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EXPECTATIONS ABOUT LEARNING EXPERIENCES IN NONFORMAL EDUCATION: GIRL SCOUT LEADERS IN HAWAII

By

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ABSTRACT

EXPECTATIONS ABOUT LEARNING
EXPERIENCES IN NONFORMAL EDUCATION:
GIRL SCOUT LEADERS IN HAWAII

By

Kathleen Karah Wilson

The literature suggests that a leader has culturally and psychologically based expectations of what makes a valid learning experience for others. Pedagogical expectations are psychologically and culturally influenced perceptions of valid teacher-learner behaviors, subjects, activities and environments.

The purpose of this research was to probe what a specific set of leaders believed were important learning experiences for others and why. Specifically, the study examined four areas: (1) what levels of formality of a learning experience were perceived valid, (2) what kinds of learning experiences were perceived valid, (3) what logical and/or experiential bases leaders used to judge valid levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences, (4) what relationships existed between leaders' judgments about levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences, and the leaders' degree of self-acceptance and amount of schooling.

During March, 1978 fifty-one Girl Scout leaders on Oahu, Hawaii were interviewed in their homes. The subjects responded to an audio-visual instrument in which three kinds of learning experiences (input, self-awareness, and sharing) and three levels of formality (low, medium, and high) were shown. Subjects were asked the same question for each learning situation shown, "Do you think these

people are learning something important?" The question was answered on a five-point Likert-type response scale, ranging from "Yes" to "No."

Specific interview questions probed the bases of the leaders' judgments made on the audio-visual instrument. Each subject also completed Berger's "Expressed Acceptance of Self" scale so that the degree of self-acceptance could be related to the choices on each of the factors under investigation. Additional demographic data, including the leaders' amount of schooling, were collected for the purpose of correlational analysis.

The results of the study showed that subjects considered low formality settings the most valid, followed by medium and high formality situations. The subjects judged input learning experiences as providing the most important learning, followed by sharing and self-awareness experiences.

Leaders preferred medium levels of formality with sharing experiences. Least preferred were low formality/sharing experiences. With input experiences, leaders preferred low formality settings. The least preferred was high formality/input experiences. With self-awareness experiences, leaders preferred low formality settings. Least preferred were high formality/self-awareness settings.

When amount of schooling was correlated with leaders' judgments for levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences, it was found that medium levels of formality, sharing experiences, input/low formality, self-awareness/low and medium formality learning situations were judged as more valid by leaders with less schooling than by leaders with more schooling.

When degree of self-acceptance was correlated with leaders' judgments,

it was found that medium levels of formality were judged as more valid by leaders with above mean degrees of self-acceptance than by leaders with below mean degrees of self-acceptance. Sharing/high formality and input/low and medium formality situations were judged as more valid by leaders with below mean degrees of self-acceptance than by leaders with above mean degrees of self-acceptance.

In addition, age of the leader, the kind of schooling (public, private, both), the age of the girls the leader worked with, the leaders' attitude toward past schooling, and the leaders' income level were all found to be significantly related to judgments made on one or more levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences.

Recommendations were made on how to use the findings to improve leadership training endeavors, and to develop training and program materials for leaders to use with girls. Suggestions for further research were outlined.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

APPENDICES Page

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

Chapter 1

THE PROBLEM

What we believe to be the reality of things shapes our actions. What we believe another person is like will affect how we act toward that person. Furthermore, people, in turn, more often than not, do what is expected of them. Through the processes of socialization, acculturation and cognitive/affective development, man forms a complex set of beliefs about how his world operates and who he is. He forms perceptions of what values, attitudes and beliefs are right and wrong. He forms perceptions of what actions produce what outcomes. In short, he develops a complex set of expectations which affects and, to some unknown degree, guides his actions toward himself and others.

Significant others influence how man perceives himself and his world; whether he feels he is a person of worth or worthless. Shaw perhaps sums up best how significant others influence a person's view of himself and his subsequent actions.

> You see, really and truly, apart from the things anyone can pick up (the dress and the proper way of speaking, and so on), the difference between a lady and a flower girl is not how she behaves, but how she's treated. I shall always be a flower girl to Professor Higgins, because he always treats me as a flower girl, and always will; but I know I can be a lady to you, because you always treated me as a lady, and always will. (Shaw, 1939, p. 80)

Expectations a person has now are, in part, influenced by past experience. What happens in experience that forms present expectations? And, as it relates to educational experiences, what expectations do people form regarding what is appropriate teaching behavior and appropriate learning experiences for themselves and for others? Why are these expectations held? What within a person's development has stimulated such beliefs?

When a person assumes a new leadership role, he brings with him the norms of his culture and the perceptions of what behaviors are appropriate for this role. These perceptions of valid and appropriate leadership behaviors, to some extent, are based on past experiences; to some extent, are an assimilation of cultural norms. Before leadership trainers can effectively modify inappropriate leader-participant role expectations and expectations about what kinds of learning experiences are considered important and valid, we must know how expectations form and the role they play in leaders' choices of learning experiences for themselves and others.

Purpose

The central purpose of this study was to inquire into the relationship among an adult nonformal educator's amount of schooling and degree of self-acceptance, and the adult's pedagogical expectations regarding the levels of formality of an instructional activity and the kinds of learning experiences considered valid and why.

The study examined five related areas:

1. What adult leaders perceived to be valid levels of formality of a learning experience, when "levels of formality" referred to how structured, authority-oriented, and leader-controlled a learning activity was.

2. What adult leaders perceived to be valid kind of learning experiences when "kinds of learning experiences" referred to a particular parsimonious speciation of learning activities people were to engage in (input, self-awareness, sharing).
3. What logical and/or experiential bases adult leaders used to make their choices regarding kinds of learning experiences and levels of formality they believed provided important learning for others.
4. What relationship existed between the adult leaders' perceptions regarding kinds of learning experiences and levels of formality viewed as valid, and their own degree of self-acceptance.
5. What relationship existed between the adult leaders' perceptions regarding kinds of learning experiences and levels of formality viewed as valid and their amount of schooling.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions guided the study's inquiry:

A. Pedagogical expectations of the entire sample toward levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences were identified:

1. Do leaders judge any one level of formality as providing more important learning than other levels of formality?
2. Do leaders judge any one kind of learning experience as providing more important learning than other kinds of learning experiences?

B. The kinds of learning experiences and levels of formality were examined together to identify what level of formality was perceived to be more valid with what kind of learning experience.

1. What is the leaders' preference when each kind of learning experience is combined with each level of formality?

C. The leaders' degree of self-acceptance was identified. Then, attempts were made to identify whether or not the leaders' degree of self-acceptance related to their judgments regarding levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences.

1. What is the leaders' mean degree of self-acceptance and how does that mean compare to Berger's findings?
2. What is the relationship between the leaders' degree of self-acceptance and their expectations related to levels of formality judged as providing important learning?
3. What is the relationship between the leaders' degree of self-acceptance and expectations related to kinds of learning experiences judged as providing important learning?
4. What is the relationship among leaders' degree of self-acceptance andexpectations related to kinds of learning experiences and levels of formality?

D. The leaders' amount of schooling was identified. Then, the relationship between amount of schooling and leaders' preferences regarding kinds of learning experiences and levels of formality were identified.

1. What amounts of schooling have these leaders had?
2. What is the relationship between the leaders' amount of schooling and their expectations regarding levels of formality?
3. What is the relationship between leaders' amount of schooling and their preferences for kinds of learning experiences?
4. What is the relationship between leaders' amount of schooling and their preferences for the combinations of levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences?

E. Finally, an attemptwas made to identify the bases of judgment a leader

used to decide which levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences did or did not provide important learning for others.

1. Upon what logical and/or experiential bases do leaders make their choices regarding kinds of learning experiences and levels of formality they believe provide important learning for others?

The following research hypotheses were made prior to the investigation:

H_1 Subjects will judge higher levels of formality as providing more important learning than do lower levels of formality.

H_2 Subjects will rate input experiences as providing more important learning for their girls than do sharing and self-awareness experiences.

H_3 Subjects will prefer medium levels of formality with sharing experiences.

H_4 Subjects will prefer low levels of formality with input experiences.

H_5 Subjects will prefer low levels of formality with self-awareness experiences.

H_6 Subjects will have a higher mean degree of self-acceptance than the mean found by Berger.

H_7 There is a significant relationship present between the leaders' degree of self-acceptance and their expectations related to levels of formality judged as providing important learning.

H_8 Subjects with above mean degrees of self-acceptance will prefer different levels of formality than do subjects with below mean degrees of self-acceptance.

H_9 There is a significant relationship between the leaders' degree of self-acceptance and their expectations related to kinds of learning experiences judged as providing important learning.

H_{10} Subjects with above mean degrees of self-acceptance will prefer different kinds of learning experiences than do subjects with below mean degrees of self-acceptance.

H_{11} There is a significant relationship between leaders' amount of schooling and their expectations regarding levels of formality.

H_{12} Subjects with more schooling prefer different levels of formality than do subjects with less schooling.

H_{13} There is a significant relationship between leaders' amount of schooling and their preferences for kinds of learning experiences.

H_{14} Subjects with more schooling will prefer different kinds of learning experiences than do subjects with less schooling.

H_{15} There is a significant relationship between leaders' amount of schooling and their preferences for the combinations of levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences.

H_{16} Subjects with more schooling will prefer different combinations than do subjects with less schooling.

H_{17} There is a logical and/or experiential bases for the subjects' judgments about kinds of learning experiences and levels of formality and these bases can be documented.

Situational Background

Organized voluntary efforts have contributed to a wide range of national and personal interests and concerns: cultural, educational, recreational, political, social. Voluntary associations provide a service or further a cause for community and personal betterment and,

at the same time, provide opportunity for their members to share in accomplishing this purpose by helping directly or indirectly with the program. To volunteer time and talent is part of a way of life in America. One out of every four Americans over the age of 13 does some form of volunteer work, according to a 1974 Census Bureau Survey commissioned by ACTION.

The volunteer position is unique and differs from a career position. The volunteer contributes time and talent without money, doing so out of one's own free will and for as long as one is willing to do so. The volunteer's accountability to the organization operates differently from what is found in an employer-employee relationship. The leadership position and skills are many times learned during the course of involvement as a volunteer, and through extensive leadership training programs, which are often provided by volunteer organizations.

A growing need around the world is to provide the kind of opportunities for people which would assist them in learning skills necessary to better their life situation. To provide formal schooling for all is not within the means of developing countries. It is now believed that the volunteer movement can play a crucial role in assisting a nation to raise its standard of living. For this reason, new attention is being given to how to effectively recruit and train volunteers.

On volunteer organization which has made an important contribution to national and personal development is Girl Scouts. The Girl Scout movement is the largest voluntary organization for the development of girls and women in the world. It has played an historic role in contributing to adult education for significant numbers of volunteer and employed personnel throughout the world. It has been considered by

many as an effective nonformal education program, teaching girls and women skills and knowledge in literally all phases of life's activity. (Knowles, 1960, pp. 583-584)

Recognizing that to know about something is not an adequate indicator of leadership performance, Girl Scouts believes leadership training must strive to maximize the adult members capabilities by providing an experiential approach to learning. Sharing responsibility among trainers and learners in individual and group interaction, and modeling appropriate leader behavior are two of the primary tenets of the adult Girl Scout training program. (Girl Scouts of the U.S.A., 1978, p. v-1)

Girl Scouts believes that the expectations they have for what they consider to be appropriate leader-girl relationships and learning experiences should be shared with the volunteer leader. Sharing these expectations is the heart of the training program. Girl Scouts is seeking for effective ways to translate their teaching-learning expectations into reality--a leader who is able to appropriately work with girls and plan for girls' total development; one who can plan and conduct a Girl Scout program with purpose,not for the mere sake of activity.

Importance

Knowles states that the kind of training a volunteer leader wants is quite different from that found in the formal school training programs.

> Lay leaders for the most part require specific, specialized, brief, and clear-cut training to give them the immediate skills they need to carry out their responsibilities. They learn to lead a series of discussions, to demonstrate a technique, to plan a program, to discharge an elective or appointive office, or to conduct a

> campaign. Their concern is with the task at hand and how to perform it well. (Knowles, 1960,p. 120)

Most volunteer leaders begin their job with little or no training. What they know and do is based on what they read in the leadership and program aids given to them. They primarily base their leadership behavior on what they have observed and what they think are the right things to do.

Based on their own past educational experiences and on their own personality characteristics, leaders have formed a network of expectations related to what kinds of learning activities are valid ways to learn. (Finn, 1972, p. 392) They have formed impressions of what comprises the role of leader-teacher and the role of participant-learner. These expectations regarding valid teaching and learning roles and situations come with the leader when one initially volunteers.

The leadership materials and program aids produced by the volunteer organization also portray an image of what a valid learning situation is in their movement. These materials usually also communicate the role the leader is to play. The leaders' teaching-learning expectations and those expressed by the organization, to varying degrees, are dissonant with each other. The degree of dissonance between what the leader considers valid learning and teaching roles and situations, and those roles and situations promoted by the organization will determine the leader's satisfaction with one's efforts. The degree of dissonance also acts as a powerful lens through which training messages are altered by the volunteer to fit one's present understandings. (Abelson et al, 1968)

Getzel and Guba list three types of role conflict which are possible. These role conflicts also relate to the expectations a group member has regarding the role they are to play within an organization.

1. Disagreement that arises among members of the same group in defining a given role.

2. Disagreement among several referent groups, each having a legitimate right to define expectations in significantly different ways.

3. Contradictions in the expectations of two or more roles which the occupant of a given position is occupying at the same time. (Getzel and Guba, 1957, p. 425)

Secord and Backman add that role conflict can be analyzed at three levels: (1) the social system level, (2) the personality dynamics of the individual and (3) the cultural system level. Conflicts may arise from any of these three levels, as they are based on criteria of merit or on special preferences. Role conflict at the social system level may occur under any of the following seven conditions:

1. When expectations are unclear and consensus on them is low, or when they compete with each other.

2. When expectations that make up a role are incompatible, or when they compete with each other.

3. When there are discontinuities in position successively occupied by an actor.

4. When two or more positions containing incompatible or competing expectations are simultaneously occupied.

5. When the rights associated with a position may not be sufficiently rewarding to motivate actors to carry out the obligations of that position.

6. When roles are related in such a way that conformity to the expectations of one role interfers with goal achievement by the role partner.

7. When the social system permits interpersonal maneuvering that blocks the goal achievement of one or more members of the system. (Secord and Backman, 1964, p. 225)

On the level of individual personality, the characteristics that lead to role conflict are of three types:

1. The actors may lack certain abilities and attributes necessary for successful enactment of the roles involved.

2. The actors may have a self-concept contrary to the role expectations they are supposed to enact.

3. The actors may have certain attitudes and needs that interfer with enactment of a particular role. (Secord and Backman, 1964, p. 225)

On the cultural level, conflict in role may result when ideology runs counter to role expectations.

One may conclude, therefore, that inconsistent and/or conflicting expectations held between the leader and the volunteer organization can impede the leader's performance and the degree of effectiveness of training programs. To design more effective training programs and learning materials we must know more about what leaders perceive to be valid learning experiences for themselves and for others. We must know more about how these expectations are formed and how they can be altered or enlarged. In addition, obtaining a clearer understanding of leaders' present expectations would assist in fine tuning the kinds of images of "teacher/leader/facilitator" that should be modeled to alter current inappropriate expectations. Knowing the leader's present expectations would help trainers know what kinds of learning experiences the leaders will perceive as important and thus be more attractive. It would provide a referent place to begin the training and to begin talking about such things as program planning.

Ward identified the influence of cultural differences on the learner's acceptance and expectations of instructional procedures in

the following way:

> The most concerted evidence of the imposition of culture on the learning potentialities of people is their expectations of what constitutes a valid learning experience. What is accepted as a valid learning experience in one culture may be rejected in another. The wisdom of the elders, transmitted as legends and proverbs, may be profoundly respected as a learning experience or totally rejected as having no place in an educational system. A person may be culturally conditioned to accept the pedantic ways of the lecturing teacher in a formal classroom as a valid learning experience, tending to make him suspicious of discussion groups or instructional motion pictures. (Ward, 1973a, pp. 2-3)

Berger (1968) and Ward (1973a) both suggest that for effective learning to occur, leaders/teacher should utilize instructional procedures that are recognizable to the learner and leader-in-training as valid learning experiences. Based on Berger's and others work, Ward has termed these expectations a person holds regarding the kinds of learning experiences considered valid as "pedagogical expectations."

This present investigation was conducted in Hawaii. The Hawaiian people are an exceptional array of East, West, and Pacific cultures and ethnic groups. Each has its own traditions and thought patterns. "Over the years these various groups have adapted to and become a part of the American idea, yet at the same time they have managed to retain much of their original culture and with it make unusual and modifying contributions to the total society." (Tseng, McDermott and Marelzki, p. vi) The major ethnic groups in Hawaii are Caucasian (39,2%), Chinese (6.8%), Filipino (12.4%), Hawaiian (9.3%), Japanese (28.3%), Korean (1.3%), Blacks (1%), Indian (.2%) and other groups, including Portugese, Samoan, Micronesians (1.6%). (Department of Planning, 1975, p. 23)

From the interactions among these people a new and unusual community

has evolved. There is perhaps none other so rich and varied; none in which the various groups are quite so interacting with such continuing effects upon one another.

Another interesting dimension of the Hawaiian culture is its large population of National Armed Forces people. This population comprises approximately 140,000 persons, including military personnel, dependents and families. The largest portion (approximately 138,000) is located on Oahu. Some consider Hawaii home; some consider it the "rock", a place that they find quite different from the mainland U.S. The language, dress, and life style of the military population form a sub-culture within Hawaii.

Against Hawaii's cultural backdrop the necessity is heightened to understand how cultural viewpoints and background influence the kinds of educational experiences learners and leaders perceive as important. We must know more about these perceptions before we can talk about teaching techniques for accommodating cultural difference between learners, or between learners and leaders.

Berger suggests that teachers must be taught to be sensitive to the sociocultural differences which exist among the varying ethnic groups with which the teacher is to work. Zintz (1963, p. 77), for example, found that while teachers recognized obvious differences in language, customs, and experience background, they failed to recognize significant differences in value perspectives among learners from differing ethnic groups. Teachers with pedagogical expectations, for example, of an Anglo origin creating instructional programs for learners of another ethnic origin, without any bicultural sensitivity, tend to use inappropriate teacher-learner relationship styles, instructional materials, channels

of communication and concepts to express what they are trying to communicate to the learners. When teaching techniques and learning experiences are used which are incongruous with learner expectations, learners tend to return, in a fairly short time, to the previous attitudes and behaviors which are part of their dominant cultural pattern (Homme, 1966).

Several kinds of incongruities seem possible between expectations and instructional activities. It might be assumed that what must be sought is complete congruency between expectations a leader has for important learning and those the learner will value as important. McKean comments on this point from the perspective of the learner's expectations in the following way.

> With pedagogical expectations, the degree of congruency is a more important consideration than absolute congruence between expectations and instructional activities. It would probably be impossible to have absolute congruence between every element of an instructional activity and all the learner's expectations. The important point is that the higher the degree of congruency, the more meaningful the learning experience is likely to be for the learner.
>
> It also has been suggested that often meaningful learning occurs when there is some dissonance present. Both Dewey and Piaget suggest that meaningful learning occurs when there is disequilibrium, or when 'something is the matter.' Thus, it may not be harmful, in fact it may be helpful, to have some dissonance caused by a mis-match between instructional activities and learner pedagogical expectations. However, the type of disequilibrium Dewey and Piaget talk about concerns the content, or the subject matter of a learning experience and not necessarily the medium of that experience. Thus, it would not necessarily mean that there ought to be a mismatch between instructional activities and pedagogical expectations. (McKean, 1977, pp. 9-10)

As was mentioned earlier, not only do socio-cultural variables help shape pedagogical expectations, but the individual's personality

system does as well. Who a person perceives he is, how he values himself and others, his unique ways of perceiving form his self-concept. The view one has of oneself will influence what one expects to be valid learning experiences. The degree of formality, the kind of authority structure felt necessary, the perceived need for control and freedom in learning situations, the degree of vulnerability one can tolerate all influence the choice and design of learning experiences for self and others. (Purkey, 1970; Brophy and Good, 1974) This study investigated the relationship between expressed self-acceptance and the leader's pedagogical expectations.

