u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	*
ISIA			X	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	Х	*
Categories		4	X	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>		<del>-</del>	*
		5 6	X	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u>X</u>	<u> </u>	<u>X</u>	*
			X		<u>X</u>	<u> </u>	X	<u> </u>	*
		7 <b>a</b> 7b	-	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u>x</u>		<u>x</u>	
		, ,							
Nature of		Overt	_	х	х	x		x	*
Resolution	I	mplicit	x	-	-	-	x	-	-

 $<sup>^{</sup>a}$ A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the episodes share this feature. A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the episodes share this feature.

TABLE C12.--Comparison of Intervention Episodes with Positive Immediate Consequences based on Observer Ratings - Question 12.

			!			Ir	itei	rvei	ntio	on ]	Epis	sode	es				Common-
Variables			3	8	9	12	16	20	21	22	23	24	26	29	37	44	alitya
		5 Min.	х	_	_			х	_	х			х	_	х	х	-
Total Time	_	0 Min.	_	_	_	X				_	_		_		_	-	_
	>1	0 Min.	=	х	<u> </u>	_	х		X		X	х		х			**
	_	- 25%	Ξ	_		_	_			_	х		_		х	_	
TA/Student		<del>-</del> 50%	<u></u>	_	X	_	х		х			x	_	X	_	_	
Talk Ratio		<b>-</b> 75%	X			х		X		X			<u> </u>		_		
	75	-100%	-	х	_				_	_			_	_=			
		- 25%	x	х	x	х	x	х	х	х	х	х	х		х	х	*
Affective		- 50%	1		_									X	_		*
Domain		<b>-</b> 75%	<u> </u>		_		_			_							
	75	-100%	-		_	_=	_		-		_=	_=		_			
		- 25%	Ξ	_	_	_	_	_		_	_	-				-	
Cognitive		<b>-</b> 50%	_						_		_				_		-
Domain		<b>-</b> 75%	<u> </u>	_				_					_	Х		_	
	75	-100%	X	X	X	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	х	X	x	х	x		X	X	*
		- 25%	x	х	х	х	x	х	х	х	х	х	х	х	x	х	*
Positive		- 50%	_	_	_									_			-
Affect		<b>-</b> 75%	1-	_													
	75	<b>-</b> 100%	-											_	_		
		- 25%	x	х	х	х	х	х	х	х	х	х	х	х	х	х	*
Negative		- 50%	<u>  - </u>														
Affect		- 75% -100%	=	_	=	=	=	=	<u> </u>	<del>-</del>	<del>-</del>	<del>-</del>		=	-		-
	,,	200%															
		la	_	_	_		X	_	х		X	<u> x</u>	_			_	_
		1b	<u> </u>		_				-								-
		2	X	X	X			_		_							
ISIA		3	X	X	X	X	<u> </u>		<u> </u>		<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>		<u>X</u> _	*
Categories		4 5	X		<u> </u>	<u> </u>	X			<del>-</del>			<del>-</del>	X			*
		6	X	X	X	X	X	<u> </u>	_ <u>x</u>	X	X	X	X	X	<u>x</u>	X	*
		7a	X	<u>x</u>	x	X X	x	x	x x	x	<u>x</u>	x	<u>x</u>	x	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	**
		7b	Ē				<u> </u>	<u></u>	x			<u></u>					-
Nature of		0vert	<u> </u>				~		~		<del></del>				_	~	*
Resolution		licit	×	×	<u>x</u>	<u>_x</u>	_ <u>x</u>	<u> </u>	<u>x</u>		_ <u>x</u>	<u>x</u>	<u> </u>	<u>x</u>		<u> </u>	

 $<sup>^{</sup>a}$ A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the episodes share this feature. A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the episodes share this feature.

TABLE C13.--Comparison of Intervention Episodes with Positive Immediate Consequences based on Observer Ratings for the Critical Incident "Non-Participation" - Question 13.

		I	nterv	entio	n Epi	isodes	3	9
Varia		9	20	21	22	24	37	Commonality
	0≤ 5 Min.	_	x		x		x	**
Cotal Time	5≤ 10 Min.	-	-		_	_	-	_
	>10 Min.	х		х		х	-	**
	0 - 25%						х	
[A/Student	25 - 50%	х	_	x	_	x	-	**
Talk Ratio	50 - 75%	-	x	-	x	_	-	
	75 - 100%	-	_					_
	0 - 25%	x	х	х	х	х	x	*
Affective	25 - 50%						-	-
Domain	50 <b>–</b> 75%	_			-			_
	75 - 100%	-			_			<del></del>
	0 - 25%			<del>-</del>				
Cognitive	25 - 50%						-	
Oomain	50 - 75%	<u></u>						
	75 - 100%	х	х	x	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	x	*
	0 - 25%	x	х	х	х	х	х	*
Positive	25 - 50%							
Affect	50 - 75%		_	_	_	_		
	75 - 100%	-						<del></del>
	0 - 25%	х	х	х	х	х	х	*
Negative	25 - 50%							
Affect	50 - 75%							-
	75 - 100%	<u> </u>						
	1a	=		х		x		
	1b		-				-	
	2	х		x		x	х	*
ISIA	3 4	x		х		х		**
Categories		х		_		_	-	
	5	x	х	X	х	х	х	*
	6	х		x	x	x	-	*
	7a	х	х	х	х	x	-	*
	7ъ	-		х	-		-	
Nature of	Overt	x	ж	х	-	х		*
Resolution	Implicit	_	_	-	x	_	x	

 $<sup>^{</sup>a}$ A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the episodes share this feature. A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the episodes share this feature.

