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ABSTRACT

This study assesses the effectiveness of a group counseling treatment on the classroom behaviors and on the manifest anxiety levels of elementary school student teachers. The subjects were 44 volunteer student teachers, randomly assigned to three groups: 1) an experimental counseling group, 2) a Hawthorne seminar control group, and 3) a control group. The counseling group received eight weekly group counseling treatments with the Problem Identification Model, which employs psychodramatic techniques. The seminar group met for equivalent amounts of time. Classroom behavior was measured by a posttest only design: during the last week of student teaching, two 20-minute samples of each subject's teaching behavior were obtained using the Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories with Nonverbal Categories (FIAC/NVC). A repeated measures design assessed manifest state anxiety over time: the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) was administered to all subjects prior to, in the middle of, and at the end of student teaching. The Confidential Evaluation Form (CEF) was filled out by cooperating teachers. Results showed no significant differences between groups in percentages of restricting classroom behavior or in decrements of state anxiety over time. On the CEF, however, the counseling group was rated significantly higher than the other groups on "innovativeness" and "potential as a teacher." (RT)

FINAL REPORT

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Tempe, Arizona

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Table No. Page

LIST OF TABLES

SUMMARY

The Problem

This research was designed to assess the effectiveness of a group counseling treatment on the classroom behaviors and on the manifest anxiety levels of elementary school student teachers. Specifically, the questions with which this research concerned itself were: (a) Will counseled student teachers exhibit less restricting classroom behavior and greater decrements of State anxiety over time than noncounseled student teachers? (b) Will counseled student teachers receive higher ratings on five characteristics of the Confidential Evaluation Form, emotional stability, innovativeness, communication skills, classroom control skills, and potential as a teacher than noncounseled student teachers? (c) Is the level of State anxiety related to classroom student teacher behavior.

The Participants

The subjects were drawn from the population of elementary school student teachers enrolled at Arizona State University (Fall semester, 1970). The total sample was forty-four student teachers: five males and thirty-nine females. The two counseling teams were doctoral students in the Department of Counseling and Educational Psychology at Arizona State University, Fall semester, 1970. The two seminar leaders were doctoral students in the Department of Elementary Education at Arizona State University, Fall semester, 1970.

Instruments

The Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories with Nonverbal Categories (FIAC/NVC) measured the percentage of restricting classroom behavior. The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) measured the levels of State and Trait anxiety. The Confidential Evaluation Form was used by cooperating teachers to rate their student teachers.

Procedures

The subjects were randomly assigned to three groups: (a) an experimental group consisting of two counseling groups each with different counselor teams, (b) a Hawthorne control group consisting of two seminar groups each with different seminar leaders, and (c) a control group. The counseling groups received eight weekly group counseling treatments with the Problem Identification Model, one that

employed psychodramatic techniques. The seminar groups met for equivalent amounts of time. The control group received no special treatment.

Classroom behavior was measured by a post-test only design: during the last week of student teaching, an observer trained in the FIAC/NVC system obtained two twenty minute samples of each subject's teaching behavior. A repeated measures design assessed manifest State anxiety over time: The STAI was administered to all subjects prior to, in the middle of, and at the end of student teaching.

An analysis of five preselected characteristics on the Confidential Evaluation Form (CEF), a student teacher rating form filled out by cooperating teachers at the end of student teaching.

Treatment of the Data

For the percentage of restricting classroom behavior, a nested hierarchal analysis of variance was used to analyze the data. The levels of manifest State anxiety were analzyed with a two-factor analysis of variance with one factor being repeated measures. A one-way analysis of covariance was calculated for the CEF. Pearson Product-Moment correlations were calculated for the relationship between CEF and FIAC/NVC and for the relationships among the characteristics on the CEF.

Results

Results show (a) that the experimental group did not differ significantly in percentages of restricting classroom behavior nor in decrements of State anxiety over time, and (b) that no significant relationship existed between level of State anxiety and percentages of restricting classroom behavior.

The analyses indicated (a) that the counseling group was rated significantly higher (.05) than the other two groups on innovativeness and potential as a teacher, (b) that the characteristics on the CEF were highly correlated; and (c) that the ratings on the CEF and observations with the FIAC/NVC were not significantly correlated.

Conclusions

The results of this research indicate support for the following contentions: (a) it seems that some form of group treatment would be helpful for some student teachers during their internship, (b) the

State anxiety levels of all subjects declined as student teaching progressed, with the counseling treatment no more effective in reducing State anxiety than the weekly seminar or no group at all; and (c) a powerful halo effect was evident in the cooperating teachers' rating of their student teachers with the possibility that the ratings were a function of a general rater liking or disliking of the student teachers.

INTRODUCTION

The 1970 ASCD Yearbook eloquently sounded a tocsin that epitomized a concern of many American educators: To Nurture Humaneness in all youngsters must be the responsibility of American public schools.

Unfortunately, eloquence is not enough to change institutions that Silberman (1970) described as "mindless" and "repressive." For if schools are to be more humane and help youngsters realize their own humanity, then teachers, themselves, must be humane, caring people, aware of their own humanity and responsive to the humanity of their pupils.

The implication for teacher education programs as one of the chief agents of promoting change in teacher behavior is that they must provide experiences that will help prospective teachers develop their humaneness. But to effect these changes in their students, teacher education programs themselves must change both their model of teacher competencies and the templates that produce the model.

In the past, teacher education in The United States has adhered to a skill-competency model which focused mainly on scholarship and methodology: what the young teacher knew and how he presented what he knew (Wilhelms, 1971). The assumption was that the professional training program could help the young teacher acquire the necessary skills for teaching by exposing him to the theory in the college classroom and then providing him with a field experience in which to practice the skills under the guidance of a cooperating teacher and a college supervisor.

But this skill competency model has not proven entirely satisfactory. Although many universities were discovering and demonstrating efficacious new teaching methods, few people in teacher education knew how to help the teacher himself so that he could adopt and utilize the new methods once he was in his own classroom. As Flanders (1970) pointed out, existing evidence indicates that more traditional teacher education programs have little influence on classroom teacher behavior.

Even such a recent development in teacher education as the microteaching laboratory, with its array of video equipment and feedback systems to augment the skill competency model, is based on the premise that trainees can acquire and transfer target behaviors by watching appropriate role models, practicing desired behaviors, and receiving feedback from trained supervisors. The research of Fuller and her associates (1969), however, showed that giving prospective

teachers feedback without helping them to integrate the changes into their personality structures was ineffective in changing behavior. Similarly, Lail (1969) reported difficulty in changing some classroom behaviors of Job Corps trainees after giving them feedback from videotape and an observational instrument. Perhaps one explanation for this lack of transfer might be, as Lewin's studies during World War II revealed, that giving people information does not necessarily result in changed behavior because often their personal attitudes remain unaffected (Luft, 1963).

An increasing number of critics are asserting that even if the skill competency model was effective it did not provide the young teacher with the skills and attitudes necessary for the humanistic school described in the 1970 ASCD Yearbook. They charge that teacher education must be concerned with more than techniques; it must involve the learners at a much deeper level so as to help them make themselves not only the most competent practitioners but also the most fully developed people they are capable of becoming Wilhelms, 1961; Combs, 1965). In his critique of teacher education, Silberman (1970) identified the concern with the teacher qua person as perhaps the most neglected aspect in professional preparation programs.

This study is based upon the proposition that this neglect must cease: that teacher education must indeed concern itself with the personal growth of prospective teachers by helping them clarify and satisfy needs in ways that do not exploit the children they teach. Since student teaching is the focal point for many young teachers' personal and professional uncertainty, the researcher chose student teaching as the time to investigate one way of helping preservice teachers with their personal/professional growth, knowing also that for many teacher candidates, student teaching is a period of great stress that sometimes elicits debilitating anxiety and defense mechanisms that are counter-productive for both the student teachers and their pupils (Silberman, 1970).

The personal growth of prospective teachers is not only important to them as people but also to the pupils they will someday teach. The literature is replete with research showing a strong relationship between teacher attitudes and behavior and student intellectual and emotional growth (Aspy, 1967; Christensen, 1960; Davidson and Lang, 1960; Sears, 1964; and Truax and Tatum, 1966). Many educators have long sensed that the teacher himself is the key element in humanizing any classroom and "not until teachers . . . are willing to look at themselves and how they affect pupils in the school does there appear to be much hope for improvement in our schools" (Bowers and Soar, 1961, p. 145). Carkhuff and Berenson (1967) put it more bluntly:

Research indicates that those who are functioning at low levels [of facilitative behaviors] can simply not be turned loose on children (p. 203).

Teacher education, then, must provide the student teacher with opportunities like group counseling to explore what Wilhelms (1970) termed his "personal/professional becoming" at a time that has been described as much like a second adolescence with its comparable doubts, uncertainties, and fears of inadequacy. It must recognize that it is the person inside the teacher that counts. As Fuller (1969) wrote, "What the teacher is, sometimes speaks so loudly, pupils cannot hear what she says" (p. 310).

In sum, if public education is to respond meaningfully to the tocsin sounded by the 1970 ASCD Yearbook, those responsible for the education of teachers must understand that to nuture humaneness in school means first to nuture humaneness in the teachers who will staff the schools.

The Problem

The purpose of this study was to determine whether a group counseling approach utilizing psychodramatic techniques was effective (a) in reducing the State anxiety and (b) in promoting desired classroom behaviors of elementary school student teachers. More specifically, the study theorized that student teachers participating in the group counseling sessions would manifest greater decrements of State anxiety during student teaching, would exhibit less restricting classroom behavior, and would be rated higher by their cooperating teachers than those not receiving counseling. Other concerns were the interaction between the level of State anxiety and classroom behavior and the relationship between classroom observations and cooperating teachers' rating of the student teachers.

Need for the Study

If teacher education is truly concerned with the personal/professional growth of its students, then it must provide psychologically secure experiences that deeply involve young teachers in the exploration of themselves as people and as young professionals. These experiences ideally would be an integral part of the total professional program (Combs, 1965), but at the very least would be available at critical times when the students appear likely to experience great stress.

Some authors have commented upon the pressures that young teachers experience during student teaching, pressures that often result in restricting or poorly executed behavior as well as in undue

psychological discomfort. One source of pressure is the hazardous nature of student teaching where possibly his future career depends on how his cooperating teacher and/or his college supervisor evaluate his performance. For many student teachers this tenuous situation renders them captive to self-restraints or restraints imposed by others, producing inner conflicts such as "I want to do - he wants me to do," "I want to do - he won't let me do," or "I want to do - I don't dare to." Other sources of stress revealed by researchers are fear of inadequacy, personality conflicts with cooperating teachers and/or college supervisors, unsatisfactory relationships with pupils, poor role adjustment, uncertainty about the expectations of others (Fuller et al, 1969: Shaplin, 1961; Sorenson and Halpert, 1968; and Wilhelms, 1970).

Regardless of the source, the stress inherent in many student teaching situations can elicit debilitating anxiety and disfunctional behaviors from the student teachers experiencing the stress (Silberman, 1970). Sorenson and Halpert (1968) described student teaching as it appeared to some of the student teachers in their study:

> . . . for others it is a frightening, frustrating, and depressing time, resulting in feelings either of failure and personal inadequacy or of great anger, or both (p. 32).

Fuller et al (1969) found that some student teachers had great difficulty in acting upon newly discovered potentialities during their student teaching because of obstacles in the situation that either inhibited, blocked, or minimized experimenting with new behaviors.

Because student teaching is such a powerful influence on the professional development of young teachers (Flanders, 1967), many teacher educators have accepted the idea that professional training programs should provide assistance and psychological support for young teachers experiencing personal and professional problems. In recent years teacher education has, in fact, paid increasing attention to the area of mental health by establishing courses and workshops in mental health. But such programs tend to concentrate on the acquisition of information about mental health rather than on experiences that facilitate self-awareness and self-understanding (Combs, 1965; McClain, 1970; and Witty, 1950). Bowers and Soar (1961) pointed out that "it is generally accepted that behavior that is rooted in attitudes and beliefs does not change as a consequence of communication of information" (p. 5).

Although the National Training Laboratory has stimulated interest in the use of human relations training laboratories as a means of fostering self-insight and interpersonal skills for teacher trainees, Cabianca (1967) pointed out as recently as 1967 that such training programs have not been prevalent in teacher education. Silberman (1970) cautioned against their widespread use noting the dangers

of sensitivity training to the human psyche even when conducted by qualified trainers, a luxury that some teacher education programs who rely on zealous but inexperienced trainees cannot afford. Furthermore, research investigating the efficacy of T-Groups in teacher education has thus far yielded inconclusive results (Flanders, 1970).

Some in teacher education have suggested that counseling could be employed as a means of facilitating insight on the part of the prospective teacher of his self and its interaction with the realities of the teaching role. Sixteen years ago, Symonds (1955) argued that to effect changes in a teacher's attitudes and hence his behavior, teacher training must offer counseling so that trainees can examine their conflicts, defense mechanisms, and needs. Similar views have been expressed by Jersild (1955), Fuller et al (1969), Muro and Ohnmacht (1968), and Peck, Bown, and Veldman (1964). But following an exhaustive five year study of American education, Silberman (1970) referred to the handful of teacher training institutions using counseling as a means of promoting self-knowledge as well as knowledge of subject matter and techniques.

As beneficial as it may be for some pre-service teachers, individual counseling is not feasible for most teacher education programs because of the expense, the time, and the limited number of counselors available (Silberman, 1970). Group counseling, however, is one way of realistically and "economically" bringing assistance to young teachers. Group counseling would have the further advantages of allowing members to share similar problems and concerns, to provide mutual support for group members, to try out new behaviors in the safety of the group, and to give and receive feedback.