Three specific kinds of learning experiences were explored in this investigation. Ward suggests that these three kinds form a model for effective learning. They are as follows:

> Input learning experiences involve learners in receiving or coming into contact with some new information.
>
> Self-awareness learning experiences involve the learner in reflecting upon his/her current situation.
>
> Sharing learning experiences involve learners in putting into his/her own words or acting upon some new information, ideas, insights. (McKean, 1977, p. 34)

Educators have generated many conflicting conceptions of what sorts of events comprise a good learning experience. Most agree that learning occurs when a person perceives new ways of looking at his surroundings through some sort of outward stimulus (e.g. new information, ideas, insights into other's feelings, new skills), internally assimilates or accommodates the input; and transfers those perceptions into new or modified ways of judging, feeling and/or behaving so that he becomes someone different from whom he was before the learning experience. Yet,

there are great differences of opinion on what sorts of learning events bring about most consistently this sort of total transformation of a person's perception and behavior. (Eisner and Vallance, 1974)

Input. For some, maximum learning occurs through the transfer of certain defined bodies/sets of information. The thesis is that the central stiumlus from without should be the new which confronts the learners already existing perceptual configuration. While teaching techniques employed to impart the new may be varied in terms of the kinds of media utilized and the levels of formality of teacher-learner interaction, the central focus of the total learning experience is on input; the imparting or coming into contact with new facts, other's feelings, skills. The focus is on the external stimulating internal development and how to communicate the best of the external world to the learner. (e.g. Lamm, 1972)

Self-awareness. Others have come to believe that, while imparting new information is necessary, a person's perceptual trigger actually is pulled more effectively when the central focus of the instructional experience is helping learners put into words or some other communicative form, such as music or pictures, the beliefs they already have about themselves, their world and how it works. The events comprising the learning experiences are focussed on providing a context in which people can be helped to articulate the perception of reality they already have. (Freire, 1970) Not only is there emphasis on the articulation of beliefs, but on confrontation with self, involving a self-assessment of one's own will to accommodate or assimilate the new perception of reality.

The learning experience works not only at articulating and

clarifying the present state, but in confronting the will so that the person must choose to change or to stay the same. Self-awareness is considered the central kind of event that comprises a good instructional experience which provides maximum learning. The focus is on the inner being's own efforts to change and how best to stimulate and facilitate this natural development process. (e.g. Chase, 1970, pp. 98-104, Combs, 1962)

Sharing. The third kind of instructional event that has been emphasized focuses on the need people have to do something in order to cement the union between knowing about something and being able to do it. (Freire, 1970, Illich, 1970, Dewey, 1949, Huebner, 1963) Some strongly feel that learning is best achieved in a context comprised of numerous events with a central focus on doing. By direct manipulation of objects, direct inquiry into subjects, by direct involvement in the enterprise under investigation; in short, by doing a person more easily grasps the new; corrects previous perceptions about a particular concept or function; and wills to either behave and/or believe in certain ways or to reject some behavior and/or belief. To use, experience, enjoy the new and the known in joint adventure and in common with others, in a constant giving and receiving relationship characterizes the sharing instructional event. The focus is on combining the inner development of perception with outward communication in a transactional environment. (e.g. McLuhan, 1963)

Noted men and women have conceived the instructional experience as comprising one or another of the above events. Dewey, on the other hand, chose to view the problem of what comprises a good instructional experience in terms other than either one or the other of the above

events. Instead, he redefined the problem as how best to integrate all three essential events (input, self-awareness and sharing) into one instructional experience. (Dewey, 1938) Other contemporary authors also follow this line of thinking; integration rather than either-or. (e.g. Pinar, 1973, Miel, 1963, Combs, 1962)

To date, the models we have of what an effective input event looks like are by far more numerous and common than the other two kinds. The formal schooling structure tends to use input events as the primary teaching-learning mode.

A person's pedagogical expectations of what kind of learning activities provide more important learning are to some degree culturally shaped and socialized. Input is indeed valued by some people as a legitimate and important way to learn. In out-of-school instructional settings, volunteer instructors tend to create instructional experiences which primarily are input oriented. The input instructional model is well known to them. Input instructional events are used the most frequently because people have been educated by their culture to accept the input instructional pattern as the teaching-learning norm.

Within the past ten to fifteen years, the self-awareness learning experience has become more widely used and modeled for others to see. T-groups, church commitment groups, sensitivity training, values clarification experiences are some of the types of instructional programs utlizing self-awareness as the primary teaching-learning mode. Many formal and out-of-school instructional settings have changed to the self-awareness instructional design or have incorporated blocks of events that are input-oriented and others that are self-awareness-oriented. Slowly, the social expectation of what is

considered an important and valid learning experience is changing to include self-awareness events.

The third kind of learning experience (sharing) is perhaps at present the least understood and utilized. The current emphasis on behavioral objectives, management by objectives and goal setting by a select few who are "teachers" or "managers" cause conflict in trying to establish the kind of instructional environment in which sharing instructional events can operate. Most adventures into learning are not joint adventures at present. They are more characterized by one determining direction and content for another, apart from significant contribution by the learner. Most instructional experiences are not characterized by a constant giving and recieving relationship, but rather by one in which persons with ascribed status lord it over others. (Pinar, 1975)

Status is achieved in sharing instructional experiences. The learning efforts are constantly unfolding under their own time table. Learning is not tested in the sense of measurement of previously prescribed goals, but rather, learning is tested through the crucible of experience. Testing is done by the learner and with significant others whom the learner has come to trust, respect, and love. In such a context people step out in faith into the unknown, because of support they feel from others. The steps in learning might be small, but the quantity and quality of learning is individually-measured, group accepted, and individually and group supported.

In addition, the emphasis in the United States on individualism helps socialize people to become, among other things, self-sufficient, self-reliant, suspicious of others, competitive. These social norms

work against learners perceiving sharing instructional designs as providing efficient and effective learning. The American's sense of urgency works at odds with the time needed for appropriate sharing experiences.

In summary, perceptions of what a person believes to be a good learning experience is partially shaped by what the person has continuously experienced and come to know as a teaching-learning situation. People's pedagogical expectations are also partially shaped by social norms and dominant sub-cultural lifestyles, as well as the individual's unique peronality characteristics.

If it becomes clear that effective instructional experiences should comprise all three kinds of events (input, self-awareness, sharing), then one of the first tasks of effective instructional design involves assessment of the current expectations various people hold regarding what are considered valid learning experiences. Next, instructional designs must include events aimed at increasing awareness of the effects and the value of the kinds of learning experiences that are not highly prized. In theory and research, we are truly at stage one--assessment of differences in pedagogical expectations so that we can more clearly attune instructional experiences to the present values a person holds with regard to what a viable learning experience is.

Assumptions

Five primary assumptions guided this investigation. First, the researcher assumed that it was important to identify and understand leaders' preferences regarding levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences so that training program designs and methodologies

can be made more effective. Within this assumption is another: that discrepancies between expectations held by an organization and the volunteer leader can limit the effectiveness of training programs, leader growth, and leader-girl interaction.

Another assumption guiding this study was that the three kinds of learning experiences (input, self-awareness, and sharing) are necessary components to meaningful learning environments.

The third assumption was that a person's pedagogical expectations are strong influences on the choice of learning experiences the leader finds valid and valuable for oneself and for others.

Fourth, it was assumed that the degree to which a leader accepts oneself is related to the kinds of learning experiences one will perceive as valid learning experiences for oneself and for others.

Fifth, it was assumed that a person's past formal schooling experiences are significantly related to the kinds of learning experiences one considers important.

Delimitations

Several of the delimitations of the study affect the study's generalizability. First, the sample of subjects represented a specific population of adults--adult women who, for various reasons, volunteered to work as Girl Scout leaders on the island of Oahu, Hawaii.

Second, the random sample was measured on amount of schooling and degree of self-acceptance. While significant interations were found between these two variables and their choices of learning experiences and levels of formality, differences found may be attributable in actuality, to other psychological and/or sociological characteristics.

Third, one of the weaknesses of correlational studies is choosing variables which may show relationships but do little to explicate the complexity involved in a person's perceptual preferences for levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences considered valid ways to learn. In addition, correlational studies cannot establish cause-and-effect between variables correlated. Therefore, this study was exploratory, pointing to the relationships which seemed to exist between certain leader characteristics and leaders' perception of valid levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences. Cause-and-effect studies must follow to further identify and explain the relationships found.

The study was intentionally limited to two descriptive constructs: levels of formality and kinds of learning experience. The researcher's intent was to probe the subjects regarding their initial response on these two constructs. The probe interview questions uncovered other elements of an instructional experience the leader felt must be present in order to make a learning experience provide important learning. This study's findings provide an exploratory base for additional research.

Definition of Important Terms

Ethnopedagogy is a term coined by Berger (1968) and refers to the need of a teacher/trainer to be able to effectively adapt teaching-learning activities to the cultural viewpoints and experiences of learners.

Expectations refer to those conscious and unconscious evaluations which a person forms of another, or of oneself, which leads one to treat others in such a manner as though the assessment were correct.

Expectations are estimations of reality and imply the anticipation of the behavior most likely to actually occur, if certain circumstances are created and put into action. (Finn, 1972, p. 390)

Pedagogical expectations are what "a learner and leader/teacher expects to be the sociology (roles of teacher and learner), content, and procedures of an educational activity." (McKean, 1977, p. 19) Pedagogical expectations are considered a cultural and psychological phenomenon by Ward, Berger, Finn and others.

Kinds of learning experiences refer to the distinctly different nature of experiences in which a learner can participate. Based on the Ward model, three kinds of learning experiences were represented in the instrumentation: input, self-awareness, and sharing. All three kinds are considered necessary for effective learning. Input experiences involve learners in receiving or coming into contact with some new information. Self-awareness learning experiences involve the learner in reflecting upon one's current situation. Sharing learning experiences involve learners in putting into ones' own words or acting upon some new information, ideas, insights.

Levels of formality refer to how structured, authority-oriented, controlled a leader feels the learning activity must be to have important learning occur in others. Three levels were used: low, medium and high. The levels of formality were handled photographically by showing various leader-girl grouping patterns.

Amount of schooling refers to the number of years each subject completed in public or private schools.

Degree of self-acceptance refers to the extent to which one accepts who one perceives oneself to be. Self-acceptance is empirically and

conceptually related to self-esteem (liking and respecting oneself). In this study the "Expressed Acceptance of Self" scale, created by Berger (1952), was used because it is one of the few scales which taps self-acceptance as it relates to social contexts,and has been in existance long enough to accumulate validation and reliability data. (Robinson and Saver, 1970, pp. 51, 107) In addition, the Berger scale has been used by others in adult education and nonformal education research studies.

Overview

In Chapter 2 the literature related to the pedagogical expectations phenomenon is reviewed. In Chapter 3 the methods used to investigate the relationship between adult leaders' pedagogical expectations, amount of schooling and the degree of self-acceptance are discussed. The research design, research questions and hypotheses are outlined. The instrumentation and procedures used in data collection and analysis are identified.

In Chapter 4 the findings are presented. The research hypotheses tested are restated and accompanied by the findings to each.

Chapter 5 contains a brief summary of the discussion of Chapter 1 through 4. The findings are discussed, conclusions reached,and implications and recommendations suggested.

In summary, this study examined the pedagogical expectations Girl Scout leaders have about what are important learning experiences and why. It sought to determine whether or not there was a significant relationship between these expectations and certain leader characteristics. One of these characteristics was psychologically based--her degree of self-acceptance. The other characteristic was sociologically and culturally based--her amount of schooling. For the purpose of

hypotheses generation, additional demographic information was collected to help determine the logical and/or experiential bases for leaders' selection of learning experiences.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The most publicized studies, examining the expectancy phenomenon, schooling's role in a person's formation of expectations regarding kinds of learning experiences and levels of formality, and the relationship between self-acceptance and pedagogical expectations are discussed in Chapter 2.

Overview

The literature suggests that the expectancy phenonmenon is present in learning situations. A person gains expectations about what is considered valid learning experiences from numerous sources.

A leader's pedagogical expectations are harmful when he/she lacks the ability to accurately and flexibly take into account new evidence. In addition, how positively the leader feels about and accepts oneself influences whether present expectations are rigid or flexible. A person's degree of self acceptance also influences the kind of learning experiences utilized.

In addition, significant others--peers, parents, teachers--help create a person's view of what experiences constitute significant learning and teaching/leading.

Most of the research to date on the teacher expectancy phenomenon has been conducted in the formal school context, although the expectancy

phenomenon, as a general construct, is well publicized in sociological, business, child development and perception literature.

The teacher-learner role model most predominant is the formal schooling model. Since pedagogical expectations are a cultural phenomenon, it is suggested in Chapter 2 that the teacher-learner interaction patterns and the kinds of learning experiences the leader prefers and utilizes are, to some degree, patterned after the predominant teacher-learner role models found in the formal schooling context to which the leader was exposed.

The Expectancy Effect

The expectancy phenomenon as a determinant of educational outcome has received wide publicity in both the popular and the research community within the past decade. The basic concept has been applied to such areas as teaching and learning, perception, management and researcher bias. Within the teaching-learning area the basic thesis is as follows:

> A teacher creates a reality commensurate with his own perceptions. Furthermore, the learner, while creating his own reality, shadows substantially the reality forming in the teacher's mind. (Braun, 1976, p. 185)

Braun's thesis was popularized in 1968 by Rosenthal and Jacobson. Pygmalion in the Classroom (Rosenthal and Jacobson, 1968) created considerable public interest and heated professional controversy. The notion that a teacher's expectations regarding a child's ability influences the child's classroom learning and performance, as well as his concept of self, seemed both reasonable and, backed by Rosenthal's and Jacobson's study, seemed to provide the thunder needed by those concerned about equal educational opportunity.

Findings of researcher bias while conducting laboratory animal studies (Rosenthal and Fode, 1963 and Rosenthal and Lawson, 1964) led Rosenthal and Jacobson to experiment with school children to determine whether creating expectations in the minds of teachers regarding the children's potential achievement would affect achievement.

Their famous experiment, called the "Oak School" experiment, was conducted in an elementary school serving primarily a lower social class neighborhood. In May, all children in kindergarten through fifth grades were given an IQ test, Flanagan's Test of General Ability (TOGA), disguised as a test to predict "academic blooming." The TOGA was given again the following September, in the middle of the year, and at the end of the year. To form experimental groups, Rosentahal and Jacobson randomly selected approximately 20% of the children from each of the 18 classes under investigation. The names of the students in the experimental groups were given to the teachers along with the interpretation of test scores, which indicated that these students' test scores predicted they would show large gains in intellectual ability during the school year.

At the end of the year the experimental group showed approximately four IQ points advantage. However, among those children in the first and second grades the experimental group showed as much as 15 IQ points more than the children in the control group. In terms of school performance, the children in the experimental group showed a significantly better gain than the control group for reading only.

Rosenthal and Jacobson concluded that if teachers expected intellectual blooming in specific children, such gains would indeed result. Ancillary findings they reported were that intellectual gains were not uniform across grades and that gains at the end of the first

year were most dramatic for first and second grade children. Gains at the end of the experiment were most pronounced for sixth-grade children. Teachers described experimental children as being happier, more curious, more interesting and as having a better chance of being successful in later life than control subjects.

Considerable controversy has arisen over the Rosenthal-Jacobson study (Thorndike 1968, Snow 1969, Gephart and Antonopolos 1969, Elashoff and Snow 1971, Jones 1977).

The major points of controversy, as listed by Kester and Letchworth (1972, p. 51) include the following:

1. Questions about the validity of the IQ measurement instrument used (Thorndike 1968).
2. Questions about the statistical analysis of the data (Snow 1969).
3. Some difficulty in replicating the research findings (i.e. Claiborn 1969).
4. A question of the pervasiveness of the teacher expectation effect (Brophy and Good 1974).

Rosenthal (1969, 1970) answers Thorndike's criticisms about instrument validity and Snow's criticisms about unprofessional statistical analysis of data to the satisfaction of many researchers.

There have been mixed reports by those who have tried to replicate or partically replicate Rosenthal and Jacobson's findings. Among them, published studies by José and Cody (1971), Fleming and Anttonen (1971), Clairborn (1969), Rubovits and Maehr (1971), Flowers (1966), Anderson and Rosenthal (1968), Conn, Edwards, Rosenthal and Crowne (1968), Evans and Rosenthal (1969), to name just a few, have at best found mixed results or no significant relationship between teacher expectations and

pupil ability and achievement. However, Adams and Cohen (1976, p. 216) indicate that, as of 1976, about half the studies support the original Rosenthal and Jacobson research, while the remaining half does not.

Other related studies have indicated that the behavior of a leader or teacher influences the behavior of the children (Anderson, 1937, 1939; Lewin, Lippitt and White, 1939; Flanders, 1951) and that expectancy may be a contributing factor in the changes that are effected (Overall and Aronson, 1963; Rosenthal, 1966; Rosenthal and Fode, 1963; Rosenthal and Lawson, 1964).

Rist's (1970) well publicized observational study of one class of ghetto children,,covering their kindergarten through second grade schooling experiences, shows dramatically that the way in which the teacher behaved toward different students became an important influence on the children's achievement. He showed that, indeed, the teacher does make a difference. He summarized his findings as follows:

> ...the development of expectations by the kindergarten teacher as to the differential academic potential and capability of any student was significantly determined by a series of subjectively interpreted attributes and characteristics of that student. The argument may be succinctly stated in five propositions. First, the kindergarten teacher possessed a roughly constructed 'ideal type' as to what characteristics were necessary for any given student to achieve 'success' both in the public school and in the larger society. These characteristics appeared to be, in significant part, related to social class criteria. Secondly, upon first meeting her students at the beginning of the school year, subjective evaluations were made of the students as to possession or absence of the desired traits necessary for anticipated 'success'. On the basis of the evaluation, the class was divided into groups expected to succeed (termed by the teacher 'fast learner') and those anticipated to lag (termed by the teacher 'slow learners'). Third, differential treatment was accorded to the two groups in the

> classroom, with the group designated as 'fast learners' receiving the majority of the teaching time, reward-direct behavior, and attention from teacher. Those designated as 'slow learners' were taught infrequently, subjected to more frequent control-oriented behavior, and received little if any supportive behavior from the teacher. Fourth, the interactional patterns between the teacher and the various groups in her class became rigidified, taking on caste like characteristics, during the course of the school year, with the gap in completion of academic material between the two groups widening as the school year progressed. Fifth, a similar process occurred in later years of schooling, but the teachers no longer relied on subjectively interpreted data as the basis for ascertaining differences in students. Rather, they were able to utilize a variety of informational sources related to past performance as the basis for classroom grouping. (Rist, 1970, pp. 413-414)

Brophy and Good (1974) give the most complete review of expectancy research as it relates to the teaching-learning process since Rosenthal and Jacobson's review (1968, Chapter 2). They define expectations as inferences based upon and following observations of another person and are neither good or bad in themselves. They believe the crucial factor in how expectations influence teacher behavior, is how accurate and flexible the teacher is to take into account new evidence. Where teachers' expectations are inaccurate and inflexible, Rosenthal's "self-fulfilling prophecy" effect is more apt to take place. Such teachers tend to persistently treat students in inappropriate ways, causing students to conform to the teacher's expectations. Conformity manifests itself in process and product research measures; that is, in the degree to which teacher-student interaction patterns, student achievement, student enjoyment, teacher and learner self-concept and self-esteem and so on, are appropriate.

Brophy and Good also point out that research shows several things affect teacher expectations. In addition to the factors of "student

individual differences . . .teacher expectations can also be shaped by the curriculum materials used and the grade-level expectations associated with them and, within these, by the nature of the steering group (Lundgren, 1972) toward which the teacher aims his/her level of instruction." (p. 119) It is within these last few areas that research studies are just now becoming available.