TABKE C14.--Comparison of Intervention Episodes Perceived as Effective based on Post-Session Questionnaire Data and Observer Ratings which also lead to Long-Range Behavior/Atttitudinal Changes - Question 14.

Variab:	166	12	Inte	rven 20	tion 21	Epi 24	sode:	8 45	Commonalitya
Val Lab.	0≤ 5 Min.	<del>-</del>		x			×	-	-
Total Time	5≤ 10 Min.	x					<del></del>	-	
TOTAL TIME	> 10 Min.	_	x		×	×		x	**
	- 10 111111	-							
	0 - 25%	_							_
[A/Student	25 - 50%	_	×		×	×		x	**
Talk Ratio	50 - 75%	x		x			×	-	
	75 - 100%	_					_	-	_
	0 - 25%	х	x	x	×	х	х	-	*
Affective	25 - 50%	-		-	_	-	_	х	-
Domain	50 - 75%	-	_	_	_			-	
	75 - 100%	-	_	_	-	-	_	-	-
	0 - 25%	-	_		-	_	_	-	_
Cognitive	25 - 50%	-	-	_	_	_	-	-	_
Domain	50 - 75%	-	-	-	-	_	-	х	_
	75 - 100%	х	х	x	x	x	х	- 1	*
	0 - 25%	х	х	х	х	ж	х	х	*
Positive	25 - 50%	-	_	_		_	-	-	-
Affect	50 - 75%	-	_	_	_	_		-	_
	75 - 100%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	_
	0 - 25%	х	x	×	ж	x	x	х	*
Negative	25 - 50%	-		-	_	-			_
Affect	50 - 75%	-		-	_			-	-
	75 - 100%	_	-	-	_	_	-	-	-
	la	<u> </u>	х		х	_	_	х	_
	1b	_	_			_	_		
	2	x	<u> </u>		x	х	х	х	*
ISIA	3	X	X		X	X	х	X	*
Categories	4	X	<u> x</u>				_	X	_
	5	х	x	х	x	х	х	х	*
	6	х	х		х		х	x	*
	7a	х	х	x	x	x		x	_
	7ъ				х			×	
_									
Nature of	Overt	X	x	X	<u> </u>	x	<u>x</u>	×	*
Resolution	Implicit		<del>-</del>			_	-	- ]	-

 $<sup>^{</sup>a}$ A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the episodes share this feature. A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the episodes share this feature.

TABLE C15.--Comparison of Intervention Episodes Perceived as Effective based on Post-Session Questionnaire and Observer Ratings which did not result in Long-Range Behavioral/Attitudinal Changes - Question 15.

			Int	emen	tion	Episode	26	
Varia	h1es		8	9	36	37	42	Commonality <sup>a</sup>
74114		= 5 Min.		<u> </u>				
Total Time	5				x	x		-
TOTAL TIME	_	>10 Min.	x	×			x	**
		· 10 mm.	-					
	0	- 25%	_			×	x	-
TA/Student	25	- 50%	-	x				_
Talk Ratio	50		_	<del></del>				_
Idik Ratio	75				<u> </u>			
	75	- 100%	X					
	0	- 25%	x	x	×	×	x	*
Affective	25	- 50%	-			<del></del> _		_
	50		<u> </u>				<del></del>	
Domain			<del></del>					
	75	- 100%				-		
	^	0.5%						<del> </del>
	0	- 25%						_
Cognitive	25							
Domain	50	<b>-</b> 75%						
	75	- 100%	X	<u> </u>	X	Х	X	*
	0		X	<u>x</u>	X	X	X	*
Positive	25	- 50%						
Affect	50	<del>-</del> 75%						-
	75	- 100%	<u> </u>					
	0	- 25%	x	x	x	x	х	*
Negative	25	- 50%	-	-	_	_	- [	-
Affect	50	<del>-</del> 75%	_	_	-	_	-	-
	75	- 100%	_	_	-	-	-	-
		la	_			-	-	_
		1b	_	-	_	_		-
		2	×	ж	×	х	х	*
ISIA		3	x	x			х	*
Categories		4		x			x	
000000000000000000000000000000000000000		5	x	<u> </u>	×	×	x	*
		6	X	<u> </u>				
		7 <b>a</b>		$\frac{x}{x}$			x	-
		7 <b>a</b> 7b	<del></del>					
		70	<del></del>				<del></del>	
Nature of		O==+	<del></del>					
		Overt		<u> </u>				
Resolution		Implicit	х		<u>x</u>	<u>x</u>	X	

 $<sup>^{</sup>a}$ A single asterisk (\*) means that 67% or more of the episodes share this feature. A double asterisk (\*\*) means that 50-66% of the episodes share this feature.

