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KUCHTA, FRANK HOWARD

A STUDY TO DETERMINE THE EFFECT OF TEACHERS' HUMANISTIC BEHAVIOR ON STUDENTS' LEARNING BEHAVIOR

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A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

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degree of

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BY

FRANK HOWARD KUCHTA

Norman, Oklahoma

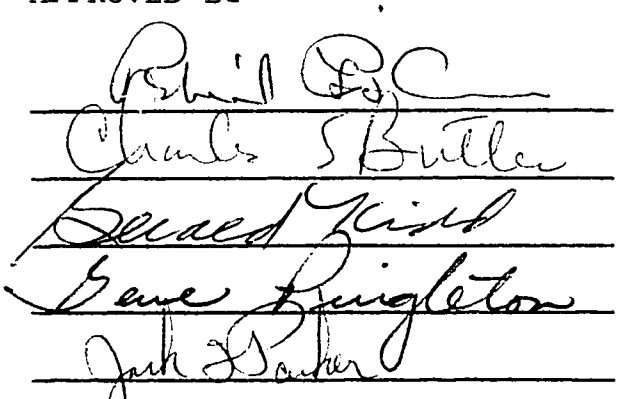
1980

A STUDY TO DETERMINE THE EFFECT OF

TEACHERS' HUMANISTIC BEHAVIOR ON

STUDENTS' LEARNING BEHAVIOR

APPROVED BY



DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

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F. Howard Kuchta

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A STUDY TO DETERMINE THE EFFECT OF TEACHER' HUMANISTIC BEHAVIOR ON STUDENTS' LEARNING BEHAVIOR

CHAPTER I

PROBLEM STATEMENT AND COMPONENTS

Context of the Problem

Background and Need for Theory. Serious reviews of the adequacy of public education have led to many critical questions in the past. In the present study, the following questions were representative of the central problem: Why did so many students have such little motivation to learn and why were some teachers so ineffective? What were the dimensions and variations of the teaching style, and what was the impact of specific styles on children? How could teaching style and teaching effectiveness have been improved and what was blocking that improvement?

While there was no obvious, single answer to these complex questions, work in the fields of educational research, testing, teacher training and curriculum development led to the conclusion, for some, that the most important element for improvement in the quality of education was the

application of our understanding of the way people learned to curriculum, teaching, and the learning environment, including all forms of learning materials.[1] For others, the appraisal of the quality of the educational process began with the fundamental question of whether the intellectual development of children was facilitated or hindered by the teacher's behavior.[2]

These concerns for the process of human learning suggested need for research in the area of theory, or theories, of education directed toward instruction or teaching, as opposed to the development of additional theories of learning. It was generally recognized that theories of learning had been the object of considerable attention for several decades. However, theories of instruction or teaching appeared to have received consideration only in the last decade. In spite of the fact that informal teaching of the young had gone on for thousands of years, and that formal instruction had been provided for hundreds of years, there did not seem to be any generally accepted or agreed-upon method of education.

One factor which possibly contributed to the neglect of instructional theory was the belief, until now, that learning theory would have been sufficient as a basis for teaching. Jackson noted, in that regard, that the hopes of psychologists and teachers that a scientific theory of learning would have addressed problems of importance of classroom

teachers had not been realized.[3] It was becoming clear that teaching or instruction could not be derived from or related to learning theory in any simple way. Neither was teaching only an application of learning theory. Teachers needed to know more than how a pupil learned in order to teach. Consequently, it was thought to be a mistake to look to learning theory alone for guidance in effective teaching. Teaching practices needed theory to organize and integrate what was known about the field into a systematic foundation for teaching. Theory was needed to provide a framework for the organization of observed principles and to provide a rationale for specific teaching practice. Theory could change teaching from simply a trade or an art into a profession. Yet, there appeared to be little if anything available to practitioners about a theory of instruction. Bruner conceded that:

> despite the books and articles that are beginning to appear on the subject, the process of education goes forward today without any clearly defined or widely accepted theory of instruction. We have made do and are still making do on clever maxims and moralistic resolutions about what instruction is and should be.[4]

Instruction and teaching were seen as complex, highly varied areas. Patterson saw instruction as being broader than teaching, covering all the processes of influencing learners.[5] Teaching was a complex activity involving one or more actions such as explaining, demonstrating, guiding, maintenance of order, classroom management, record keeping, assignment making, curriculum planning, testing and evaluation, and affective or mental hygiene activities.

Also addressing this complexity and general lack of instructional theory, Gage proposed that there may have been many different potential theories involved in teaching, since no single theory alone could probably have been adequate.[6] Stiles, likewise, asserted that there was no single theory for teaching which could have been appropriate for all teachers in every situation, and doubted that a single theory was possible.[7]

Suggested Teaching Model by Rogers.[8]--Some approaches to a theory of teaching were being developed and had as their respective bases behavioristic, cognitive, and humanistic foundations, the three not necessarily inconsistent, in conflict, or irreconcilable. To some extent, differences were a matter of differing terminology. And some differences were a matter of differing levels of analysis. Much of the substance within the three views was supplementary and could have been related or integrated into a more comprehensive theory.

Such integration notwithstanding, the third-force movement--the humanistic persuasion--was being developed and interpreted by Rogers as a basis for teaching theory. In a summary of the tenets of Rogers' position, the infant created its own reality, its own world, on the basis of its experiences with the physical and personal elements with which it interacted. Its behavior was directed by one basic motive: to actualize the capacities or potentials of the organism.

Certain experiences were recognized as self-experiences and were organized into a self concept. One's adjustment was a function of the nature of one's interpersonal relationships. In poor interpersonal relationships there was inconsistent or incongruent communication, lack of understanding, failure to perceive another's internal frame of reference accurately, the feeling of threat, and lack of unconditional positive regard (i.e., feeling toward another of warmth, liking, respect, sympathy, acceptance). In good interpersonal relationships, on the other hand, there was clear or congruent communication, lack of threat, empathy, and unconditional positive regard.

Rogers' theory saw human beings characterized by a tendency to move from a state of maladjustment toward psychological adjustment; they were creative, constructive, and free rather than determined in their behavior; their locus of evaluation was internal; their values were those which enhanced the actualization of the organism and the self. Rogers' educational thinking and experience were focused upon the person and attitudes of the teacher rather than upon methods or techniques of instruction. He expressed this focus in his statement in which he characterized the aim of education to be the facilitation of learning. He said:

> We know that the facilitation of such learning rests not upon the teaching of skills of the leader, not upon his curricular planning, not upon his use of audiovisual aids, not upon the programmed learning he utilizes, not upon his lectures and presentations, not upon an abundance of books, though each of these might at one time

> or another be utilized as an important resource. No, the facilitation of significant learning rests upon certain attitudinal qualities which exist in the personal relationship between the facilitator and the learner.[9]

According to Rogers, this kind of learning was cognitive in nature and involved cognitive elements or aspects, but it combined these with the affective elements involved in personal meaning. It recognized that meaningful learning, even of a cognitive nature, involved the total person. Rogers raised the question that if the only learning which could significantly influence behavior was self-discovered, self-appointed personal learning, could learning itself actually be taught? His answer was that anything that could be taught to another person was relatively inconsequential and had little or no significant influence on behavior. In like manner, self-discovered learning, or truth that was personally appropriated and assimilated in experience, could not be directly communicated to another. Hence Rogers came to believe that the outcomes of teaching--as teaching was usually defined and practiced--were either unimportant or were hurtful.

For Rogers, the function of the teacher was to facilitate learning in the student by providing the conditions which would lead to meaningful or significant self-directed learning. The objective was to develop a group, including the teacher, into a community of learners where curiosity was freed, the sense of inquiry opened up, and everything was open to question and exploration. Such a community facilitated learning, or learning how to learn.