In spite of the promise that group counseling has for teacher education, a survey of group counseling research from 1938 to 1967 conducted by Gazda and Larsen (1968) revealed that out of 107 research studies only two involved student teachers as subjects.

In summary, the references above support the view that professional teacher education programs should provide growth-enhancing experiences for their students, particularly during times such as student teaching, a time of great stress for many young teachers. Mental health courses and laboratory training have not yet proven effective. Although group counseling appears to have possibilities, very little research exists in this area.

Significance of the Study

This study derived significance from its attempt to improve the classroom teaching behavior of student teachers by focusing on the student teacher as a person, on the premise that the teacher himself

is a crucial variable in the learning environment. To effect this improvement, the researcher used a counseling treatment that ran concurrently with the student teaching experience, thus providing the young teacher with help and support throughout his student teaching. Previous research on the use of group sensitivity training with pre-service teachers revealed that while short, concentrated group experiences may produce quick, positive changes in some attitudes, these changes are often ephemeral and/or do not seem to influence teacher behavior in the classroom (McGee, 1970; Tobin, 1970).

In the area of counseling research, the present study gained further significance from its implications for group counseling research. Among the weaknesses of previous group counseling research pinpointed by Cohn (1964) and Gazda and Larsen (1968) were (a) poor definition of desired outcomes from treatment, (b) confounding of criteria, (c) inadequate controls, (d) vague description of the treatment process, and (e) a lack of the qualifications of the group counselors. Similar shortcomings were identified by Mahler (1969) and Ohlsen (1970).

Muench (1968) observed that a central problem of assessing outcomes of therapy is that important changes are often covert rather than overt, nonverbal rather than verbal, subtle rather than obvious. Counseling research, argued Muench, should utilize instruments which will measure these dimensions of the clients' extra-clinical behavior.

In response to these criticisms, this study has attempted (a) to specify operationally less restricting classroom behavior as one of the desired outcomes of the treatment, (b) to minimize the confounding of the counselor and the treatment variables by replicating the treatment with different counselors, (c) to describe clearly the treatment process, and (d) to list the qualifications of the counselors.

Furthermore, this study provided additional data by which to evaluate the efficacy of short-term group counseling. Gazda and Ohlsen (1961) concluded from their study of the effects of short-term group counseling on the mental health of counselor trainees that short-term group counseling, defined in their study as two one-hour weekly sessions for seven weeks, is ineffective in improving the mental health of essentially normal individuals. But unlike their study and unlike many short-term group counseling studies reviewed by Gazda and Larsen (1968) the present study used a counseling model, The Problem Identification Model, that utilized certain psychodramatic techniques in addition to verbalization, a process that was thought to be more potent for short-term therapy.

Another part of the significance of this study rested upon its use as a criterion measure of a classroom observational instrument that scrutinized both the verbal and nonverbal classroom behavior of the subjects. Cyphert and Spaights (1964) in their summary and assessment of research in teacher education from 1959 to 1964 commented on the poor quality of research in this field, reflected in part by the relatively few studies that have employed a measure of teacher behavior as a dependent variable. In recent years, sparked by the work of Amidon, Flanders, Medley and Mitzel, and others, teacher education has seen a plethora of studies involving classroom observational systems as either process or outcome variables. But most of these systems have examined only the teacher's verbal behavior on the assumption that the verbal behavior of an individual is an adequate sample of his behavior (Amidon and Flanders, 1967).

Galloway (1966, 1970) disagreed with this assumption. Noting that the majority of research about patterns of communication in classrooms has centered on the direction, flow, and amount of verbal interaction between teachers and pupils with little or no attention given to nonverbal communication, he developed two nonverbal categories that could be used in conjunction with the Flanders system, on the theory that nonverbal behavior often reveals inner feelings and attitudes masked by words. The present study was among the first to employ the Flanders/Galloway instrument as a criterion measure.

In summary, the present study through its design, its use of The Problem Identification group counseling model, and its choice of observational instrument is significant both with respect to its relevance for the field of group counseling research and for the area of teacher education.

Hypotheses

This study focused on the effect of group counseling with the Problem Identification Model on the classroom behavior and on the level of manifest State anxiety of elementary school student teachers. The questions posed in the study were: (a) Do student teachers exposed to the group counseling treatment exhibit less restricting classroom behavior than student teachers who attend weekly seminars or those who attend no weekly meetings? (b) Are student teachers exposed to the group counseling treatment rated higher by their cooperating than student teachers who attended weekly seminars or those who attended no weekly meetings? (c) Do student teachers exposed to the group counseling treatment manifest a greater decrement of State anxiety during student teaching than those attending the weekly seminars or those attending no meetings? (d) Do student teachers who manifest high levels of State anxiety exhibit more restricting classroom behavior than those who manifest lower levels?

The study was designed to investigate four major hypotheses.

Theoretical hypotheses. Based upon the statement of the problem, the following theoretical hypotheses were formulated:

1. Student teachers attending the weekly group counseling sessions will exhibit less restricting classroom behavior than seminar or control student teachers.

2. Student teachers attending the counseling sessions will be rated higher by their cooperating teachers than seminar or control subjects.

2.11 Student teachers attending the weekly group counseling sessions will be rated higher on emotional stability than seminar or control student teachers.

2.21. Student teachers attending the weekly group counseling sessions will be rated higher by their cooperating teachers on innovativeness than seminar or control student teachers.

2.31. Student teachers attending the weekly group counseling sessions will be rated higher by their cooperating teachers on communications skills than seminar or control student teachers.

2.41. Student teachers attending the weekly group counseling sessions will be rated higher by their cooperating teachers on classroom control skills than seminar or control student teachers.

2.51 Student teachers attending the weekly group counseling sessions will be rated higher by their cooperating teachers on potential as a teacher than seminar or control student teachers.

3. Student teachers attending the weekly group counseling sessions will manifest greater decrements of State anxiety during student teaching than seminar or control student teachers.

4. A relationship exists between level of State anxiety and classroom restricting behavior with high State anxiety student teachers exhibiting more restricting classroom behavior than low State anxiety student teachers.

Null hypotheses. The following null hypotheses were formulated for testing:

1. There is no significant difference among the mean percentages of restricting classroom behavior of the counseling, the seminar, and the control subjects.

2. There is no significant difference among the mean cooperating teacher ratings of the counseling, the seminar, and the control subjects.

2.11 There is no significant difference among the mean cooperating teacher ratings for emotional stability of the counseling, the seminar, and the control subjects.

2.21 There is no significant difference among the mean cooperating teacher rating for innovativeness of the counseling, the seminar, and the control subjects.

2.31 There is no significant difference among the mean cooperating teacher rating for communication skills of the counseling, the seminar, and the control subjects.

2.41 There is no significant difference among the mean cooperating teacher rating for classroom control skills of the counseling, the seminar, and the control subjects.

2.51 There is no significant difference among the mean cooperating teacher rating for potential as a teacher of the counseling, the seminar, and the control subjects.

3. There is no significant difference among the mean level of manifest State anxiety over time of the counseling, the seminar, and the control subjects.

4. There is no significant correlation between a subject's level of State anxiety and his percentage of restricting classroom behavior.

Theoretical Development of Hypotheses

This section attempts to answer these questions: (a) Why were the variables of State anxiety, classroom behavior, and group counseling with the Problem Identification Model chosen for this study? (b) What is their relationship to each other and to the subjects investigated in this study.

The literature suggests that one of the effects of anxiety upon an individual is to restrict his perceptual field and to reduce his

behavioral options, thus limiting his flexibility to deal with the exigencies of a given stress situation (Combs and Snygg, 1959; Combs and Taylor, 1952; and May, 1950). Some of the behavioral manifestations of such restrictions are rigidity, overreactive anger, irritability, and repetitious and compulsive behavior (Combs and Snygg, 1959; Jersild, 1955; and Jersild and Lazar, 1962). Furthermore, research shows that anxiety has a debilitating effect on the task performance of certain perceptual and communication skills considered important components of effective teaching (Beier, 1949; Combs and Taylor, 1952; Geer, 1966; Gynther, 1957; Janis and Feshbach, 1954; Pally, 1955; and Runkel and Damrin, 1961).

Some authors in the field of anxiety (Spielberger, 1966) distinguish conceptually and operationally between anxiety as a transitory state (State anxiety) and anxiety as a relatively stable personality trait (Trait anxiety). They see a dynamic relationship between State and Trait anxiety with the expectation that those who are high in Trait anxiety will manifest a higher State anxiety more frequently than low Trait anxiety individuals because their greater anxiety proneness, like a sensitive radar screen, leads them to perceive a wider range of situations as dangerous or threatening and to react to these situations with greater intensity. Situations that involve interpersonal relationships which pose some threat to self-esteem or one's personal adequacy, situations like student teaching, are particularly threatening to persons with high Trait anxiety.

The student teaching experience contains for the young teacher many elements generally considered to evoke anxiety: role conflicts, uncertainty about the expectations of people in evaluative positions, role confusion, and fears of inadequacy (Travers, 1952). Although some authors theorize anxiety as a drive that motivates learning, other writers (Travers, 1952; Lumpkin, 1954; and Wilhelms, 1970) hold that when the student teacher's anxiety is too great it tends to have a paralyzing or disorganizing effect on his behavior. This view is an application of the Yerkes-Dodson Law that postulates an optimum level of anxiety, with a curvilinear relationship between anxiety and performance: as anxiety increases beyond an optimum point, performance declines (Iannoccone and Button, 1964).

An important point is that normal anxiety, arising from the student teacher's realistic appraisal of student teaching, can be used constructively by meeting the day-to-day stress experiences as they arise without resorting to less desirable defense mechanisms. The problem, then is not how to live anxiety-free lives or how to avoid or excape from anxiety, but rather how to use constructively normal anxiety-creating situations (May, 1950).

This study is based on the assumption that anxiety is relevant to teacher classroom behavior and that the Problem Identification group counseling model can assist the young teacher "to confront his anxiety

and move ahead in spite of it" (Kierkegaard quoted in May, 1950, p. 35), developing in the process a greater sense of freedom, strength, and control over his situation.

If anxiety does shrink perceptions and restrict behavioral options, then one goal of the group counseling model must be to widen the perceptions of its clients and to expand their behavioral alternatives. In general, group counseling, with its potential as a safe place where clients can openly discuss and share common problems and feelings, provides a setting which tends to alleviate the anxiety caused by feelings of isolation, uniqueness, and helplessness. The group can offer an opportunity not only to become more aware of deep feelings but also to learn to manage these feelings more constructively (Mahler, 1969; Ohlsen, 1970).

More specifically, the Problem Identification Model, with its emphasis on group attention, support, and identification with an individual's problem, fosters inclusion within the group through the counselors' eliciting and reinforcing empathic statements of identification with the problem presenter (Daane et al, 1969). Following the verbalization of a person's problem, the counselors use roleplaying, role switching, and alter ego techniques to help the problem presenter deal with his projections of reality. Two therapeutically potent forces are operating here: (a) through the group's empathic statements of identification with his problem, the problem presenter feels the encouragement and support of others and thus feels more secure to disregard defenses; (b) as he engages in the roleplaying and role switching, he hopefully gets a better understanding of the person contributing to his problem by stepping into his shoes, a process that forces him to deal with and take back some of the projections he has placed on the other person. The theory is that the identification plus the roleplaying results in expanded awareness of the problem, expanded awareness of self, and perceived multiple alternatives for solving the problem (Daane, 1971).

Furthermore, the theory suggests a functional relationship between perceptions, anxiety, and behavior: anxiety shrinks perceptions and reduces behavioral alternatives; reduced anxiety permits expanded perceptions and increased behavioral possibilities. The Problem Identification Model reduces State anxiety by encouraging group identification with a member's problem and by providing opportunities through the roleplaying for him to expand his awareness of the problem and to perceive alternative solutions to the problem. As the individual perceives himself to be more adequate to cope with the problem, his anxiety is reduced; as his anxiety shrinks, his perceptions and behavioral options expand, permitting him to behave more adequately.

The researcher chose State rather than Trait anxiety as a dependent variable because, according to Spielberger's theory (Spielberger, 1966, 1971), State anxiety is conceptualized as a transitory

phenomenon contingent partly upon one's perceptions of a given situation; whereas Trait anxiety is theorized as a much more stable characteristic less amenable to change.

To assess one dimension of the student teachers' classroom behavior, this study employed a classroom observational instrument that focuses on the nonverbal as well as the verbal behavior of the subjects, noting the discrepancy between the two when it occurs. This particular observational system differentiated between "encouraging" and "restricting" classroom teacher behavior within each of the ten verbal categories of the Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories, by classifying the nonverbal messages accompanying each verbal communication. In other words, this study examined the metacommunicative styles of its subjects on the assumption that people constantly and often unintentionally communicate their inner feeling states through the muted language of facial expressions, gestures, body movements, and vocal intonations and inflections.

The researcher assessed another dimension of student teacher classroom performance by examining the cooperating teachers' ratings of their student teachers. The five characteristics on the Confidential Evaluation Form pre-selected for this study were chosen because they appeared as if they might be affected by the treatment. In addition to teaching performance, the researcher wanted to determine how successfully the student teachers were coping with professional and interpersonal cooperating teacher/student teacher relationships.