Intervention Episode Number 16

A)	A) Ken	B) Session 3	c) 52 minutes	D) Critical Incident 8 - Inability to Facilitate Self-Closure	
( <u>E</u>	Jern and Ken Ken	E) Jerry has been argueing over all the worand argues with Ken. As he keeps on doi Ken finally says that he will pursue thi Ken then turns to the class.	ls and con ng this th s discussi	Jerry has been argueing over all the words and concepts being discussed. He especially questions and argues with Ken. As he keeps on doing this the class shows nonverbal signs of impatience. Ken finally says that he will pursue this discussion with him at another time, but not now.	
	200 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	Kitty: It just seems like we spent an hour deciding two definitions, deciding two definitions, deciding two words. It just seems like the same At least I feel, and if we have to stop and say, wait, I don't agree, on every single word we're using to define it, its going to take so long, and its going to be so boring. (neg)/ Annie: (inaudible)  Dora: I feel like we're going around in circles. I feel like as a result of all the talking about words and I really don't feel like I needed it. I just feel like its going around in circles and I'm right back where I started from./  Daisy: I felt like I understood all the terms before this started/ and then you	un ling seme to C5 on line tis tis I line the to C6 you C6 you C6	What happened as a result of the discourse between Jerry and I? (neut)/ C3	

C2	CS	<b>†</b> 2
away from what I asked you to look at.  I'm still trying to look at how you felt about the interaction that went on. I heard Daisy say that she got more confused and people were defining I heard Meg say she felt sad, that she had some understanding at the beginning and lost it, okay./	Understood what specifically?/	what people are saying/
	90	C788 C5
	t I understible)./ don't think d as morall s great and of teachers hat straigh is, and th	that's something else. / And I think what we got on was something else. I think what you and Jerry were talking about was not this morality or that morality, but a word game. /  Dora: Seems like we kind of got off the subject. /  Jerry: Can I respond to this? /  My interpretation of what the people are saying is that well I just want to know what the book says so I can get through

the course and get out of here and I don't care if its right or wrong in the larger context. This will pass me, and I'm happy with that so don't hassle me and don't try to teach me anything more than what I need to know to get through/ and for me, I guess that really bothers me and that's the reason why I brought it up./  (The class all tries to answer at once)  Caron: I don't think anyone was saying that at all. I know I wasn't./ All these topics and things we're talking about, sure we can see them in the book but everyone Is going to make a personal meaning out of it. Like everyone and everyone is going to make a personal meaning out of it. Like everyone as bothered by certain words, well everyone is bothered by certain words, well everyone to his can ento this class with their own ideas about all these different words and what they're hoping that this class is going to do is open our minds to what these words can mean and do mean and to think about them, to incorporate into what we're learning about in this class and hopefully leave with a different understanding and a more open mind as to what we're learning about in this class and hopefully leave with a different understanding and a more open mind as to what we're ing and a more open mind as to what the test in I don't see as the big thing that the test in the t			A6	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	 90		C2									 8	
22 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	course and get out of here and I	happy with that so don't hassle me don't try to teach me anything more what I need to know to get through/	i for me, I guess that really bothers and that's the reason why I brought	it up./ (The class all tries to answer at once) Caron: I don't think anyone was saying	at all. I know I wasn't./ All these s and things we're talking about,	sure we can see them in the book but everything we're talking about holds a very bersonal meaning to everyone and	going to make a personal	meaning out of it. Like everyone is bothered by certain words, well everyone to bothered by all binds of words. That	what word connotation means. But	came into this class with their own ideas about all these different words and what	they're hoping that this class is going to do is open our minds to what these	can mean and do mean and to thi them, to incorporate into what	originally thought about what we're	fully leave with a different understand-		I already passed the first I don't see as the big thing that	I'm going to learn it for the test. I
	92,4	2828	100	102	104	106	109	311	113	115	117	120	121	123	125	126	128

	anyone say that? (neut)/
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C7a	c6 c7 c6
really can't work with it because if all of us are going to have so many different ones, we'd argue it for six hours have the text to work by or else we'll never get anywhere besides circles./  Jerry: I guess its interesting that with morality or ethics or values or whatever we're talking about, whatever word you want to use here, even in discussing it all of us have used value statements and its, its rather interesting or hard for me to sit back, cause people say we're discussing objectively without value statements about a concept that has to do with values and we're not doing that. And it seems to me that people don't recognize that and./	Students: No (in unison)/ Jerry: People don't say that specifical- ly because they don't recognize that./ Annie: I think that's your own fantasy as to how you're perceiving what the other people are saying and you can't really say that's the truth cause its your own belief cause you're not inside anybody else's head looking out. (defensively)/ Jerry: I said that, right, its my belief. I look at it partially, my belief is that we come from a cultural context and my belief also is that most of us have not gone out of our cultural context to look to see whether this definition given to us in the text
161 162 163 164 164 167 171 172 173 174 175	178 179 181 181 188 188 188 198 198 198 198