Rogers' theory of teaching delineated three major conditions, or qualities or attitudes, which, when present in an interpersonal relationship, facilitated learning. These conditions were first identified and demonstrated to have been effective in counseling or psychotherapy. Rogers' research led to the conclusion that these conditions applied equally to classroom learning. These three conditions were:

1. Realness.--Learning was facilitated when the teacher was not playing a role prescribed by the educational system, but rather was himself or herself, genuine, authentic, honest. Relationships with students were direct, personal encounters; the teacher was a real person, with no professional facade. He did not feel one thing and say something else; he did not conceal his feelings, either positive or negative. Thus he was a person to his students, not a faceless embodiment of a curricular requirement nor a sterile tube through which knowledge was passed from one generation to the next.

Only slowly could we learn to be truly real, suggested Rogers. First of all, one must have been close to one's feelings, capable of being aware of them. Then one must have been willing to take the risk of sharing them as they were, inside, not disguising them as judgments, or attributing them to other people.

2. Prizing, Acceptance, Trust.--If one was not to express judgments and evaluations, one must not have been judgmental in one's attitudes. This was related to the second attitude which facilitated learning. The learner was accepted as a

person of worth, a unique individual, and was respected; his or her feelings, opinions, and person were prized. The learner was seen as trustworthy. There was a caring for him or her. And all this was unconditional; there was no demand that the learner be different, or conform in some way to be accepted and respected. Fears as well as satisfactions, apathy as well as enthusiasm, anger and resistance as well as pleasantness and cooperation, were all accepted as aspects of an imperfect human being.

Underlying this attitude was a trust in the human organism, its capacity for developing its potential, choosing its own directions, given the opportunity. It was confidence that the direction of change and learning would be toward the fulfillment or actualization of the person's potentialities, toward growth and development.

3. Empathic Understanding.--Empathic understanding was not the usual evaluative understanding based on a diagnostic analysis from an external point of view. It was understanding which would come from putting oneself in the place of the student to understand his or her reactions from the inside, to experience the student's perceptions and feelings about what was happening.

In Rogers' view, this attitude of standing in the other's shoes, of viewing the world through the student's eyes, was almost unheard of in the classroom. He maintained that one could listen to thousands of ordinary classroom interactions without coming across one instance of clearly

communicated, sensitively accurate, empathic understanding. But Rogers contended that it would have tremendous releasing effects when it would occur. He suggested that if a teacher were able to make even one nonjudgmental empathic response to a student's expressed feeling each day, he or she would discover the power of such understanding.[10]

In summation, the conditions for facilitating learning in Rogers' construct were attitudes, not techniques. Facilitative teaching involved a personal relationship which included mutual genuineness, respect and trust, and understanding. Rogers concluded that the person--whether counselor, therapist, or teacher--who was better able to communicate warmth, genuineness, and accurate empathy would be more effective in interpersonal relationships no matter what the goal of the interaction, which included cognitive or intellectual development.

Statement of the Problem

Nature of the Study. From the preceding review and background, it was apparent that humanistic education had developed standing as a viable concept, or perhaps theory, which could provide a systematic foundation out of which improvement in the quality of teaching behavior in the classroom might come. Of immediate concern, therefore, was the need for practical tools which could assist school administrators and, in turn, classroom teachers in their continuous effort to optimize the conditions for learning for each

student. One attempt to develop such a tool was undertaken through the analysis of human elements or characteristics which were evident in the relationship between the teacher and his pupils. This kind of relationship was defined in a model by Tuckman as humanistic behavior.[11] As a result of that research, there appeared to be a continuing need for analysis and evaluation of the level or degree of humanistic behavior or characteristic present within the learning environment, or more precisely, within the relationship between the teacher and the learner. Few, if any, existing feedback models or evaluation systems made any attempt to assess those human elements at the heart of the relationship, and most evaluation systems which were available (e.g., the Flanders' Interaction Analysis)[12] required extensive training in their use and interpretation.

The present study was an attempt to examine one part of the humanistic education concept, namely, the humanistic behavior of teachers and its impact on the learning process. It was an investigation designed to analyze Rogers' essential point outlined in the Context section that the conditions for facilitating learning were attitudes, not techniques, and that facilitative teaching involved personal relationship. Rogers' conclusion allowed that the person who was better able to communicate warmth, genuineness, and accurate empathy would be more effective in interpersonal relationships no matter what the goal.

An attempt, therefore, was made to determine if a reliable evaluation instrument could be used without prior training by the practicing classroom teacher or administrator in the field, and whether the use of such a system of analysis of teacher behavior could be associated with improved student academic achievement. The present research measuring humanistic behavior was an outgrowth of work begun by Tuckman in the form of studies aimed at changing teacher humanistic behavior through feedback from peers or students. The original research involved a twelve-step approach to feedback designed by Tuckman and made available for general use. Central to the Tuckman model was the quantification of humanistic behavior of teachers for the purpose (in the original studies) of establishing definite dissonance levels between a teacher's desired level of humanistic behavior and that level which was actually observed for the teacher.[13] The supported hypotheses in the original studies demonstrated that the greater the dissonance between desired vs. observed behavior, the more likely the behavior would change. The instrument used to quantify humanistic behavior in the original studies was designed by Tuckman and was labeled appropriately the Tuckman Teacher Feedback Form (TTFF). (See Figures 1 and 2.)

One natural outgrowth or expansion suggested in the Tuckman studies was the examination of how existing levels of humanistic behavior of teachers would have varying impact

upon student learning levels. The present study was an attempt to determine the effect of the varying, measurable humanistic behavior of teachers on student reading achievement through low cost, field-applicable measuring instruments and procedures. The measurement of teacher humanistic behavior in the study was made through use of the Tuckman instrument to provide an index of a teacher's performance in dealing with the teacher-student personal relationship in four humanistic behavioral areas. These four areas indexed on the Tuckman instrument were (1) creativity, (2) dynamism, (3) organized demeanor, and (4) warmth and acceptance.

Statement of the Problem.--The problem growing out of interest in teaching theory and concepts developed by Rogers was one of trying to determine if measurable differences in levels of humanistic behavior in teachers were associated with measurable differences in learning behavior of their respective students. Specifically, was the measured level or degree of humanistic behavior of the teacher in the classroom, as observed or evaluated by fellow professionals, in some way associated with a corresponding level or degree of achievement gain in his students? A second question related to the Rogers' teaching theory was: Would the level or degree of humanistic behavior displayed by the teacher in some way be associated with a corresponding level or degree of school attendance which could have a direct bearing upon subsequent student achievement? A third area related to the

Rogers' teaching theory was the determination of the impact of teacher humanistic behavior upon lower socioeconomic students. The remaining questions related to how teachers viewed ideal teaching behavior when differences in age and experience were considered, and what differences were found between the teacher's view of ideal behavior and his observed, actual humanistic behavior.

Hypotheses.--

Hypothesis 1: There is no statistically significant difference in mean reading achievement scores between students of teachers scoring high in humanistic behavior and students of teachers scoring low in humanistic behavior in each of four humanistic dimensions.

Hypothesis 2: There is no statistically significant difference in class attendance between students of teachers scoring high in humanistic behavior and students of teachers scoring low in humanistic behavior in each of four humanistic dimensions.

Hypothesis 3: There is no statistically significant difference in ideal humanistic mean scores among teachers based upon age in each of four humanistic dimensions.

Hypothesis 4: There is no statistically significant difference in ideal humanistic mean scores among teachers according to years of teaching experience in each of four humanistic dimensions.

Hypothesis 5: There is no statistically significant

difference between ideal humanistic mean scores as determined by teachers and observed humanistic mean scores as determined by peers for those respective teachers in each of four humanistic dimensions.

Significance of the Study.--Earlier studies by Tuckman,[14] Walencik,[15] Spencer,[16] and Kotula[17] demonstrated that measuring and changing teacher humanistic behavior could be done effectively and efficiently in the field. Because it was generally held that the teacher's behavior in the classroom was one of the most essential components of the learning environment of students, it was considered of great importance to continue to examine and attempt to determine the association which existed between the humanistic behavior of the teacher and the measurable effect of that behavior on students. If behavior of teachers could be changed through feedback as shown in the original Tuckman studies, and if the learning behavior of students could be improved consistent with that change in teacher behavior, then improvement in the learning experience for all children could be within reach of every school administrator and classroom teacher. Of critical importance was the concept of potential widespread availability and simplicity of use of measuring instruments in the field, and the ease of evaluation and analysis by those who administered the educational program.