In summary, there is a vast body of literature which indicates strong support for the existence of a pedagogical expectancy effect across several kinds of educational settings. New expectancy models are being developed (e.g. Brophy and Good, 1974, Braun, 1976) to further the conceptual framework needed to systematically research the expectancy effect as a determinant to educational outcome. Various people are studying the sources of expectations (Finn, 1972) and the variables related to expectations (e.g. Adams and Cohen, 1976, 1974, Cooper, Baron and Lowe, 1975, Brophy and Good, 1970, Braun, 1976, Dunkin and Biddle, 1974).

While most of the studies have been done in the schooling context, measuring people who are credentialled as "teachers", there is recognition of the need to carry on research on the expectancy effect in out-of-school adult education settings. (Kidd, 1977, p. 28) To date, however, little has been done. What expectations lay leaders hold regarding learner differences and how they affect learner behavior and attitudes are largely unknown. The expectations leaders have about what learning experiences are valid for others and why have not been thoroughly researched in out-of-school settings.

Schooling and Expectations

To what extent a leader's past schooling forms her present perceptions

of what is important learning is central to the present investigation. Bruner's social theory of perception indicates that perception does not arise from a neutral ground, but is the result of an antecedent(s). The pattern and role of these antecedents are such as to permit them to be called hypotheses. The stronger the hypothesis the more likely its activation is in a given situation. In such cases, less input material will be needed for its activation. (Bruner, 1951, pp. 121-147) It is reasonable to postulate that the stronger the influence and the more positive the schooling experience was for a leader, the more likely past schooling teaching-learning models are significantly related to a leaders present expectations for what is important learning and appropriate teaching strategy.

The effects of schooling on a person's development have largely been studied from the viewpoint of the child and what happens to the child because of differential treatment by teachers, the school setting, resources, etc. Finn suggest that there is a network of expectations held by several people who are in contact with the learner and that these expectations influence the learner's behavior.

> Together with the teacher, the physical setting,and the curricular materials and activities, a network of expectations is established, to which the child is continuously exposed. The network constitutes a significant part of the child's educational environment, i.e. the totality of all aspects of the milieu which sets expectations for an individual's educational attainment, whether cognitive or otherwise. (Finn, 1972, p. 392)

In addition to in-school variables, individuals out of school hold expectations for the youngster's academic behavior. Peers, parents, teachers create a network of consistent and conflicting expectations. Finn diagrams the entire network of expectations as is displayed in Figure 1. (Finn, 1972, p. 395)

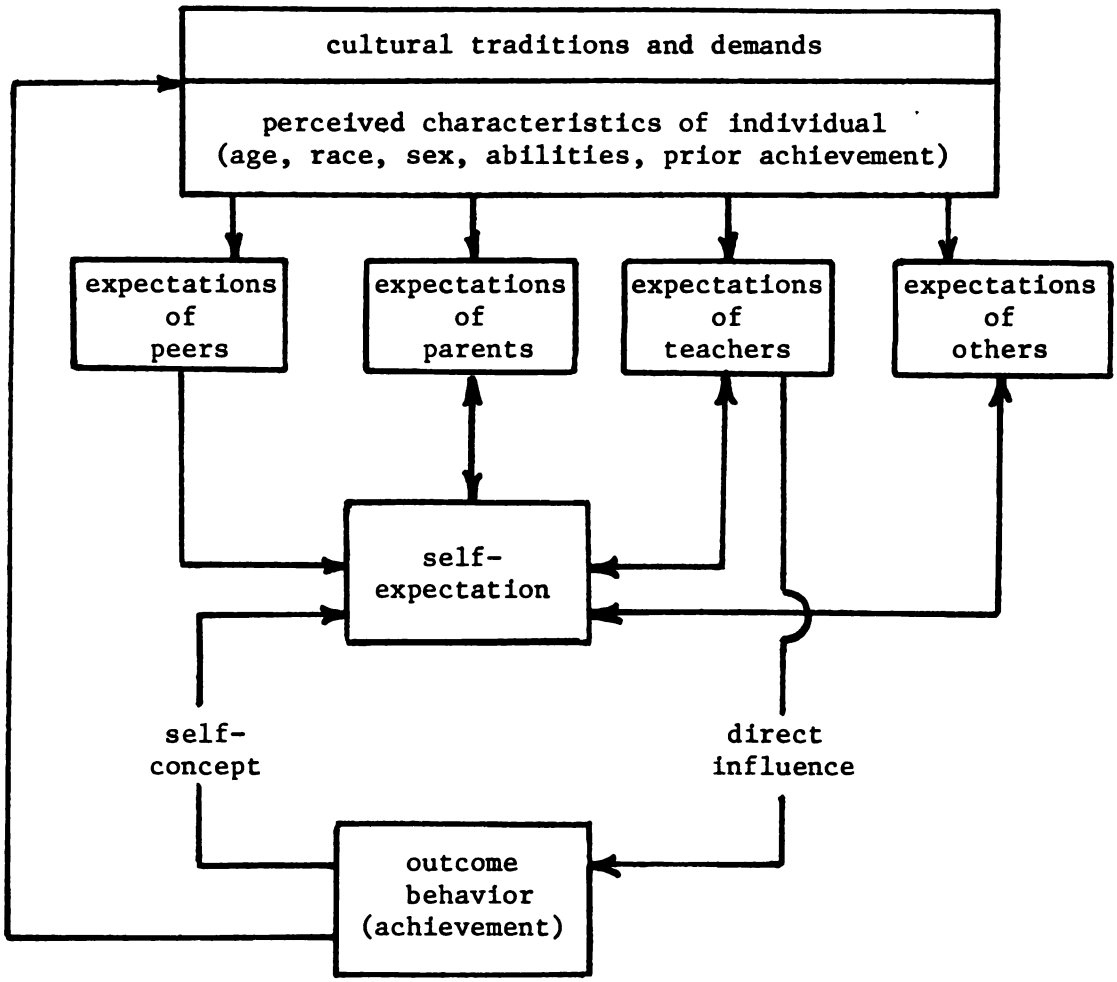

Figure 1

FINN'S NETWORK OF EXPECTATIONS

Numerous studies have been made on the differential treatment received by people in school because of income level, sex, race, and ability characteristics (e.g. see reviews in Rohwer, 1971, Shea, 1976). Indeed, expectations and subsequent treatment by peers, parents, teachers and significant others in a person's life greatly shape the person's view of himself and how he relates to others later in life. It is reasonable to suggest that leaders' present pedgagoical expectations for others are to some extent patterned on past educational experiences they have had, either as a reaction to past displeasure or as an extension to past satisfaction.

From a socio-cultural viewpoint, all societies conventionalize behavior. An elaborate set of rules, differing across cultures, govern expression. These rules govern behavior of persons having specific statuses in society (husband or wife, teacher or learner, host or guest). These rules help define how the person of a certain status position ought to behave.(Sarbin, 1954, 1964, Merton, 1957, Goffman, 1959, Sargent, 1951, Newcomb, 1951)

The reasons for role expectations are complex. Lifelong socialization processes help people attain self-identity, gain the ability to predict and control the social environment,and obtain approval and disapproval from others. If leaders' present behavior is based on pedagogical expectations assimilated from past schooling experience, and these pedagogical expectations are inappropriate for the present situation, leaders are in role conflict. Allen says that in order to change role behavior a change in role or in one of the variables affecting the role must occur. (Allen, 1968, pp. 201-202) To leave the role unchanged seems to produce changes in the self-system so that

it becomes congruent with role expectations. (Merton, 1940, Waller, 1932)

The teacher-learner role most common to all is found in schools. The schooling teacher-learner role has several unique interaction patterns. The role relationship found in schools is not like the teacher-learner relationship values by many nonformal educational programs (e.g. club programs, church programs). The trainers of non-formal education leaders must find ways to expand and, in some cases, alter role expectations which are inappropriate to reach the inter-personal interaction patterns promoted by their program. Otherwise, leaders will use teacher-learner role patterns which are familiar to them, and, for most, the teacher-learner role that is familiar is that modeled within school settings.

Freire describes the formal schooling teacher-learner role relationship as follows:

1. the teacher teaches and the students are taught
2. the teacher knows everything and the students know nothing
3. the teacher thinks and the students are thought about
4. the teacher talks and the students listen--meekly
5. the teacher disciplines and the students are disciplined
6. the teacher chooses and enforces his choice, and the students comply
7. the teacher acts and the students have the illusion of acting through the actions of the teacher.
8. the teacher chooses the program content, and the students (who were not consulted) adapt to it.
9. the teacher confuses the authority of knowledge with his own professional authority, which he sets in opposition to the freedom of the students

10. the teacher is the subject of the learning process, while the pupils are mere objects. (Freire, 1970, p. 59)

McKean (1977, pp. 6-8) in critiquing the schooling system reminds the reader that the philosophical roots and structure of schooling around the world are built upon the Greek model of epistemology and schooling. The role of education for the Greeks was to "promote and maintain a class and hierarchical authority system." The pedagogy within schools is built on the premise that, if a person can be given facts, the person can then do something. To know is to do.

Ward lists the following sources of weakness in the schooling approach to education. These sources of weakness also help reveal the teacher-learner role patterns promoted by the schooling system.

1. All learners are assumed to be similar in terms of needs, interests and abilities.

2. Conforming behavior is preferred over divergent and nonconforming behavior.

3. Learners are increasingly made more competitive at the price of cooperation.

4. Learners are expected to be receptors of learning rather than communicators.

5. The learner's part in decision-making is minimal and tends to be steadily reduced.

6. The responsibility for attitudes and feelings about content and about learning itself is attributed to the student.

7. The content to be learned is justified in terms of future needs of the learner.

8. Schooling's major justification is preparation (mostly expressed in terms of eligibility for more schooling).

9. Evaluation is concerned almost exclusively with cognitive learning (knowledge of information and processes) and skills.

10. Learning experiences are designed or selected on the basis of values of the adult and established world.

11. Abstractions of experience (in the form of language and symbols) are substituted for realities.

12. Rewards are symbolic more than real. Even the satisfactionsof seeing oneself develop are subordinated to imposed systems of rewards.

13. Punishment is assumed to increase learning.

14. Punishment is a virtually sovereign right of the teacher.

15. The teacher is ascribed authority, thus creating a hierarchy based on unearned status.

16. The social distance that separates teachers from learners is increased by according different sets of rights and expectations to each.

17. Learning experiences are designed (and limited) to fit time blocks.

18. Learning experiences are designed (and limited) to fit standard locations and space.

19. Testing is the criterion of success.

20. Success is the surpassing value. (Ward, 1973b, pp. 4-5)

In summary, while growing up, people are exposed to a network of pedagogical expectations. The expectations are what a person considers appropriate, valid teacher-learner relationships and activities. To some individual-specific degree, these expectations are based on past teacher-learner transactions a person has experienced.

Teacher-learner roles in the schooling system are not the same roles suggested by many nonformal educational programs. Thus, the amount of dissonance an individual experiences as a leader in a nonformal educational setting is related to how congruent the leader's pedagogical expectations

are with the organization's pedagogical expectations. The expectations include beliefs about appropriate teacher-learner role relationships, valid choices and presentations of content and instructional procedures.

Leaders' Self-acceptance and Pedagogical Expectations

Staines suggests that the "self" is a learned structure, growing mainly from comments made by other people and from inferences drawn by the person out of his/her experience in home, school, and other social groups. (Staines, 1958, p. 97) Self is a mixture of affect and cognition, actions and reflection. (Gordon, 1969, p. 1227) Self is the sum total of all the person can call one's own.

One of the central tenets of self concept is that a person's behavior is a function of ones self concept at a given point in time. Therefore, a teacher's behavior is a function of his/her own self-perception. (Aronson and Carlsmith, 1962, p. 1978, Combs, 1962)

Studies of self-concept have largely investigated the learner's view of self and its relationship to performance (see Purkey, 1970, for a comprehensive review). However, studies have been done on teachers' self concept to support the tenet described above. Combs (1962, 1965) states that a positive view of self is one of the characteristics of an effective teacher. "Good teachers feel basically adequate rather than inadequate." Furthermore, Combs indicates that the teacher's attitude toward himself and others is an important as, if not more so, than his techniques, practices, or materials in determining teaching effectiveness.

Purkey, reporting on the research about what teachers believe, says the following about self concept.

> There seems to be general agreement that the teacher needs to have positive and realistic attitudes about himself and his abilities before he is able to reach out to like and respect others. Numerous studies (Berger, 1953, Fey, 1954, Luft, 1966) have reported that there is a marked relation between the way an individual sees himself and the way he sees others. Those who accept themselves tend to be more accepting of others (Trent, 1957) and perceive others as more accepting (Omwake, 1954). Further, according to Omwake, those who reject themselves hold a correspondingly low opinion of others and perceive others as being self-rejecting. From these studies it seems clear that the teacher needs to see himself in essentially positive ways. (Purkey, 1970, p. 46)

Combs and his associates (1962, 1963) found in their research on the perceptual organization of effective helpers that effective teachers, counselors, and priests could be distinguished from ineffective helpers on the basis of their attitudes about themselves and others.

Jersild (1965) adds that the ability to understand oneself is a necessary factor in coping with feelings and in becoming a more effective teacher in the classroom.

The literature, therefore, indicates that a central variable significantly related to appropriate teacher-learner performance is the construct called "self."

Within the generalized,unifying construct called "self" is the concept of cognitive styles. Cognitive styles are considered learned patterns of preference for how situations and concepts are organized and presented. Gordon (1969, p. 1226) discusses three classes of cognitive styles: (1) the functions of ego defense,which include the dimensions of leveling and sharpening, field articulation, scanning control, and tolerance of unrealistic experiences, (2) Witkin and

and others' analytical versus a global-field approach, which describes differences in the ways people approach tasks, and (3) Kagan's analytic-descriptive, inferential-categorical and relational styles, deal with ways in which people perceive, categorize and describe visual stimuli. This body of research suggests that adults and children's cognitive styles influence their preference for the kinds of learning experiences and the levels of formality they feel are meaningful and valid.

The McKean Study

McKean's (1977) study is a companion study to this inquiry. McKean studied what adult learners expect to be important learning experiences. Utilizing a photo instrument similar in design to the one used in this study, 225 adults from various adult education programs in southern, lower Michigan considered low and medium formality settings more valid than high formality settings. He also found that the subjects considered sharing and self-awareness experiences more valid than input learning experiences. In addition, when correlating amount of formal schooling with levels of formality the adults considered valid, he found an apparent trend away from high formality settings for those who had more schooling. McKean also found that the types of learning experiences were considered approximately equally valid. In medium formality settings, sharing experiences were considered most valid. In high formality settings, input was considered least valid (pp. 51-69).

The photos used by McKean showed adult teachers interacting with adult learners. McKean did not explore whether the subjects were making their judgments about each photo from the viewpoint of the learner or

the teacher. Therefore, whether the expectations McKean found are what the adult perceived as important learning for themselves or for others, or both is not clear.

The Denmark Study

Denmark (1971) conducted a study to obtain and analyze data concerning volunteer 4-H adult leaders in Texas to develop recommendations for effectively identifying, recruiting, and training 4-H adult leaders. Pertinent to the present study is Denmark's findings about leader effectiveness and degree of self-acceptance.

A questionnaire was used to identify selected biographical characteristics, recruiting preferences and training needs of volunteer 4-H adult leaders. Extension Agents in 25 counties, selected at random, placed each of the 4-H leaders into three categories of effectiveness (most effective, somewhat effective, least effective). Effectiveness groups were used as the dependent variable and were correlated with the independent variables, one of which was degree of self-acceptance.

Denmark found that those rated as most effective leaders by the Extension Agents had higher degrees of self-acceptance than did the average Texas 4-H leader. Also, he found those rated as more effective leaders had the highest mean years of formal education (p. 44).

Interestingly, the group rated least effective and that had the lowest scores on Berger's Expressed Acceptance of Self scale rated "Understanding Youth" as the highest area of training they felt they needed (p. 68).

Summary

The literature from which this study comes has its roots in

expectancy theory and what is termed "expectancy effect" research. Some of the most well known studies were reviewed in this chapter.

The majority of studies done to date examine how teacher expectations are related to learner academic performance. Subjects are largely from the formal school educational context. The literature suggests that teacher expectations significantly relate to how teachers behave toward children. Teachers' expectations influence how they treat various learners. Teaching-learning expectations, to varying degrees, also influence what kinds of learning experiences are planned by the teacher.

The literature investigating the influence of past school experiences on the expectations a person has regarding what is considered valid learning experiences was discussed.

Literature on how the concept of self is related to the formation of pedagogical expectations was reviewed.

Lastly, two specific studies were examined which directly relate to the present investigation. McKean's (1977) study utilized a similar audio-visual instrument to measure pedagogical expectations. It is from his initial work that the present study was conceptualized. Denmark's study (1971) was also reviewed because of his efforts to show the relationship between leader effectiveness and expressed acceptance of self, using the Berger scale with similar subjects from another nonformal educational program (4-H).

Chapter 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In Chapter 3 the methods used to investigate the relationship between adult leaders' pedagogical expectations, amount of schooling, and degree of self-acceptance are discussed. The research design, research questions and hypotheses are outlined. The instrumentation and procedures used in data collection and analysis are identified.

Description of Methodology

Through a correlational study an attempt was made to discover relationships which exist among the perceptions leaders had of valid levels of formality and valid kinds of learning experiences, and leaders' expressed acceptance of self and amount of schooling. The statistical analyses used correlation measurements. Borg and Gall (1971) indicate that correlational studies are used when individual differences are expected to be present which will manifest themselves as variations in scores. The researcher was primarily interested in what factors were related to these variations in scores.

Research Design

The study was a "one-shot case study" (Isaac and Michael, 1971, p. 36) done through an interview with each of fifty-one subjects, randomly selected from a discrete population. Two instruments were administered to each subject, with a third instrument administered to two subjects who did not discriminate on the first instrument.

One instrument measured the leaders' perceptions about levels of formality of an instructional activity and the kinds of learning experiences considered to be valid learning activities. When a subject's judgments varied less than two points and less than four times on the response scale, a Learning Expectation Descrimination instrument was also administered to further clarify preferences in pedagogical expectations. Another instrument measured the leaders' degree of self acceptance. All instruments were administered during a hour interview in the leaders' home. Through the use of probe questions, descriptive data was obtained, indicating why leaders selected certain kinds of learning experiences and levels of formality as those which provide important learning.

For the purpose of hypotheses generation, additional demographic information was collected during the interview. McKean (1977) indicated that other things besides amount of schooling may influence a person's preferences for certain levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences. He recommended that the quality of schooling be looked at as well. To follow up on this suggestion, information on the subjects' attitude toward their schooling experience (positive, negative, mixed) and the nature of past schooling (public, private, both) was collected.

Since pedagogical expectations are considered a cultural phenomenon by Ward (1973a) and Berger (1968), the ethnic background of the leaders and the girls with whom the leaders worked was examined to determine if relationships were present between ethnic background and their preferences for kinds of learning experiences and levels of formality.

The researcher explored what educational contexts (formal, nonformal, both) leaders associated their judgments with when choosing those levels and kinds that provided important learning.

Variables Under Investigation

The classifying or explanatory variables in this study were the amount of schooling and the degree of self-acceptance,and were therefore the independent variables. The variables explained in light of the independent variables were the degree and kind of expectation of learning. The degree and kind of expectation of learning were, therefore, the dependent variables. The assumption was that the degree and kind of expectation of learning were, among other variables, dependent on the amount of schooling and the degree of self-acceptance the leader had.

Independent Variables. The degree of self-acceptance was obtained, using Berger's "Expressed Acceptance of Self" scale. (Berger, 1952) The Berger scale contains thirty-six statements regarding feelings a person has about himself. The subject was asked to choose which of five answers best applied to them for each of the thirty-six items. The answers ranged from each of the thirty-six statements being completely true of them to completely untrue. A mean score for each subject was obtained which represented the degree of self-acceptance.

The other independent variable was amount of schooling. The subjects

were asked how many years of school they had completed.

Dependent Variables. The degree of expectation of learning was the subjects' score on the audio-visual instrument which measured the degree to which the leaders expect learning to occur in each of the learning situations under investigation. Levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences were factors of the dependent variable--degree of expectation of learning.

Level of formality of an instructional activity referred to how structured, authority-oriented, controlled a leader felt the learning activity must be to have important learning occur in others. Formality was measured in three levels: very formal, very informal and in between these two extremes. Levels of formality were labeled as high (very formal, medium (in between), and low (very informal.