The premise was that as the student teachers worked through their problems and conflicts in the counseling groups their State anxiety would decrease, their self-awareness and perceptions of external stimuli would widen, and their behavioral repertoires would expand. These changes would be manifested in the classroom by more "encouraging" interactions with their pupils, and more effective student teaching performance as perceived by their cooperating teachers.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Participants

Subjects. The subjects were drawn from the population of elementary school student teachers enrolled in one of four student teaching programs during the Fall semester, 1970 at Arizona State University. The total sample was forty-four student teachers, five males and thirty-nine females.

Selection of sample. The selection process for this study was divided into three steps. First, near the end of the Spring semester,

1970, the one preceding their student teaching semester, all student teachers enrolled for the Fall semester of elementary school student teaching, except those committed to an experimental program with the acronym MOST, received an invitation by mail to participate in the present study, a copy of which is presented in Appendix A. Second, a week later, the researcher telephoned each potential subject to explain more fully the project and to elicit commitments to participate. Third, the researcher decided to choose only from the pool of student teachers enrolled in the all-day student teaching plans that ran from eight to ten weeks because: (a) these student teachers would have more intensive contact with their pupils than student teachers working half days, and (b) the duration of their assignments corresponded better to the length of the counseling treatment than the assignments for the sixteen week plan. Fourth, two weeks before the commencement of the Fall semester, the researcher again telephoned each volunteer to reconfirm his/her commitment. As anticipated, some of those who had volunteered had changed their minds, some had dropped out of student teaching, some had moved from the Phoenix area, and some had withdrawn voluntarily or involuntarily from the university. Following this final assessment the total number of committed volunteers was sixty-two, out of an original pool of 112 volunteers.

Counselors. The four counselors who comprised the two counseling teams were doctoral students working toward the Ph.D. in counseling in the Department of Counseling and Educational Psychology during the Fall semester, 1970. Each counseling team was composed of one male and one female. Of the four, one male was a practicing counselor at the student counseling service at Arizona State University, two, one male and one female, were Graduate Associates supervising practicum for the EPDA Counselor Education Project at Arizona State University, and one female was a counselor at the Good Samaritan Hospital in Phoenix, Arizona. All four were highly recommended by their practicum supervisors for their skill in both individual and group counseling.

Seminar leaders. The two seminar leaders were both female doctoral students in the Department of Elementary Education at Arizona State University for the Fall semester, 1970. One was a Graduate Associate in the Department of Elementary Education assigned to supervision of student teachers (but not those in the study); the other was an instructor at Phoenix College. Both were selected for their extensive background in elementary education and for their ability to work with young teachers.

Procedures

Problem design. The design of this study included three groups: an experimental group, sub-divided into two groups designated as E-1 and E-2; a Hawthorne control group, also sub-divided into two groups designated as HC-1 and HC-2; and a control group designated

as C-1. The experimental group received the group counseling treatment, the Hawthorne control groups participated in group seminars, while the control group received no treatment. Figure 1 represents this design.

Experimental Group	Hawthorne Control Group	Control Group
E-1 ¦ E-2	HC-1 ¦ HC-2	C-1
N=7 ¦ N=8	N=7 ¦ N=6	N=16
NE = 15	NHC = 13	NC = 16

Total N = 44

Figure 1

In selecting this design, the researcher sought to equalize the novelty effect of participating in a research study by establishing the Hawthorne control group and to control for possible confounding of the treatment variable with the group leader variable by replicating each group experience with different counseling teams and different seminar leaders.

Random assignments. From a table of random numbers (Winer, 1962) the researcher selected forty-eight student teachers from the pool of sixty-two volunteers. Next he randomly assigned the subjects to three groups, with each group having sixteen subjects. Then each group was randomly designated as experimental, Hawthorne, or control. Prior to or shortly after the commencement of the treatment, four subjects dropped out of the study for varied reasons: thus through the vicissitudes of college life, the total N in this study was reduced to its final count of forty-four.

The fifteen student teachers assigned to the two experimental groups met for eight consecutive weekly group sessions lasting one and one-half hours each. The total counseling time was twelve hours. Because they taught on the all-day student teaching plan, the subjects needed released time to attend the group meetings held at Arizona State University, time arranged with the help of the cooperating teachers and the Department of Elementary Education. Furthermore, their out-of-school responsibilities necessitated each group's choosing a meeting time and day mutually convenient for the members: 3:00 p.m. on Thursdays for E-1 and 3:00 p.m. on Tuesdays for E-2. Both groups, however, experienced the same counseling treatment although led by different counseling teams.

Similarly, the thirteen student teachers assigned to the Hawthorne control groups also met in weekly seminars for an equivalent length of time and duration. These subjects, like those in the experimental group, attended the weekly seminars on released time. But both seminar groups chose to meet at the same time and day: 3:00 p.m. on Wednesdays.

The control group did not meet in groups and, except for the administration of the criterion measures, it received no special treatment at all.

Training of counselors. The counselors' training in the theory behind and the techniques of The Problem Identification Model was in three phases. First, during the summer, the four counselors met for three two hour training sessions with Dr. Calvin Daane, developer of the model, in order to give the counselors a theoretical background of and simulated practice with the model. Second, shortly before the Fall semester began, the counselors again met with Dr. Daane for two intensive training sessions focusing on practice of the methods through simulation. The third phase of the training consisted of four two hour meetings with Dr. Daane held on alternate Tuesdays so that the counselors could discuss and reenact any problems that were occurring in the groups.

Treatment. The two experimental groups met in weekly one and one-half hour sessions for eight weeks. Each group had a team of two counselors, one male and one female, acting alternately as counselor and co-counselor. All counseling sessions took place in group counseling rooms located in the Counselor Training Center at Arizona State University. With the consent of each group, all counseling sessions were monitored with audio tape to verify that the counselors had preserved the integrity of the model, i.e., that roleplaying occurred in each session.

Both counseling groups used the Problem Identification Model, a group counseling model developed by Daane et al (1969). In brief, the salient characteristics of this model are: (a) the counselees meet in a group to discuss problems and experiences; (b) with the help of the counselors the counselees verbalize problems as situations involving people and then roleplay these situations aided by the counselors and other group members; (c) during the roleplaying the counselors act as alter egos to the players; (d) at appropriate times, the counselors ask the problem presenter to switch roles, thus forcing him to deal with his projections of reality by stepping into those projections: (e) throughout the process the counselors use specified methods to facilitate the desired behavior: tasking, modeling, and selective responding, to reinforce and enhance the task at hand and to extinguish responses spurious to the task; (f) the counselors do not "sell" or push advice or solutions, nor do they reinforce advice from

group members; (g) the desired behavior is the opening of new alternatives to problems and developing insights into oneself.

The integral participants in the model are as follows: (a) the counselor, who leads in eliciting the problems, guides the roleplaying, and leads the subsequent discussion; (b) the co-counselor, who assists the counselor in the discussion and roleplaying; (c) the problem presenter, who verbalizes and then roleplays a problem; (d) the antagonist, who assists the problem presenter with the roleplaying by enacting the part of the significant other; and (e) the spectators, who view the roleplaying and give feedback to the players.

Typically, the counselor opened each session by asking if anyone had a problem that he wished to discuss. After selecting a problem he felt to be of "universal" interest to the group, the counselor helped the problem presenter verbalize it in terms of a conflict between another person and him, and then asked him to roleplay the situation by choosing someone from the group to play his antagonist and then commencing with the point of conflict. As the players moved their chairs into the middle of the circle, the two counselors moved behind the players to act as their alter egos, expressing thoughts or feelings that the actors might not care or dare to verbalize. The counselor always stayed behind the chair of the problem presenter, even when he switched roles. When he perceived the actors becoming defensive or blocked in their interaction, the counselor requested that they switch roles. This switching might occur five or six times until the counselor judged that enough of the problem had been exposed to warrant discussion by the whole group. The players now resumed their positions as part of the circle while the counselors invited disclosure of their feelings and perceptions while roleplaying as well as feedback from the spectators.

At this point, a number of things might have happened, depending on the situation. Ideally, the problem presenter, through the roleplaying process and the subsequent discussion, expanded his awareness of the problem and of alternative solutions. The counselor would then suggest that he think about the alternatives, select one, try it out, and report back to the group during the next session. The discussion, however, may have revealed other facets of the problem or additional alternatives thus provoking further roleplaying with the same or with different players. Or the discussion may have elicited another problem by a different problem presenter, in which case the whole process might have begun again. Generally, however, the length of the sessions precluded the exploration of more than two problems, and usually not more than one. A summary of the model appears in Appendix B.

Role of the counselors. As revealed by the enactment above, the counselors in The Problem Identification Model play a much more active role in the process than they would with some other counseling models. In addition to their role as therapeutic stage directors during the roleplaying, the counselors have the important job of helping the group arrive at what Daane (1971) calls the inclusion stage of a group, i.e., the stage at which the group members feel acceptance by and support from each other. Daane (1971) insists that if the group members are to broaden the perceptual fields, to get new materials for problem solving, and to experiment with new behavior, the group must reach the inclusion stage. The counselors promote inclusion by responding selectively to identification statements in ways that pair group members together ("Oh, you can really identify with George's feelings of frustration"), by reinforcing these identification statements, and by modeling supportive behavior for the group.

The theory behind the counselors' reinforcing and modeling identification statements is that empathic statements of identification facilitate inclusion and raise the self-confidence level of the person experiencing a problem. People tend to give someone in trouble advice on how to handle the problem, advice that is flattering to the advisor but deflating to the advisee. Thus counselors in this model ignore advice from the group while responding to identification statements.

Another way the counselors can reduce advice giving is to ask for the advice to be roleplayed rather than verbalized. It is one thing for a group member to intellectualize a case of advice, and another thing to be able to do it. By asking the advisor to roleplay his suggestion, the counselors equalize a little bit of the deflation the verbal advice might have had on the problem presenter.

Everything, then, that the counselors do is intended to build a group structure in which the members feel safe enough to explore their present feelings and behaviors, expand their awareness of themselves and others, and experiment with new behaviors and receive feedback about those behaviors.

Role of the seminar leaders. Unlike the counselors, the seminar leaders acted more as resource people for the group, responding to questions, making suggestions, presenting curriculum materials. An analysis of each tape recorded session revealed that they scrupulously avoided using any of the psychodramatic techniques embodied in the counseling model.

Data Collection

For data collection, the researcher used two different designs, a posttest-only design for the dependent variable, percentage of restricting classroom behavior, and a repeated measures design for the State anxiety variable. Referring to the former, Campbell and Stanley (1963) described it as "greatly underused in educational and psychological research" (p. 26). The two designs are diagrammed below with X=treatment, R=randomization, and O=criterion measure:

Posttest-Only				Repeated Measures				
E-1	R	X	O	E-1	R	O	XO	O
E-2	R	X	O	E-2	R	X	XO	O
HC-1	R		O	HC-1	R	O	O	O
HC-2	R		O	HC-2	R	O	O	O
C-1	R		O	C-1	R	O	O	O

Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories With Nonverbal Categories. Beginning the eighth week of student teaching, an observer trained in the FIAC/NVC instrument visited each student teacher in his/her classroom to gather two twenty minute samples of teaching behavior. Both observers used in the study followed the same observational procedures for each classroom: they waited three or four minutes to get a feel of the class and then began coding for twenty minutes. After a five minute break, they began coding again if the classroom activity permitted; if not, they waited for a suitable activity. This observational procedure had been suggested by Dr. Ned Flanders during a telephone conversation with the researcher in this study.

In an attempt to minimize the student teachers' "preparing" for the observation, the researcher did not reveal to them the specific kinds of behaviors that would be recorded nor the exact time and day of the observer's visit, although he did brief them on the general nature and purpose of the classroom observations as suggested by Flanders (1970). Furthermore, a letter sent to all cooperating teachers asking for a schedule of optimum observation times requested that they not disclose to their student teachers the dates and times suggested.

State-Trait Anxiety Inventory. Procedures for collecting data for the anxiety variable were in three stages. First, all subjects met in their respective groups the day before student teaching began to take the STAI and, except for the control group, to decide upon mutually convenient meeting times. For this first administration of the STAI, the student teachers were given the following instructions for the State Anxiety Scale of the STAI: Read each statement and then mark on the answer sheet to indicate how you feel right now, that is, at this moment when thinking about the coming student teaching experience."

Next, during the sixth week of the experiment, all subjects again took the STAI, either at the end of their regularly scheduled group meeting or for the control subjects at a specially scheduled meeting at the university. The sixth week was selected for the second administration of the STAI because, by this time, all student teachers had assumed almost complete teaching responsibility for their classrooms and perhaps were experiencing anxiety commensurate with the new and difficult role. For the second administration, the researcher changed the instructions for the State Anxiety Scale to read as follows: "Read each statement and then mark on the answer sheet to indicate how you feel right now, that is, at this moment when thinking about your present student teaching experience."

Finally, the Monday after student teaching concluded, the subjects met at the university to take the STAI for the third and last time. For this last administration, the student teachers received these instructions: "Read each statement and then mark on the answer sheet to indicate how you felt during your last week of student teaching." See Appendix C for a copy of the STAI and the instructions for each administration.

In the Test Manual for Form X, Spielberger, Gorsuch, and Lushene (1969) explained that although the instructions for the A-Trait scale should not vary from those printed on the test form, the instructions for the A-State scale, however, "may be modified to evaluate the level of A-State intensity for any situation or time interval that is of interest to the experimenter" (p. 4). The authors further stated that it is not difficult for people to respond to the STAI A-State items in terms of a past situation, provided that the feelings were recently experienced.

In sum, the researcher measured the anxiety levels of the subjects in this study prior to, in the middle of, and at the end of their student teaching experience.