Minimum instruction and training for use, plus the low cost of materials, and the simplicity of application and

use of findings made the Tuckman humanistic behavior process utilized conceptually in the study valuable to every teacher and administrator interested in improving the quality of the teaching/learning relationship. Equally significant, the study provided a practical demonstration of the theoretical foundation proposed by Rogers in his effort to center the teaching and learning experience upon the teacher-student interpersonal relationship.

Methodology

Subjects.--The subjects used in this study were representative samples taken from two populations. The first population from which the sample was drawn was public elementary school children of a large public school district in Oklahoma. All elementary children within the population were assigned to their respective elementary schools according to geographical housing patterns within the school district, comprised of thirty-five elementary schools. The representative sample was drawn from the largest elementary school operated by the school district. The sample included 174 children in grades four, five, and six of military families residing in military housing for whom pre and post test reading scores had been generated on the same form of reading instrument. Thirteen teacher personnel associated with the representative elementary student sample were their respective homeroom teachers and their respective reading-subject teachers. That number

represented all possible teachers associated with participating students.

The second population from which the representative sample was drawn was low socio-economic secondary school students of the same large public school district. All low socio-economic students within the population were assigned to their respective secondary schools in grades seven through twelve according to geographical housing patterns within the school district comprised of seven secondary schools. The sample was drawn from each one of the seven secondary schools operated by the school district. The sample included 520 low socio-economic students grades seven through twelve eligible for Title I ESEA remedial reading services provided by the school district for whom pre and post test reading scores for the school year could be generated. Six teacher personnel associated with the representative secondary school Title I student sample were their respective remedial reading subject teachers. That number represented all possible teachers associated with participating students.

Measurement of Behavior.--All student subjects were given the pre and post test of the appropriate form of the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Achievement Test. The Gates-MacGinitie instrument was used for the following reasons:

a. The test was widely in use for selection and placement of students in various levels of remedial reading instruction in the school district.

b. The test was consistently adaptable for use in the field due to ease of administration, scoring, cost, and norming, which were considered essential elements in the present study.

c. In the case of the secondary school population, official placement in the remedial reading program and annual documentation of progress made by the district were determined through the use of the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Achievement Test.

Observers of teacher humanistic behavior were fellow professional teachers and principal in the elementary school representative sample and staff members from the Title I program in the secondary school representative sample. Observation of teacher humanistic behavior was made in both samples by use of the Tuckman Teacher Feedback Form, the instrument developed by Tuckman in 1971 and subjected to critical validity and reliability studies.

In the instance of reliability, it was of value to consider both the internal reliability of the instrument and its inter-rater reliability. As regarded internal reliability, the factor analysis demonstrated a high degree of inter-item agreement within each factor as evidenced by factor loadings ranging from .55 to .84. Inter-rater reliabilities were reported by Tuckman, Cochran, and Travers for a pair of trained observers over fifteen observations averaging .55 across the four dimensions. Most recently,

corrected reliabilities ranging from .65 to .90 were obtained over a sample of thirty-one open classroom teachers observed by a pair of observers. Walencik had high school students serve as the observers of student teachers and reported corrected correlations averaging .91 between arbitrarily designated class halves of sixteen-member classes across the four dimensions.[18]

On the matter of validity, the relationship between the TTFF and Student Opinion Questionnaire (SOQ, Bryan, 1963)[19] were examined as a test of concurrent validity. Walencik reported high correlations between TTFF scales and those SOQ scores that seemed, by wording, that they should be measuring corresponding things. The two instruments showed moderate but significant correlations overall. The following research studies were cited to establish construct validity of the TTFF: Tuckman, Cochran, and Travers used the TTFF in 1973 to compare teachers trained in the use of open classroom philosophy and techniques to others not so trained. They found the open classroom teachers were significantly more warm and accepting and showed a tendency to be more creative than the "traditional" teachers with no differences on the other two dimensions. Moreover, in comparing the scores of teachers on the four dimensions of the TTFF to measures of classroom management and process and to measures of subsequent student outcomes, the correlations shown in Table 1 were obtained. These findings were

TABLE 1

RANK ORDER CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TTFF SCORES AND MEASURES OF CLASSROOM PROCESS AND OUTCOMES (N = 30)[1]

	Tuckman Humanistic Dimensions			
Activities	Creativity	Dynamism	Organized Demeanor	Warmth & Acceptance
Flexible Use of Space	.67*	-.29	-.06	.72*
Simultaneous Activity	.57*	-.07	-.21	.26
Simultaneous Groupings	.41*	-.26	-.60*	.14
Teacher Structuring**	.14	.41*	.16	-.07
Teacher Soliciting	-.05	-.03	.23	.24
Teacher Responding**	-.09	-.30	0.51*	-.28
Teacher Reacting**	-.12	.44*	.13	-.03
Student Structuring**	.40*	.08	-.06	.12
Student Soliciting**	.06	-.45*	-.52*	-.14
Student Responding**	-.17	.12	.42*	.02
Student Reacting**	.24	-.31	-.23	.22
Attitudes Toward Self	.32	.30	.04	.40*
Attitudes Toward School	.50*	.14	.01	.57*
Achievement***	.03	.26	.12	-.16

*p = .01; **Bellack Coding Category; ***California Achievement Test

[1]R. T. Hyman, Teaching: Vantage Points for Study (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott, 1974), p. 304.

consistent with one's expectations and hence provided some additional evidence of TTFF construct validity.[20]

The TTFF was designed primarily to be used for the modification of teacher behavior as indicated earlier and grew out of the work on teacher feedback done by Oliver and Tuckman, McCall, and Yman, and Gage, Runkel, and Chatterjee.[21] Following the assumption that the instrument measured the behavior of the teacher on the four general construct systems described above, and hence held meaning for teachers in terms of how they processed information in their teaching environment and consequently, reacted to situations of control, interpersonal relations, and ambiguity, it was reasoned that feedback in these areas would result in altered teaching behavior.

Spencer used the TTFF as part of a microteaching procedure with teachers about to begin their teaching careers.[22] Prospective teachers were asked to rate their ideal teacher on the TTFF at the start and end of the training session. Some teachers were rated by their fellow trainees on the TTFF following microteaching, while others were not. Following feedback, a second lesson was taught and the TTFF used to judge performance in all instances. Follow-ups were done some months later by supervisors on selected teachers. Spencer found that teachers who received feedback on the TTFF changed their ideal significantly more than teachers who did not receive TTFF feedback but who received "conven-

tional" feedback, particularly on the dimension of warmth and acceptance. In other words, exposure to the TTFF increased a teacher's use of warmth and acceptance in defining his ideal teacher indicating an increasing sensitivity to this system.

TTFF feedback caused teaching behavior to significantly improve--more so than conventional feedback on warmth and acceptance and dynamism. Since the majority of Spencer's teachers were skilled craftsmen recruited directly out of industry and were about to enter teaching with no experience or training save Spencer's week-long workshop, the increasing emphasis placed upon warmth and acceptance constructs by the TTFF was considered an important accomplishment. It must be noted that the differences identified by Spencer were not reported three months later. Undoubtedly the use of another set of raters and smaller samples of teachers contributed to the absence of these differences.

Walencik[23] worked with student teachers at a state college and had their high school students rate their behavior using the TTFF and a modified scoring procedure. Some of Walencik's student teachers received feedback on the TTFF while others received conventional supervision. Over all construct systems, student teachers who received TTFF feedback changed more than students not receiving such feedback, indicating the effectiveness of the TTFF as an element in the change process. Walencik also found change to be a

function of the difference between actual behavior and ideal behavior, termed dissonance, which was reported earlier in background information, which the TTFF apparently transformed from a change potential to an actual change.