Kind of learning experience provided by an instructional activity referred to the nature of experience the leader perceived as providing important learning in others. Ward (1966) and McKean (1977) discussed three basic kinds of learning experiences.

> Input: the learner is involved in receiving or coming into contact with some new information
>
> Self-awareness: the learner is involved in reflecting upon his or her current situation, including abilities, interests, feelings, knowledge, and limitations
>
> Sharing: the learner is involved in putting into his/her own words or acting upon some new information, ideas, insights. (McKean, 1977, p. 34)

The kind of expectation of learning referred to the logical and/or experiential bases of the leaders' choices regarding the kinds of learning experiences and levels of formality they believed provided

important learning for others.

The following hypotheses identify the relationships which were tested for among the independent and dependent variables:

H_1 Subjects will judge higher levels of formality as providing more important learning than do lower levels of formality.

H_2 Subjects will rate input experiences as providing more important learning for their girls than do sharing and self-awareness experiences.

H_3 Subjects will prefer medium levels of formality with sharing experiences.

H_4 Subjects will prefer low levels of formality with input experiences.

H_5 Subjects will prefer low levels of formality with self-awareness experiences.

H_6 Subjects will have a higher mean degree of self-acceptance than the mean found by Berger.

H_7 There is a significant relationship present between the leaders' degree of self-acceptance and their expectations related to levels of formality judged as providing important learning.

H_8 Subjects with above mean degrees of self-acceptance will prefer different levels of formality than do subjects with below mean degrees of self-acceptance.

H_9 There is a significant relationship between the leaders' degree of self-acceptance and their expectations related to kinds of learning experiences judged as providing important learning.

H_{10} Subjects with above mean degrees of self-acceptance will prefer different kinds of learning experiences than do subjects with below mean degrees of self-acceptance.

H_{11} There is a significant relationship between leaders' amount of schooling and their expectations regarding levels of formality.

H_{12} Subjects with more schooling prefer different levels of formality than do subjects with less schooling.

H_{13} There is a significant relationship between leaders' amount of schooling and their preferences for kinds of learning experiences.

H_{14} Subjects with more schooling will prefer different kinds of learning experiences than do subjects with less schooling.

H_{15} There is a significant relationship between leaders' amount of schooling and their preferences for the combinations of levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences.

H_{16} Subjects with more schooling will prefer different combinations than do subjects with less schooling.

H_{17} There is a logical and/or experiential bases for the subjects' judgments about kinds of learning experiences and levels of formality and these bases can be documented.

Sample

The sample was randomly selected from the Girl Scout Council of the Pacific registered leaders file. Specifically, the selection consisted of a random drawing of 60 troops of the 313 on Oahu. The first leader listed on each of the 60 troop cards was selected for interviewing.

As of February, 1978 there were a total of 1,757 leaders registered with troops. On the island of Oahu, there were 1,437 registered leaders with troops.

The original sample consisted of 60 people (1 man and 59 women). Eight women refused to participate, leaving a total of 52 people

interviewed. Those who refused to participate were all military residents. Two reasons were given for why they did not want to participate: "too busy" and "not interested in participating." In four cases, the researcher felt that the subjects were highly threatened, even though the interview purpose and content were explained thoroughly to them over the phone, and an assurance given that what was said during the interview would be confidential.

Because it was unanticipated that one subject selected would be a man, it was decided, for the purpose of data analysis, not to include his responses in the discussion of findings in Chapter 4. While no noticeable differences could be noted in his responses, it was decided to keep the study free of the gender variable.

Some questions were asked during the interview to develop a demographic profile for this particular sample. While some information was available from the registration forms, which would describe the kind of leaders the Girl Scout Council serves, the information was not tabulated, so little was known statistically about the leaders prior to the interview. For example, the ratio of military residents to local residents was not known. The ethnic background of leaders and girls was not known. The subjects' characteristic profile is reported in Chapter 4.

Instrumentation

The study used three instruments, two of which were designed specifically for the study. The "Expectation of Learning" instrument consisted of a set of eighteen photos, eighteen tape-recorded picture captions (one for each photo) and a response scale answer sheet. (Appendix A)

The "Expectation of Learning" instrument was designed to measure the subjects' perceptions of what levels of formality and kinds of learning experience would facilitate important learning. The photos and captions were selected to represent adult women and girls engaged in various kinds of learning experiences (input, self-awareness, and sharing) and in various levels of formality (low, medium, and high).

The photos portrayed a leader-and-girl relationship and the physical set-up of the instructional experience. To assist the subject in knowing what it was the leader and girls were doing in each particular photo, an audio caption was played for each photo shown. The tape-recorded simulated leader instruction was used to overcome the subjects' possible reading inabilities. The tape recorded captions were separated by a 15-second silence to give subjects time to respond to each photo.

The subjects recorded their responses on a response scale answer sheet which accompanied the photos. The response scale consisted of a Likert-type scale ranging from yes, probably are; some are, some aren't; probably not, no. (Appendix B)

The question the subjects responded to for each photo was the same: "Do you think these people are learning something important?" This question was chosen for several reasons. McKean (1977, p. 39) utilizing a similiar instrument, found through trial uses that this question was the clearest. Second, it focuses on participants' personal viewpoints. Third, the question has been used in other ethnopedagogy studies to determine if people consider an activity a valid learning activity. Fourth, the word "important" tries to focus on intentional goals and objectives of the activity and away from

ancillary or negative learning.

Each of the eighteen photos portrayed one of three levels of formality (low, medium, or high) and one of the three kinds of learning experiences (input, self-awareness, or sharing). Therefore, there were nine combinations possible. These combinations are shown in Table 3.1.

TABLE 3.1

POSSIBLE COMBINATIONS OF LEVELS OF

FORMALITY BY KINDS OF LEARNING EXPERIENCE

High formality Input	High formality Self-awareness	High formality Sharing
Medium formality Input	Medium formality Self-awareness	Medium formality Sharing
Low formality Input	Low formality Self-awareness	Low formality Sharing

Two photos represented each of the nine possible learning situations under investigation. Therefore, eighteen photos and audio-captions comprised the "Expectation of Learning" instrument.

Validity Test. To insure content validity of the "Expectation of Learning" instrument (i.e., that photos represent what the researcher thinks they represent) a panel of four people (two women who worked in their home and two who worked outside their home) were asked to do two things. First, a check was made on whether the level of formality the researcher assigned to each of the eighteen photos was the same as that assigned by the panel. The number of photos was split in half so that

there was one photo representing each of the nine possible combinations of levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences. The panel was asked to rank each of the three sets of three kinds of learning experiences from formal to least formal. This procedure was repeated for the second set of nine photos. There was 100% agreement between what the researcher believed to be high, medium, and low formality settings and what the panel perceived as representing high, medium and low formality settings.

Second, each member of the panel was given the instrument as it was to be administered to the subjects and asked which of the three kinds of learning experiences was represented by each photo. The panel agreed 94% with the researcher's intentions for each photo. Thus, the content portrayed was considered valid.

Reliability Test. The "Expectation of Learning" instrument asked the same question about eighteen different photos and was basically looking for different responses to the same stimulus from different subjects. To insure that the stimulus was the same on all but the characteristics under investigation (level of formality and kind of learning experience), attempts were made to get photos in which there were no significant differences among the factors of clothing, age of leader, age of learners, ethnic composition of learners. All photos were taken in an inside setting,utilizing the same girls and leaders.

To insure that the instrument elicited the same response over time (stability validity) and was not vulnerable to changes in the subject's mood, situation, or environment, the instrument was administered to six people at one time and then re-administered to the same people after two to three hours. There was an item by item

correlation of .89. Thus, the instrument was considered stable over time.

To insure that the instrument was internally consistent, the items were divided into two equivalent halves and each half administered at a separate time to the same people. A split-half correlation was done using Kendall's Tau. The correlation between halves was significant at the .01 level.

When a subject did not differentiate between responses more than two points (yes or probably are) at least four or more times, a "Discrimination" instrument was administered to further identify expectations of learning. (Appendix A)

The "Discrimination" instrument consisted of eighteen photos and eighteen audio captions. Each photo represented one of the nine possible combinations of levels of formality (low, medium, high) and kinds of learning experiences (input, self-awareness, sharing). The eighteen photos and audio captions were the same as the photos and audio captions utilized in the "Expectation of Learning" instrument described above.

The first nine photos tested for differentiation in kinds of learning experiences and the second set of nine photos tested for differentiation in levels of formality. In the first set the level of formality was held constant, and the kinds of learning experiences varied (e.g. high-input, high-self-awareness, high-sharing). In the second set kinds of learning experiences were held constant, and the level of formality varied (e.g. input-high, input-medium, input-low).

Three photos were shown at one time and were accompanied by audio captions. After the audio captions for all three were played, the subject was asked the following questions: (1) Which of these photos

represents the situation in which the most important learning is happening? (2) Which of these photos represents the situation in which the least important learning is happening?

On a separate answer sheet the subject recorded her choice regarding which photos represented the most and least important learning situation.

Since the photos and captions used in the "Discrimination" instrument were the same as those used in the "Expectation of Learning" instrument reliability and validity procedures were the same.

The third instrument used in the study was Berger's "Expressed Acceptance of Self" scale. This instrument measured, on a five point answer scale, the leader's view of acceptance of self, particularily in social contexts. The Berger scale was chosen because it had been used in studies of nonformal education groups (i.e. see Denmark's study in Chapter 2) and was considered more reliable and valid because of repeated use than a new scale created for this study would have been.

The instrument consists of thirty-six items dealing with self-acceptance. The items are written in such a way that they ask for a response about self in relation to various social contexts. Each item was answered on a five-point scale: not at all true; slightly true of myself; about halfway true of myself; mostly true of myself; to true of myself. (Appendix D)

Reliability Check. Spearman-Brown estimates of reliability equaled or exceeded .75 for several samples using the Berger scale, according to Robinson and Saver (1970, p. 107). Eagly, as reported by Robinson and Saver (1970), obtained a correlation of .91 between

16 items administered before and 16 items after an experiment. The scale has been utilized in formal and nonformal education settings and has proven reliable in both.

Validity Check. When checking for convergent validity, Omwake (1954) found that the Berger and Phillips (1951) scales correlated .73.

The prediction on which the Berger scale was constructed has also been confirmed. Omwake (1954) found correlations of .37 between the Berger self and other scales. Berger (1952) obtained group differences in self-acceptance which could support the scale's validity. (Robinson and Saver, 1970, p. 107)

The interview schedule which followed administration of the "Expectation of Learning" and the "Discrimination" instruments consisted of a series of open-ended probe questions. The questions' intent was to probe the bases on which subjects chose levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences they felt provided important learning.

The interview schedule consisted of three parts (Part A, B, and C). Part A probed their reasons for indicating that people were learning something important. Part B probed their reasons for indicating that people were not learning something important. Part C consisted of questions which would collect the demographic data necessary to further clarify the logical and/or experiential bases for their pedagogical expectations.

Since two people were involved in interviewing the subjects, both practiced interviewing two people. The practice sessions were discussed to insure both interviewers were recording information accurately, were asking the questions as stated on the interview sheet and were not priming the subjects to elicit desired responses. Gordon's Interviewing:

Strategy, Techniques and Tactics (1975) was used as a preparation guide for the interviews.

Research Procedures and Data Collection

The research data were gathered in an interview of approximately one hour with each subject. The field work was done during March, 1978.

Prior to Interview. In February, 1978, the random sample was selected from the registered Girl Scout leaders, and a letter of introduction was sent to each of the sixty leaders selected. The letter was signed by the Director of Camping and Training Services for the Girl Scout Council of the Pacific and indicated the purpose of the interview. The letter also informed them that the researcher would be calling to arrange a time for an interview. Shortly after the letters were mailed, each subject was called and a time scheduled for the interview.

The interviews were conducted by two researchers, the principal researcher and one assistant. The assistant was given instruction in how to conduct the interview, with emphasis on avoiding biasing subject's responses. She was instructed in how to record answers. Both interviewers practiced giving two interviews each. The results were discussed and problems and questions clarified.

During the Interview. A carefully structured interview procedure was established. The three research instruments described above were used, accompanied by probe questions on the "Expectation of Learning" or, in some cases, the "Discrimination" instrument.

Specifically, the step-by-step procedure used during the interview was as follows:

1. Introduction and statement of purpose of interview
2. Administration of "Expectation of Learning" instrument
3. If subject differientiated less than 2 points, 3 or less times, "Discrimination" instrument administered
4. Asked probe questions on photos which were judged as "Yes" or "Probably Are" learning something important. (For those going through the "Discrimination" instrument, probe questions related to those photos for which subject responded the most important learning was happening)
5. Asked probe questions on photos which were judged as "No" or people are "Probably Not" learning something important. (For those subjects who went through the "Discrimination" instrument, probe questions relate to those photos for which subjects responded that the least important learning was occuring.)
6. Gathered personal description data
7. Administered Berger's "Expressed Acceptance of Self" scale
8. Interview concluded.

Both the "Expectation of Learning" and "Discrimination" instruments, designed to measure the subject's degree of expectation of learning, were organized so that each subject recorded their own answers on an answer sheet. In addition, the subjects recorded their answers to the thirty-six items on the Berger scale on an answer sheet.

Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyze the data. The data was measured primarily using nonparametric correlational measurements. Kendall's Tau was accepted as significant at the $a=.05$ level. Contingency tables with Chi-square measures of

association were used in some cases. Significance was accepted for the Chi-square measurement at a=.05 level.

The descriptive statistics for both the demographic data and the data resulting from the probe interview questions also were tabulated. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences was utilized to run Chi-squares to discover significant relationships which might exist.

The dependent and independent variables are listed below, showing the combinations of correlations done to test for main effects and associations among variables.

Tests for Main Effects

1. Levels of Formality
2. Kinds of Learning Experiences
3. View of Self-acceptance
4. Amount of Schooling
5. Bases of Judgment

Tests of Associations

1. Levels of Formality by Kinds of Learning Experiences
2. Amount of Schooling by Levels of Formality
3. Amount of Schooling by Kinds of Learning Experiences
4. Amount of Schooling by Kinds of Learning Experiences by Levels of Formality
5. Self-acceptance by Kinds of Learning Experiences
6. Self-acceptance by Levels of Formality
7. Self-acceptance by Kinds of Learning Experiences by Levels of Formality

Methodological Assumptions

There were several assumptions which underlie this study's design and procedures. Perhaps the most obvious was that the researcher assumed the subjects' responses to the question in the "Expectation of Learning" instrument (Are these people learning something important?) indicated the degree of learning which the subjects considered was occurring in each learning situation portrayed.

It was assumed that the three levels of formality and the three kinds of learning experiences under investigation could be represented through pictures, especially when accompanied by an audio stimulus suggesting what was being done and the nature of the leader's response to learners.

The Berger "Expressed Acceptance of Self" scale was assumed to be a valid and reliable indicator of self-acceptance for the subjects involved in this study.

It was assumed that one can determine how a leader judges the photos used in the "Expectation of Learning" instrument by asking a series of probe questions during the course of an interview.

The assumption was made that the response scale, ranging from "Yes" to "No" is a nonparametric scale. No assumptions about normal distribution of scores or of equal metric units between the five units on the scale were made for the majority of the statistical tests utilized to analyze the data.

Limitations

This study was an exploratory study, designed to test how the leaders' amount of schooling and degree of self-acceptance related to their expectations on two constructs involved in a learning experience: Kinds of learning experiences and Levels of formality.

The literature indicated that a person's pedagogical expecations are influenced by numerous variables. This study explored the relationship among four. While significant relationships were found, this study does not entirely explain the pedagogical expectation phenomenon. Additional variables (dependent and independent) need to be identified and researched.

The subjects belonged to a discrete population of adult leaders. Generalizability is confined to Girls Scout leaders on the island of Oahu, Hawaii. Because of the uniqueness of the Hawaiian people and culture, generalizability to all Girl Scout leaders in the United States is inadvisable.

The study was limited to what leaders verbalized as preferences regarding kinds of learning experiences and levels of formality considered to provide important, valid learning. The reader cannot assume that because leaders say they think certain levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences provide more important learning that, in practice, they use these kinds and levels. The links between what one believes, says, and does are complex ones, and often seemingly contradictory. Many additional studies need to be conducted to better understand the differences, correlations, and cause-effect relationships among believing, saying, and behaving.

Third, this was a correlational study, indicating significant and nonsignificant relationships among amount of schooling, degree of self-acceptance, degree and kind of expectation of learning. Correlational studies do not establish cause-effect relationships between variables correlated. This study pointed to relationships that seem to exist. Cause and effect studies must follow.

Summary

Chapter 3 described the methods used to investigate the relationships among the degree and kind of expectation of learning (dependent variables), and the amount of schooling and degree of self-acceptance (independent variables) held by a random sample of fifty-one Girl Scout leaders on the island of Oahu, Hawaii.

Chapter 4

FINDINGS

The findings are presented in this chapter. Each of the research questions and hypotheses are restated and accompanied by the statistical findings. The chapter concludes with a summary of the major findings.

Overview

The primary focus of this study examined leaders' judgments regarding (a) the kinds of learning experiences and levels of formality they thought provided important learning for others, and (b) what factors might relate to why they chose one or more kinds and levels over another.

Amount of schooling and degree of self-acceptance were the specific independent variables under investigation. Levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences comprised the dependent variable, called degree of expectation for learning. The kind of expectation for learning was the second factor of the dependent variable. The kind of expectation for learning was the verbal rationale given for why

certain photos represented situations in which important learning was and was not occurring.

Little was known about the sample prior to the interviews because of the lack of available demographic data. A demographic profile of the sample follows, based on information collected during the interviews.

Sample Profile

The sample consisted of 41% locale residents and 59% military residents. The mean age of the leader was 31.98 years. 71% of the subjects were caucasian, while 29% were from other ethnic backgrounds (Japanese, Chinese, Portuguese, Hawaiian or Korean).

These leaders worked with girls ranging in age from 8 to 18. 53% of the leaders worked with Brownies. 31% worked with Juniors. 8% worked with Cadets. 2% worked with Senior girls. Another 6% of the leaders had more than one age group troop program.

There were four types of troop groupings with respect to ethnic background. Table 4.1 shows the combinations which existed when the ethnic background of the leader was cross-tabulated with the girls' ethnic backgrounds. 29.5% of the troops represented in this sample were caucasian leaders working with causcasian girls. This cell was reflective of the military resident working with military dependents.

6% of the caucasian leaders surveyed worked with a caucasian/black ethnic mix. Again, these were military residents working with military dependents.

The third combination represented in Table 4.1 was the caucasian leader working with a multi-ethnic troop (35%). The majority of these leaders were local residents. However, there were a few military

TABLE 4.1

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF ETHNIC BACKGROUND

OF LEADERS WITH ETHNIC BACKGROUND OF GIRLS

Ethnic Background of Leader	Ethnic Background of Girls in Troop		
	Caucasian	Caucasian/Black	Multi-ethnic
Caucasian	15 (29.5%)	3 (6%)	18 (35%)
Multi-ethnic	-0-	-0-	15 (29.5%)

N=51

residents in this cell who had a multi-ethnic troop. In every case, when a military resident had a multi-ethnic troop, she also lived off the military base.

The fourth cell in Table 4.1 represents the leaders who came from various Asian, Hawaiian or Portuguese backgrounds and who worked with girls who were also from numerous ethnic backgrounds (29.5%). The leaders five primary ethnic backgrounds were Japanese, Chinese, Hawaiian, Korean and Portuguese. The typical multi-ethnic troop represented in this sample was comprised of girls from Japanese, Chinese, Hawaiian, Korean, Filipino, Caucasian, Black, and Portuguese backgrounds, with each troop having a varying array of other backgrounds present as well.

The mean years a leader had been involved in the Girl Scout program was 3.1. One leader interviewed had been a leader for 27 years. Two others had been involved in some sort of leadership capacity for 15 years.

The mean income of the leaders surveyed was $18,212. 49% owned their homes, while 47% rented. 4% of the leaders both owned a home and rented as well. (These were military residents who were renting while in Hawaii, but owned a home elsewhere on the mainland.)