			CS
			Wait a minute. I'm feeling that it might be a little uncomfortable right now for some folks and the easiest thing to do would be to take a break rather than
52 93	C5	CF C2	CIB
But you haven't (interrupts) War at the text enoughing about hones'. I haven't read what I meant whe text. But we cultural contextion given in the safinition reads at I'm saying is really defined as	another culture. It certainly doesn't in Spanish-American culture or maybe inner city culture or another country, but it does. Its an attempt to put some order and some generalizations that I don't think we're made up just for effect		Pam: Good suggestion./ Students: Yeah, good./
196 199 199 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200	209 210 212 213 214	215 216 217 229 220 220 222 223	225 227 228 229 230

	A2	d Ch	A2 A2		
reach some closure as to where we're go- ing, and uh, that's my feeling. (neut)/	Kitty, can you help us identify why that frustration is there for you?/	Yeah./ Fveryhody is getting all untight./	Are you uptight./		
C5 C5 A6 A6	A3		A6	A6	A6
Daisy: strike Annie: Daisy: upset. Pam: I Kitty: Annie:	Shou	Because, okay, everybody is getting all uptight and,/	I get the vibs. (class laughs) Yeah, and its all because of.		and we're going around in circles and its really frustrating for me./ Students: Yeah./
231 232 233 234 235 235 237 236 237 236	543 543 543	245 246 247 247	249 250 251 251	253 253 254 255 256 259 260 260	263 264 265
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C5	C5	32	C2	
Okay, something that's going on for me is that I see us dealing with an issue of how we're going to operate as a group in totality and that's what I thought was the issue./	As a group, are we going to sit down and get into personal values as to what the words mean, splitting hair as Annie said? Are we going to address some major issues, some major concepts and come to a commonality of understanding on what those mean and move from there? How are we going to approach it, that's a group thing for me./	Okay, for me I see us having to deal with those concepts and collectively coming to an understanding as to what those concepts are about, okay. I do think we have a choice in terms of saying I'm feeling that the way the group is operating is prohibiting that and taking a	<u>ម</u>	
CB			32	70
<pre>Kitty: How we're going to operate as a group?/</pre>		Okay, we got a choice in this, our class is all outlined. (expressing lack of understanding)/	Right, it just seems like we're going around in circles, I had the feeling./	Daisy: I think if we stopped, just defined, just started at the top of the list going through and had somebody read what the two people decided and if somebody disagrees with something,
266 267 268 269 270 271	273 274 275 277 277 278 279 280 280	282 283 284 284 288 288 288	292 293 294 295 295 295 295 295 295 295 295 295 295	296 298 299 300

C5	35	C3 C6 C5	A6 C5	C5 C5	
yeah we can discuss it./ But we're starting in blind. We just started in talking about morality or manipulation, okay, then we went to morality and we were really argueing over terms that all of us have essentially different feelings about and it seems kind of ridiculous unless we come to an understanding, all	Annie: You're never going to get every-body to agree./ Daisy: That's true, I know. But at least we'll have some understanding of what everybody else thinks. This way is so	erence g is yc e them was re	gather in what everybody thought. I was totally confused. If we go through and we sit down, okay, let's say we take behavioral statements.	Jerry: Ah huh./  Daisy: Everybody sits down and say, okay, I think behavioral statements is this and then say you think you should add something or I add something, or it	ted or we until we generally things, exactly h
301 302 303 305 305 306 307	310 311 312 313 314	315 316 317 318 319 320 321	322 323 324 325	326 327 328 329 330	331 332 333 334 335

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					Why don't wan about that ant with the	other folks?/		
C5 A6	90	C3	90	C3	C3	c3	c2	C2
Pem: Right, I don't think anybody knows what your point was about morality. I know I don't know and when we get in a, what I saw as a battle back and forth and I personally got very mad. Like I was sitting here getting mad cause we're wasting time and I think that, well	wasting time, that's a hard one to say, but in my opinion for me time was waste- ed and I understand what morality is according to the book and I understand that there are many more implications to	<pre>it/ but what was your point abour moral- ity? I know you haven't read the book definition or,/</pre>	Jerry: (interrupts) I have read the book definition of morality, I just haven't read the whole section./	but whar what are Ken) Sh	right now? I mean we were talking about something else until?/ Pam: Yeah, well, Ken? (frustrated)/	Annie: How long will it take? (class laughs)/	Betty: we have a ten week course, we have a lot of material to cover. If we did it the way it was going we wouldn't get through half the material.	You have to take everything within the context they have set up?/ Jerry: Who is they?/
336 337 339 340 341 342	######################################	348 349 350	351   352   353	354 355 356	357 358 359 359	361	264 265 366 367	368 369 370