While the above studies were not definitive, together they did indicate potentially effective uses for the TTFF. Although considerably more work needed to be done with the TTFF to establish its psychometric credentials, it had to date yielded (1) verifiable and reproducible data (objectivity), (2) consistency over items and over judges (reliability), (3) discriminable differences between teachers and between teacher feedback conditions (sensitivity), (4) relatedness to construct systems and applicability to the real educational problem of changing teacher behavior (relevance), and (5) evidence of its efficiency and practicality in administration and use (utility). Tuckman concluded that, as an instrument based on the psychology of personal constructs, the TTFF offered both the practitioner and the researcher a way to characterize teaching behavior without the training and time demands imposed by a coding system while yielding usable data on four major aspects of teaching behavior. It quickly and efficiently showed how a teacher was seen as processing information within a social reality.[24]

Limitations.--The present study was limited to full-time public school students and their teachers at two academic levels in a large, 20,000-student public school district

in Oklahoma. The first level was comprised of students enrolled in grades four through six, exclusive of special academic or socioeconomic placement. The second level was comprised of secondary students enrolled in grades seven through twelve who had been evaluated, qualified for, and placed in federally funded Title I ESEA reading classes in the district.

The statistical investigation was limited to an analysis of the effects of the teacher-student relationship on academic performance, attempting to identify those qualities of teacher behavior which were associated with improved performance by students. No attempt was made in this research to analyze statistically why or how those humanistic qualities were related to or caused different behavior in students. While beyond the limitations of the present study, additional research questions were posed at the conclusion of the study which suggested need for additional investigation into causal elements at work within the teaching relationship.

Definition of Terms.--Humanistic Behavior.--In the present study, the term humanistic behavior referred to those human elements or characteristics which were evident in the relationship between the teacher and his pupils. For measurement purposes, the Tuckman Teacher Feedback Form was used (Figure 1 and 2).

The Tuckman Teacher Feedback Form.--The Tuckman instrument was developed in 1971 and has since been subjected

FIGURE 1

Tuckman Teacher Feedback Form

Teacher observed _____

Observer _____ Date _____

Place an X in that one space of the seven between each adjective pair that best indicates your perception of the teacher's behavior. The closer you place your X toward one adjective or the other, the better you think that adjective describes the teacher.

1.	Original	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Conventional
2.	Patient	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Impatient
3.	Cold	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Warm
4.	Hostile	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Amiable
5.	Creative	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Routinized
6.	Inhibited	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Uninhibited
7.	Iconoclastic	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Ritualistic
8.	Gentle	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Harsh
9.	Unfair	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Fair
10.	Capricious	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Purposeful
11.	Cautious	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Experimenting
12.	Disorganized	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Organized
13.	Unfriendly	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Sociable
14.	Resourceful	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Uncertain
15.	Reserved	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Outspoken
16.	Imaginative	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Exacting
17.	Erratic	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Systematic
18.	Aggressive	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Passive
19.	Accepting (People)	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Critical
20.	Quiet	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Bubbly
21.	Outgoing	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Withdrawn
22.	In Control	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	On the run
23.	Flighty	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Conscientious
24.	Dominant	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Submissive
25.	Observant	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Preoccupied
26.	Introverted	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Extroverted
27.	Assertive	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Soft-spoken
28.	Timid	_ _ _ _ _ _ _	Adventurous

Figure 2

Tuckman Teacher Feedback Form Summary Sheet

Person Observed _____

Observer _____ Date _____

A. Item Scoring

I. Under the last set of dashes on the sheet of 28 items, write the numbers 7-6-5-4-3-2-1. This will give a number value to each of the seven spaces between the 28 pairs of adjectives.

II. Determine the number value for the first pair, Original-Conventional. Write it into the formula given below on the appropriate line under Item 1.

For example, if you place an X on the first dash next to "Original" in Item 1, then write the number 7 on the dash under Item 1 in the summary formula below.

III. Do the same for each of the 28 items. Plug each value into the formula.

IV. Compute the score for each of the four dimensions in the summary formula.

B. Summary Formula and Score for the Four Dimensions

I. Creativity
Item (1 + 5 + 7 + 16) - (6 + 11 + 28) + 18
(__ + __ + __ + __) - (__ + __ + __) + 18 = ____

II. Dynamism (dominance and energy)
Item (18 + 21 + 24 + 27) - (15 + 20 + 26) + 18
(__ + __ + __ + __) - (__ + __ + __) + 18 = ____

III. Organized Demeanor (organization and content)
Item (14 + 22 + 25) - (10 + 12 + 17 + 23) + 26
(__ + __ + __) - (__ + __ + __ + __) + 26 = ____

IV. Warmth and Acceptance
Item (2 + 8 + 19) - (3 + 4 + 9 + 13) + 26
(__ + __ + __) - (__ + __ + __ + __) + 26 = ____

to critical validity and reliability tests described in the previous section on Methods. The TTFF and its scoring system began as a rather long "laundry list" of adjectives, each chosen to describe a human element in teaching, and each paired with an approximate opposite, e.g., original/conventional, cold/warm, and so on. A group of eighty teachers, administrators, and full-time graduate students used these adjective pairs in rating instructors. Factor analysis was used to determine similar meaning of the items in the list of adjective pairs. The factor analysis reduced the "laundry list" of adjective pairs to four factors or behavioral areas, (1) creativity, (2) dynamism, (3) organized demeanor, and (4) warmth and acceptance, which were utilized in the present study.

Tuckman published permission for use of the TTFF form in research studies, asking only to be informed of the results of such experimentation.[25] Notification of the use of the TTFF form in the present study was made to Tuckman by the author.

The Creative Teacher.--Is seen as being not only creative but imaginative, experimenting, original, iconclastic, uninhibited, and adventurous as well. This type of teacher controls by his manipulation of the learning environment.

The Dynamic Teacher.--Is seen as outgoing, outspoken, bubbly, extroverted, aggressive, assertive and dominant. He

is a personally forceful and commanding teacher. In essence he uses "force" as a means to control student behavior and achieve goals.

The Organized Teacher.--Is not only organized but systematic, purposeful, conscientious, in control, observant, and resourceful. This type of teacher controls in a more managerial capacity, whose unilateral approach to training serves to reduce ambiguity and risk for students.

The Warm and Accepting Teacher.--Is, in addition to being warm and accepting of others, sociable, amiable, patient, fair, and gentle and thus achieves "control" by relating to his students.

Attendance.--Daily classroom presence based upon official class records of absenteeism during the pre-test, post-test period of the study.

Low Socioeconomic Status.--Eligibility criteria for student participation in Title I remedial reading program (one or more grade levels behind based on national norms).

Ideal Humanistic Teacher Behavior.--A Score on each of four dimensions of the TTFF generated by each teacher based upon his own criteria of ideal teaching. Group mean TTFF scores for all elementary teachers, old vs. young elementary teachers, and experienced vs. inexperienced elementary teachers were developed for use in the study.

Observed Teacher Humanistic Scores.--The average of at least three fellow professionals who have had one year or

more of first-hand knowledge of the manner in which the teacher being observed behaved in the learning environment.

Procedure.--Teachers in both representative samples were rated by fellow professionals thoroughly familiar with that teacher's behavior in the classroom so that an average TTFF score resulted. TTFF scores were rank ordered so that teachers with high scores were grouped and teachers with low scores were grouped. Reading score gains for students of teachers within each group were then calculated and the z score analysis for independent data was used to test the difference between means of student gains.

Students in the elementary sample were enrolled from pre-test to post-test, were grouped within the school for homeroom purposes, and were regrouped for reading instruction purposes. Analysis of reading score gains by high/low TTFF teachers was made for both homeroom and reading teacher groups. Some grouping of the elementary reading students by academic ability was observed in one high/low TTFF analysis. Effects of ability for that observation are discussed in the section on results. Analysis of attendance records of students grouped by teacher TTFF scores for the elementary portion of the study on the four dimensions was made. Days of absence for each student were grouped by high/low TTFF teacher and the z score analysis for independent data was used to test the difference between means.

Students in the low socioeconomic secondary school portion of the study were enrolled in Title I remedial reading classes one hour per day and obtained scores on pre and post tests given respectively at the beginning and ending of the program for the school year. Student gains after grouping by high/low TTFF teachers were calculated and the z score analysis for independent data was used to determine differences between means. Analyses of differences between student gain mean scores were made for all students enrolled in the program as well as the subset of students taking the Survey E form of the Gates MacGinitie Reading test, the single largest form of the test used by the Title I program. Because secondary students attended only one hour of reading instruction per day, and attended other teachers' classes throughout the day, attendance analysis was limited tc the elementary student sample.