The majority of leaders (69%) had been in Girl Scout in their youth. The mean years of involvement as a girl was 5.44 years.

47% of the leaders worked,while 53% do not. Of those who worked, 17% worked fourth-time, 38% worked half-time, 12% worked three-fourths time, and 33% worked full-time.

When asked what other leadership involvements they currently had besides Girl Scouts, 35% said they held other leadership positions, while 64% indicated no other involvements other than Girl Scouts. The mean number of other involvements was 1.6, with 4 women carrying three other leadership involvements besides Girl Scouts.

55% of the leaders spoke one language (English). 33% spoke two languages and 12% spoke three or more.

When asked to evaluate what kind of job they felt they were doing as a leader, 18% responded that they were doing a very good job, 49% a good job, 31% an average job and 2% a poor job.

Data Analysis Methods

The data analysis primarily used nonparametric methods. In most cases, no assumptions were made about the distribution of scores within the sample compared to its parent distribution.

Two measures of association were used: Kendall's Tau and a transformation of Chi-square. These measures were intended to describe the degree of relationship between two variables and were defined to be +1 (or -1) for a perfect predictive relationship to 0.0 for no relationship.

Kendall's Tau measures the degree of monotonic relationship between two variables. Variations of Tau were used: Kendall's Tau_a, Tau_b, and Tau_c. Kendall's Tau assumes the variables are continuous or rank-ordered. The Chi-square treats the scores on the answer scale as categorical variables. Thus, the assumption of equal metric units between each of the five categories on the scale is dropped. Since there was considerable debate among statisticians as to whether or not the answer scale used in this study could be treated as a continuous scale or should be analyzed as a categorical scale, it was decided to present data utilizing both.

The Chi-square measurement used in this study was a transformation of X^2 which tested for independence between two variables.

Data Analysis

The analysis section of Chapter 4 is organized around the study's research questions.

A. Pedagogical expectations of the entire sample toward levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences were identified:

> Research Question: Do adult leaders judge any one level of formality as providing more important learning than other levels of formality?
>
> Research Hypothesis: Subjects will judge higher levels of formality as providing more important learning than do lower levels of formality.
>
> Statistical Hypothesis: Subjects will not judge higher levels of formality as those providing more important learning than lower levels of formality.

Levels of Formality. Table 4.2 presents the frequency distribution for subjects' judgments by the levels of formality.

A total of six photos represented each level of formality.

TABLE 4.2

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF LEVELS OF FORMALITY BY JUDGMENT OF IMPORTANCE

Judgment of Importance	Low Formality		Medium Formality		High Formality	
	Total Responses	%	Total Responses	%	Total Responses	%
Yes	129	42.2	106	34.6	96	31.4
Probably Are	84	27.5	103	33.7	93	30.4
Some Are Some Aren't	73	23.9	76	24.8	92	30.1
Probably Not	16	5.2	12	3.9	18	5.8
No	4	1.3	9	3.0	7	2.3
Total Responses	306		306		306	
Total % of Positive Judgments		69.7		68.3		61.8
Total % of Negative Judgments		30.3		31.7		28.2

Therefore, the frequency distribution given represents the grand total of responses for all six photos separated into the five response categories (yes to no). The percentage of the total responses possible are represented at the bottom of each frequency count, along with a total percentage for both positive and negative judgments. The "yes" and "probably are" rows were considered positive judgments, while the remaining three ("some are, some aren't", "probably not", and "no") were considered judgments which were uncertain to completely negative.

Table 4.2 indicates that 69.7% of the subjects' responses favored the low level of formality situations as ones in which girls were learning something important. 30.3% of the subjects' responses did not or were at least suspicious of how much learning was occurring.

68.3% of the subjects' responses indicated the medium level of formality situations were ones in which girls were learning something important, while 31.7% did not or were uncertain of how much learning was occurring.

61.8% of the subjects' responses indicated the high level of formality situations provided important learning, while 38.2% did not or were uncertain of how much learning was occurring.

Therefore, when ranked according to preferences among levels of formality, low to medium levels of formality were considered situations in which important learning was occurring, more so than high levels of formality situations. In addition, the frequency distribution totals indicate that, for every level, leaders did differ in their judgments as to whether or not a level of formality provided a context in which important learning could occur. However, the majority of responses indicated that all three levels of formality were positively viewed.

Kendall's Tau analysis of leaders' judgments, displayed in Table 4.3, shows there was a significant monotonic relationship among the leaders' choices on levels of formality. This relationship indicated that the leaders' judgments can be predicted to follow a linear pattern. Since the Tau statistic is symmetrical, all possible relationships are summarized in the four correlation coefficients given in Table 4.3. The frequency distribution in Table 4.2 shows what the average leader's judgment pattern was. Table 4.4 explores this pattern further.

TABLE 4.3

KENDALL CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

FOR LEVELS OF FORMALITY

Correlation Combination	T	Significance
low formality with medium formality	.2482	.011*
low formality with high formality	.3021	.002*
medium formality with high formality	.2517	.010*

*Significant at .05 level

To analyze the relationship between the three levels of formality a multiple regression analysis was performed. Multiple regression is a descriptive and inferential tool through which one can analyze the relationship between a criterion variable and a set of predictor variables. The linear relationship of one variable on others is

summarized as well as the relationships in the population evaluated from the examination of the sample data (Nie, 1975, p. 321). Therefore, the test helps one determine if knowing the judgments on two of the three levels of formality allows us to accurately predict the judgment which will be made on the third level of formality.

In using this measurement, the assumption is made that the response scale is a continuous scale and that a normal distribution exists.

Table 4.4 demonstrates that a positive linear relationship did exist for each possible combination within the regression analysis. That is, when low formality was treated as a dependent variable and medium and high formality are treated as independent variables, a positive linear relationship existed. $F = 6.63375$ and was significant at the .003 level. If we know the judgments of a subject on medium and high formality, we can predict with 22% confidence what the average leader's judgments will be with regards to low formality learning situations.

As Table 4.4 shows, when low level of formality was the dependent variable, $F = 6.63375$, significant at .003 level. Medium formality as the dependent variable had an $F = 4.37756$, significant at .018 level. High formality as the dependent variable had an $F = 5.24680$, significant at .009 level.

Therefore, based on the frequency distribution data, Kendall's Tau and the multiple regression data, the null hypothesis was not rejected. The leaders did significantly differ in their judgments about which levels of formality provide important learning. The relationship between the factors (low, medium and high levels of formality) was a positive linear and monotonic relationship. Given the judgments (positive or

TABLE 4.4

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF LINEAR DEPENDENCE

AMONG LEVELS OF FORMALITY

Low Formality As Dependent Variable		Mean = 11.7647		SD = 2.6275			
Multiple R	.46535	Analyses of Variance	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F	Significance
R^2	.21655	Regression	2	74.74807	37.37404	6.63375	.003
SD	2.37359	Residual	48	270.42840	5.63392		

Medium Formality As Dependent Variable		Mean = 12.4118		SD = 3.0145			
Multiple R	.39276	Analyses of Variance	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F	Significance
R^2	.15426	Regression	2	70.08910	35.04455	4.37756	.018
SD	2.82940	Residual	48	384.26384	8.00550		

High Formality As Dependent Variable		Mean = 13.0392		SD = 3.7307			
Multiple R	.42355	Analyses of Variance	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F	Significance
R^2	.17940	Regression	2	124.84654	62.42327	5.24680	.009
SD	3.44926	Residual	48	571.07503	11.89740		

negative) on two of the levels of formality, one is able to confidently predict what judgments will be on the third. The mean prediction would be that a leader will judge low formality situations the most favorably, followed by medium formality and high formality. Therefore, the research hypotheses postulated the wrong direction. Rather than subjects preferring higher levels of formality, they prefer lower levels of formality.

> Research Question: Do adult leaders judge any one kind of learning experience as providing more important learning than other kinds of learning experiences?
>
> Research Hypothesis: Subjects will rate input experiences as providing more important learning for their girls than do sharing and self-awareness experiences.
>
> Statistical Hypothesis: Subjects will not rate input experiences as providing more important learning for their girls than do sharing and self-awareness experiences.

Kinds of Learning Experiences. Table 4.5 presents the frequency distribution of response for each of the three kinds of learning experiences under investigation. The data were tabulated in the same manner as was done for the levels of formality.

Table 4.5 indicates that 72.2% of the subjects judged input learning experiences as those providing important learning situations, while 27.8% of the responses were uncertain of input learning experiences as portrayed.

62.7% of the responses favored the self-awareness learning experiences, while 37.3% were uncertain of these situations.

64.7% of the subjects' responses favored sharing experiences, while 35.3% were uncertain of how much important learning was occurring.

TABLE 4.5

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF KINDS OF LEARNING EXPERIENCES

BY JUDGMENT OF IMPORTANCE

Judgment of Importance	Input		Self-Awareness		Sharing	
	Total Response	%	Total Response	%	Total Response	%
Yes	147	48.0	79	25.8	105	34.3
Probably Are	74	24.2	113	36.9	93	30.4
Some Are Some Aren't	60	19.6	95	31.0	86	28.1
Probably Not	15	4.9	11	3.7	20	6.5
No	10	3.3	8	2.6	2	.7
Total Responses	306		306		306	
Total % of Positive Judgments		72.2		62.7		64.7
Total % of Negative Judgments		27.8		37.3		35.3

Therefore, when the three kinds of learning experiences were ranked from highest to lowest positive judgments, input (72.2%) was strongly out in front as that kind of learning experience considered to provide most important learning; followed by sharing (64.7%) and self-awareness (62.7%) learning experiences.

To partially answer the question posed by the hypothesis, the percentage totals for each of the three kinds of learning experiences indicated that the subjects did differ in their judgments as to whether or not a kind of learning experience provides important learning.

The Kendall Tau analysis shows that there was a significant monotonic relationship among leaders choice on the kinds of learning experiences (Table 4.6). Again, because the Tau analysis is a symmetrical measurement, the three combinations in Table 4.6 represented all possible combinations.

TABLE 4.6

KENDALL CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

FOR KINDS OF LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Correlation Combinations	T	Significance
Input with Self-awareness	.2650	.007*
Input with Sharing	.2233	.021*
Self-awareness with Sharing	.2525	.009*

*Significant at .05 level

TABLE 4.7

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF LINEAR DEPENDENCE

AMONG KINDS OF LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Input As Dependent Variable	Mean = 11.4706	SD = 2.8309					
Multiple R	.46640	Analyses of Variance	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Significance
R^2	.21753	Regression	2	87.16529	43.58264	6.67208	.003
SD	2.55580	Residual	48	313.54059	6.53210		

Self-Awareness As Dependent Variable	Mean = 13.2157	SD = 3.4136					
Multiple R	.46808	Analyses of Variance	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Significance
R^2	.21910	Regression	2	127.65095	63.82547	6.73358	.003
SD	3.07875	Residual	48	454.97650	9.47868		

Sharing As Dependent Variable	Mean = 12.5294	SD = 3.0486					
Multiple R	.39572	Analyses of Variance	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Significance
R^2	.15659	Regression	2	72.76892	36.38446	4.45596	.017
SD	2.85751	Residual	48	391.93696	8.16535		

Table 4.7 displays the results of the multiple regression analysis done on the three kinds of learning experiences.

Treating input as the dependent variable, and self-awareness and sharing as independent variables, F = 6.67208, significant at the .003 level. Therefore, if we know what the judgments are regarding self-awareness and sharing, we can confidently predict what the subjects' judgments will be for input experiences.

Treating self-awareness as the dependent variable also yielded a significant F, F = 6.73358, significant at .003 level. Treating sharing as the dependent variable, F = 4.45596, significant at .017 level.

Therefore, a linear relationship did exist among the judgments made on all three kinds of learning experiences. If one knows the judgments made one two of the kinds of learning, one can predict the judgments which will be made on the third kind. The average prediction will be that leaders will judge input experiences most favorably, followed by sharing experiences and then self-awareness.

B. The kinds of learning experiences and levels of formality were examined together to identify what level of formality was perceived to be more valid with what kind of learning experience.

> Research Question: What is the leaders' preference when each kind of learning experience is combined with each level of formality?
>
> Research Hypotheses:
> Subjects will prefer medium levels of formality with sharing experiences.
> Subjects will prefer low levels of formality with input experiences.
> Subjects will prefer low levels of formality with self-awareness experiences.

Statistical Hypotheses:
Subjects will not prefer medium levels of formality with sharing experiences.
Subjects will not prefer low levels of formality with input experiences.
Subjects will not prefer low levels of formality with self-awareness experiences.

Each subject made two judgments about each of the nine possible combinations of levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences. A total of 102 possible responses existed for each of the nine combinations. Table 4.8 through 4.10 give the distribution of response for each of the three kinds of learning experiences by each of the three levels of formality.

Table 4.8 displays the responses for input learning experiences by levels of formality. 95% judged low formality/input experiences as providing important learning, while 4.9% were uncertain about such a combination. 64.8% of the responses favored medium formality/input experiences, while 35.2% did not. When high formality was combined with input experiences, 56.9% of the judgments were favorable; 43.1% were not.

When the percentages were compared, the combination judged most favorably was low formality/input (95.1%), followed by medium formality/input (64.8%), with high formality/input experiences favored the least (56.9%).

Table 4.9 gives the distribution of responses for self-awareness learning experiences combined with the three levels of formality. 67.6% of the judgments favored low formality/self-awareness experiences, while 32.4% did not. 60.8% of the responses favored medium formality/self-awareness experiences as providing important learning, while 39.2% did not. When high formality was combined with self-awareness experiences, 59.8% judged this combination favorably, while 40.2% did not.

TABLE 4.8

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF INPUT LEARNING EXPERIENCES

BY LEVELS OF FORMALITY BY JUDGMENT OF IMPORTANCE

Judgment of Importance	Input/Low Formality		Input/Medium Formality		Input/High Formality	
	Total Response	%	Total Response	%	Total Response	%
Yes	81	79.4	33	32.4	33	32.4
Probably Are	16	15.7	33	32.4	25	24.5
Some Are Some Aren't	3	2.9	26	25.4	31	30.4
Probably Not	1	1.0	5	4.9	9	8.8
No	1	1.0	5	4.9	4	3.9
Total Responses	102		102		102	
Total % of Positive Judgments		95.1		64.8		56.9
Total % of Negative Judgments		4.9		35.2		43.1

TABLE 4.9

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF SELF-AWARENESS LEARNING EXPERIENCES

BY LEVELS OF FORMALITY BY JUDGMENT OF IMPORTANCE

Judgment of Importance	Low Foramlity		Medium Formality		High Formality	
	Total Responses	%	Total Responses	%	Total Responses	%
Yes	27	26.4	27	26.5	25	24.5
Probably Are	42	41.2	35	34.3	36	35.3
Some Are Some Aren't	28	27.5	31	30.4	36	35.3
Probably Not	3	2.9	5	4.9	3	2.9
No	2	2.0	4	3.9	2	2.0
Total Responses	102		102		102	
Total % of Positive Judgments		67.6		60.8		59.8
Total % of Negative Judgments		32.4		39.2		40.2

Table 4.10 combines sharing with low, medium, and high formality. 46% of the judgments indicate important learning was occurring in the low formality/sharing situations shown, while 54% did not. 79% favored medium formality/sharing experiences, while 20.6% of the judgments did not. 68.7% judged the high formality/sharing combination as situations in which important learning was happening, while 31.3% did not.

As a composite, the combination which had the most positive judgments was medium formality/sharing (79.4%), followed by high formality/sharing (68.7%). Low formality/sharing experiences was the least preferred combination as one in which important learning was occurring (46%).

When Tables 4.8 to 4.10 are looked at together, the combination judged most positively was the low formality/input experiences (95%). The least favorable judgments occurred with the low formality/sharing experiences (46%).

The Kendall Tau statistic was used to test whether or not the subjects' judgments on one formality x kind combination were closely associated with their judgments on the second combination testing for the same factors. Table 4.11 shows that there were significant relationships in judgments, below the .05 level, for all except the high formality/sharing combinations (significant at .326 level) and the medium formality/input combination (significant at .197 level). Therefore, the strength of association between the variables testing for the same factor combination was considered strong.

Kendall's Tau was used to determine whether or not a significant monotonic relationship existed in the leaders' choices for each of the nine possible combinations. Table 4.12 shows that for every combination

TABLE 4.10

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF SHARING LEARNING EXPERIENCES

BY LEVELS OF FORMALITY BY JUDGMENT OF IMPORTANCE

Judgment of Importance	Low Formality		Medium Formality		High Formality	
	Total Responses	%	Total Responses	%	Total Responses	%
Yes	21	20.6	46	45.1	38	37.3
Probably Are	26	25.4	35	34.3	32	31.4
Some Are Some Aren't	42	41.2	19	18.6	25	24.5
Probably Not	12	11.8	2	2.0	6	5.8
No	1	1.0	0	-0-	1	1.0
Total Responses	102		102		102	
Total % of Positive Judgments		46.0		79.4		68.7
Total % of Negative Judgments		54.0		20.6		31.3

TABLE 4.11

KENDALL CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

FOR INTER-ITEM RELATIONSHIP

	Input	Self-Awareness	Sharing
Low Formality	Photo 2 with 16 T = .3948 a = .001*	Photo 11 with 14 T = .4546 a = .001*	Photo 4 with 8 T = .3508 a = .001*
Medium Formality	Photo 5 with 9 T = .1247 a = .197	Photo 7 with 17 T = .1875 a = .053*	Photo 13 with 18 T = .4467 a = .001*
High Formality	Photo 1 with 12 T = .4285 a = .001*	Photo 3 with 10 T = .2076 a = .032*	Photo 6 with 15 T = .0950 a = .326

*Significant at .05 level
N = 51

TABLE 4.12

KENDALL TAU CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

FOR LEVELS OF FORMALITY BY KINDS OF LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Combination	T	Significance
Low with		
Input	.3720	.001*
Self-awareness	.4221	.001*
Sharing	.4374	.001*
Medium with		
Input	.3755	.001*
Self-awareness	.3893	.001*
Sharing	.4931	.001*
High with		
Input	.4680	.001*
Self-awareness	.5215	.001*
Sharing	.3138	.002*

*Significant at .05 level

there was a significant relationship. The leaders' judgments cluster significantly toward a patterned response. The pattern is reflected in Tables 4.8 to 4.10.

Leaders did make definite, predictable choices regarding which level of formality was best with each kind of learning experience and vice versa. Null Hypothesis 1 is rejected. Subjects do prefer medium levels of formality with sharing experiences. Null hypothesis 2 is rejected. Subjects do prefer low levels of formality with input experiences. Null hypotheses 3 is rejected. Subjects prefer low levels of formality with self-awareness experiences.

C. The leaders' degree of self-acceptance was identified. Then, attempts were made to identify whether or not the leaders' degree of self-acceptance related to their judgments regarding levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences.

> Research Question: What is the leaders' mean degree of self-acceptance and how does that mean compare to Berger's findings?
>
> Research Hypothesis: Subjects will have a higher mean degree of self-acceptance than the mean found by Berger.
>
> Research Hypothesis: Subjects will not have a higher mean degree of self-acceptance than the mean found by Berger.

During the interview the Berger "Expressed Acceptance of Self" scale was completed by each subject. The scale consists of thirty-six statements. The subjects responded whether or not each statement was completely true of herself, slightly true, halfway true, slightly untrue, or not at all true of herself.

Table 4.13 indicates that the mean score was 148.863. The total possible score was 180. The Kurtosis measurement (2.359) indicates

TABLE 4.13

LEADERS DEGREE OF SELF ACCEPTANCE

Mean	148.863	SD Error	2.742
Mode	126.000	SD Deviation	19.581
Medium	153.750	Kurtosis	2.359
Variance	383.401	Skewness	-1.383
Maximum Score	175	Minimum Score	82

N = 51

that the distribution was more peaked than a normal distribution would be. The skewness statistic indicates that the distribution of the cases clustered to the right (-1.383).

The minimum score was 82. The maximum was 175. Since the variance and standard deviation were high, the subjects do differ in their degree of self-acceptance.

The mean score found is comparable to that found by Denmark (1971, p. 45) and Berger (1955, p. 280). Denmark divided his sample into three leader effectiveness groups and compared the mean self-acceptance score for each group. The least effective 4-H leader had a mean of 136.98. The average effectiveness group's mean was 152.12. The most effective 4-H leaders' mean score was 157.31.