Confidential Evaluation Form. At the conclusion of student teaching, each cooperating teacher rated his student teacher with the twenty-two characteristic Confidential Evaluation Form. The ratings were on a five point scale: from "superior" to "not known." The researcher pre-selected five characteristics for the study, obtained the permission of the Placement Service to use the form, and then tallied the ratings on the five pre-selected characteristics for each student teacher.

Instruments

State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI). The STAI is comprised of separate self-report scales for measuring two distinct anxiety

concepts: State Anxiety (A-State) and Trait Anxiety (A-Trait). Thus, the STAI measures both situational anxiety and anxiety proneness with the same instrument.

STAI A-Trait scale consists of twenty statements that ask people to describe how they generally feel. The A-State scale also consists of twenty statements, but the instructions require subjects to indicate how they feel at a moment in time. These scales are printed on opposite sides of a single test form, with the A-State scale designated as X-1 and the A-Trait scale designated as X-2. Scoring is on a four point scale for each of the twenty questions: (1) "Not At All," (2) "Somewhat," (3) "Moderately So," and (4) "Very Much So." Scores range, then, for both the State and Trait scales from a minimum of twenty, indicating very low anxiety, to a possible maximum of eighty, indicating very high anxiety.

The STAI is quick to administer (college students take less than fifteen minutes for both forms) and can be administered by anyone who understands the instructions. Spielberger, Gorsuch, and Lushene (1969), however, warned (a) that the examiner should refer to the inventory by the innocuous title printed on the test form, SELF-EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE; and (b) that he should give the A-State scale first, since the A-Trait scale may elicit some anxiety that might carry over to the A-State scale. This study followed both suggestions.

(a) Reliabiltiy. Test-retest data for a sample of undergraduate college students at Florida State University (N=484, 253 males, 231 females) who were retested at different intervals of one hour, twenty days, and 104 days, and who were placed under varying conditions of stress, revealed (a) test-retest correlations for A-Trait scales from .73 to .86, but (b) for A-State scales stability coefficients from .16 to .54, well below the values for A-Trait. These findings support the theory that a valid measure of A-State would be expected to reflect the variations in stressful conditions existing at the time of testing (Spielberger, Gorsuch, and Lushene, 1969).

Furthermore, Spielberger, Gorsuch, and Lushene (1969) reported alpha reliability coefficients ranging from .83 to .92 for both A-Trait and A-State scales for a test of internal consistency of the STAI with samples of college freshman, college undergraduates, and high school students. The authors contended that given the transitory nature of anxiety states, measures of internal consistency would seem to provide a more meaningful index of reliability of the A-State scales than test-retest correlations (Spielberger, Sorsuch, and Lushene, 1969).

(b) Validity. Evidence of the STAI's concurrent validity comes from correlations of the A-Trait scale with other established

anxiety measures: (a) 126 college females: IPAT .75, MAS .80, AACL .52; (b) 80 college males: IPAT .76, MAS .79, AACL .58; (3) 66 neuropsychiatric patients: IPAT .77, MAS .83.

The construct validity of the A-State scale is supported by an investigation with 977 undergraduates at Florida State University who were given the A-State scale first under NORM conditions and then under EXAM conditions. The mean scores for both male and female subjects were significantly higher under the EXAM conditions than under NORM conditions, with all but one of the twenty items significantly discriminating between these two conditions for the males.

Additional support for the STAI's construct validity came from a study in which the A-State scale was given in a single testing session to 197 undergraduates at Florida State University under four different conditions: (a) the beginning of the testing sessions, (b) following a ten minute period of relaxation training, (c) following work on the Terman Concept Mastery Test, presented as an "easy I.Q. test," and (d) after viewing a stressful movie. The results indicated that the mean score for the A-State scale, as well as scores for individual items, were lowest in the RELAX conditions and highest in the STRESSFUL MOVIE condition (Spielberger, Gorsuch, and Lushene, 1969).

The authors of the test manual pointed out that although the STAI is a relatively new instrument, it has been used in a number of studies measuring state and trait anxiety. They summarized current research with the STAI as revealing its high correlation with other measures of trait anxiety and listed some of the following studies as supporting its construct validity: Hodges (1967), Sachs and Dienenhaus (1969), Sachs (1969), Gorsuch (1969), Lamb (1969), Auerbach (1969), McAdoo (1969), Hodges and Felling (1970), O'Neill, Spielberger, and Hansen (1969), O'Neill (1969), and Hall (1969).

In his review of the anxiety instruments, Levitt (1967) made the following evaluation of the STAI: "The STAI is the most carefully developed instrument, from both theoretical and methodological viewpoints, of those presented in this chapter" (p. 71).

In response to the criticisms of self-report instruments like the STAI that people are unwilling to admit negative things about themselves, that people lack the self-awareness to give truthful answers, or that the items are often ambiguous, Spielberger, Lushene, and McAdoo (1971) responded (a) that adolescents and adults with at least dull-normal intelligence are capable of describing how they feel at a given moment, and (b) that most people are willing to reveal how they felt during a given moment, provided they are asked specific questions about their recently experienced feelings. Krause (1961), Levitt (1967), and McReynolds (1968) support their positions of self-report instruments. A copy of the STAI is presented in Appendix C.

Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories with Nonverbal Categories (FIAC/NVC). The FIAC/NVC enables an observer to quantify a teacher's verbal and nonverbal classroom behavior and to determine the degree to which his behavior is "encouraging" or "restricting."

This instrument adds two nonverbal dimensions, "encouraging" and "restricting," to the ten verbal categories of the Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories. Thus for each verbal interaction, the observer classifies it as either "encouraging" or "restricting."

The combined verbal and nonverbal system is easy to learn and to record, particularly for the person already familiar with the Flanders System: every three seconds the observer writes down the number of a verbal category, leaving it as is if the accompanying nonverbal is encouraging and adding a 1 in front of it if the behavior is nonverbally restricting. For category 10, the observer records a 20 for restricting behavior. A percentage of restricting behavior is quickly and easily obtained by counting the number of double digits (and 20's) and then dividing the total number of tallies into the number of restricting tallies. While Lail (1970) admitted that this instrument does not attempt to cover all kinds of nonverbal communication given by teachers it does give useful information in some important areas.

(a) Reliability. Lail (1970) reported that she checked the reliability each week for observers who used the instrument with interns in the Teacher Corps program at the University of Kentucky and found that they maintained a correlation of .90 or better throughout the semester.

(b) Validity. Lail (1970) investigated the concurrent validity of the FIAC/NVC and found a .36 correlation, significant at the .05 level, between it and Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale, a correlation that supports the theories regarding dogmatism and behavior.

A copy of the FIAC/NVC appears in Appendix D.

(c) Training of observers. The two observers, both doctoral students in the College of Education at Arizona State University, received fifteen hours of training with the FIAC/NVC both in the video laboratory and in live classrooms. This training was in addition to extensive prior training that both had received with the Flanders System. The immediate post-training reliability measure with the Scott Coefficient based on a twenty minute live observation of a classroom provided an interrater reliability coefficient of .90. A copy of the ground rules used by the raters during observations appears in Appendix E.

Confidential Evaluation Form. The Confidential Evaluation Form (CEF) is a standard student teacher assessment instrument used by the Office of Student Teaching at Arizona State University. It consists of twenty-two characteristics rated on a five point scale: Superior, Above Average, Average, Below Average, and Not Known. This study was concerned with only five pre-selected characteristics: emotional stability, innovativeness, communication skills, classroom control skills, and potential as a teacher. A copy of the Confidential Evaluation Form appears in Appendix F.

Analysis of the Data. The experimental and control groups were compared using (a) percentage of restricting classroom behavior as measured by the FIAC/NVC, (b) cooperating teachers' ratings of the student teachers on five characteristics of the Confidential Evaluation Form, and (c) the level of manifest anxiety as measured by the A-State scale of the STAI. For the percentage of restricting behavior, a nested hierarchal analysis of variance design (Winer, 1962) was employed to combat the effects of a nuisance variable: the unique effects of the different group leaders. To assess the effect of the treatment on the cooperating teachers' evaluations of their student teachers, the researcher calculated a one-way analysis of covariance for the scores on the five pre-selected characteristics. Covariates for this analysis were two STAI measures, A-State and A-Trait, administered prior to the experiment. The two selected covariates met the conditions for ANACOVA listed in Winer (1962) and Kirk (1968). The manifest anxiety was analyzed using a two factor analysis of variance with one factor being repeated measures. A Pearson Product-Moment correlation was calculated for the interaction between percentage of restricting behavior and level of State anxiety.

This study accepted .05 as an appropriate significance level.

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

Results

This section presents the results of the present study by (a) restating the null hypotheses, (b) reporting the results of the statistical analyses, and (c) describing additional results from some post hoc analyses.

Hypothesis one. There are no significant differences between the mean percentage of restricting classroom behavior for the counseling, the seminar, and the control subjects.

A summary of the means and standard deviations and the hierarchal design analysis of variance is reported in Tables 1a and 1b.

An examination of the F-ratio indicated that it fell short of the value required for significance and thus the null hypothesis was accepted.

Hypothesis two. There are no significant differences between the mean cooperating teachers' evaluations of the student teachers for the counseling, the seminar, and the control subjects.

A summary of the F-ratios for the five characteristics is reported in Table 2.

2.11 There is no significant difference among the mean cooperating teacher rating for emotional stability of the counseling, the seminar, and the control subjects.

An examination of the F-ratio indicated that it fell short of the value required for significance and thus the null hypothesis was accepted.

2.21 There is no significant difference among the mean cooperating teacher rating for innovativeness of the counseling, the seminar, and the control subjects.

An examination of the F-ratio indicated that it was sufficient for significance and thus the null hypothesis was rejected.

2.31 There is no significant difference among the mean cooperating teacher rating for communication skills of the counseling, the seminar, and the control subjects.

An examination of the F-ratio indicated that it fell short of the value required for significance and thus the null hypothesis was accepted.

2.41 There is no significant difference among the mean cooperating teacher rating for classroom control skills of the counseling, the seminar, and the control subjects.

An examination of the F-ratio indicated that it fell short of the value required for significance and thus the null hypothesis was accepted.

2.51 There is no significant difference among the mean cooperating teacher rating for potential as a teacher of the counseling, the seminar, and the control subjects.

Table 1a

Means, Standard Deviations for the Three Groups

	Between Groups		
	Counseling	Seminar	Control
Mean	8.9	6.08	14.00
Standard Deviation	7.67	6.37	18.03

Table 1b

Analysis of Variance for FIAC/NVC

	df	MS	F
Total	42		
Between Group	2	221.5	1.33
B(A)	3	9.0	
Within	37	116.22	

P > .10

Table 2

F-Ratios of Analysis of Covariance for Five Characteristics on The Confidential Evaluation Form

	Dependent Variable	F-Ratio	P
1	Emotional Stability	2.43	$> .05$
2	Innovativeness	3.39	$< .05$
3	Communication Skills	2.37	$> .05$
4	Classroom Control Skills	2.02	$> .05$
5	Potential as a Teacher	4.01	$< .05$

An examination of the F-ratio indicated that it was sufficient for significance and thus the null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis three. There are no significant differences between the mean levels of manifest State anxiety over time for the counseling, the seminar, and the control subjects.

A two-factor analysis of variance with repeated measures on one factor revealed (a) that the three groups manifested significantly different State anxiety levels at the beginning and at the end of the treatment, (b) that all three groups manifested significantly different State anxiety levels over the three trials, and (c) that all three groups manifested reduction of State anxiety over time, and (d) that the treatment was not more effective in reducing State anxiety than the seminar or than no treatment at all (Tables 3a and 3b).

An examination of the F-ratio for group by trials in Table 3b indicated that it fell short of the value required for significance and thus the null hypothesis was accepted.

Hypothesis four. There is no significant correlation between a subject's percentage of restricting classroom behavior and his level of State anxiety on each of the three trials.

The three Pearson Product-Moment correlations in Table 5 indicate a value near zero for each of the three trials, a value far below that required for significance, and thus the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 3a

Means and Standard Deviations for Three Trials of State-Trait Anxiety

		Trial 1 Pre-Test		Trial 2 Sixth Week		Trial 3 Post-Test	
		State	Trait	State	Trait	State	Trait
Counseling	Mean	41.1	36.3	36.7	34.9	33.8	33.5
	S.D.	11.9	11.9	8.7	5.5	8.8	7.7
Seminar	Mean	37.8	31.3	36.6	32.9	29.2	30.6
	S.D.	9.5	10.0	9.1	7.1	7.0	8.4
Control	Mean	33.4	32.9	29.6	30.2	28.9	29.2
	S.D.	9.1	9.5	7.1	6.6	5.0	6.9

Table 3b

Analysis of Variance for State Anxiety with Repeated Measures

Source	Mean Square	df	F-Ratio	P
Total	85.7	128		
Between	157.3	42		
Groups	489.0	40	3.47	.04
Error	140.8	2		
Within	50.7	86		
Trials	482.5	2	11.98	.0001
Groups X Trials	43.1	4	1.07	.38
Error	40.3	80		

Table 4

Two Factor Analysis of Variance with Repeated Measures on one Factor

	MS	d.f.	F	P
Total	72.1	128		
Between	189.5	42		
Groups	214.5	2	1.14	
Error (G)	188.3	40		
Within	14.7	86		
Trials	65.5	2	4.92	.01
Groups X Trials	17.3	4	1.30	.27
Error (T)	13.3	80		

Table 5

Intercorrelations Between Three Trials of A-State Anxiety and Percentage Restricting Behavior Measured by FIAC/NVC

		Means for Three Trials Combined	Standard Deviations	1	2	3	4
1	Percentage of Restricting Behavior	9.8372	12.58	N = 43			
2	A - State Trial 1	37.4419	10.40	-.11			
3	A - State Trial 2	33.8837	8.83	-.02			
4	A - State Trial 3	30.7442	7.85	-.01			

Additional results. In addition to the four main comparisons, the researcher conducted some post hoc investigations that yielded results of interest to this study.