Analysis of ideal humanistic teaching behavior was made with fourteen of the elementary teachers to determine if either age of tachers or experience of teachers on each of the four TTFF dimensions was significantly different when high/low TTFF grouping of teachers was made. Analysis was made of ideal TTFF scores as determined by teachers against observed teacher TTFF scores as determined by professional peers to determine if significant differences occurred. Analysis was made by way of the t test for significance at the .05 point of confidence.

FOOTNOTES

[1]Joseph D. Novak, A Theory of Education (Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1977), p. 9.

[2]Abraham Shumsky, In Search of Teaching Style (New York: Appleton, Century, Crofts, 1968), p. x.

[3]P. W. Jackson, Life in Classrooms (New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston, 1968).

[4]C. H. Patterson, Foundations for a Theory of Instruction and Educational Psychology (New York: Harper and Row, Pub., 1977), p. v.

[5]Ibid., p. 15.

[6]N. L. Gage, "Theories of Teaching," in Hilgard and Bower, Theories of Learning and Instruction, Sixty-Third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964), pp. 268-285.

[7]L. J. Stiles, et. al., Theories for Teaching (New York: Dodd, Mead, 1974), pp. 9-29.

[8]Patterson, Foundations for a Theory of Instruction, pp. 282-90.

[9]Ibid., p. 299.

[10]Ibid.

[11]Bruce W. Tuckman, "Feedback and the Change Process," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 57, No. 5 (January 1976), pp. 341-344.

[12]Ned A. Flanders, Interaction Analysis in the Classroom: A Manual For Observers (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1960).

[13]Tuckman, "Feedback and the Change Process."

[14]Bruce W. Tuckman, "Changing the Behavior of Teachers Through Feedback." An invitational paper presented at the meetings of the National Association of Elementary School Principals, Cleveland, Ohio, 1971.

[15]V. J. Walencik, "An Experimental Study to Determine the Effectiveness of Feedback as a Means of Changing Student Teachers' Humanistic Behavior," Doctoral Dissertation, Rutgers University, 1973.

[16]Melvin Spencer, "A Study to Evaluate the Impact of Structured and Unstructured Feedback to Teachers," Doctoral Dissertation, Rutgers University, 1973.

[17]J. R. Kotula, "Affecting Community College Teaching Behavior Through Feedback," Doctoral Disseration, Rutgers University, 1975.

[18]R. T. Hyman, Teaching: Vantage Points for Study (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott, 1974), pp. 302-307.

[19]R. C. Bryan, Reactions to Teachers by Students, Parents, and Administrators (U.S. Office of Education, Cooperative Research Project No. 668, Kalamazoo, Michigan: Western Michigan University, 1963).

[20]Hyman, Teaching: Vantage Points for Study.

[21]Ibid., p. 303.

[22]Spencer, "A Study to Evaluate the Impact of Structured and Unstructured Feedback to Teachers."

[23]Walencik, "An Experimental Study to Determine the Effectiveness of Feedback as a Means of Changing Student Teachers' Humanistic Behavior."

[24]Hyman, Teaching: Vantage Points for Study, p. 305.

[25]Tuckman, "Feedback and the Change Process," p. 344.

CHAPTER II

RELATED LITERATURE

Rogers was not alone in focusing examination and research upon the teacher-student relationship as the key to improving the quality of education. Several national and individual research projects lent support to this trend.

National Consortium for Humanizing Education (NCHE).[1] This project, which ended in 1974, focused attention for ten years upon interpersonal relationships in classrooms. The activities included both research and training, and both phenomenological and scientific procedures were employed. Through a range of approaches, the NCHE examined relationships between interpersonal behaviors and a variety of factors such as attitudes, discipline problems, physical health, attendance, IQ changes, and cognitive growth. These investigations involved elementary, secondary, and college populations from forty-two states and seven foreign countries. The effort was directed toward demonstrating to teachers that they could enhance attainment of the academic goals by improving their interpersonal behaviors.

The results of the investigations of interpersonal behavior and their relationship to cognitive behaviors were

quite interesting, as described by Weller.[2] In order to explore the interpersonal events, the NCHE employed Flanders' Interactional Analysis System. Both student and teacher behavior were assessed according to Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, which contain six categories (knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation).[3] Such a large percentage of behavior occurred in the first category (simple memorization) that it was difficult to find behaviors that could be called thinking or problem solving. The typical classroom in the samples studied employed the lowest order of cognitive behavior (memory) almost exclusively. This result was surprising to most teachers who thought they were eliciting higher orders of cognitive behavior from their students. They were even more disturbed when they discovered that they themselves rarely used higher-order cognitive behavior in the classroom. That is, they neither served as a model nor did they request thinking from their students. In one sample involving 692 hours of teaching at the secondary level by a total of ninety teachers, the total amount of time devoted to thinking behavior by the teacher was one hour and three minutes.

These studies were viewed as successful in that they led to a broad confirmation of the position that positive interpersonal relationships facilitated learning. The totality of the findings also led to some broad understandings. There was, for example, a general misconception that

teachers have well-developed human relations skills. The broad-based data of the NCHE supports the contention that teachers, including principals and supervisors, had a very low order of interpersonal skills and need rudimentary training in how to respond to other people.

One unexpected result of the NCHE studies was in the area of training for teachers. Upon examining the results of the training programs, it was discovered that improvement in interpersonal skills was a function of the teacher's initial level of interpersonal functioning and level of physical fitness as assessed by a variety of tests. It appeared that fatigue, poor nutrition, and lack of physical exercise were deterrents to positive interpersonal relationships. Weller concluded that physical fitness seemed to be the foundation out of which interpersonal skills could develop, and they, in turn, provided the basis for intellectual growth.

Simpson and Beliefs.[4] In a comprehensive study of humanistic education, Simpson drew several insightful conclusions. She described contemporary teachers, like other mortals, as being what they took for granted: beliefs about a model of humanness governed their behavior within the classroom as well as outside it. The nature of humanistic education could be examined through those beliefs, and through several assumptions that underlay authentic humanistic education. These assumptions were: First, the process of learning was the active search and incorporation by the

knower of the known. The learner controlled his own life and valued his own competence as actor in the world. Second, human beings as phenomena were whole and integrated; emotions, relationality and will--intentionality--were legitimate and inseparable aspects of humanness and were all engaged as learning occurred. Traditions, beliefs, and values were selectively retained, reshaped, and modified to present needs. Third, emotion, the spirit of the soul, the intellectual power of rationality, consciousness, or valuing were inseparable from, not merely encased in the human body--palpable, solid, and real. Fourth, the individual's reality, grounded in present experience, extended both forward to the future and backward to the past from which the here and now have arisen. Fifth, autonomy may have found high expression by yielding committment to the social group. Creation and affirmation may have found their application in the quest for the good life with others, as well as for the individual alone.

Kohlberg and Moral Development.[5] Kohlberg had compiled a systematic hierarchy of moral development in humanistic education. Inspired by Piaget's pioneering effort to apply a structural approach to moral development, Kohlberg elaborated over the years of his study a typological scheme describing general structures and forms of moral thought which could be defined independently of the specific content of particular moral decisions or actions.

The typology contained three distinct levels of moral thinking. Kohlberg's work on moral judgments rested on the premise that exposure to value issues through discussion and the cognitive dissonance that occurred internally when conflict appeared would cause the student to move upward on this hierarchy as cognitive change, facilitated by socio-environmental interaction and based on the developing capacity to reason and not on the acquisition of specific content.

Combs and Perceptual Psychology.[6] According to concepts put forward by Combs, the clue to education was understanding the perceptions of the individual and the personal meanings that situations had for him. Behavior of a person was the direct result of his field of perception at the moment of his behaving. Behavior, then, was the result of (1) how he saw himself, (2) how he saw the situation in which he was involved, and (3) the interrelations of these two. To change another person's behavior it was necessary somehow to modify his beliefs or perceptions. When he saw things differently, he behaved differently. Most influential was the self concept, the center of his world, the point of origin for all behavior. What he believed about himself affected every aspect of his life.