Jerry: In other words, the book will be		C7a	A7a	C7a
Jerry: In other words, the book will be our authority in this class and we will sit there under the book, under the tutorage of the book and we will take it in and go passively out of this classroom and we'll be happy teachers. We will pass the course requirements, we will have been / Annie: No. (angry, frustrated)/ Annie: No. (angry, frustrated)/  Jerry: You mean how I responded to them or they?/ Daisy: The response you made while Annie was talking made me feel attacked,/ Jerry: I guess I was sort of attacking all of you. (quieter)/ Annie: Can I say one thing more. At the beginning when we talked about ourselves,		Something I'd like to share with you is that people are sharing some honest feelings with you and you're making a mochery out of where they are. And what's coming across to me is kind of sarcastically adding whatever your comment is and interpretation for what someone is saying. I'm feeling Annie was trying to clarify something in terms of the group process. I felt that rather than respond	to her individually, that you added some biases of your own in terms of expectations in your response. That has a tendency when somebody does that to me to distance me or to turn me off. Now I'm feeling as a result of the way some folks responded to you that might be happening for some other people. (neg)/	How you responded to them./
Jerry: In other word our authority in this sit there under the tutorage of the book in and go passively and we'll be happy the pass the course required by the pass the pass that the pass is all the pass in the pass in the passinning when we take take take take take take take tak	90 90	90	***************************************	A7a C6
100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	authority in this class and we will be authority in this class and we will there under the book, under the brage of the book and we will take it and go passively out of this classroom we'll be happy teachers. We will a the course requirements, we will be been /	agree./		I responded to them you made while Annie feel attacked./ s sort of attacking r)/ e thing more. At the alked about ourselves,
	406 407 408 409 410 411 411 411	415 415 416 417 419 420 421 422 423	425 426 426 429 430 431	433 433 433 433 433 433 433

11. like way back on Wednesday, didn't you had say that you tend to put other people dwar, you tend to put other people dwar, you tend to stand above them and had down, you tend to stand above them and down, you tend to stand above them and down. You're right.   Cfa   Amile: Well. I think that were doing.   Cfa   Less what you were doing.   Less what you were doing.   Less what you were right. I'm not going hyll the moment and saying, that's what you're absolutely hyll that wednesday. I could make that the them and your saking, hyll that wednesday. I could make that the and you asking, hyll that wednesday. I could make that the and you asking, hyll that wednesday. I could make that the and you asking, hyll that wednesday. I could make that the and you asking, hyll that that the and you wait I said   Consequences of that are, that really, its hyll that are you feeling right now now that you know the consequences of that are, that really, its hyll that are you feeling right now now that you know the consequences of istancing?    What are you sware of that on what I said    What are you sware of that on what I said    What are you feeling right now now that you know the consequences of istancing?    What are you feeling right now now that you know the consequences of istancing?    What are you feeling right now now that you know the consequences of istancing?    What are you feeling right now now that you know the consequences of distancing?    What are you geeling right now under those kind of consequences of distancing?    What are you geeling right now under those wind of consequences of distancing?    What are you feeling right now now that you know the consequences of distancing?    What are you deel about those wind of consequences of distancing?    What are you deel about those wind of consequences of distancing?    What are you deel about you are reacting to it personally. (neg)    What are you deel about you didn't that you don't want you were reacting to it personally. (neg)    What are		25	A2	A7a
like way back on Wednesday, didn't you say that you tend to put other people down, you tend to stand above them and look down?  Jerry: Yeah./ Annie: Well, I think that was more or less what you were doing./ Jerry: Yeah, I think you're right./  Jerry: Yeah, I think you're right.  Jerry: Yeah, I think you're right.  Jerry: I appreciate your stopping me at that moment and saying, that's what you've just done. You're right. I'm not going to argue with you. You're absolutely right. (to Ken)/  Well to me that was something I pointed out that Wednesday. I could make that statement at that time and your asking, is that true, and I said, well yes. I can kind of say that flippently right now but yet when I stop and think about the consequences of that are, that really, its kind of, I don't know what I said	(inaudible)	Were you aware of that consequence?/	for for out	I shared some feedback with you and you didn't tell me how you were reacting to it personally. (neg)/ You never told me that you didn't like that feeling, that you don't want to
like way back on Wednesday, didn't y say that you tend to put other peopl down, you tend to stand above them a look down?/  Jerry: Yeah./ Annie: Well, I think that was more less what you were doing./ Jerry: Yeah, I think you're right./ Jerry: I appreciate your stopping m that moment and saying, that's what ve just done. You're right. I'm not to argue with you. You're absolutely right. (to Ken)/ Well to me that was something I poin out that Wednesday. I could make the statement at that time and your aski is that true, and I said, well yes. kind of say that flippantly right no yet when I stop and think about the sequences of that are, that really, kind of, I don't know what I said.  I think its terrible./ I said I appreciated your stopping m	C3 C6 C6	Ала	,	A6
The same of the sa		Jerry: I appreciate your stopping me that moment and saying, that's what ve just done. You're right. I'm not to argue with you. You're absolutely right. (to Ken)/ Well to me that was something I poin out that Wednesday. I could make the statement at that time and your aski is that true, and I said, well yes. kind of say that flippantly right no yet when I stop and think about the sequences of that are, that really, kind of, I don't know what I said.	•	I think its terrible. I said I appreciated