When Berger selected at random 79 women he found the mean self-acceptance score was 146.6 with a standard deviation of 19.4. Therefore, this sample of Girl Scout leaders was slightly higher than Berger's

mean score findings, but had almost an identical measure of dispersion. The null hypothesis is rejected. Subjects did have a higher mean degree of self-acceptance than the mean found by Berger. However, the difference in means is slight.

Research Question: What is the relationship between the leaders' degree of self-acceptance and their expectations related to levels of formality judged as providing important learning?

Research Hypotheses:
There is a significant relationship present between the leaders' degree of self-acceptance and their expectations related to levels of formality judged as providing important learning.

Subjects with above mean degrees of self-acceptance will prefer different levels of formality than do subjects with below mean degrees of self-acceptance.

Statistical Hypotheses:
There is not a significant relationship between the leaders' degree of self-acceptance and their expectations related to levels of formality judged as providing important learning.

Subjects with above mean degrees of self-acceptance will not prefer different levels of formality than do subjects with below mean degrees of self-acceptance.

To handle statistically the dispersion of scores on the "Expressed Acceptance of Self" scale, the subjects were divided into two groups: leaders with below the mean scores were classified as group 1, leaders with above the mean scores were classified as group 2.

The Kendall correlation coefficients are displayed in Table 4.14. There was no significant relationship, at the .05 level, discovered for degree of self-acceptance with low formality or with high formality. There was, however, a significant relationship (.027) for degree of self-acceptance with medium formality learning situations.

Leaders with above mean degrees of self-acceptance rated medium levels of formality as more valid than do leaders with below mean degrees of self-acceptance.

The cross-tabulation with Chi-square indicated no significant relationship between leaders' degree of self-acceptance and the levels of formality (Table 4.15).

TABLE 4.14

KENDALL CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR DEGREE OF SELF-ACCEPTANCE WITH LEVELS OF FORMALITY

Degree of Self-Acceptance with	T	Significance
Low formality	.0012	.991
Medium formality	.2142	.027*
High formality	.0544	.573

*Significance accepted at .05 level

N = 51

Therefore, the null hypotheses are not rejected. Degree of self-acceptance is significantly related to judgments regarding medium levels of formality, but no relationship was discovered for high or low formality.

TABLE 4.15

CHI-SQUARE FOR DEGREE OF SELF-ACCEPTANCE

WITH LEVELS OF FORMALITY

Degree of Self-Acceptance with	Chi-Square	Contingency Coefficient	DF	Significance
Low formality	6.93241	.34592	10	.7318
Medium formality	9.38990	.39432	10	.4955
High formality	13.08595	.45188	14	.5198

*Significant at .05 level

N = 51

Research Question: What is the relationship between the leaders' degree of self-acceptance and expectations related to kinds of learning experiences judged as providing important learning?

Research Hypotheses:
There is a significant relationship between the leaders' degree of self-acceptance and their expectations related to kinds of learning experiences judged as providing important learning.

Subjects with above mean degrees of self-acceptance will prefer different kinds of learning experiences than do subjects with below mean degrees of self-acceptance.

Statistical Hypotheses:
There is not a significant relationship between leaders' degree of self-acceptance and their expectations related to kinds of learning experiences.

Subjects with above mean degrees of self-acceptance will not prefer different kinds of learning

experiences than do subjects with below mean degrees of self-acceptance.

Tables 4.16 and 4.17 show that no significant relationship was found untilizing Kendall's Tau and Chi-square measurements. Therefore, the null hypotheses were not rejected.

TABLE 4.16

KENDALL CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR DEGREE OF SELF-ACCEPTANCE WITH KINDS OF LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Degree of Self-Acceptance with	T	Significance
Input	.1108	.252
Self-awareness	.0664	.492
Sharing	.1398	.148

*Significant at a = .05
N = 51

TABLE 4.17

CHI-SQUARE FOR DEGREE OF SELF-ACCEPTANCE WITH KINDS OF LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Degree of Self-Acceptance with	Chi-Square	Contingency Coefficient	DF	Significance
Input	8.36267	.37533	11	.6805
Self-awareness	14.87500	.47519	12	.2483
Sharing	14.09352	.46531	12	.2948

*Significant at a = .05
N = 51

Research Question: What is the relationship among leaders' degree of self-acceptance and expectations related to kinds of learning experiences and levels of formality?

Research Hypotheses:
There is a significant relationship between the leaders' degree of self-acceptance and their expectations related to kinds of learning experiences and levels of formality.

Subjects with above mean degrees of self-acceptance will prefer different combinations of levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences than do subjects with below mean degrees of self-acceptance.

Statistical Hypotheses:
There is not a significant relationship between leaders' degree of self-acceptance and preferences for different combinations of levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences.

Subjects with above mean degrees of self-acceptance will not prefer different combinations of levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences than do subjects with below mean degrees of self-acceptance.

Table 4.18 shows Kendall's Tau correlation coefficients for degree of self-acceptance by input/medium formality (.005) and input/low formality (.024) were significant at .05 level. The rest of the combinations were not related significantly to the degree of self-acceptance. Self-awareness/high formality (.077) approached the accepted significance level, as did sharing/high formality (.194).

Since the Tau statistic is capable of indicating the direction of the relationship and a positive relationship was found to exist, it appears that leaders with below mean degrees of self-acceptance judged input/medium and low formality learning experiences more valid than did leaders with above mean degrees of self-acceptance.

The Chi-square measure indicated no significant relationship

TABLE 4.18

KENDALL'S CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR DEGREE OF SELF-ACCEPTANCE WITH COMBINATION OF LEVELS OF FORMALITY AND KINDS OF LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Degree of Self-Acceptance with	T	Significance
Input/high	-.0505	.601
Input/medium	.2735	.005*
Input/low	.2181	.024*
Self-awareness/high	.0693	.474
Self-awareness/medium	.1709	.077
Self-awareness/low	.0361	.709
Sharing/high	.1256	.194
Sharing/medium	.1055	.275
Sharing/low	.0682	.481

*Significant at a = .05
N = 51

was found between degree of self-acceptance and the various combinations, with the exception of sharing/high formality experiences (.0384). (Table 4.19)

The frequency distribution matrix for the Chi-square measurements showed that leaders with below mean degrees of self-acceptance judged sharing/high formality situations as more valid than did leaders with above mean degrees of self-acceptance.

The null hypotheses were not rejected. However, while there were not significant relationships found between degree of self-acceptance and all the various combinations, there appeared to be some combinations of formality and kinds of learning experiences which did relate significantly to degree of self-acceptance. Leaders with below mean degrees of self-acceptance did judge sharing/high formality, input/ medium and low formality situations as more valid than did leaders with above mean degrees of self-acceptance.

To explore further the relationship between these variables, the judgments made on each combination were evaluated separately. For example, photo situation 1 portrayed a input/high formality learning experience. Judgments made on that particular portion of the Expectation of Learning instrument were cross-tabulated with degree of self-acceptance. This procedure was followed for all 18 photo situations.

Chi-square analysis found significant relationships for the learning combinations found in Table 4.20. On the input/medium formality combination, the frequency distribution indicated that leaders with below mean degrees of self-acceptance judged this combination as more valid than did those with above mean scores.

TABLE 4.19

CHI-SQUARE FOR DEGREE OF SELF-ACCEPTANCE

WITH COMBINATIONS OF LEVELS OF FORMALITY

AND KINDS OF LEARNING EXPERIENCE

Degree of Self-Acceptance with	Chi-Square	Contingency Coefficient	DF	Significance
Input/high	8.15133	.37122	7	.3194
Input/medium	8.43963	.37681	6	.2076
Input/low	2.52056	.21701	2	.2836
Self-awareness/high	4.18510	.27540	6	.6516
Self-awareness/medium	12.72880	.44692	7	.0790
Self-awareness/low	5.09566	.30139	6	.5316
Sharing/high	11.75042	.43273	5	.0384*
Sharing/medium	5.53656	.31294	5	.3540
Sharing/low	7.66966	.36156	7	.3626

*Significant at a = .05

The relationship for photo situations 6 and 7 is also positive. Leaders with below mean degrees judged sharing/high formality and self-awareness/medium formality settings as more valid than did leaders with above mean degrees of self-acceptance.

The frequency distribution for photo situation 8 indicated that leaders having below mean self-acceptance judged sharing/low formality situations as more valid than did leaders with above mean degrees of self-acceptance.

Therefore, the null hypotheses are not rejected. Overall, significant relationships were not discovered between degree of self-acceptance and all the combinations of levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences. However, some significant relationships were found to exist. This finding suggests that the research hypotheses need to be re-worded before additional studies are done.

TABLE 4.20

CHI-SQUARES FOR DEGREE OF SELF-ACCEPTANCE

BY POSSIBLE COMBINATIONS

Combination	X^2	CC	DF	Significance
Input/medium (photo 5)	11.76137	.43290	4	.0192*
Self-awareness/medium (photo 7)	12.09968	.43790	4	.0166*
Sharing/high (photo 6)	10.15008	.40741	4	.0380*
Sharing/low (photo 8	7.52221	.35852	3	.0507*

*Significant at a = .05

D. The leaders' amount of schooling was identified. Then, the relationships between amount of schooling and leaders' preferences regarding kinds of learning experiences and levels of formality were identified.

Research Question: What amount of schooling have these leaders had?

Table 4.21 indicates that 2% completed junior high school; 6% completed some high school; 37% complete high school; 33% completed some college; 14% completed college and 8% completed graduate work. In every case, those indicating "some college" also indicated 2 years of college had been completed. The mean number of years of school completed was 13.49.

TABLE 4.21

DISTRIBUTION OF LEADERS BY AMOUNT OF SCHOOLING

Years Completed	Number of Subjects	%
Junior High	1	2%
Some High School	3	6%
High School	19	37%
Some College	17	33%
College Graduate	7	14%
Graduate Work	4	8%
TOTALS:	51	100%

Mean Years of School = 13.49

Research Question: What is the relationship between the leaders' amount of schooling and their expectations regarding levels of formality?

Research Hypotheses:
There is a significant relationship between leaders' amount of schooling and their expectations regarding levels of formality.

Subjects with more schooling will prefer different levels of formality than do those with less schooling.

Statistical Hypotheses:
There is not a significant relationship between leaders' amount of schooling and their expectations regarding levels of formality.

Subjects with more schooling will not prefer different levels of formality than do those with less schooling.

The Kendall Tau correlation coefficients indicated no significant relationships existed, at the .05 level, between the leaders' amount of schooling and their judgments regarding levels of formality. Table 4.22 displays the findings.

The cross-tabulation,accompanied by the Chi-square measure of association, indicated no significant relationships existed at the .05 level for low formality and high formality situations. (Table 4.23) For medium formality, there was a significant relationship at the .05 level (.0037). The frequency distribution shows that leaders with less schooling judged medium formality situations as more valid than did leaders with more schooling.

The null hypotheses are not rejected because, overall, significant relationships were not discovered between amount of schooling and preferences for levels of formality.

TABLE 4.22

KENDALL CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

FOR AMOUNT OF SCHOOLING WITH LEVELS OF FORMALITY

Amount of Schooling with	T	Significance
Low formality	-.0577	.551
Medium formality	.0460	.634
High formality	-.0171	.860

Significance accepted at .05 level

N = 51

TABLE 4.23

CHI-SQUARE FOR AMOUNT OF

SCHOOLING BY LEVELS OF FORMALITY

Amount of schooling by	Chi-Square	Contingency Coefficient	DF	Significance
Low formality	53.86187	.71669	50	.3289
Medium formality	80.84342	.78306	50	.0037*
High formality	67.85475	.75558	70	.5558

* Significant at a = .05

N = 51

TABLE 4.24

CHI-SQUARE FOR AMOUNT OF SCHOOLING

BY KINDS OF LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Amount of Schooling by	Chi-square	Contingency Coefficient	DF	Significance
Input	64.41121	.74706	55	.1805
Self-awareness	57.65742	.72845	60	.5618
Sharing	89.65434	.79838	60	.0078*

*Significant at .05 level
N = 51

TABLE 4.25

KENDALL CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR

AMOUNT OF SCHOOLING WITH KINDS OF

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Amount of Schooling with	T	Significance
Input	.0812	.401
Self-awareness	-.0344	.722
Sharing	.0057	.953

*Significant at .05 level

N = 51

Research Question: What is the relationship between amount of schooling and their expectations for kinds of learning experiences?

Research Hypotheses:
There is a significant relationship between leaders' amount of schooling and their expectations for kinds of learning experiences.

Subjects with more schooling will prefer different kinds of learning experiences than do subjects with less schooling.

Statistical Hypotheses:
There is not a significant relationship between leaders' amount of schooling and their preferences for kinds of learning experiences.

Subjects with more schooling will not prefer different kinds of learning experiences than do subjects with less schooling.

Table 4.24 indicates no significant relationships were discovered between amount of schooling and judgments on input and self-awareness experiences, but there was a .0078 level of significance between amount of schooling and sharing experiences. Leaders with less schooling judge sharing experiences as more valid than do leaders with more schooling.

Table 4.25 indicates no significant relationships were discovered between the subjects' amount of schooling and their judgments regarding which kinds of learning experiences they perceived as valid.

The null hypotheses were not rejected. Overall, leaders' amount of schooling was not found to be related significantly to their judgments regarding kinds of learning experiences.

Research Question: What is the relationship between leaders' amount of schooling and their preferences for the combinations of levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences?

Research Hypotheses:
There is a significant relationship between

leaders' amount of schooling and their expectations for the combinations of levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences.

Subjects with more schooling will prefer different combinations than do subjects with less schooling.

Statistical Hypotheses:
There is not a significant relationship between leaders' amount of schooling and their expectations for the combinations of levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences.

Subjects with more schooling will not prefer different combinations than do subjects with less schooling

The Kendall Tau correlation coefficients, found in Table 4.26, indicate that no significant relationships were found between the subjects' judgments on most of the combinations. Input/low formality settings were found to be significantly related to amount of schooling (.0184). Leaders with less schooling judged input/low formality situations as more valid than did leaders with more schooling.

Table 4.27 indicates that the Chi-square analysis found no significant relationships for most of the combinations. However, amount of schooling and self-awareness/low formality situations were significantly related at the .05 level. Self-awareness/medium formality situations (.0108) were also found to be significantly related to amount of schooling. Sharing/high formality situations and amount of schooling were significant at .0625.

The frequency distribution for self-awareness/low formality situations indicated that the more schooling the leader had, the more positive her judgments that self-awareness/low formality situations were valid learning situations. The frequency distributions for

TABLE 4.26

KENDALL CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR AMOUNT OF SCHOOLING WITH THE COMBINATION OF LEVELS OF FORMALITY BY KIND OF LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Amount of Schooling with	T	Significance
Input/high	.0473	.625
Input/medium	.1581	.102
Input/low	.8490	.018*
Self-awareness/high	.0345	.722
Self-awareness/medium	.1340	.166
Self-awareness/low	-.1244	.198
Sharing/high	-.0313	.746
Sharing/medium	-.0741	.443
Sharing/low	.0289	.765

*Significance accepted at .05 level
N = 51

TABLE 4.27

CHI-SQUARE FOR AMOUNT OF SCHOOLING WITH COMBINATIONS OF LEVELS OF FORMALITY BY KIND OF LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Amount of Schooling by	Chi-Square	Contingency Coefficient	DF	Significance
Input/high	24.64732	.57081	35	.9039
Input/medium	29.61874	.60613	30	.4853
Input/low	4.54903	.28617	10	.9192
Self-awareness/high	23.58182	.56231	30	.7906
Self-awareness/medium	57.01101	.72652	35	.0108*
Self-awareness/low	75.57098	.77270	30	.0001*
Sharing/high	36.63287	.64655	25	.0625
Sharing/medium	34.13996	.63323	25	.1050
Sharing/low	28.93419	.60164	35	.7551

*Significant at .05 level
N = 51

self-awareness/medium and low formality situations indicated that leaders with less schooling judge self-awareness/medium and low formality learning situations as more valid than do leaders with more schooling.

In addition, two relationships approached the accepted significance level of .05: sharing/high formality situations (.06) and sharing/medium formality situations (.10). The relationship appears to be a negative linear relationship. Leaders with more schooling rated sharing/high formality and medium formality situations as more valid than did leaders with less schooling.

The null hypotheses were not rejected. Overall, significant relationships were not discovered between amount of schooling and the leaders' preferences for levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences. However, enough significant relationships were found to warrant further investigation.

E. An attempt was made to identify the bases of judgment a leader used to decide which levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences did or did not provide important learning.

> Research Question: Upon what logical and/or experiential bases do adult leaders make their choices regarding kinds of learning experiences and levels of formality they believe provide important learning?
>
> Research Hypothesis: There is a logical and/or experiential bases for the subjects' judgments and these bases can be documented.
>
> Statistical Hypothesis: Subjects judgments do not have a logical and/or experiential bases which can be documented and quantified.

Tables 4.28 and 4.29 show the categorization system which resulted when classifying the leaders' responses as to why they felt some learning situations under investigation provided important learning and why some did not.

Subjects' favorable ("Yes" and "Probably Are") responses were tabulated separately from unfavorable ("Some are, some aren't", to "No") responses. Yet, both favorable and unfavorable responses easily fell into the same categorization system. Tables 4.28 and 4.29 show the judgment bases the leaders used and the frequency with which each basis was used.

The leaders used four primary judgment bases. Some leaders focused on the people in the learning situations. Others focused on the content of the situation. Still others focused on facets of the process occurring in the learning situation. The fourth focus was of a slightly different nature. A teaching-learning construct seemed to guide their judgment about which situations were and were not valid learning situations.

Some leaders used just one of these four central bases, while others used two or more to explain why certain combinations of levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences were either valid or not valid learning situations.

Leaders focusing on the people in the learning situation recognized one of two different sets of people: the leader and/or the learner. In either case, the kinds of comments regarding these people were the same. Some leaders' judgments were based on non-verbal acts of the leader in the learning situation. These acts were thought to foster or produce learning in girls. When a leader focused on the learners'

TABLE 4.28

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSE BY BASES

FOR POSITIVE JUDGMENTS

	Bases of Judgments	Frequency of Response
WHO	(The People)	
	Leader Focus ---Total 79 11%	
	Non-verbal acts	23
	Verbal Acts	35
	Mental processes	4
	Emotional/attitudinal involvement	17
	Learner Focus --- Total 260 37%	
	Non-verbal acts	106
	Verbal acts	74
	Mental processes	53
	Emotional/attitudinal involvement	27
WHAT	(The Content) --- Total 66 9%	
	Topic	66
HOW	(The Process) --- Total 160 23%	
	Learning aids used	30
	Grouping structure or size	72
	Conditional teaching - learning sequence	15
	Teaching technique employed	43
WHY	(A Construct) --- Total 133 .19%	
	Principled Focus	
	A teaching - learning principle applied	70
	Association Focus	
	Another educational context used as basis	2
	Past experience associated with technique/topic	11
	Age characteristic with topic	19
	Age characteristic with technique	25
	Age characteristic with group structure	3
	Transfer of feelings from leader to learner	3
		698

TABLE 4.29

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSE BY BASES

FOR NEGATIVE JUDGMENTS

	Bases of Judgments	Frequency of Response
WHO	(The People)	
	Leader Focus --- Total 139 33%	
	Non-verbal acts	63
	Verbal acts	37
	Mental processes	30
	Emotional/attitudinal involvement	9
	Learner Focus --- Total 45 11%	
	Non-verbal acts	7
	Verbal acts	28
	Mental processes	3
	Emotional/attitudinal involvement	7
WHAT	(The Content) --- Total 26 6%	
	Topic	26
HOW	(The Process) ---Total 74 18%	
	Learning aids used	11
	Grouping structure or size	22
	Conditional teaching - learning sequence	17
	Teaching technique employed	24
WHY	(A Construct) --- Total 136 37%	
	Principled Focus	
	A teaching - learning principle applied	31
	Association Focus	
	Another educational context used as bases	16
	Past experience associated with technique/topic	4
	Age characteristic with topic	17
	Age characteristic with technique	47
	Age characteristic with group structure	0
	Transfer of feelings from leader to learner	21
		420

non-verbal acts the following kinds of comments were made: "the girls are paying attention," "they are listening," "they are doing what they are told to do", "they are touching each other", they are fooling around."