Combs consequently defined learning as the discovery of one's personal relationship to events or ideas. The pertinence of personal meaning of learning would be a function of the perceived relationship to self. The more intimately

one perceived the relationship of concepts to self, the more profound would information affect the person. This discovery of the personal meaning of ideas, values, experiences, or the accumulated culture of the race was the very essence of learning and the art of teaching was in helping people to make this discovery.[7]

Intelligence, likewise, was defined by Combs as a person's capacity for effective and efficient behavior and functioning. Psychologists had come to believe that the ultimate capacities for more effective behavior and functioning could be realized by enriching and broadening a person's conceptual field. If this position was accurate, in Combs' analysis, there should have been a systematic effort to remove or decrease the limitations on perception and to provide opportunities for perception to occur.

Combs defined the effective teacher formally as a unique human being who has learned to use himself effectively and efficiently to carry out his own and society's purposes in the education of others. Assuming effective teaching to be related to the helping services, Soper and Combs wondered if the helping relationship as seen by good teachers would agree with the relationship as seen by expert psychotherapists. Good teachers and poor teachers closely agreed with psychotherapists in knowing what a good helping relationship should be, even if they could not produce it. However, the nature of the relationship was based upon the helper's per-

ceptions, rather than on the basis of specific things which helpers do.[8]

Lindsey, Lynch and Combs suggested that whether an individual would be an effective teacher dependend fundamentally on the nature of his private world of perceptions.[9] Extensive studies indicated that the following areas were crucial in the perceptual organization of a good teacher:[10]

(1) Rich, extensive, and available perceptions about his subject field.

(2) Accurate perceptions about what people were like.

(3) Accurate perceptions about the purpose and process of learning.

(4) Perceptions of self leading to adequacy.

(5) Personal perceptions about appropriate methods for carrying out his purposes.

The basic principle of learning (in perceptual psychology) was this: any item of information would affect an individual's behavior only in the degree to which he had discovered its personal meaning to him. Three basic conditions for personal learning supported this principle: (1) The creation of student needs for understanding, (2) the development of an atmosphere that would make the exploration of personal meaning possible, and (3) assistance and encouragement in the active exploration and discovery of personal meaning.

Applying the findings of these various studies, Combs asserted that good teachers could be clearly distinguished from poor ones with respect to the following beliefs about people:[11]

Able--Unable. The good teacher perceived others as having the capacities to deal with their problems successfully.

Friendly--Unfriendly. The good teacher saw others as being friendly and enhancing.

Worthy--Unworthy. The good teacher saw other people as possessing dignity and integrity that must be respected and maintained.

Internal--External Motivation. The good teacher saw people as essentially trustworthy and dependable.

Helping--Hindering. The good teacher saw people as being potentially fulfilling and enhancing to self.

As stated earlier, Rogers did not reject the cognitive elements in his theory of teaching. Likewise, perceptual psychology did not require the abandonment of prior approaches to the understanding of human behavior. The perceptual-humanistic view of behavior offered a new and broader frame of reference; it did not deny the tenets of the traditional stimulus-response approach. On the contrary, it included that approach but went beyond it to deal with problems the ealier approach could not adequately deal with.

And finally, characteristics with respect to teachers' purposes connected with good teaching, but not yet subjected to research, were suggested by Combs:[12]

(1) Helping rather than dominating.

(2) Understanding rather than condemning.

(3) Accepting rather than rejecting.

(4) Valuing integrity rather than violating integrity.

(5) Being positive rather than negative.

(6) Being open rather than closed to experience.

(7) Being tolerant of ambiguity rather than intolerant.

Purkey and Self Concept.[13] Purkey did extensive research on student self concept and its relationship to school behavior and performance. A summary of his views suggested the following principles held meaning for student self concept. He believed the single most important assumption of modern theories about the self was that the maintenance and enhancement of the perceived self was the motive behind all behavior. Overall, the research evidence clearly showed a persistent and significant relationship between the self concept and academic achievement. There was even the finding by White that the child obtained a biologically given sense of pleasure from becoming competent in mastering the environment.[14] It appeared that the concept of intrinsic motivation as presented by Combs, Rogers, and White was correct when contrasted with Purkey's findings.

In order to influence students, then, it would be necessary for teachers to have become a significant other in their lives. Purkey asserted that we were seldom changed by people whom we saw as insignificant or unimportant. The way the teacher could beomce significant seemed, according to Purkey, to rest on two forces: (1) what he believed, and (2) what he did. Therefore, no aspect of education was considered more important than the feeling on the part of the teacher that the individual student was important, valuable, and could learn in school. In part, the atmospheric factors which enhanced that feeling were (1) challenge, (2) freedom, (3) respect, (4) warmth, (5) control, and (6) success.

Jarrett and Humanities.[15] Others believed that, however great the need for political and economic overhaul, and however essential the teaching of scientific thinking, our greatest need today was for teachers characterized by trust, compassion, sensitivity, caring, and for greater emphasis upon the achievement of beauty, love, joy; in short, upon the positive qualities of humanity. Jarrett cited a passage by Arrowsmith which was appropriate to the present study:

> We lack educators, by which I mean teachers in the Socratic sense, visible embodiments of the realized humanity of our aspirations, intelligence, concern, skill, scholarship; men ripened or ripening into realization. Our universities and our society need this compelling embodiment, this exemplification of what we are all presumably at. It is men we need now, not programs. It is possible for a student to go from kindergarten to graduate school without every encountering a man--a man who might for the first time give

> him the only profound motivation for learning, the hope of becoming a better man. Charisma in a teacher is not a mystery or nimbus of personality, but radient exemplification to which the student contributes a correspondingly radient hunger for becoming. The teacher, like his text, is thus the mediator between past and present, present and future, and he matters because there is no human mediator but him. He is the student's only evidence outside the text that a great humanity exists; upon his impersonization both his text and his student's human fate depend. For student and teacher alike, ripeness is all.[16] [Emphasis added.]

Jarrett concluded that it was no longer enough to know a great deal, including a great deal about effective teaching procedures. One must--perhaps above all--be a great deal. Jarrett stated that what our students needed was better, deeper, wiser human beings--who could thus communicate the fullness of their humanness to their classes. But starting with our limitations as human beings, we who were teachers could at least face up to the fact that we were teaching ourselves, and go on from there.

Bloom and School-Related Affective Characteristics.[17] In a single school year a student could study as many as five or six school subjects and could encounter as many as 150 different learning tasks. As he encountered each of these tasks, he would have a sense of adequacy or inadequacy about his learning of each. The student would begin to generalize about his adequacy or inadequacy with school learning tasks. If his experiences were positive, he would be likely to develop a generally positive view about school and school learning. If the results were generally negative and his

learning was regarded as inadequate by the student, his teachers, and his parents, he would be likely to develop a negative view about school and school learning. It was evident in many studies cited by Bloom that relatively strong affect had been developed in many students by the end of the elementary period of schooling.

The consequence of school-related affect for further learning in the schools was relatively clear. If much of school-related affect was developed by the end of the elementary school period, it was likely that much of later learning in the school would be largely determined by the student's view of the school developed in those early years.

Bloom provided evidence of a significant relationship between affective characteristics and related measures of school achievement. It was clear that affective characteristics were important in determining or influencing the student's achievement. In general, the Bloom research indicated that affective characteristics could account for up to one-fourth ($r = +.50$) of the variance on relevant achievement measures.[18]

While the process evidence was limited, it was believed that affect was determined by the individual's perceptions about his achievement and that affect, in turn, was a determinant of future achievement. Affect helped to determine the extent to which the learner would put forth effort to learn a specific learning task.

Bloom concluded that affective characteristics were so important to school learning that much of the attention of teachers should be addressed to encouraging the development of positive affective characteristics toward school learning and self at every stage in the school process.

Patterson and Humanism.[19] One of Patterson's conclusions about teaching was that we had lost our basic humanity, since we were unable to relate to students--or to each other--without the intervention or use of techniques. It is interesting in this connection that we were recognizing that the essence of the psychotherapeutic relationship was that it is a relationship devoid of, or without, techniques.