A7a	CS	
distance Annie or Daisy or myself. (neg)/	You said that you felt that Jerry might somehow be doing /	
	A3 C5 C6	
	does it have nothing to do with that?/ Jerry: I don't know. I just feel that way. Now as I said, I'm proud. I guess which means as I said on Wednesday and which I can say now, I feel superior./ Annie: But proud does not necessarily mean you have to feel superior so it should be something else. In my opinion, I could be totally wrong cause I don't know you more than what I see in this classroom./ I mean I'm proud of myself too cause I feel that as an individual I've done a lot of things and seen a lot that a lot of other people haven't seen. I've been a lot of places. I've done a lot of traveling that other people might never have the opportunity for but I don't use that as a basis to raise my- self up over other people./	about the great book that commercial for (class laughs) I saw under this book that
176 177 178 178 178 178 178 178 178 178 178		504 508 509 510

like a church or something. And I said, is that what I'm saying, cause that's not what I meant to say. But that's how I was coming across to you and,/ Jerry: Yeah, that's good imagry. That's if right. That's the way it was coming across to me, that's the way it was com- ing across./ Annie: But I don't know if that is the way I have been coming across to every- bery: Yeah, I don't believe that was the way you were coming across to everybody else. I believe just from the way that beople have been interacting here, that the way you've spoken, and the way each people have been interacting here, that the way you've spoken, and the way each people have been interacting here, that for he way you've spoken, and the way each berson has spoken,/ I'm saying that's don't believe that's the way it came across to everybody else./ Annie: Why should it come across differently to you?/ Bess: You just took her feelings into consideration and I saw that as some- thing different from some of the other abrasive comments you've made. Just she expressed some concern about how she was coming across to others. It's maybe honestly feel, reassured her and that was different from what your behavior has hen. I noticed, I see a different tone bear.
25

G5	C2	C7a A6	<b>G</b> G3
I'm wondering what would be helpful? What I've heard you say is that you're interested in the same in the interested in learning. I just heard you say that you weren't aware of the consequences of your behavior when it was going on. You weren't aware that perhaps you were distancing Daisy or myself or Annie by the way you were responding./	I'm feeling that, if I'm feeling that I'm being distanced or I'm growing away from you as a result of the way you're presenting yourself, I'm feeling that to be most constructive it would help me to stop you and say, now wait a minute, I'm getting the feeling you're talking down to me and something going on./	You're very vocal and you seem to be very vehement about the way you express yourself and about some of your ideas. I feel pretty comfortable confronting that type of behavior, okay. Now I'm not so	
`	8	A6	90
1. I think	THE B LIBRO.	Great, yeah, that's the reason I appre- clated your stopping me so much./	Okay。/

C5 A3		32	C5	3	C2				
helpful to him to say, this is happening for me./ I want to check it out with some people. I feel very comfortable doing that. I'm feeling some of you might not be as comfortable, at least at this point, saying Jerry, that's really starting to put me off./		I'm feeling there's a way you can say that and still let Jerry know what's happening./	It's not my intention to criticize you or put you off but this is what's hap-	we're discussing it./ Would that be helpful? (to Jerry)/	Sure./				
	A6	ני	<u>}</u>		C3				
Annie: I don't feel comfortable doing it	because I'm afraid he personally attacking him. I don't want to because that's not my	Уевћ./			Jerry: Yeah, can I broaden that a bit?/	I think that one way of stopping anybody, but you were talking specifically about me, is helpful is when, okay. If I were to distance	you and erceiving ther than	Annie, you're distancing me, that all of a sudden, I distanced you but for you to say, no in this case for me to say, I'm	both deal with it cause all of a sudden
581 582 583 584 585 586 588	589 590 591 592	595 595 595	598	609	602	409 605 606	608 609 610	612 612 613	615