Subjects basing their judgments on the leaders' non-verbal acts within the learning situations mentioned such things as: "the leader is standing too far away from the girls", "the leader is touching the girls", "the leader is smiling", "the leader is giving individual attention to the girls", and "the leader is not present."

When subjects verbalized a basis of judgment about the learners' verbal acts, the most frequent comment was that the "girls are whispering to each other", "the girls are sharing with each other", "the girls are expressing themselves to each other." When the focus was on the leaders' verbal acts the comments were: "the leader is too preachy, too bossy", "the leader is talking down to the girls", "the leader is talking to them individually", "the leader is talking in ways they can understand."

Subjects who based their judgments on the learners" emotional processes inferred that what was done in the learning situation portrayed would produce a certain feeling within the learners. Subjects linked emotional processes with a teaching technique, or used a diagnostic statement to explain their bases for judging a situation as a valid (or invalid) learning situation. (e.g. "This experience is good because girls need to let their feelings out.")

Subjects' judgments based on the leaders' emotional involvement inferred that "the leader is acting like a boss", "the leader is trying to show that she loves them", "She's interested in them", "She is trying

to be like one of them", "She is involved with the girls lives", "the leader is open to the girls' questions."

Another major judgment basis was the content of the learning experiences. Some subjects made all or the majority of their judgments on whether or not the topic was appropriate or of interest. The level of formality was unnoticed and unmentioned.

Others never mentioned the content represented in the situations under investigation, but focused entirely on how the learning situation was being handled. The learning process is the third major bases of judgment used by the subjects. Representive judgments of the process kind were: "it is good the girls have their handbooks to follow along with", "visuals will help them learn", "the size of the group is too big", "the girls are not seated so that they can see the leader", "the way the leader is handling the topic is wrong (or is good)", "this is an important learning situation if (some specific procedure) preceded or followed this situation." Learning aids must be appropriate and used correctly. The group size and the position of the girls in relationship to the leader must be preceived as correct. Some situations were judged in light of what learning experiences must precede and follow it. The teaching techniques employed had to be appropriate before subjects judged the learning situations as valid ones.

The fourth, and final, major basis of judgment was a teaching-learning construct the subject had and applied to the learning situation being judged. These teaching-learning constructs were principles of learning and/or teaching which the subjects had formed. The statements usually were cause-effect statements. (i.e., "because such and such is true this topic, technique, group structure is appropriate or in-appropriate").

Another kind of teaching-learning construct was an assertion of "truth" that the subject believed made the situation under examination right (or wrong). Representative comments of this kind are: "one-to-one relationships always produce learning", "with small groups you always get attention", "when girls are involved, learning is occurring", "it's important to let kids express themselves", "sharing produces interest in new things", "visuals always help", "if they take notes, they'll remember", "one-to-one situations let children open up", "circles make people feel included not excluded", "follow through is a must".

These leaders have definite feelings about which kinds of learning situations belong as part of a club program and which ones do not. The high formality/input learning experiences were considered, by some leaders, as inappropriate because they were "too much like school." Interestingly, the self-awareness learning experiences were judged negatively by some because those situations were "too much like church."

Some leaders made judgments about the learning situation portrayed based on their own past experience in trying to do the same kind of thing with their girls as was portrayed in the photo learning situations. (e.g. "I tried this before and it does (or does not) work.")

Some leaders judged situations in terms of whether or not they would like to be involved in such a situation as a learner. If they did not like the learning situation under examination, they transfered their feelings to what they felt their girls would like (or not like). A representive comment often made was, "I don't like to be involved in thinking exercises and I'm sure my girls don't either", or "my girls don't like this kind of experience; I know I don't."

The age of the girls in the program also influenced some leaders judgments. A topic, teaching technique, or grouping structure had to be appropriate for their girls', in the subjects' estimation, in order for the learning situation to be a valid one. The leaders in this study had an operational philosophy which included a fairly precise set of expectations of what girls would like, learn, and be able to do at different ages.

Based on the examination of the data, the null hypothesis is rejected. Subjects had a well developed logical and experiential bases for their judgment of valid learning situations.

Table 4.28 displays how often each of the bases of judgment were used when a learning situation was judged positively. The frequency distribution indicated that 37% of the judgments were based on the learner(s) focus. 23% of the judgments were based on how the learning situation was being handled. 19% of the positive judgments were based on a teaching-learning construct. 11% of the judgments were focused on the leader. 9% focused on the topic of the learning situation.

Table 4.29 displays how often each bases was used when judging learning situations as ones in which important learning was not occurring, or in which there were some doubts about what learning was occurring. 33% of the negative judgments were based on the leader's actions or attitudes. 32% focused on a teaching-learning construct which had been violated. 18% focused on an instructional process which was not correct. 11% focused on the learners' actions or attitudes. 6% of the negative judgments focused on subject matter.

Leaders were asked whether or not the photo portrayed troop learning situations. Not all judged the learning situations as representative of activities found in a troop program. Although the photo situations showed only women and girls, 11% of the subjects made their judgments assuming that a school setting was portrayed rather than Girl Scout setting.

For learning situations judged positively, 22% of the leaders' referred to school settings as ones in which similar learning experiences occur. 33% of the leaders referred exclusively to other out-of-school educational programs when asked what other educational programs have they found similar activities as those situations under investigation. (e.g. parks and recreation programs, church programs) 45% of the leaders referred to a combination of school and out-of-school settings as having similar kinds of learning experiences.

For those learning situations judged negatively, 18% of the leaders associated the learning situations under examination with similar experiences found in school. 43% of the leaders associated the situations with other out-of-school settings. 39% of the leaders referred to both school and out-of-school settings as being similar to those judged as not providing important learning.

Another interesting finding was that even though some leaders judged a learning situation as providing important learning they also indicated that they do not use such learning experiences in their troop program. Two frequent reasons given were that they cannot seem to make the particular learning situation function very well and that their girls like more active situations.

Hypotheses Generation

Additional demographic data were gathered for the purpose of testing relationships which might exist between other leader characteristics and judgments on kinds of learning experiences and levels of formality. Table 4.30 indicates which leader characteristics were found to be related significantly to specific sets of judgments.

The variables analyzed were: age of leader, age of girls, income level of leader, the nature of leaders' past schooling experiences, leaders' attitude about past schooling, and the ethnic background of the leaders and girls. Each of the variables was cross-tabulated with judgments regarding each of the three levels of formality, each of the three kinds of learning experiences, each of the nine possible combinations of levels and kinds, and with each of the eighteen photo learning situations.

The cross-tabulation graphically showed the nature of the relationship discovered by the Chi-square analysis. Older leaders judged self-awareness/ low and medium formality situations as less valid than did younger leaders. Older leaders also judged sharing situations,in general, as less valid than did younger leaders.

When the nature of the leaders' past schooling experiences was cross-tabulated with the various combinations of judgments, low formality situations were judged as less valid by leaders with a public school background than by those with private school, or a combination of public and private school backgrounds.

When age of girls was cross-tabulated with the possible combinations, significant relationships also were found. Leaders with younger girls judged sharing experiences as less valid than did leaders with older girls.

TABLE 4.30

CHI-SQUARE FOR VARIABLES RELATED TO JUDGMENTS ON

LEVEL OF FORMALITY, KINDS OF LEARNING, AND COMBINATIONS

Age of Leader with	X^2	Contingency Coefficient	DF	Significance
Self-awareness/medium	82.53525	.78618	49	.0019
Sharing	107.90548	.82405	84	.0386
Photo 7:				
Self-awareness/medium	42.78505	.67543	28	.0365
Photo 11:				
Self-awareness/low	71.11171	.76312	28	.0001
Photo 14:				
Self-awareness/low	40.54727	.66552	28	.0591

Nature of Past Schooling with	X^2	Contingency Coefficient	DF	Significance
Self-awareness/high	23.10017	.55834	12	.0269
Low formality	25.60123	.57811	20	.1794
High formality	37.29788	.64993	28	.1124

Age of Girls with	X^2	Contingency Coefficient	DF	Significance
Sharing	100.09144	.81391	72	.0142
Low formality	83.14282	.78728	60	.0257
Input/low	52.82807	.71330	12	.0001
Self-awareness/low	67.41427	.75453	36	.0012
Photo 2:				
Input/low	52.82807	.71330	12	.0001
Photo 11:				
Self-awareness/low	61.70155	.73992	24	.0001
Photo 15:				
Sharing/high	61.08673	.73824	18	.0001
Photo 16:				
Input/low	49.92206	.70332	24	.0014

TABLE 4.30 CONT'D.

Income Level of Leader with	X^2	Contingency Coefficient	DF	Significance
Self-awareness/medium	79.45412	.78042	63	.0770
Sharing/low	83.08610	.78718	63	.0436
Sharing/medium	64.33912	.74688	45	.0307

Attitude Toward School with	X^2	Contingency Coefficient	DF	Significance
High formality	46.16505	.68929	28	.0168
Photo 12: Input/high	13.25345	.45417	8	.1034
Photo 9: Input/medium	13.98580	.46391	8	.0821

Ethnic background with	X^2	Contingency Coefficient	DF	Significance
Photo 12: Input/high	13.71305	.46033	8	.0896
Photo 10: Self-awareness/high	13.77240	.46112	8	.0879
Photo 14: Self-awareness/low	14.55805	.47124	8	.0683

Leaders with younger girls also judged low formality situations, input/low formality situations, and self-awareness/low formality situations as less valid than did leaders with older girls.

When leaders' income was cross-tabulated with all possible combinations, self-awareness/medium formality, sharing/low formality, and sharing/medium formality situations were judged less valid by lower income leaders than by leaders with higher incomes.

Leaders with positive views of past schooling experiences judged input/high formality situations as more valid than did leader with negative or mixed feelings about past schooling. The same direction of relationship existed for input/medium formality learning settings and for high formality situations in general.

The ethnic background of the leader did not significantly relate to leaders' judgments at the .05 level, but three combinations did hint a relationship might be present. Input/high formality situations were judged as more valid by the caucasian, military leaders than by caucasian, local or multi-ethnic background, local leaders. Sharing/high formality situations were judged as more valid by caucasian, local leaders and the mutli-ethnic background leaders than by the caucasian, military leaders. Self-awareness/low formality situations were judged as more valid by the caucasian, military leaders than by the caucasian, local or multi-ethnic background, local leader. The differences in judgment seem to exist. Further investigations with different sampling techniques are needed to make confident statements about the existence and nature of the relationship between leaders' ethnic background and judgments on which levels of formality and kinds of learning situations provide important learning for others.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this investigation was to inquire into the relationships among expectations leaders have about learning experiences and the leaders' degree of self-acceptance and amount of schooling. Specifically, the study examined (1) what levels of formality leaders perceived valid, (2) what kinds of learning experiences were perceived valid, (3) what logical and experiential bases leaders used to judge whether or not a learning situation was valid, (4) what relationships existed between leaders' degree of self-acceptance and their preferences for levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences, and (5) what relationships existed between leaders' amount of schooling and their preferences regarding levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences

Chapter 5 presents the conclusions resulting from this investigation. The conclusions are specified,and implications for further research and for program development are discussed.

Summary of Findings

Table 5.1 summarizes the major findings.

TABLE 5.1

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS FOR

INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Kinds of Learning Experiences: (from most valid to least valid)	Input, Sharing, Self-awareness
Levels of Formality: (from most valid to least valid)	Low, Medium, High
Preferred Combinations:	Input/low formality Self-awareness/low formality Sharing/medium formality
Mean Degree of Self-acceptance:	148.863
Mean Years of Schooling:	13.49
Schooling By Levels of Formality:	Medium levels of formality judged significantly more valid by leaders with less schooling than by those with more schooling
Schooling By Kinds of Learning Experiences:	Sharing experiences judged significantly more valid by leaders with less schooling than by leaders with more schooling.
Schooling By Combinations:	Input/low formality, Self-awareness/low and medium formality and Sharing/ high formality situations judged significantly more valid by leaders with less schooling than by leaders with more schooling.
Degree of Self-acceptance By Levels of Formality:	Medium levels of formality judged more valid by leaders with above mean degrees of self-acceptance than by leaders with below mean degrees of self-acceptance
Degree of Self-acceptance By Kinds of Learning Experiences:	No significant relationships found at .05 level.

TABLE 5.1 CON'T

Degree of Self-acceptance By Combinations:	Sharing/low and high formality, and Input/low and medium formality settings judged as more valid by leaders with below mean degrees of self-acceptance than by leaders with above mean degrees of self-acceptance
Bases of Judgment:	Logical and experiential bases present and documented.

1. Leaders' preferences differed significantly in terms of the levels of formality they judged as providing important learning for others. The leaders, on an average, judged low formality situations as the most valid, followed by medium and then high formality situations.
2. Leaders' preferences also differed significantly in terms of the kinds of learning experiences they judged as providing important learning. On an average, leaders judged input learning experiences as the most valid kinds of learning situations for others. Sharing experiences were next, followed by self-awareness experiences.
3. Leaders' judgments about levels of formality were related significantly to their judgments about kinds of learning experiences. The combination of the two (levels by kinds) gives a clearer picture of the types of learning environments these leaders judged as those in which the most important learning would occur.
   a. When utilizing input experiences, leaders prefer low formality settings. High formality combined with input experiences were

judged as those providing the least important learning for others.

b. For self-awareness experiences, low formality settings were considered the most valid. Self-awareness/high formality situations were judged least valid. The leaders' judgments were almost split in half on the self-awareness/high formality combination. This finding indicates there was considerable difference of opinion on whether or not the self-awareness/high formality combination provides important learning for others.

c. For sharing experiences leaders preferred medium levels of formality. The least preferred was low formality with sharing experiences. More leaders judged the sharing/low formality combination as one in which learning may not occur.

4. The leaders vary in the degree to which they accept themselves. The mean degree of self-acceptance was slightly above Berger's mean score for women. This finding may mean that the leaders associated with Girl Scouts on Oahu were, on the average, women who had slightly higher self concepts than the average women. However, the reader must remember that there were a number of women in this sample with low degrees of self-acceptance.

5. The leaders did vary in the amount of schooling they had as well as in the kind of schooling.

   a. Leaders had a wide difference in the number of years they had gone to school. A range from junior high through graduate work was represented. The average leader had approximately 13.49 years of schooling.

   b. Leaders also varied in how they felt about their past schooling experiences. For the majority, school had been a positive

experience, but for 39% of the leaders school had been a negative experience. Interestingly, the elementary school experience was particularily recalled as being un-enjoyable experiences.

c. Leaders varied on the kind of schooling background they had. 69% of the leaders went to public schools. 25% went to private schools. 5% went to a combination of public and private schools.

6. Overall, the amount of schooling leaders had was not found to be related to judgments regarding which levels of formality provided important learning for others. However, leaders with less schooling judged medium formality situations as more valid than did leaders with more schooling.

7. Overall, leaders' amount of schooling was not discovered to be related significantly to the leaders' judgments regarding kinds of learning experiences. However, it was found that leaders with less schooling rated sharing experiences as more valid than did leaders with more schooling.

8. Overall, amount of schooling was not found to be related significantly to leaders' judgments regarding the nine possible combinations of levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences under investigation. However, some combinations were found to be related. Leaders with less schooling rated input/low formality situations as more valid than did leaders with more schooling. Leaders with less schooling also rated self-awareness/medium and low formality situations as more valid than did leaders with more schooling. Leaders with less schooling also rated sharing/high formality situations as more valid than did leaders with more schooling.

9. Overall, the leaders' degree of self-acceptance was not found to be significantly related to judgments on all levels of formality. However, a significant relationship was found between degree of self-acceptance and medium levels of formality. Leaders with above mean degrees of self-acceptance rated medium levels of formality more favorably than did leaders with below mean degrees of self-acceptance.
10. Overall, the leaders' degree of self-acceptance was not found to be related significantly to judgments regarding kinds of learning experiences.
11. Overall, the leaders' degree of self-acceptance was not found to be signficantly related to leaders' judgments on the nine possible combinations of levels and kinds. However, leaders with below mean degrees of self-acceptance judged sharing/high formality situations and input/low and medium formality situations as more valid than did leaders with above mean degrees of self-acceptance. Leaders with below mean degrees of self-acceptance judged sharing/low formality situations as more valid than did leaders with above mean degrees of self-acceptance.
12. Leaders employed an elaborate system of rationales to judge whether or not they felt a learning situation provided important learning. Some leaders used one primary bases of judgment; others used a combination to formulate their judgments about which levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences were valid learning situations. The bases of judgment used were both logical and experiential. The four primary bases of judgment were: (1) focus on the <u>people</u> (leader or learner) in the learning situation, (2) focus on the <u>content</u> of the situation, (3) focus on <u>how</u> the learning

situation was being handled, (4) focus on a teaching-learning construct which was either being reinforced or violated in the learning situation being judged.

13. Other variables also significantly related to the leaders judgments:
    a. Older leaders judged self-awareness/medium settings and sharing situations as less valid than did younger leaders.
    b. Leaders from private school background judged self-awareness/high formality, high formality situations and low formality situations as more valid than did leaders with public school backgrounds. Leaders from public school backgrounds judged high formality situations as more valid than did leaders from private school backgrounds. Low formality situations were judged less valid by leaders with public school backgrounds than by leaders with private school backgrounds.
    c. The age of the girls with whom the leaders worked was significantly related to leaders' choices for sharing experiences and for self-awareness/low formality situations. With one of the sharing/high formality photo situations a significant relationship was also discovered. Leaders working with younger girls judge these situations less valid than do leaders working with older girls.
    d. Lower income leaders judged sharing/low and medium formality settings as less valid than did higher income leaders. Self-awareness/medium formality settings were judged less valid by lower income leaders than by leaders with higher incomes.
    e. Leaders' attitude toward past schooling significantly related to judgments made on input/high formality and medium formality settings, as well as for high formality settings in general.

Leaders with positive feelings about past schooling judged input/high and medium formality and high formality situations in general as more valid than did leaders with negative or mixed feelings about past schooling experiences.

f. Ethnic background of the leader did not significantly relate to judgments at the .05 level. There were, nevertheless, hints of relationships at the .06 to .08 level. It appears that input/high formality and self-awareness/low formality situations were judged as more valid by the caucasian, military leader than by either the caucasian, local leader or the multi-ethnic background local leader. Sharing/high formality situations were judged as more valid by the caucasian, local and multi-ethnic background local leaders than by the caucasian, military leader.

Discussion and Recommendations

The following recommendations are made to the Girl Scout Council of the Pacific for the purposes of further program assessment and development.

Choices regarding levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences. It was suggested in Chapter 1 that an effective teaching-learning model is one in which all three kinds of learning experiences are utilized with an understanding of the nature of learning facilitated by each. Therefore, the purpose of this investigation was not to single out leaders who judge, for example, input experiences as valid and plan ways to stop them from using such experiences. Rather, the purpose of this investigation was to determine what pedagogical expectations Hawaiian

Girl Scout leader have so that leadership trainers and program development staff know better what kinds of training reinforcements are needed to raise awareness of the value and purpose of those learning experiences not as highly prized. Dissonance was assumed to exist between what the Girl Scout organization believes to be valid learning situations within troop settings and what the leaders believe are valid troop learning situations. This study examines the leaders' expectations. An assessment of staffs' expectations and of the kinds of learning experiences promoted by the Girl Scout materials must still be done to determine the amount of dissonance which exists.

As was expected, input experiences are considered more valid than self-awareness and sharing experiences. Leaders are more uncertain about the learning that will occur using sharing and self-awareness experiences. As the focus of leaders' control becomes less leader-centered and more girl-centered, leaders seem to realize the learning situations are valuable, but question how orderly the situations are and how much important learning is happening. For some leaders, the willingness to tolerate the idea that not all girls are doing exactly as told seems too much to tolerate. In addition, input experiences are more familiar to the leaders than are self-awareness and sharing experiences. The nature of sharing and self-awareness experiences are such that the kind and quality of information is not as leader controlled as is possible when using input experiences. Leaders must be helped to gain skills in planning and conducting sharing and self-awareness experiences.