The implication was that teaching should also be a relationship devoid of techniques. Children would have--inherently and until we deprived them of it--this ability to relate to others naturally, honestly, trustingly, understandingly. We wouldn't need techniques to relate to children; in fact, techniques would interfere with establishing a relationship with children.

Patterson used the term humanistic to indicate a concern with the learner as a human being (rather than simply an organism), and as a whole person, rather than simply a disembodied intellect or repository of cognitive processes. His focus was upon the person and his total experiencing--of emotions, feelings, affects, values, and cognitions.

The following was a description by Patterson of the nature of man from a humanistic viewpoint:[20]

Man is Inherently Good. One of the issues which divides us in our views of the person is whether he is innately good or bad (or indifferent).

Man is an Active as well as (or more than) a Reactive Being. Internal stimulation is present, and man is physically active, even in the absence of environmental stimuli.

Behavior is Determined by the Individual's Perception. The individual reacts to stimuli in terms of his perceptions of them, what they appear to be, what they "mean" to him.

Man Has a Single Basic Motivation. The single basic motivation of all human beings is the actualization of one's potential.

The Perception of the Self, or the Self Concept, is the Most Important Determiner of Behavior. The self is the most important part of the individual's phenomenal field, the center around which all other perceptions are organized.

Man is a Social Being. The individual lives, and must live, in a society composed of other individuals. He can actualize himself only in interaction with others.

Humanistic teaching, then, provided an understanding of the psychological conditions of learning, the characteristics in a teacher which facilitated learning. And humanistic

methods of education did not ignore or de-emphasize cognitive learning; they provided the conditions for better, more effective cognitive education, a position taken by Rogers and Combs cited earlier.

Other Related Views on Humanistic Education. Coleman offered findings that a sense of control over one's environment and future seemed to have a stronger relationship to school achievement than all other school factors combined (e.g., dollars per pupil, education of teachers.)[21] Bloom found relatively low relationships between student achievement and teacher characteristics such as age, training, salaries (rarely more than five percent of the achievement variation). Similarly, rarely more than five percent of the achievement variation could be attributed to the characteristics of the classroom or school itself (which included numbers of students, equipment, expenditures per student, type of administration and school organization). Bloom believed it was the teaching, not the teacher, that was central, and it was the environment for learning in the classroom rather than the physical characteristics of the class and classroom that was important for school learning.[22]

Hughes developed an exhaustive system for analyzing teacher behavior seemingly characteristic of good teachers.[23] Similar attempts were carried out by Flanders, Smith, Bowers, Filson, and Medley, but they still did not, observed Combs, provide the definitive distinctions needed by the profession.[24]

Good teaching, it was clear, was not a direct function of general traits or methods. This unanimous failure to isolate any common trait or practice for good teaching in itself demonstrated that a good teacher was primarily a unique personality, first and foremost a person, and this fact was the most important and determining thing about him.

Tuckman, Cochran, and Travers conducted a study in 1972 to assess the extent to which open classroom differed from control classrooms with respect to teaching process, i.e., the behavior of teachers, and teaching product, i.e., the outcomes of students.[25] In the study conducted, the Tuckman Teacher Feedback Form was utilized to measure the difference between open classroom teachers and control classroom teachers. Results indicated a trend toward significant differences between schools which was due to the treatment, i.e., the in-service training procedure for open school staff (Table 1, p. 19).

It was concluded that standardized achievement was unaffected by the switch to the open classroom. While the open classroom pattern did not seem to affect achievement, it did seem to cause students to like school more by providing for more pleasant learning activities. The increased self-reliance appeared to be contributing to students beginning to see themselves in more positive terms. The achievement of a positive self-image was an important goal in education in its own right, according to the study report, and one

which educators had been talking about but rarely measuring. While not affecting achievement to any measurable degree, the open classroom treatment had enhanced students' self-images and liking for school, thus indicating one value of a student-centered classroom approach.

Research on Teacher Age and Experience. Research studies involving teacher age and/or experience indicated the following tendencies would be at work in the present study. Matthaei reported role expectations, although mixed, to be no different for groups of secondary-school educators based upon age and other factors where several of the general functions of the teacher were involved.[26] Included in those general functions were: motivating the pupil, teaching critical thinking, contributing to the growth of the person as a whole, and helping the pupil develop his creativity. Ambiguity existed in Matthaei's results in specific means of providing for individual differences and motivating pupils.

Bickel investigated age and sex differences between instructor models on secondary education university students. Interactions of the sex and age variables were predicted but did not occur. There appeared to be little or no relationship between the sex or age of the instructor model and the subjects being instructed.[27] In a similar way, in an examination of the effects of both age and teaching experience on changes in teacher attitudes and personality characteristics, the findings indicated that attitudes and personality char-

acteristics were stable over time and were not significantly related to age, years of teaching experience and years of education completed.[28] Wilson, however, noted in his investigation that secondary students rated younger teachers more favorably than older teachers on a scale of students' perceptions of teachers.[29]

The amount of teaching experience by public-school teachers as reported by Klein showed a tendency for elementary teachers with more experience, and secondary teachers with less experience, to hold more progressive attitudes toward education than their counterparts.[30] In another study, the effects of teaching experience on the action-belief systems of teachers pointed to a conceptualization of experience in terms of increasing personalization of the teacher's world through a life-long socialization process. Experienced teachers were more sensitive to their own needs and they were more sensitive to the needs of individual children than were their less-experienced colleagues.[31] Winchester had mixed findings in measuring differences due to teaching experience. The greater the amount of teaching experience, the higher the probability of a teacher expressing a democratic orientation toward teaching. Conversely, the amount of teaching experience had little influence on a teacher's positive self-concept.[32] And in an investigation of the effects of teaching experience on teacher attitudes toward public schools and students, Parrot cited results suggesting

that teacher attitudes become more positive as years of experience increase.[33]

Summary of Review of Literature. Literature represented in this review suggested an abundance of evidence, models, and theoretical constructs in support of the tenets of Rogers' Theory of Teaching, or need for such theory. Psychological and physiological bases for improvement in student outcomes were consistent throughout many of the citations and the circumstances or environment in which a student or any person would achieve optimum attitude or feeling of self-worth and consequent performance were well documented in the literature presented.

Contradictions to traditional beliefs about improved student outcomes were represented by both the Bloom and Coleman findings that achievement variation attributable to factors such as teacher-pupil ratio, levels of expenditure, equipment, type of administration or organization was relatively insignificant. Hughes also dispelled the traditional belief that good teaching was a direct function of traits or methods of teachers, and several studies contradicted the concept that older or more experienced teachers would have differing attitudes or perceptions about education than their younger, inexperienced counterparts. Amount of teaching experience appeared to be associated in other studies with attitudes or perceptions of teachers.

Affective, interpersonal elements appeared consistently to be documented as the basis for improved human outcomes, regardless of the particular product desired. The application of the educational concepts cited for the improvement of teaching was reported by many researchers to be a continuing problem in need of serious study and attention.

FOOTNOTES

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CHAPTER III

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Results of Statistical Tests

Elementary Students. Differences between the mean gain scores of elementary subjects when grouped according to high/low TTFF teachers were calculated across the four dimensions of the TTFF--Creativity, Dynamism, Organized Demeanor, Warmth and Acceptance--and calculated for both vocabulary and comprehension reading scores generated by the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test instrument. Because both reading-group teachers and homeroom-group teachers participated in the study, findings were reported on each division. Student absences were likewise calculated around the high/low TTFF homeroom and reading teacher groups.

(a) Results for Homeroom Teachers (Table 2): The mean gain in reading scores of students grouped according to all four dimensions of high/low TTFF teachers yielded, with one exception, no significant Z-score differences on either vocabulary or comprehension scales. The exception on vocabulary scores showed a Z score of 2.273 when teachers were grouped on the Creativity dimension of the Tuckman instrument.