Intercorrelations of the twenty-two characteristics on the Confidential Evaluation Form indicated that all but five of the intercorrelations were significant at the .05 level or better (Table 6).

To assess the relationship between restricting classroom behavior measured by FIAC/NVC and cooperating teachers' evaluations of the student teachers measured by the Confidential Evaluation Form for five pre-selected characteristics, the researcher calculated a Pearson Product-Moment correlation for each characteristic that yielded the following results: (a) emocional stability/restricting behavior: - .05; (b) innovativeness/restricting behavior: - .25; (c) communication skills/restricting behavior: - .22; (d) classroom control skills/restricting behavior: - .33; and (3) potential as a teacher/restricting behavior: - .10. Thus although student teachers who manifested greater percentages of restricting classroom behavior were rated lower by their cooperating teachers, a slightly negative and nonsignificant relationship existed between these two measures of student teacher performance.

For descriptive purposes, intercorrelations were carried out on the three measures of State and Trait anxiety over time. An examination of the Correlation Matrix (Table 7) indicated (a) that State anxiety measures related to Trait anxiety measures, and (b) that while Trait anxiety measures were extremely stable, State anxiety measures were more volatile.

To assess how the subjects in the counseling and seminar groups perceived the value of the weekly group meetings, the group leaders administered a Post Group Reaction Form following each session. Responding to a semantic differential-like scale from 1 (very poorly) to 10 (magnificent), the subjects anonymously evaluated the session in terms of (a) how the group session compared with an equivalent amount of time in their education courses at A.S.U., and (b) how the group session helped them with their own student teaching. Table 8 shows the mean scores for the two counseling and the two seminar groups on eight evaluations made at the conclusion of each session.

Because the mean scores for the counseling and the seminar groups were so close, the researcher did not submit them to further analysis.

A copy of the Post Group Reaction Form is in Appendix G.

Table 6

Intercorrelations Among Twenty-Two Characteristics on
The Confidential Evaluation Form

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
1	Appearance																						
2	Mental Alertness	34																					
3	Poise and Personality	60	56																				
4	Enthusiasm	33	69	47																			
5	Health and Energy	25	61	48	69										N = 43								
6	Emotional Stability	26	44	57	51	64																	
7	Tact and Judgment	47	49	69	57	47	70																
8	Desire to Improve	28	59	44	74	58	35	50															
9	Dependability	42	59	45	79	66	56	56	76														
10	Professional Attitude	40	50	43	58	52	34	54	61	67													
11	Cooperation	35	39	47	65	44	51	57	73	80	56												
12	Innovativeness	37	63	46	54	61	46	51	33	36	21	26											
13	Communication Skills	44	68	64	70	65	69	76	52	58	51	45	69										
14	Lesson Planning Ability	43	55	46	63	60	61	67	71	74	73	61	35	64									

Table 6 (continued)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
15	Rapport with Pupils	33	55	49	63	63	60	66	67	62	50	50	46	68	64								
16	Classroom Control Skills	34	52	47	67	67	68	61	42	58	54	37	54	65	61	69							
17	Pupil Motivation Skills	55	60	53	55	55	47	57	52	55	54	47	68	62	53	62	66						
18	Teaching Skills	42	74	57	53	53	50	66	64	66	68	51	43	76	70	67	60	59					
19	Provides for Individuals	49	52	53	40	40	42	47	49	49	35	45	58	47	48	52	42	60	40				
20	Understands Pupils	42	57	58	50	50	62	57	47	60	47	56	46	58	49	67	49	63	56	68			
21	Knowledge of Subject	26	57	40	52	52	55	61	44	52	40	40	56	69	64	51	54	37	58	35	41		
22	Potential as a Teacher	40	55	55	58	58	81	66	55	62	55	58	46	73	64	64	64	68	67	46	67	51	

r .28; p <.05

r .37; p <.01

decimal points deleted

Table 7

Intercorrelations Between State-Trait Anxiety Over Three Trials

		X	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5
1	A-State Trial 1	37.44	10.40					
2	A-Trait Trial 1	33.58	8.92	.62				
3	A-State Trial 2	33.88	8.82	.62	.32			
4	A-Trait Trial 2	32.67	8.68	.55	.78	.41		
5	A-State Trial 3	30.74	7.29	.43	.22	.41	.22	
6	A-Trait Trial 3	31.14	7.84	.64	.83	.26	.84	.38

r .28; $p < .05$

4 .37; $p < .01$

Table 8

Reactions to Weekly Group Meetings on the Post-Group Reaction Form

	Groups	Mean Ratings
1. Compared with an equal amount of time in an average education course, I would rate today as follows:[a]	Counseling	7.23
	Seminar	7.57
2. I would rate the material and experiences of today's session, in terms of helping me with my own student teaching, as follows:[a]	Counseling	7.58
	Seminar	7.11

[a]Evaluation Scale: from 1 (very poor) to 10 (magnificent).

Summary of the Findings

Analyses of the data from the FIAC/NVC, The Confidential Evaluation Form, and the STAI revealed the following:

1. No significant difference in percentages of restricting classroom behavior was found among the groups.

2. No significant difference in emotional stability was found among the three groups.

3. A significant difference ($p < .05$) in innovativeness was found among the three groups, with the experimental group rated significantly higher than the other two groups.

4. No significant difference in communication skills was found among the three groups.

5. No significant difference in classroom control skills was found among the three groups.

6. A significant difference ($p < .05$ was found in potential as a teacher among the three groups, with the experimental group rated higher than the other two groups.

7. Significant differences in levels of State anxiety were found among the groups at the beginning and at the end of the treatment.

8. Significant differences in levels of State anxiety were found for all three groups over time, with all groups showing great reductions.

9. No significant interaction between the counseling treatment and levels of State anxiety over time.

10. No significant relationship existed between level of State anxiety and percentage of restricting classroom behavior.

Intercorrelations among twenty-two characteristics on the Confidential Evaluation Form indicated high correlations among all twenty-two characteristics.

Pearson Product-Moment correlations between the five selected characteristics on the Confidential Evaluation Form and percentage of restricting classroom behavior as measured by FIAC/NVC revealed slightly negative but nonsignificant relationships.

Intercorrelations on the three trials of State and Trait anxiety indicated the following:

1. A strong relationship existed between measures of State and Trait anxiety.

2. Measures of Trait anxiety were very stable over time.

3. Measures of State anxiety fluctuated over time.

Results from the tabulation of the Post Group Reaction Form administered to each subject in the counseling and seminar groups following each session revealed that the mean rating on a semantic differential scale 1-10 for question 1 (comparison of group sessions with education courses) was 7.23 and for question 2 (value of group sessions for student teaching) was 7.58; for the seminar group, the ratings were 7.57 and 7.11 respectively.

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This section will first discuss the important aspects of this study by considering possible interpretations of the data and relating these interpretations to the literature. Next it will list the important conclusions derived from the investigation of the research questions and other post hoc investigations. This section concludes with recommendations for future research.

Discussion

This section will be somewhat speculative: the researcher will consider various interpretations of the data, some of them conflicting. Also, the researcher will point out aspects of the study consistent and inconsistent with related literature.

The effect of the group counseling treatment measured by FIAC/NVC. The results of the analysis of the data summarized in Table 1b appear to indicate clearly that the group counseling treatment used in this study was ineffective in facilitating significantly less restricting student teacher classroom behavior. But as Cohn (1964) cautioned, significant differences and meaningful differences are not synonymous: significance is a function of statistical concepts such as sample size; meaningfulness is primarily a problem for the judgment of the researcher and his readers.

First, two things militated against statistical significance for the classroom observation variable: (a) a small N of 44 and (b) the large within variation, particularly in the control group, where the raw scores ranged from 68.5 percent to zero. Even so, the probability level for this variable was $.10 > p < .25$, a level, though higher than the .05 set for this study, considered appropriate for many exploratory studies.

Levitt (1967) observed that stress conditions increase the variability of responses to a given task among members of a group even though the average score of the group may not be affected. He pointed out that this increased variability of scores is likely to be overlooked or not even reported by the researcher who is usually interested in reporting group differences. Furthermore, Levitt noted that a difference in variability is seldom amenable to any simple interpretation. If the results of the investigations of stress in student teaching (Savidge, 1969; Thompson, 1962; Travers, 1953; Fuller et al, 1969; Sorenson and Halpert, 1968) have meaning for this study, perhaps the stress experienced by the student teachers caused the variability of classroom behavior that Levitt (1967) described. If so, then the lack of group differences would not be as important as the presence of differences in variability.

The control group's large within variation, dramatized by some extremely high percentages of restricting classroom behavior (e.g., Sugjects L and O, Appendix H) not present in the other two groups, suggests the possibility that the control group student teachers who exhibited high percentages of restricting behavior might have benefited from one of the groups. Such an interpretation would be consistent with the distinction between statistical and meaningful differences referred to above.

It would be indeed tempting for the researcher to infer from the data that these "restricting" teachers in the control group would have been more "encouraging" if they had been exposed to the treatment. But such an inference would be strictly intuitive. For an alternative explanation is that in spite of randomization, the groups were initially different in their ability to cope with student teaching, with the control group assigned a disproportionate number of poorly coping student teachers. Because there was no pre-testing of the three groups on this variable, it was impossible to determine the degree to which the three groups were alike on the classroom behaviors measured by FIAC/NVC.

Although not as extreme as in the control group, the counseling group also manifested variability in classroom behavior. This variability within the treatment group supports the contentions of Stock (1964), Cohn (1964), Truax (1968), Muench (1968), Mahler (1969), and Ohlsen (1970) that group therapy has a differential effect on clients: some people change under certain conditions, while others do not. What the individual is like when he enters the group has a great influence on what he will learn as a result of the experience. Also, as Mahler (1969) and Cohn (1964) pointed out, a person's motives for volunteering for counseling are important. Not all volunteers for counseling groups are necessarily committed to the idea of examining and changing their behavior, a lack of commitment that encourages resistance to the therapy and precludes behavior change. One index of commitment is attendance at the group meetings (Cohn, 1964). It is noteworthy that the two experimental subjects absent most frequently for reasons other than health exhibited the highest percentages of restricting behavior within the experimental group. Appendix H presents a record of attendance. As Cohn (1964) suggested, the willingness to attend may be an antecedent to significant change. But regardless of their willingness, because of the short-term nature of the treatment and the importance for the clients to be actively involved in the roleplaying, perhaps these two subjects' being absent three out of eight sessions did weaken the effect of the treatment as reflected in their more restricting classroom behavior.

Counseling, then, affects people differently and research designs employing counseling as a treatment should be prepared to account for these differences, the positive change and the disequilibrium that people experience during treatment. If this assumption is true, then it might have been somewhat quixotic for the researcher to have expected the group counseling treatment in this study to have effected group behavior in a uniform way.

Another important consideration in interpreting the results of the classroom observations made during this study is the variability of conditions under which the observations were made. As Fuller et al (1969) pointed out, the observation of any given teacher at any given

moment is a function of the interaction among internal, external, and observer variables: the teacher himself, the situation at the moment of observation, and the observer himself. In this study, a number of variables beyond the control of the researcher may have seriously affected the validity of the observations: (a) the time of day of the observation, a variable of great importance in elementary school; (b) the activity taking place; (c) the mood of the pupils; (d) the length of time the student teacher had assumed responsibility for the class; (e) the position with which a given visit came in the observer's schedule, an important variable as observer fatigue sets in; and (f) the "holistic" impression that the observer formulates of the student teacher.

A further problem inherent in using an instrument like FIAC/NVC is the question of the observer effect on the classroom: to what extent did the observer's presence in the classroom produce a typical student teacher behavior? To date, the literature is mixed in its appraisal of this problem, with some researchers reporting considerable contamination (Samph, 1968) and with others revealing less serious effects (Medley and Mitzel, 1963). Although the researcher in this study did his best to create optimum observational conditions by briefing each student and cooperating teacher about the purpose and procedures of the observation as recommended by Medley and Mitzel (1963) and Flanders (1970), some of the student teachers reported in the post-experiment debriefing that they were disquieted by the observer's visit, an uneasiness that might have been reflected in their behavior.

Any interpretations of the data from FIAC/NVC must be made cautiously in light of the acknowledged limitations of this classroom observational instrument as a research tool.

In brief, the data from the classroom observations suggests (a) that teaching is a highly complex and individual activity with some student teachers performing well according to the selected criterion and others having more difficulty; (b) some of the student teachers were in need of more help during their internship than others and might have benefited from the treatment more than others; (c) the group counseling treatment had a differential effect on the clients; and (d) all inferences about the treatment's effectiveness based on data collected from FIAC/NVC must be made cautiously.

The effect of the group counseling treatment measured by STAI. This study hypothesized that the counseling treatment would significantly decrease the level of State anxiety over time. The results summarized in Table 4 indicate clearly that although the State anxiety level of the experimental group did decline over the eight week period, it did not decline significantly more than the other two groups.

One possible explanation for this finding is again the differential effect of therapy on clients. As with the classroom behavior variable, the variability within each group for State anxiety was considerable: some of the student teachers manifested a decline, some manifested no change, and some manifested an increase over time. Within the counseling group, this variability might be attributed to some of the student teachers experiencing anxiety as a result of the treatment, a phenomenon observed by Jersild and Lazor (1962) and discussed by Daane et al (1969).