Jerry's just expressed something to you, what's your reaction? Did that make you feel any differently? How does it feel any different now than it did ten, fiften minutes ago? If so, what's different?/
C5
I'm sharing my problem and we also discover, kind of jointly, that its also your problem because perhaps you said certain things, so for you to say, in this case, where I'm distancing you, the things I'm saying are really having a strong effect in you, for you to say, Jerry, I'm really feeling ticked off or angry or distanced. First of all it stops me and I go, oh wow, well why. By saying that you're saying I don't like this, I would prefer to be close to you. Then I think, well by, do I want to distance us, so we can work it out. So it isn't attacking me so I wouldn't feel at all put off by that./  Annie: On a lower key of energy. It seemed kind of hyper before and it seems a little smoother and flowing./ Friday, is owning and fantasy. Owning what you think is your own and./ I think what was happening with Jerry and the rest of the group, and even outside of this classroom, that that is definitely the most constructive way of dealing with any kind of situation, is the two definitions on the board, owning and blaming.
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Daisy, you were going to say something. Are you feeling any different?/	Do you feel Jerry would be more receptive to stopping and saying, hey, I feel you're talking down to me?/		I'd like to too. / I also like to realize that we went through a high point in energy and I felt we were shifting focus on each other I feel like that adds to frustration. I feel that, I felt a need to stop it and take a look at it and to identify what was going on. If that helped reach a sort of calmness for you, of settling some things, I think that's the of it. What I wanted to do right now in asking you to respond to Jerry, I think he made a personal investment because he's pretty involved in saying, yeah, I want you to
c6 A6 C6	90	52	90 A6
I think that's very important./  Daisy: Right now I really don't know./I'm A6 just sitting here listening and thinking. It's going to take me a while to decide c6 how I feel./	Yeah, if I explained it real well	When you stopped Jerry and you explained, you could explain why you'd stopped and why everybody's feeling that way. But I'm not sure that maybe Jerry didn't understand.	Yeah./I would feel comfortable at this point taking a break./
651 652 653 654 655 656	659 660 661 662	4999 4999 1999 1999 1999 1999 1999 1999	670 671 671 671 677 677 677 677 680 681 683 683

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multiple choice or an essay, you would like to obviously take the essay.	t cases I'd take the essay.	Jane, what do you want to say	you keep	Jane: I just feel the need to tell him	rery hostile./	hen, just now?/	Jane: No, before, initially I felt very hostile. Its not hostility toward you	ິເ. ຸ	nad nostility toward you personally. It wasn't that at all, its just. I felt that	lly getting c	loing anybody	hat I wasn't int	n, I was	nion, and once you've stated your opinion	trying to change my personal opinion and	I'm not going to try and change yours	sause we've each our own. I'm int	I'm interest	what anybody has to say in this class whether its von or whether its Kittv or	Ken. I don't think anybody was trying	attack you personally and I thi	is how you took it, as that we didn't	care what you said,	was wrong. I don't think that's what any-	meant. I don't know that's just what	
791	797	795	36	798	800	801	803 803	804	8067 8067	807	808	809	810	811	813	814	815	816	818	819	820	821	822	823	825	

eel In She
(interrupts) Can I say something. I feel like Jane has been holding something in for a long time. She just told you she's been sitting on that for a long time. Shy just expressed a personal concern and I feel like you took the focus back to you and left her hanging. (neg)/
CS C
I've been feeling all this time, / I think everybody said time and time again. I don't know if you weren't listening or whether you wanted to. I don't know what your purpose was but we did say, everybody said, it wasn't that we didn't want to listen to your opinion. It was that we were off the track. We wanted to accomplish something today. It wasn't to attack you personally. It's just we felt we weren't moving in the direction we thought we should be moving. I hope that helps you in some way. Its nothing personal I don't think./  Jerry: I've really got to ask this question. I think that is interesting that a lot of people have used the related terms getting off the track, getting off the subject, not accomplishing what we wanted to accomplishing  Jane: Can I say just one more thing to you?/  Jerry: Sure./

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didn't tell me what you felt about what I said, and I really have no idea, I don't really understand what you think about anything anybody has said. I mean what do you personally feel? How do you take it? That's what I mean.	Okay, thanks for stopping mess thank you, Okay, I (to gro		people and everybody here is kind focusing the comments on me./	Jane: But we're not putting you down, we're trying to help./ Jerry: I know. I know and I don't take it		thing so I appreciated what like I appreciated what the cause what they said was tru	me to see more about myself and how they're reacting. Hopefully I'll put it to-gether up here and I'll start interacting in a better manner.		this information? Are we just blowing steam or does it mean anything, that!	Jerry: What, Jane: No, eve I mean we've
896 898 898 899 899	902	905 906 906	908	920	913 914 915	916 917 918	929 920 921	923	925	929

C7a	3	†2				C3			c2
plaining rather than getting to the exact point and I feel that's what Pam was sharing with you earlier so that's why I have a need for you to identify the words first./	Could you? (to Barry)/	Yeah, go ahead. (gently)/				Did that help Daisy?/			I almost get the feeling that you're surprised by that./
A22 A22 A60 C50 C60 C60 C60 C70 C70 C70 C70 C70 C70 C70 C70 C70 C7		C3	A3 A6	A2 A6	A2 :	3	95	A2 A6	
Annie: How do you feel?/  Jerry: How do I feel? (to self)/  Daisy: Do you feel distanced from us?/  Jerry: No, absolutely not. I feel, wow  feel that those are feeling words./  Barry: Could you answer those questions if someone asked you one at a time?/		Could I? (surprised)/	Okay, do you feel defensive right now?/ Jerry: No./ Barry: Do you feel closer since you	<pre>don't feel defensive?/ Jerry: Yeah./ Would you like something</pre>	nan What Okay	closer.(to self)/ Daisy: Yeah./	Jerry: I guess just probably the biggest thing is that I realize that you do care about me./	Daisy: How does that make you feel?/ Jerry: That makes me feel good, closer, not so much outside./	
966 967 968 969 970 972 973 974 975 976	979	980 981	982 983 984 987	985 986	988	990 991 992	993 994 995	% 897 898	1000