37% of the leaders indicated that self-awareness experiences were used as a form of punishment when they were in school. The positive values of self-awareness experiences should be explored in depth with

these leaders.

Surprisingly, older leaders' judgments about sharing and self-awareness experiences are less favorable than younger leaders. The exact reasons for this phenomenon are unknown. It can be speculated that either tolerance for ambiguity decreases as one gets older, or that older leaders' past educational experiences were more oriented toward input/high and medium formality instructional experiences and therefore, their current expectations are based on past experience. With regard to training sessions, staff should be aware that differences do exist in leaders' beliefs. Staff should not expect one training message to be heard the same by all leaders or expect one training message to be adequate for younger and older leaders alike. The creation of diagnostic tools for assessing present pedagogical expectations would be helpful to field staff and leadership trainers. The purpose of such tools would not be to slot or label leaders according to beliefs, but rather to gain entry into the leaders' learning process by starting with valued pedagogical beliefs and moving to discussion and demonstration of teaching-learning processes which are less familiar.

Leadership training sessions should be created which demonstrate and explain the differences in the three kinds of learning experiences. Training and orientation techniques, similar to Freire's discussion techniques (Freire, 1970) would help increase awareness of the value, nature, and purpose of each of the three kinds of learning experiences.

Carefully designed visual images of what kinds of learning activities are a valid part of a troop meeting are needed. Visually presenting various grouping structures and a variety of the three kinds of learning experiences will help increase leaders' awareness of what a troop meeting can be like.

New leaders look for guidelines. The use of visual presentations in the leader training materials, program materials for girls, newletters and in publicity endeavors will help raise awareness of the variety of learning experiences that can be a legitimate part of the troop program.

The word "learning" is an emotionally laden word for these leaders. Several said their girls did not come to meetings to "learn", but to have "good fun." Some leaders' awareness of what kinds of learning experiences comprise effective learning situations is fairly limited. Therefore, if a leader plans troop meetings around how much fun the girls will have, the teachable moments may be overlooked.

Leaders' perceptions vary about what kinds of experiences are appropriate to use with girls in a troop program. Training sessions on how to create "good fun" while stimulating learning are needed. Some, perhaps many, of these leaders, with a few new insights into program planning, could capture those teachable moments and plan "good fun", too.

An appeal to use certain kinds of activities because of the learning to be gained will not be effective with those leaders who currently separate "good fun" from "learning." Different appeals are needed to touch the leader who sees little or no connection between enjoyable experiences and learning.

The leaders have well developed and, perhaps, fixed sets of expectations about what girls are able to do at certain ages. The sharing and self-awareness experiences are questioned by some leaders because they feel the girls cannot participate meaningfully in such situations. Demonstration films of girls and leaders involved in various kinds of

learning situations may help increase the leaders' awareness of what is possible in troop programming. Highlights of effective troop programming in the Council's newspaper will help leaders see what others are doing and what kinds of experiences are possible with girls of various ages.

Regarding Degree of Self-acceptance and Learning Situations. The axiom that a teacher must accept herself before she can accept those she teaches also applies to leading a Girl Scout troop. The leaders interviewed do differ in the degree to which they accept themselves. 41% of the sample fall below the mean score established by Berger on his "Expressed Acceptance of Self" scale. Leadership training staff must realize some leaders are struggling with low self concepts while leading a troop program. A caring training environment is needed to assist the leader in her own personal development, as well as with her troop programming needs. Personal growth topics at leadership sessions would be helpful. Publications dealing with discipline problems should have aspects related to the leaders' own self-concept and their perceptions of girls' behavior. Sessions on understanding today's youth should include helpful hints on how to understand oneself.

Some leaders mentioned that they would not feel comfortable with self-awareness and sharing experiences. Therefore, they felt their girls would not feel comfortable when involved in such experiences either. This comment suggests that situations utilizing sharing and self-awareness experiences are uncomfortable for the leader when she is a learner. In addition, if the leader is uncomfortable personally, she is probably not apt to utilize sharing and/or self-awareness learning experiences in her troop program. Both inferences suggest that practice

sessions, in a small group setting, might be worthwhile in helping the leader overcome the uneasiness felt when utilizing self-awareness and sharing experiences with girls.

In addition, there are basic skills in designing sharing, self-awareness, and input experiences. These skills need to be practiced by the leader in a setting where she can receive feedback.

Regarding basis for judgments. Leaders have strong beliefs about which situations are valid learning situations and which are not. The place to begin training leaders to design effective troop learning situations is to identify what the leader's present basis is for judging learning experiences as valid. To dump programming principles on them at the beginning of their Girl Scouting service, without exploring what they already believe, is putting the cart before the horse. It is recommended that a series of photos be used with new leaders to explore their beliefs about what kinds of learning situations provide important learning and why. By sharing beliefs, program principles can emerge. Furthermore, the leader gains insights into how others view learning.

Not all leaders attend training sessions. Short, consumable simulations and learning games could be developed to explore present beliefs. Cassette tapes and service unit meetings could follow the written materials.

Regarding Assessment of Current Efforts. Current training and troop programming procedures, materials and philosophies need to be assessed in light of the findings of this study. It is recommended that a series of assessment and development sessions, including administrative staff, field staff and association chairpersons, be held. At these sessions the staff should assess present program emphases and plan

further development directions. First, a thorough assessment is needed of what kinds of learning experiences and levels of formality are valued and promoted in training materials, training sessions and in program aids available to leaders. A work group should assess what, if any, is the model of effective learning currently being promoted for a troop setting. Together the staff should explore their own beliefs about what constitutes a valid learning situation and why.

Second, the work group should determine what additions and revisions are needed in light of the above assessment activities.

Recommendations for Further Resarch. The findings indicate several areas where additional research is needed.

1. The bases of the leaders' judgments need to be explored in depth. The categorization system developed in Chapter 4 to explain the bases of judgments needs to be refined. Taped interviews and thought-by-thought ratings, based on the categorization system, would help to see if certain levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences are related to specific bases of judgments.
2. Ethnographic research should further explore how attitudes of past schooling, nature of past schooling and significant teacher models relate to choices regarding what levels of formality and kinds of learning provide important learning for others and for themselves.
3. Other personality measurements should be used to explore relationships between personality and pedagogical expectations.
4. The ethnic backgrounds of the leaders should be explored further. Equal numbers of leaders, from each of the primary ethnic backgrounds found in the Girl Scout population, could be given a similar instrument to see if further significant relationships become evident.

5. Other aspects of instructional settings besides levels of formality should be explored.
6. The bases of judgments used during the planning, implementation and evaluation processes need to be explored to see what factors are weighed as a leader develops, implements and evaluates her troop programming endeavors.
7. A comparative study should be done to discover what levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences leaders perceive as valid for their own learning and why. Next, the same leaders should be asked what levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences are valid for others. Differences in judgments made for their own learning and for others' learning should be compared.
8. A study, similar in design to Rist's (1970) longitudinal study, on a sample of nonformal education leaders would be helpful to see what sorts of expectations are formed by the leaders as they work with children.

Summary

Leaders have firm expectations about what makes a learning situation one in which important learning will occur in girls. Leaders do not find sharing, self-awareness and input learning experiences equally valid as learning situations. Nor do they judge high, medium and low formality situations as equally valid. With certain kinds of learning experiences certain levels of formality are considered more effective in producing important learning in girls. This study found a pattern of preference for both levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences, and the combinations of the two. Most of the leaders surveyed had a

well developed rationale for why they thought certain combinations of levels of formality and kinds of learning experiences were more valid than others.

Facets of leaders' preferences were found to relate to degree of self-acceptance, amount of schooling, the leader's age and girls' age, income level, kind of schooling background of the leader and the leader's attitude toward past schooling.

Training methods and messages must present all the kinds of learning experiences in settings which allow individuals to confront their current pedagogical beliefs and facilitate the altering or refinement of beliefs. The place to begin is in raising awareness of the values, nature and processes involved in designing, implementing and evaluating each of the three kinds of learning experiences. Additional research is needed to better understand the relationships discovered to exist among these leaders' pedagogical expectations and their psychological and sociological characteristics.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

PHOTOS AND AUDIO CAPTIONS FOR EXPECTATION OF LEARNING AND DISCRIMINATION INSTRUMENTS

Photo 1

High Formality/Input

Audio Caption: "If you will look at page 54 in your handbook, you can see what I am talking about better."

(Photo 1 for Discrimination Instrument)

Photo 2

Low Formality/Input

Audio Caption: "This is a conch shell, Joan. The Hawaiians use to blow through this kind of shell. The sound of the shell announced the King's presence."

(Photo 17 for Discrimination Instrument)

Photo 3

High Formality/Self-awareness

Audio Caption: "Girls, after I read this paragraph, I would like you to write down three things you would do to solve this girl's problem."

(Photo 9 for Discrimination Instrument)

Photo 4

Low Formality/Sharing

Audio Caption: "After our session today, talk with someone about what you think was the most interesting thing we did today and why."

(Photo 6 for Discrimination Instrument)

Photo 5

Medium Formality/Input

Audio Caption: "There are three ways you can tell what kind of plant this is."

(Photo 14 for Discrimination Instrument)

Photo 6

High Formality/Sharing

Audio Caption: "Pair up with the perspon next to you and quiz each other on the steps in making a bed."

(Photo 5 for Discrimination Instrument)

Photo 7

Medium Formality/Self-awareness

Audio Caption: "Silently, think about how you would find your way out of a forest if you were lost."

(Photo 15 for Discrimination Instrument)

Photo 8

Low Formality/Sharing

Audio Caption: "Introduce yourself to someone here whom you don't know very well."

(Photo for Discrimination Instrument)

Photo 9

Medium Formality/Input

Audio Caption: "What I am going to say will be very helpful to you in passing your achievement, so you should listen carefully and take notes."

(Photo 3 for Discrimination Instrument)

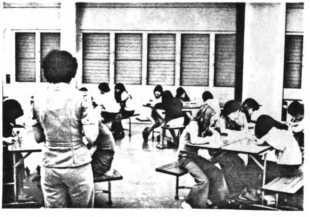

Photo 10

High Formality/Self-awareness

Audio Caption: "As we sit here, take a minute to think about what caused the beach erosion we've seen today."

(Photo 12 for Discrimination Instrument)

Photo 11

Low Formality/Self-awareness

Audio Caption: "When we played the game today, how did it make you feel? Think about it for a few minutes."

(Photo 7 for Discrimination Instrument)

Photo 12

High Formality/Input

Audio Caption: "You see, girls, this is why you must help others."

(Photo 10 for Discrimination Instrument)

Photo 13

Medium Formality/Sharing

Audio Caption: "Give each person in your group a chance to explain how she would answer the question."

(Photo 4 for Discrimination Instrument)

Photo 14

Low Formality/Self-awareness

Audio Caption: "We've done many things today. Think about which one made you feel the most uneasy and why."

(Photo 18 for Discrimination Instrument)

Photo 15

High Formality/Sharing

Audio Caption: "Tell the person next to you what your favorite hobby is."

(Photo 11 for Discrimination Instrument)

Photo 16

Low Formality/Input

Audio Caption: "Joan, can you come to my house for lunch on Saturday so I can explain this better?"

(Photo 2 for Discrimination Instrument)

Photo 17

Medium Formality/Self-awareness

Audio Caption: "Draw a picture which shows three things you would like us to do together."

(Photo 8 for Discrimination Instrument)

Photo 18

Medium Formality/Sharing

Audio Caption: "Explain to each other what it means to you to be someone's friend."

(Photo 13 for Discrimination Instrument)

APPENDIX B

SCALES FOR EXPECTATION OF LEARNING AND DISCRIMINATION INSTRUMENTS

Do You Think These People Are Learning Something Important?

(Circle Your Answer)

#18	#17	#16	#15	#14	#13	#12	#11	#10	#9	#8	#7	#6	#5	#4	#3	#2	#1	
Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Yes
PA	PA	PA	PA	PA	PA	PA	PA	PA	PA	PA	PA	PA	PA	PA	P A	P A	P A	Probably Are
SA	SA	SA	SA	SA	SA	SA	SA	SA	SA	SA	SA	SA	SA	SA	S A	SA	S A	Some Are, Some Aren't
PN	PN	PN	PN	PN	PN	PN	PN	PN	PN	PN	PN	PN	PN	PN	P N	PN	P N	Probably Not
N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	No

Discrimination Instrument Scale

Which of these photos represents the situation in which the MOST IMPORTANT learning is happening?

Which of these photos represents the situation in which the LEAST IMPORTANT learning is happening?

	MOST IMPORTANT learning is happening	LEAST IMPORTANT learning is happening
Set A		
Set B		
Set C		
Set D		
Set E		
Set F		

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Administered _____ Learning Expectation Instrument
_____ Discrimination Instrument

Interviewee #_____
Interviewer _____
Date _____

PART A

Now, I would like to go back to the photos that you said "Yes" or "Probably" these people are learning something important. (From the answer sheet determine photos marked "Yes" and "Probably Are." Lay in front of leader. Read captions as necessary.)

If Discrimination Instrument was administered: Now, I would like to go back to the photos that you said "the most important learning" was occurring. (From answer sheet find photos marked "Most Important." Lay photos in front of leader.)

1. Why do you think people are learning something important in these photos?
2. Did you assume all these photos were of a Girl Scout Troop situation? Yes No If no, what educational program did you think these people were involved in? Why?
3. In what other programs have you found this type of learning experience?
4. Do you do what they are doing in these photos in any learning situations you are involved in? Which ones? For what purposes? If no: Could you see yourself doing what they are doing in these photos? Yes (Under what conditions?) No (Why not?)
5. Could you see Girl Scouts doing what they are doing in these photos? Yes (Why?) No (Why not?)
6. Do you think these kinds of activities should be happening more or less in your troop program? Why?

PART B

Now, I would like to go back to the photos for which you said "some are, some aren't", "probably not" and "no" these people are not learning something important. (Find photos marked some are, some aren't to no. Lay in front of leader. Read audio captions as needed.) If Discrimination Instrument was administered: Now I would like to go back to the photos for which you said the "least important" learning was occurring. (Lay photos in front of leader.)

1. Why do you think people are not learning something important in these photos? OR Why do you think the least important learning is occurring in these photos?

2. In what other types of learning situations have you found these experiences?
3. Do you ever do what they are doing in these photos? Yes (Where?) No (Why not?)

PART C

1. How many years have you been a Girl Scout leader?
2. What age Girl Scouts do you work with?
3. Were you in Girls Scouts as a Girl? Yes No How many years?
4. How many years of school have you completed?

_____ 1	_____4	_____7	_____10
_____ 2	_____5	_____8	_____11
_____ 3	_____6	_____9	_____12

_____some college _____college graduate _____grad work
_____advanced degree (Specify) _____
If college, what was your major? _____

5. Have you had any vocational training? (i.e. business training)
_____yes _____no
_____number of years
_____what fields? _____
6. Did you go to a public or private elementary school?
public or private junior high school?
public or private high school?
public or private college?
7. Give me five words that describe how you feel about your school years.
8. How old are you?

_____ 21-25	_____46-50
_____ 26-30	_____51-55
_____ 31-35	_____56-60
_____ 36-40	_____61-65
_____ 41-45	_____65 and over

9. Married? Single?
10. What is the ethnic background of the girls in your troop?
__Caucasian __black __American Indina __Japanese
__Chinese __Filipino __Hawaiian __Korean __Puerto Rican
__Cuban __Mexican American __Spanish American __Portuguese
__Samoan __Other
11. What is your ethnic background?
12. Do you work? Yes No What do you do? How many hours do you work per week? __1/4 __1/2 __3/4 __full
13. How many children do you have? ____boys ___girls
14. Are any of your girls in Girl Scouts? Yes No
15. Do you own your home/apt.(____) or rent (____)?
16. Check the category that represents what your family's annual income is:

___below 5,000	___17,000-19,999
___5,000-7,999	___20,000-22,999
___8,000-10,999	___23,000-25,999
___11,000-13,999	___26,000-28,999
___14,000-16,999	___29,000-above

17. How long have you lived in Hawaii? Before Hawaii where did you live?
18. Where were you born? Reared?
19. Are you a leader or teacher in any other organization currently? (Note name of organization and position held for each)
20. Have you been a leader or teacher in any other organization besides Girl Scouts within the past three years? (Note name of organization and positions held.)
21. What is your religious affiliation? Do you attend regularly/ irregularly?
22. How many languages do you speak? Specify languages spoken.
23. Why did you volunteer to work in Girl Scouts?
24. Circle the answer that best describes how you feel about the following statement?

    I feel I am doing a (very good, good, average, poor) job as a Girl Scout leader.
25. Whom or what do you look to for help in learning troop work?

APPENDIX D

BERGER'S EXPRESSED ACCEPTANCE OF SELF SCALE

Instructions

Below are thirty-six statements. Read each statement and then on the answer sheet circle the number that best represents your answer to each statement. For each statement there are five answers to choose from:

1 Not at all true of myself
2 Slightly true of myself
3 About halfway true of myself
4 Mostly true of myself
5 True of myself

The best answer is the one you feel applies to you. Do not leave any blanks on your answer sheet.

1. I'd like it if I could find someone who would tell me how to solve my personal problems.

2. I don't question my worth as a person, even if I think others do.

3. When people say nice things about me, I find it difficult to believe they really mean it. I think maybe they're kidding me or just aren't being sincere.

4. If there is any criticism or anyone says anything about me, I just can't take it.

5. I don't say much at social affairs because I'm afraid that people will criticize me or laugh if I say the wrong thing.

6. I realize that I'm not living very effectively, but I just don't believe I've got it in me to use my energies in better ways.

7. I look on most of the feelings and impulses I have toward people as being quite natural and acceptable.

8. Something inside me just won't let me be satisfied with any job I've done--if it turns out well, I get a very smug feeling that

this is beneath me, I shouldn't be satisfied with this, this isn't a fair test.

9. I feel different from other people. I'd like to have the feeling of security that comes from knowing I'm not too different from others.

10. I'm afraid for people that I like to find out what I'm really like, for fear they'd be disappointed in me.

11. I am frequently bothered by feelings of inferiority.

12. Because of other people, I haven't been able to achieve as much as I should have.

13. I am quite shy and self-conscious in social situations.

14. In order to get along and be liked, I tend to be what people expect me to be rather than anything else.

15. I seem to have a real inner strength in handling things. I'm on a pretty solid foundation and it makes me pretty sure of myself.

16. I feel self-conscious when I'm with people who have a superior position to mine.

17. I think I'm neurotic or something.

18. Very often, I don't try to be friendly with people because I think they won't like me.

19. I feel that I'm a person of worth, on an equal plane with others.

20. I can't avoid feeling guilty about the way I feel toward certain people in my life.

21. I'm not afraid of meeting new people. I feel that I'm a worthwhile person and there's no reason why they should dislike me.

22. I sort of only half-believe in myself.

23. I'm very sensitive. People say things and I have a tendency to think they're criticizing me or insulting me in some way and later when I think of it, they may not have meant anything like that at all.

24. I think I have certain abilities and other people say so too. I wonder if I'm not giving them an importance way beyond what they deserve.

25. I feel confident that I can do something about the problems that may arise in the future.

26. I guess I put on a show to impress people. I know I'm not the person I pretend to be.

27. I do not worry or condemn myself if other people pass judgment against me.

28. I don't feel very normal, but I want to feel normal.

29. When I'm in a group I usually don't say much for fear of saying the wrong thing.

30. I have a tendency to sidestep my problems.

31. Even when people do think well of me, I feel sort of guilty because I know I must be fooling them--that if I were really to be myself, they wouldn't think well of me.

32. I feel that I'm on the same level as other people and that helps to establish good relations with them.

33. I feel that people are apt to react differently to me than they would normally react to other people.

34. I live too much by other people's standards.

35. When I have to address a group, I get self-conscious and have difficulty saying things well.

36. If I didn't always have such hard luck, I'd accomplish much more than I have.

ANSWER SHEET FOR BERGER SCALE

	1 Not at all true of myself	2 Slightly true of myself	3 About halfway true of myself	4 Mostly true of myself	5 True of myself
1.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	1	2	3	4	5

etc.

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