Another explanation is that successful completion of student teaching in itself reduced anxiety, i.e., as the student teachers in all groups became more comfortable in the teacher role and gained confidence that they could cope with the teacher role, their situational anxiety declined, an interpretation consistent with Iannoccone and Button (1964) and suggested by Spielberger (1971), but inconsistent with the findings of Petrusich (1967), who noted that student teacher anxiety rose as the internship experience neared completion.

In fact, both forces could have been working: the counseling treatment increasing variability within the experimental group, a force opposing the desired unidirectional outcome from the treatment, and the student teaching experience itself serving to decrease the State anxiety as the subjects gained more experience and confidence.

The relationship between state anxiety and classroom behavior (FIAC/NVC). Although this study hypothesized that student teachers manifesting higher levels of State anxiety would exhibit greater percentages of restricting classroom behavior, the results of the analysis of data failed to show any significant relationship between the two variables. This finding supports the position taken by Levitt (1967): apparently stress improves the performance of some people and interferes with it in others. Furthermore, it is consistent with the findings of Ringness (1964) reported in Flanders and Simon (1969) that a study of twenty-seven first year teachers failed to show a significant relationship between measures of anxiety and observed overt teacher behavior. If the principle of optimum levels of anxiety embodied in the Yerkes-Dodson Law and the notion of individual differences in response to stress can be accepted, then perhaps the insignificant relationship between State anxiety level and classroom behavior reflects individual differences among the student teachers experiencing and reacting to the anxiety elicited by student teaching.

The effect of group counseling on cooperating teacher evaluation. On the five characteristics on the Confidential Evaluation Form selected for comparison among the groups, the counseling group was rated significantly higher on two: innovativeness and potential as a teacher. The high intercorrelations, however, among all but five of the twenty-two combinations of characteristics plus the absence of any

zero or negative correlations suggest a powerful halo effect, with all characteristics really part of one over-all dominant impression formed by the cooperating teachers (see Table 6), an effect recognized by Medley and Mitzel (1963) as in inherent problem in teacher rating scales.

Of further interest might be the few characteristics that were not highly related. Except for the low correlations between appearance and health and energy, emotional stability, and desire to improve, ratings that may have reflected the cooperating teachers' sartorial and tonsorial tastes more than anything else, the only other characteristics that were nonsignificantly related were innovativeness with professional attitudes (.21) and innovativeness with cooperation (.26), possibly suggesting that the more the young student teacher wanted to experiment, to try new things, to take risks, the less professional and cooperative he was perceived by his cooperating teacher. If such an inference were tenable from the data in this study, it would support the contention of Wilhelms (1970) that student teachers often risk antagonizing their cooperating teachers by departing from the established methods and procedures of the class. Although without further evidence, such an inference is merely speculative, the suggestion that the human rater is imperfectly reliable and often biased in his judgments is consistent with the conclusions of Medley and Mitzel (1963) who listed some of the following as possible sources of bias in ratings of student teachers: (a) experience bias, with the practice teacher displaying behavior patterns different from those of the experienced teacher; and (b) rating bias, with the rating influenced by a general liking or disliking of the subject rated.

An extension of the above speculation is that the student teachers in the counseling group felt freer to risk innovations in their classrooms because they had the opportunity to work through in the roleplaying some of the conflicts they were experiencing with their cooperating teachers and to receive support from the group concerning their behavior and decisions.

The relationship between the Confidential Evaluation Form and FIAC/NVC. The nonsignificant relationship between the cooperating teachers' evaluations of their interns and the classroom observations made by the researcher suggests some interesting possibilities: (a) that two twenty minute observations are not adequate samples of a teacher's classroom behavior as contrasted with the eight weeks of sustained observation by the cooperating teachers; (b) the Confidential Evaluation Form and FIAC/NVC really measure totally different dimensions of the student teacher's classroom behavior and therefore performance measured by both instruments cannot be compared easily; (c) high ratings on the Confidential Evaluation Form reflect to what extent the young intern conforms to his cooperating teacher's model of the classroom

teacher; whereas the FIAC/NVC yields the more detached perceptions of what Flanders called the "biased, unbiased observer" Flanders (1970).

The relationship between state and trait anxiety on the STAI. The data reported in the correlation matrix (Table 5) offers strong support for Spielberger's theory underlying the STAI: (a) fairly high stability over trials for Trait anxiety, theorized to be a relatively stable characteristic; (b) extreme fluctuation over trials for State anxiety, theorized as a situationally induced response varying with time and circumstances; and (c) a strong relationship between State and Trait anxiety.

Evaluations of the group meetings with the Post Group Reaction Form. The responses of both the seminar and the counseling subjects on the Post Group Reaction Form seem to indicate that the student teachers in this study who participated in the weekly group sessions perceived the groups as valuable during their internships. Further evidence of their positive feelings toward the groups comes from their responses to an open-ended questionnaire given to them at the conclusion of the study. A summary of their comments reveals that they saw both group experiences as safe, secure experiences in which share mutual feelings, explore mutual problems, release feelings and frustrations, and obtain help in solving classroom problems. A sample of representative comments appears in Appendix H.

The reactions of the student teachers in this study to the group experiences are consistent with the findings of Fuller et al (1969): (a) young interns want and need opportunities to explore their feelings and problems in secure, nonevaluative settings; (b) the pressures on them during student teaching often force them to bottle up their feelings for fear of alienating their cooperating teachers and/or college supervisors; and (c) small group meetings concurrent with student teaching and directed by people perceived to be non-evaluative can provide the young teacher with needed help and support.

Conclusions and Implications

The conclusions discussed below are based on the experimental conditions of this study and on the results of the statistical analyses reported previously.

Group counseling and student teacher performance. As noted in the first section of this report, the researcher theorized that student teaching is a very stressful experience for many young teachers, one that often results in fears of inadequacy, personality conflicts with cooperating teachers, poor role adjustment, and uncertainty about the expectations and evaluations of others. The group counseling treatment was hypothesized as helping the student teacher cope more effectively

with student teaching experience through the support of the group and the roleplaying experience, more effective coping behavior that would be reflected by less restricting classroom behavior than the seminar or the control groups. The data, however, failed to support that theoretical hypothesis. Contrary to the hypothesis, the seminar group exhibited less restricting behavior, with the counseling group next, and the control group last.

Another dimension of student teacher performance examined in a post hoc analysis was the cooperating teachers' ratings for five characteristics on the Confidential Evaluation Form. An analysis of the data from this criterion measure revealed that the counseling group was rated as being significantly more innovative and as having significantly more potential as a teacher than the other two groups.

It may be concluded, therefore, that some kind of group experience in which student teachers have the opportunity to discuss problems arising from and relating to their student teaching experience, may be efficacious in helping student teachers cope more successfully with student teaching as determined by observations of their classroom behavior with FIAC/NVC and by ratings from their cooperating teachers.

Anxiety. The researcher hypothesized (a) that the counseling group would manifest greater decrements of State anxiety over time than the other two groups, and (b) that a relationship existed between State anxiety and classroom behavior with high State anxiety student teachers exhibiting more restricting classroom behavior than low State anxiety subjects. The data, however, failed to support both theoretical hypotheses. It must be concluded, therefore, that the group counseling treatment was not more effective in reducing student teachers' State anxiety and that little, if any, relationship exists between level of State anxiety and classroom behavior as measured by FIAC/NVC.

The data further revealed that all three groups manifested significant decrements of State anxiety over time and thus it may be concluded that State anxiety levels of the student teachers in this study declined as the student teaching experienced neared and reached completion.

Furthermore, data from this investigation provides support for the theoretical position of Spielberger (1966, 1970) that State and Trait anxiety are two distinct dimensions of anxiety, both amenable to investigation with the STAI. It appeared that the student teachers in this study, consistent with the contentions of Spielberger, Gorsuch, and Lushene (1969), were able to respond to

the different instructions for the three administrations of the STAI, instructions that required the student teachers to react to their perceptions of different phases of their internship.

Also, it may be concluded from the data that State and Trait anxiety are related, i.e., student teachers who manifested high Trait anxiety tended to manifest higher State anxiety. These findings have implications for teacher education programs and for further research with student teachers. If high student teacher State anxiety is considered undesirable, then the STAI, a quick, efficient, and economical self-report instrument, could be used to identify high State/Trait student teacher candidates before they go into the classroom for referral to some kind of anxiety-reducing experience.

Recommendations

The researcher recommends further investigation of the use of group counseling with the Problem identification Model in teacher education. Suggestions for additional research follow:

1. Assess the effect of the counseling treatment on pupil attitudes and achievement as well as on teacher behavior. It appears crucial to evaluate whether teacher education affects the behavior of pupils.

2. Assess the effect of the counseling treatment on other populations: secondary pre-service teachers, elementary and secondary in-service teachers. If in-service teachers are used, the possibility of extending the treatment period, using pupil attitudes and achievement as dependent variables, conducting pre-tests on the classroom behavior variable, and assessing the delayed effects of the treatment is increased.

3. Assess, as mentioned above, the effects of the counseling treatment on changing teacher behavior by administering both a pre-test and post-test with FIAC/NVC.

4. Arrange for a pre-treatment orientation meeting for subjects assigned to the counseling groups to familiarize them with the theory and practice of the roleplaying techniques so as to minimize their resistance to roleplaying once the treatment begins.

5. An important component of the counselor training should be practice with subjects like the ones who will comprise their groups. Simulation of the techniques with the counselors practicing on each other is not totally satisfactory because the counselors tend to respond to the roleplaying in ways that reflect their training; unfortunately, their clients do not always respond to the group process as readily as counselors.

The following recommendations pertain to the use of observational instruments and evaluation checklists used to assess the performance of student teachers:

1. If FIAC/NVC is used, control, if possible, the activity being observed so that the activity variable does not confound the observation. This control is particularly crucial on the elementary level, where teachers perform multivarious tasks, some of which they feel more or less adequate to teach.

2. Provide an extensive training period for the observers using FIAC/NVC, particularly field training.

3. Follow-up the investigation of the Confidential Evaluation Form with a factor analysis of the twenty-two characteristics on the checklist to see if, in fact, the suspected halo effect occurs. A recommended sample size is 300-400 student teachers. An extension of the factor analysis could be a study investigating the predictive value of the Confidential Evaluation Form by examining its relationship with multiple criteria of teaching success.

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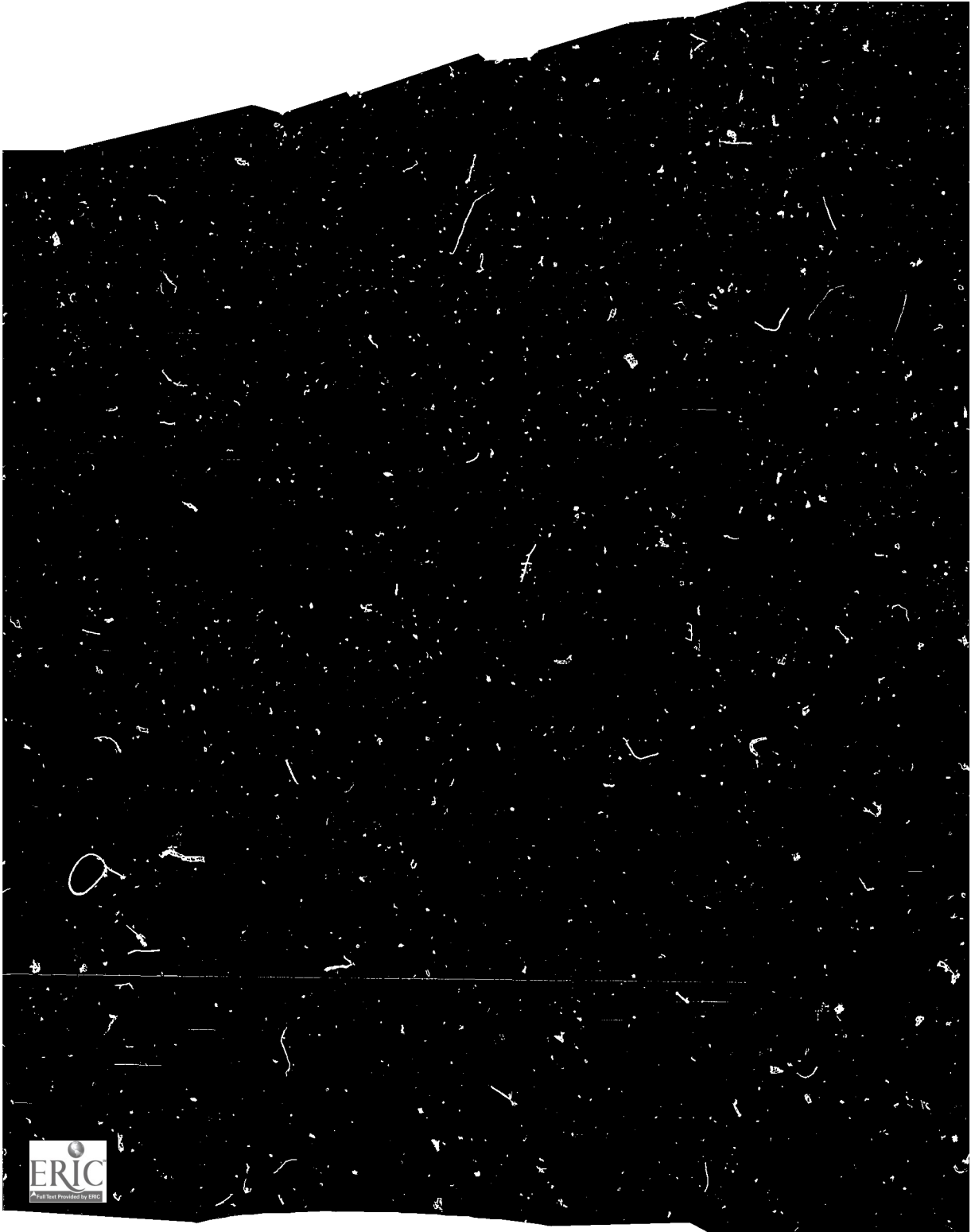

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GLOSSARY

GLOSSARY

Definition of Terms

Alter ego. Alter ego is a technique that makes the client more responsive to the subtleties and complexities of his inner world by bringing out conflicting or unexpressed emotions (Ortman, 1966). In the Problem Identification Model, the counselors act as alter egos by standing in back of the role players and trying to say what the players are thinking or feeling.