C2	C7a	C7a	
I amost get the feeling that you're surprised that somebody might care enough to show some concern./    C6   family, competiveness, how it affected him. past, feelings of self-esteem. Annie asks	(interrupts) Can I make an observation.  I feel that you can ask questions, you can cue those questions so much by adding some philosophies and some theories that you have and there's going to be an information overload possibly that might be more confusing than helpful. / I'm feeling that more confusing than helpful.	that you're the major focus (Jerry) and the way I can help you understand what's going on, what's happening for me might be helpful. But I want you to facilitate how and where, how deep and how far you want to go./ I felt you (Annie) were and I wanted to share that with you./	
			90 20
By what?  It does, I don't know			Annie: Well, when I asked him and he said he didn't know I was trying to just give any kind of example from any psychology book I've ever read (class laughs) that would relate to some kind of a problem, ya know./ If he recognized that he had this problem he apparently had not done anything about it even though he had thought about it so the problem must go back a fair ways/ and I was seeing if I could help him get a hold on it not knowing anything about him or about his
1001 1002 1004 1005 1005 1006 1006	1009 1010 1011 1012 1014 1015 1015	1017 1018 1019 1020 1020 1022 1023	1024 1025 1026 1027 1029 1030 1031 1031 1033 1034

C2 C4	90
Sure./ Go ahead.(to Meg)/	Something that was meaningful for me Jerry was you talking about how you viewed yourself and self-worth and what you had to be proud of and that sort of thing./ Something that Jane said I really tuned into and that was that we have a task to accomplish individually, we've got a task to accomplish collectively as a group, and facilitate satisfying individual needs and collectively coming to some understanding and some positive places as a group totally, the more helpful it would be for her. I saw her saying that she valued your input if it was at the expense of herself or anyone else in the group. I heard her valueing very much your personal input but not at the expense of someone else. Some of the negative feedback you got from folks initially when I first stopped was that your need to deal on a philosophical level, and Josh add-
ng od od Its	I thought that was really heat, I think with me it helped me understand a little bit more about you./  Annie: For sure./  Annie: It really helped.  Cla Cla
past do./ do./ you hard life espe	1044 1 thou 1044 1 thou 1045 with m 1046 bit mc 1049   Meg: 1050   1050   1050   1050   1050   1060

ressed this, was not appropriate for folks in this time, in this place. Not that they C5 didn't value doing that but at this time that wasn't someplace they wanted to be./																			
		90		Ala			90					7	35	,	<u>စ</u>	90	7	<del>7</del> 9	}
Jerry: Okay, I can understand that so I	will modify my behavior accord okay. I'll try to, as far as c	me, when somebody asks a question of me I won't go off into another question but I will		questions, I s me that list, I	but, a list of ques my feelings. / If I	nalized and really a	because of this discussi	won't get into philosophy we'll just,	I still would like to know what are		will make a definite accempt to mounty as far as the philosophy.				<pre>ilrst time around./ Joshua: I would like it if you stated</pre>		responding about the	Annie. Tagree.	
1071 1072 1073 1074 1075	1076	1078	1081	1083 1084	1085	1087	1089	1090	1092	1093	1095	1096	1098	1099	1100	1102	1103	1104	

C3	Ala	C5
Daisy, you expressed a while ago some non-closure and not knowing where things are. Where we have gone, have you resolved that?/	I've got to share a feeling that's going on with me. For a third class period I'm really feeling good and excited about what went on here, the way you worked through this. I've seen some people self-disclose. Outside of some real serious focus shifts at the beginning, I think the focus has maintained for the last three-quarters of our conversation. I don't feel like people have cut each other off. I feel like people are getting into exploratory questioning. I feel like you paraphrased. I feel like you've been responding to affect. I just feel a really positive atmosphere in here in terms of working through things./ Something	of we might not have resolved where we began, but at least there is more understanding. And the only way to facilitate that understanding is having the patience and the skill to methodically work that through and sometimes that's a lengthy process but that's the only way I'm aware of where we can constructively come to an understanding./ I'm feeling really good. It's exciting to have this much constructor.
Daisy: From the point I was at then to the point I'm at now, we've gone a long way toward, maybe not resolved, but more understanding.		
1106 1107 1108 1109 1110 1111	1115 1115 11116 11118 11120 11121 11126 11126 1127	1 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2

	32
tiveness for a third period./	did and if it ever arises again, to more skillfully deal with it before it ever reaches that point is what we're all about. And to learn concepts to be able to label what went on, what exactly happened, what people did that was skillful and not skillful, that's what the class is about./
A6 C6 C6	3
Pem: I think I feel a lot more positive to Jerry too./ Meg: I think I understand more about Jerry and myself	Daisy: I think we're ready for a break. / C5
1142 1142 1143 1145 1145 1146	1149 1150 1151 1154 1155 1156



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