Anxiety. Anxiety is the complex emotional reactions that are evoked in individuals who interpret specific situations as personally threatening (Spielberger, Lushene, and McAdoo, 1971). Normal anxiety is proportionate to objective danger and does not involve repression or other defense mechanisms; neurotic anxiety is disproportionate to objective danger and involves repression and other neurotic defenses (Spielberger, 1966).

Client. A client is an elementary school student teacher enrolled in the student teaching program at Arizona State University, Fall semester, 1971.

Counselors. Counselors are doctoral students in the Department of Counseling and Educational Psychology, Arizona State University, 1971.

Metacommunication. Metacommunication is a nonverbal message that explains or amplifies a verbal message (Ruesch and Kees, 1969).

Nonverbal communication. Nonverbal communication is any transmission of meaning other than by words, either in printed or vocal form, including gestures, facial expression, body movement, and voice intonations.

Problem Identification Model. The Problem Identification Model is a group counseling model characterized by personal support provided for a group member through the identification and concern of the group with his problem (Daane et al, 1969).

Projections. Projections are traits, attitudes, feelings or bits of behavior which actually belong to your own personality but are not experienced as such; instead it is attributed to objects or persons in the environment and then experienced as directed toward you (Perls, Hefferline, and Goodman, 1951).

Restricting classroom behavior. Restricting classroom behavior is teacher classroom behavior observed by trained raters using the Flanders Interaction Categories with Nonverbal Categories to be, depending on the nature of the teacher/pupil interaction, nonverbally incongruent, perfunctory, impersonal, unresponsive, harsh, or inattentive.

Roleplaying. Roleplaying is a temporary stepping out of one's own present role to assume the role of another individual, of one's self at another time, of an animal, or even of an inanimate object (Lippitt and Hubbell, 1956). The essence of roleplaying is making believe that the situation is real.

Role reversal. Role reversal is an act in the roleplaying when an individual exchanges with another person which facilitates the seeing of the other person's viewpoint. If the role reversal takes place during the enactment, it is known as role switching (Corsini, 1966).

Seminar leader. A seminar leader is a doctoral student in the Department of Elementary Education at Arizona State University, 1971.

State anxiety (A-State). State anxiety is a transitory emotional state or condition of the human organism that varies in intensity and fluctuates over time. This condition is characterized by subjective, consciously perceived feelings of tension and apprehension, and activation of the autonomic nervous system (Spielberger, Lushene, and McAdoo, 1971).

Trait anxiety (A-Trait). Trait anxiety is a relatively stable proneness to anxiety that varies from person to person; a difference in a person's disposition to perceive a wide range of stimuli as dangerous or threatening, and to respond to such threats with A-State reactions. Trait anxiety also influences the intensity and frequency with which A-States are manifested (Spielberger, Lushene, and McAdoo, 1971).

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

ARIZONA STATE
UNIVERSITY TEMPE, ARIZONA 85281
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

May 4, 1970

Dear _____

I would like to invite you to participate in a research study to be conducted next September at Arizona State University. This study seeks to investigate several group methods of helping student teachers identify and cope with problems that arise during their student teaching experience.

Student teachers often express the desire to get together and discuss problems of concern to them in a setting where they are free to be themselves. This research study arranges an opportunity to do so by randomly assigning those student teachers who volunteer for the study to one of two groups, each using a different approach. Some who do volunteer, however, will not be assigned to a group, but will be used as a comparison against which we can evaluate the results of the two approaches.

The groups will meet on campus one hour a week for eight weeks. Student teachers who participate in the groups will receive released time from student teaching to attend the meetings. The exact time, place, and meeting day will be set for the mutual convenience of the group members. Most probably we shall arrange for time near the end of the teaching day.

Since both approaches will focus on the here-and-now problems that you are encountering as a student teacher, this study provides a rare opportunity to explore with your group leader and group members things that relate to your professional and personal growth. Group leaders will be doctoral students at Arizona State University, who will respect the confidence of the group: nothing you share with the group will be repeated to anyone outside the group.

In order to evaluate which procedure will be more helpful to student teachers, the researchers will administer, on several occasions a self-rating scale and a classroom observational instrument to all student teachers involved in the study. Here, too, I want to stress that your confidence will be respected: these measures are designed to evaluate the different methods, not you. No one but the researchers will see the results, and thus in no way will they be used to judge your student teaching performance. When the study is completed in December, I shall discuss the data with you and what they mean. This discussion of the data in itself should be a valuable experience in terms of your professional growth.

In a few days I shall phone you to determine whether or not you are interested in participating in the study. At that time I will answer any questions that you may have.

I look forward to working with you.

Sincerely

Sid Eder

Sid Eder
Project Director

APPENDIX B

PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION MODEL

This model is characterized by personal support provided for a group member through the identification and concern of the group with his problem(s). The counselor designates a problem presenter who presents a problem of his own choosing and gives a brief description of significant individuals associated with the problem. The problem is then set into a drama with its implications discussed in the group.

The basic focus is as follows: past or present behavioral situations involving people.

1. What is (was) the situation? What did I do? What did they expect?

2. Do I want to change the situation?

3. What are the alternatives for changing?

Desired Behavior: The identification and conceptualization of problems and the conceptualization and expression of multiple alternatives for given problem situations: "I do (think) (feel) - they expect (want) me to . . ."

1. "I could wait until my Dad gets through talking and then try to understand how he feels. Maybe some of the things he says would be good for me."

2. "It seems I always get angry with her and start acting like I'm guilty. Then because I feel guilty I end up doing things I do not want to do."

Intermediate Behavior:

1. Identifying problems in general.

2. Presenting a major problem by designated group member.

3. Identifying with the presenter and his problems by other group members.

4. Role playing problems and solutions, with presenter choosing other group members to play roles in his problem.

5. Changing roles in the drama, with presenter periodically switching roles with significant people in his problem.

6. Giving feedback to the group on the perception and selection of alternative solutions that he, the presenter, has observed.

7. Presenting reports to group on presenter's attempts to use newly perceived alternatives.

Focus: The focus of attention in this model is the problem which group members experience outside the group, their enacement within the group, and the alternative courses of action perceived as a result of role-playing.

Method: The tasks employed in this model are role-playing, role-switching, and using the alter-ego. Selective responding is reserved for the discussion and interaction following the drama. Modeling is done when appropriate. The role-playing is designed to allow projections to emerge from the drama and to help presenter and others to conceptualize the problem and possible solutions.

Task Prescriptions:

General Statements:

1. "Every person has problems. What are some of your problems?"

2. "The thing we do in here is to go ahead and discuss the problem and try to find out what's going on."

Role-Playing:

1. "John, why don't we role play your problem so that we can get a better idea of what's happening?"

2. "Okay. Let's play that. You want to be the girl?"

Role Switching: In this procedure, the problem presenter exchanges place, both physically and in terms of role, with some other participant who has been playing a significant person associated with the presenter's problem. This is done for three reasons: (a) to provide an opportunity for the presenter to interact with a representation of himself in order to see himself as others see him; (b) to help him better define what it is about the significant other that contributes to his problem; (c) to allow another participant in the group to identify with the problem:

1. "Why don't we switch right here? You be your mother and Sandy will be you."

2. "Is that the way he really is? Why don't you play the boss and show us what he is like?

Alter-Ego: The counselor and co-counselor assume the roles of the alter-ego for the presenter of the problem and the other participants. The counselor always stays with the presenter, even when he switches roles. The purpose of the alter-ego is to detect and express aspects of the participants' messages which are significant but unspoken. The talk of the alter-ego occurs concurrently with the interaction of the participants.

1. "I am getting angry."

2. "She wants me to feel guilty."

3. "I wonder why I am lying."

4. "I am not going to give in."

Selective Responding: The counselor will intervent to positively reinforce (acknowledge and reward) the following behaviors: (a) talking about personal problems, (b) specifying and discussing a major problem, (c) presenting a major problem, (d) identifying with presenter's problem, (e) verbalizing the recognition of alternatives, (f) giving feedback to the group about subsequent behavior related to the problem.

1. "Mary, you're very perceptive. You role played the teacher very well."

2. "That was a difficult situation, Bob."

3. "Oh, you, too, have had that experience, Sally? Tell us about it."

Modeling:

1. "Okay, I'm going to role-play myself. Charles, you play my son. 'Derek, why do you shout at your mother that way?' Do you all have a better idea of the problem that I have with my son?"

APPENDIX C

SELF-EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Developed by C. D. Spielberger, R. L. Gorsuch and R. Lushene

STAI FORM X-1

NAME _____ DATE _____

DIRECTIONS: A number of statements which people have used to describe themselves are given below. Read each statement and then blacken in the appropriate circle to the right of the statement to indicate how you *feel* right now, that is, *at this moment*. There are no right or wrong answers. Do not spend too much time on any one statement but give the answer which seems to describe your present feelings best.

	NOT AT ALL	SOMEWHAT	MODERATELY SO	VERY MUCH SO
1. I feel calm	①	②	③	④
2. I feel secure	①	②	③	④
3. I am tense	①	②	③	④
4. I am regretful	①	②	③	④
5. I feel at ease	①	②	③	④
6. I feel upset	①	②	③	④
7. I am presently worrying over possible misfortunes	①	②	③	④
8. I feel rested	①	②	③	④
9. I feel anxious	①	②	③	④
10. I feel comfortable	①	②	③	④
11. I feel self-confident	①	②	③	④
12. I feel nervous	①	②	③	④
13. I am jittery	①	②	③	④
14. I feel "high strung"	①	②	③	④
15. I am relaxed	①	②	③	④
16. I feel content	①	②	③	④
17. I am worried	①	②	③	④
18. I feel over-excited and rattled	①	②	③	④
19. I feel joyful	①	②	③	④
20. I feel pleasant	①	②	③	④

CONSULTING PSYCHOLOGISTS PRESS
577 College Avenue, Palo Alto, California 94306

SELF-EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

STAI FORM X-2

NAME _____ DATE _____

DIRECTIONS: A number of statements which people have used to describe themselves are given below. Read each statement and then blacken in the appropriate circle to the right of the statement to indicate how you *generally* feel. There are no right or wrong answers. Do not spend too much time on any one statement but give the answer which seems to describe how you generally feel.

	ALMOST NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALMOST ALWAYS
21. I feel pleasant	①	②	③	④
22. I tire quickly	①	②	③	④
23. I feel like crying	①	②	③	④
24. I wish I could be as happy as others seem to be	①	②	③	④
25. I am losing out on things because I can't make up my mind soon enough	①	②	③	④
26. I feel rested	①	②	③	④
27. I am "calm, cool, and collected"	①	②	③	④
28. I feel that difficulties are piling up so that I cannot overcome them	①	②	③	④
29. I worry too much over something that really doesn't matter	①	②	③	④
30. I am happy	①	②	③	④
31. I am inclined to take things hard	①	②	③	④
32. I lack self-confidence	①	②	③	④
33. I feel secure	①	②	③	④
34. I try to avoid facing a crisis or difficulty	①	②	③	④
35. I feel blue	①	②	③	④
36. I am content	①	②	③	④
37. Some unimportant thought runs through my mind and bothers me	①	②	③	④
38. I take disappointments so keenly that I can't put them out of my mind	①	②	③	④
39. I am a steady person	①	②	③	④
40. I become tense and upset when I think about my present concerns	①	②	③	④

see page 62

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE A-STATE STAI

Pre-Test

Read each statement and then mark on the answer sheet to indicate how you feel right now, that is, at this moment when thinking about the coming student teaching experience.

6th Week

Read each statement and then mark on the answer sheet to indicate how you feel right now, that is, at this moment when thinking about your present student teaching experience.

Post-Test

Read each statement and then mark on the answer sheet to indicate how you felt during your last week of student teaching.

APPENDIX D

Summary of Categories for Interaction Analysis Using Nonverbal Categories				
		Verbal[1] (Flanders)	Nonverbal (Galloway)	
			Encouraging	Restricting
TEACHER TALK	Indirect Influence	1. ACCEPTS FEELING	1.	11.
		2. PRAISES OR ENCOURAGES	2. CONGRUENT: nonverbal cues reinforce and further clarify the credibility of a verbal message.	12. INCONGRUENT: contradiction occurs between verbal and nonverbal cues.
		3. ACCEPTS OR USES IDEAS OF STUDENT	3. IMPLEMENT: implementation occurs when the teacher actually uses student's idea either by discussing it, reflecting on it, or turning it to the class for consideration.	13. PERFUNCTORY: perfunctory use occurs when the teacher merely recognizes or acknowledges student's idea by automatically repeating or restating it.
		4. ASKS QUESTIONS	4. PERSONAL: face-to-face confrontation.	14. IMPERSONAL: avoidance of verbal interchange in which mutual glances are exchanged.
	Direct Influence	5. LECTURES	5. RESPONSIVE: change in teacher's pace or direction of talk in response to student behavior, i.e., bored, disinterested, or inattentive.	15. UNRESPONSIVE: inability or unwillingness to alter the pace or direction of lecture disregarding pupil cues.
		6. GIVES DIRECTIONS	6. INVOLVE: students are involved in a clarification or maintenance of learning tasks.	16. DISMISS: teacher dismisses or controls student behavior.
		7. CRITICISMS OR JUSTIFIED AUTHORITY	7. FIRM: criticisms which evaluate a situation cleanly and crisply and clarify expectations for the situation.	17. HARSH: criticisms which are hostile, severe, and often denote aggressive or defensive behavior.
STUDENT TALK		8. STUDENT TALK-RESPONSE	8. & 9. RECEPTIVE: involves attitude of listening and interest, facial involvement, and eye contact.	18. & 19. INATTENTIVE: involves a lack of attending, eye contact and teacher travel or movement.
		9. STUDENT TALK-INITIATION		
		10. SILENCE OR CONFUSION	10. COMFORT: silences characterized by times of reflection, thought, or work.	20. DISTRESS: instances of embarrassment or tension-filled moments, usually reflecting disorganization and disorientation.

[1] For a complete and detailed discussion of the verbal categories in this summary, see the article in this issue by Edmund J. Amidon on "Interaction Analysis and Teacher Education," pp. 159-67.

APPENDIX E

GROUND RULES FOR FIAC WITH NONVERBAL CATEGORIES

1. Shifts: If more than one category occurs during the three second interval, then all categories used in that interval are recorded; e.g., a teacher who praises with a "good example, Bob" and follows with a question "can you think of some more" all within three seconds would be coded 2-4.

2. Verbal Habits: A teacher may have a verbal habit of responding to nearly all student statements with "right," "good," "huh-huh," or "OK"; these habits must be distinguished from true praise, praise that provides reward and encouragement that cannot be accomplished by verbal habit alone. Let's use the following guidelines so that we will be consistent in our coding: (a) genuine praise coded as 2 often takes longer than 3 seconds to express so that the observer records more than one code symbol; (b) unless the "OK" or "Good" is said extremely enthusiastic, record verbal habits as 12's because most students ignore such superficial teacher responses.

3. Restricting Teacher Lecture: Sue Lail suggests that the observer must use his judgment as to whether the teacher is unresponsive to pupil needs when she is talking. She says to code a 15 when two or more pupils are showing signs of restlessness or boredom. This appears to be slightly harsh for an elementary school classroom where pupils have short attention spans. Let's say, then, that the observer will use his judgment as to whether the degree of restlessness or manifests boredom warranting a 15.

4. Restricting Teacher Response to Student Talk: At the Navajo School we had an example of the teacher apparently listening to one student while looking and gesturing to another. When the teacher is inattentive to student talk, code that student talk as 18 or 19, depending on whether the student talk was response or initiation. The teacher will indicate inattention through her facial expressions, body language, lack of eye contact, or movement around the classroom.

5. The Delayed Teacher Question: A good rule of thumb is that when the teacher asks an involved question, it is desirable to code this sequence consistently with 4's if this can be done with reasonable confidence.

6. Delayed Teacher Instructions: Code extended teacher instructions with 6's even when the teacher inserts an explanation into the sequence of instructions. Again, this problem is similar to the extended question problem.

7. Perfunctory Acceptance of Ideas: Just because the teacher "acknowledges" a pupil idea does not mean that he in fact accepts the idea. Code such perfunctory acceptance as mechanically or automatically repeating student ideas as 13's rather than 3's. When

the teacher considers the pupil response by discussing it, reflecting on it, asking further questions based on it, or turning it over to class for consideration, code the teacher behavior as a 3.

8. Giving Directions Versus Lecturing: Code a 6 when in your judgment the teacher is telling apupil or the class to do something, whether the pupil response is visible or not.

9. Encouaging Criticism Versus Restricting Criticism: Teacher's tone of voice and sometimes the content of what he says will differentiate between a 7 and a 17.

APPENDIX F

RETURN THIS EVALUATION DIRECTLY TO: DIRECTOR OF STUDENT TEACHING

ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY

DIRECTIONS: The Placement Service is preparing credentials for this candidate to be sent to school officials. Student teaching evaluations are of particular importance to school administrators. Your careful attention to this evaluation will be appreciated. Please indicate your opinion of the personal and professional qualifications of the student named below. Additional comments should be specific statements of characteristics that are directly related to teaching success.

CHECKED AND GIVEN CREDIT BY STUDENT TEACHING OFFICE _____

NAME: _____ GRADE LEVEL: _____
(Last) (First) (Middle)

Type (X) in space that indicates your appraisal of the student teacher:	Superior	Above Average	Average	Below Average	Not Known		Superior	Above Average	Average	Below Average	Not Known
Appearance						Innovativeness					
Mental Alertness						Communication Skills					
Poise and Personality						Lesson Planning Ability					
Enthusiasm						Rapport with Pupils					
Health and Energy						Classroom Control Skills					
Emotional Stability						Pupil Motivation Skills					
Tact and Judgement						Teaching Skills					
Desire to Improve						Provides for Individuals					
Dependability						Understands Pupils					
Professional Attitude						Knowledge of Subject					
Cooperation						Potential as a Teacher					

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS:

NAME _____ Official Position _____

School District _____ City _____ State _____ Date _____

Statements are strictly confidential and under no circumstances should be given or communicated to the candidate.

5-69

APPENDIX G

POST GROUP REACTION FORM

Group Number _____

Date _____

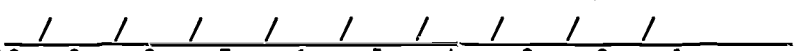
To enable us to evaluate this program and make it more successful in the future, we would appreciate your help in filling out the following evaluation form:

GENERAL REACTIONS TO TODAY:

(1) Compared with an equal amount of time in an average education course, I would rate TODAY as follows:

magnificent very outstanding good poor very poorly

(2) I would rate the experiences of TODAY'S session - in terms of helping me with my own student teaching - as follows:



magnificent very outstanding good poor very poorly

WHAT HAPPENS VERSUS WHAT YOU WOULD HAVE LIKED

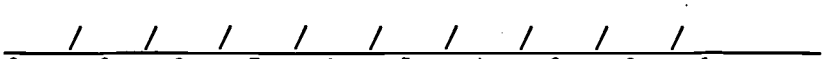
All the items listed below refer to TODAY'S session and require two answers. The first answer indicates your appraisal of what happened, without regard to whether you like it or not. The second answer indicates what you would have preferred without regard to what actually happened. REMEMBER, THE FIRST INDICATES WHAT HAPPENED, THE SECOND INDICATES WHAT YOU WOULD HAVE PREFERRED.

1. Assuming that "very theoretical" is the opposite of "very practical," how would you rate TODAY'S session? More theoretical? More practical?

a) Mark your appraisal of TODAY's session, as you saw it.

very theoretical very practical

b) Now indicate what you would have preferred TODAY.



very theoretical very practical

APPENDIX H

SUMMARY OF RAW SCORES

	FIAC/ NVC	A - State 1	A - Trait 1	A - State 2	A - Trait 2	A - State 3	A - Trait 3	Absences
E-1								
subject a	10	33	26	21	21	20	21	0
subject b	2.6	57	43	43	33	45	43	0
subject c	.46	73	62	35	61	35	60	0
subject d	10.6	37	33	43	33	30	28	0
subject e	2.7	30	29	27	26	36	26	0
subject f	17.3	49	35	46	32	48	31	0
subject g	21.6	25	29	28	30	24	29	0
E-2								
subject a	.28	39	30	31	26	30	27	1
subject b	.26	42	41	36	36	22	36	1
subject c	.95	34	33	32	26	32	28	0
subject d	7.9	31	34	29	35	48	36	1
subject e	13	37	39	40	35	32	36	2
subject f	12.7	42	52	43	47	42	42	0
subject g	22	44	38	53	45	31	29	3
subject h	11.1	43	40	43	38	32	31	1
HC-1								
subject a	.17	50	32	47	28	44	30	0
subject b	.68	39	29	26	33	25	29	0
subject c	6.6	29	29	35	29	26	25	0
subject d	16.9	53	33	54	26	33	26	0
subject e	0	38	32	33	35	30	32	0
subject f	4.7	32	28	28	26	22	24	1
HC-1								
subject a	10.3	41	30	35	32	36	35	2
subject b	5.1	27	30	44	41	27	26	2
subject c	0	29	26	33	38	36	35	2
subject d	3.4	55	33	50	37	34	36	0
subject e	.6	33	30	33	31	20	30	3
subject f	11.8	29	27	29	23	22	23	0
subject g	17.8	36	48	29	49	25	47	2

SUMMARY OF RAW SCORES (Continued)

	FIAC/NVC	A-State 1	A-Trait 1	A-State 2	A-Trait 2	A-State 3	A-Trait 3
C-1							
subject a	3.9	42	50	36	51	23	43
subject b	3	32	37	23	32	34	36
subject c	7.8	54	43	37	37	31	37
subject d	11.8	43	41	39	38	31	37
subject e	0	38	35	27	28	29	27
subject f	6.9	26	32	21	24	31	23
subject g	15.2	34	30	35	40	35	33
subject h	7.8	36	24	38	27	33	24
subject i	0	34	24	26	23	27	22
subject j	5.9	29	25	22	24	20	23
subject k	9.8	20	28	22	22	23	23
subject l	44.7	25	29	28	25	26	23
subject m	6.1	28	37	21	26	36	23
subject n	17.2	27	25	30	22	23	24
subject o	68.5	40	33	26	34	33	28

APPENDIX I

REACTIONS TO COUNSELING GROUPS

1. Safe, Secure Atmosphere: 4

Subject A: "Thinking back more, I felt pretty 'safe' in these meetings. . ."

Subject B: "I was able to use and benefit from the ideas of others in the group and felt quite safe to discuss my problems with them."

Subject C: "A very safe atmosphere made the group a place to tell all of our problems and get needed morale boosters. The group was very secure because we knew that the things we would say would not go into any type of evaluation on us."

Subject D: "These meetings have given me a place to come to where I feel my thoughts are welcome, a place where others are receptive to me, and would not be unkind to me."

2. Sharing Mutual Experiences and Problems: 6

Subject B: "I felt close and comfortable with the other participants as well as with the group leaders and enjoyed knowing that other student teachers shared some of my feelings."

Subjcet C: "Through the group, members found out they had mutual problems which made them seem more bearable."

Subject D: "It has been helpful also to hear about and realize that other student teachers have similar problems, and what they did about solving them."

Subject E: "This has been helpful to me to let me know that other student teachers have the same problems I have."

Subject H: "It helped by enabling me to see the problems and troubles of others and to realize that some troubles are universal and not unique."

Subject I: "Getting to know and feel a camaraderie for a group of people going through a similar experience having like problems."

3. A Place to Release Feelings and Frustrations: 4

Subject A: "I enjoyed going to the group meetings. They provided a great opportunity to really 'let off steam.'"

Subject D: "It has been an excellent opportunity to 'let off steam' about any problems in student teaching that came up."

Subject F: "They helped me eliminate many of the hostilities I had toward teaching, meaning I could really let go with many of the pressures that built up during the week."

Subject I: "Relating our problems to those of others helped to put them in perspective. . . . Place to 'blow off steam.'"

REACTIONS TO SEMINAR GROUPS

1. Safe, Close, Comfortable Group Atmosphere: 5

   Subject A: "A place to speak freely. Express ideas . . ."

   Subject C: "I was very impressed with our discussion and openness . . . Our group was completely open and it was nice having the freedom to say anything and feel like you were safe."

   Subject F: "The closeness and openness of this particular group has been very good for me. I have felt that I could say anything I wanted and have."

   Subject G: "Often just being with and talking with a group like this helps get you through the week."

   Subject H: "In our groups we could discuss what was happening and whether or not it was successful."

   Subject I: "Being non-graded absolutely helps."

   Subject K: "I also feel that the sessions have given me a chance to voice a few complaints which I would not have felt comfortable to discuss with my cooperating teacher."

2. A Place to Share Experiences and Feelings: 5

   Subject A: "A place to . . . share with others 'in the same boat.'"

   Subject E: "Knowing others have problems has made student teaching so much easier."

   Subject G: "It has also helped in that you are meeting with people who have the same problem, joys, and anxieties."

   Subject J: "It's great to meet with others in your same predicament. I found that some things that I'd thought were abnormalities were really quite normal."

3. A Place to Discuss Different Teaching Techniques:
   A Place to Discuss Different Ways of Handling Problems in Classroom: 7

   Subject E: "References - games, ideas, suggestions, etc. - from group have been so very helpful."

Subject G: "Many times problems would arise in the classroom. These problems could be talked about in the sessions, and between the ideas of the various people often we could come up with a satisfactory answer."

Subject I: "Immediate talking over of problems and more important, people to talk over your problems with. Gives contact with other ideas as opposed to only yours and cooperating teacher's."

Subject J: "The exchange of ideas is great. I have learned several ways to handle discipline problems and have gained new ideas for the classroom."

Subject K: "I have accumulated a variety of ideas to experiment with in the classroom."

4. A Place to Express Feelings That Otherwise Would Be Bottled Up: 4

Subject E: " I have in group been able to express feelings of success and frustrations that would have otherwise have bottled up."

Subject J: "An excellent place to confidentially express your gripes. Several times I have really needed to vent feelings and have been able to do so here."