TABLE 2

Z-SCORE RESULTS ON FOUR HUMANISTIC DIMENSIONS OF THE TTFF

Elementary School Students of Homeroom Teachers

Dimension	High Humanistic Teachers' Students				Low Humanistic Teachers' Students				
Area Measured	Number of Subjects	$\bar{X}$ Scores	SD	$SE_{\bar{x}}$	Number of Subjects	$\bar{X}$ Scores	SD	$SE_{\bar{x}}$	Z Score
1. CREATIVITY									
Vocabulary	92	1.158	1.082	.113	82	.774	1.127	.125	2.273*
Comprehension	93	1.280	1.427	.149	85	1.455	1.681	.183	.741
Days Absent	93	5.269	5.405	.564	89	5.169	3.870	.407	.144
2. DYNAMISM									
Vocabulary	93	.959	1.208	.126	81	.998	1.008	.113	.231
Comprehension	96	1.283	1.544	.158	82	1.457	1.565	.174	.740
Days Absent	99	5.298	5.182	.524	83	5.127	4.039	.446	.249
3. ORGANIZED DEMEANOR									
Vocabulary	84	.975	1.036	.114	90	.979	1.193	.126	.024
Comprehension	88	1.570	1.585	.170	90	1.161	1.500	.159	1.758
Days Absent	88	4.636	4.072	.437	94	5.766	5.154	.534	1.637
4. WARMTH AND ACCEPTANCE									
Vocabulary	83	.898	1.029	.114	91	1.049	1.192	.126	.891
Comprehension	87	1.529	1.502	.162	91	1.205	1.590	.168	1.390
Days Absent	87	4.603	4.170	.450	95	5.784	5.066	.523	1.713

*Significant at the .05 level.

Teachers grouped high on this TTFF dimension had students with significantly higher mean gain vocabulary scores on the reading instrument.

When days of absence for the year for elementary students of homeroom teachers were calculated across the four Tuckman dimensions, no significant differences between high/low teacher groups were found.

(b) Results for Reading Teachers (Table 3): The mean gain in reading scores of students grouped according to the four dimensions of high/low TTFF teachers yielded significant difference findings on three of the four dimensions of the TTFF (Dynamism, Organized Demeanor, Warmth and Acceptance) where scores on reading comprehension were considered. In two of these dimensions (Organized Demeanor and Warmth and Acceptance), teachers grouped high had students with significantly higher mean gain scores. However, in the third dimension, Dynamism, teachers grouped low had students with significantly higher mean gain comprehension scores.

When vocabulary scores of these students were analyzed across the dimensions of the TTFF, no significant differences in mean gain scores were found. Similarly, mean differences in days of absence for students of reading teachers grouped high and low respectively on the TTFF yielded no significant Z scores with one exception. Students of teachers scoring high on the Creativity dimensions were absent more days and had a higher standard deviation than all the other groups of students in the study.

TABLE 3

Z-SCORE RESULTS ON FOUR HUMANISTIC DIMENSIONS OF THE TTFF

Elementary School Students of Reading Group Teachers

Dimension	High Humanistic Teachers' Students				Low Humanistic Teachers' Students				
Area Measured	Number of Subjects	$\bar{X}$ Scores	SD	$SE_{\bar{x}}$	Number of Subjects	$\bar{X}$ Scores	SD	$SE_{\bar{x}}$	Z Score
1. CREATIVITY									
Vocabulary	86	1.051	1.097	.119	83	.912	1.155	.128	.797
Comprehension	86	1.227	1.559	.169	87	1.544	1.566	.169	1.326
Days Absent	86	6.157	5.660	.614	88	4.415	3.407	.365	2.438*
2. DYNAMISM									
Vocabulary	87	1.05	1.180	.127	82	.91	1.065	.118	.817
Comprehension	88	1.115	1.510	.162	85	1.667	1.583	.173	2.331*
Days Absent	88	5.545	5.144	.551	86	5.000	4.269	.463	.757
3. ORGANIZED DEMEANOR	(same Teacher Division)								
4. WARMTH AND ACCEPTANCE									
Vocabulary	82	.910	1.065	.118	87	1.052	1.180	.127	.817
Comprehension	85	1.667	1.583	.173	88	1.115	1.510	.162	2.331*
Days Absent	86	5.000	4.269	.463	88	5.454	5.144	.551	.757

*Significant at the .05 level.

In one analysis of the difference between mean scores, the academic placement of one grade level of students was of potential consequence. Four sections of one grade level were grouped respectively from high to low reading ability. Division of teachers for these four sections placed one high and low group in the high humanistic teacher group, and the remaining high and low reading groups in the low humanistic teacher group. A t test of the difference in mean gain scores indicated that within the division of that grade level, no significant difference in scores was present.

Secondary Students. Differences between mean gain scores for secondary Title I students were calculated along the four dimensions of the TTFF for both vocabulary and comprehension reading scales from the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test instrument for students' respective appropriate test form.

(a) All forms of the Gates-MacGinitie Test Combined (Table 4): Because all forms of the reading test were utilized in the evaluation of annual district-wide Title I reading improvement, analysis of all students across the four dimensions of the TTFF for high/low grouped teachers was made. Vocabulary mean gain scores showed significant differences along all four dimensions of the Tuckman form. Reading comprehension mean gain scores showed significant differences along three of the four TTFF dimensions (Creativity, Organized Demeanor, Warmth and Acceptance) with no

TABLE 4

Z-SCORE RESULTS ON FOUR HUMANISTIC DIMENSIONS OF THE TTFF

All Title I Secondary School Students of Reading Group Teachers

Dimension Area Measured	High Humanistic Teachers' Students: Number of Subjects	$\bar{X}$ Scores	SD	$SE_{\bar{x}}$	Low Humanistic Teachers' Students: Number of Subjects	$\bar{X}$ Scores	SD	$SE_{\bar{x}}$	Z Score
1. CREATIVITY									
2. ORGANIZED DEMEANOR (Same Teacher Division)									
3. WARMTH AND ACCEPTANCE									
Vocabulary	225	2.34	2.288	.153	295	.980	1.655	.097	7.52*
Comprehension	225	2.31	1.839	.123	294	1.04	1.788	.104	7.87*
4. DYNAMISM									
Vocabulary	257	1.36	1.996	.125	263	1.77	2.115	.130	2.27*
Comprehension	256	1.46	1.921	.120	263	1.72	1.905	.118	1.55

*Significant at the .05 level.

statistically significant difference found between means on the dimension of Dynamism. In all but one case where significant differences were found, students of teachers in the high TTFF group had higher reading scores. However, as was found in earlier results, teachers who scored low on the TTFF dimension of Dynamism had students with significantly higher mean vocabulary reading scores.

(b) Survey E Form, Gates-MacGinitie Students Only (Table 5): Utilizing students and their respective teachers who generated reading score results on Survey E of the test, the following results were obtained: For vocabulary mean gain scores, teachers grouped high on three dimensions of the TTFF had students who scored higher mean vocabulary results. The exception once again was the TTFF dimension of Dynamism where no significant mean gain score difference was obtained. For comprehension mean gain scores, identical results on each of the four Tuckman dimensions were obtained with Dynamism again being the dimension evidencing no significant mean score difference.

Age, Experience and Teachers' Ideal Humanistic Behavior (Tables 6 and 7). The analysis of mean score differences in ideal teaching behavior between teachers grouped by older/younger and also by experienced/inexperienced on each dimension of the Tuckman form produced no significant differences in mean scores as determined by t test values at the 5 percent point.

TABLE 5

Z-SCORE RESULTS ON FOUR HUMANISTIC DIMENSIONS OF THE TTFF

Survey E Title I Secondary School Students of Reading Group Teachers

Dimension	High Humanistic Teachers' Students				Low Humanistic Teachers' Students				
Area Measured	Number of Subjects	$\bar{X}$ Scores	SD	$SE_{\bar{x}}$	Number of Subjects	$\bar{X}$ Scores	SD	$SE_{\bar{x}}$	Z Score
1. CREATIVITY									
2. ORGANIZED DEMEANOR (Same Teacher Division)									
3. WARMTH AND ACCEPTANCE									
Vocabulary	183	2.24	2.426	.180	136	1.35	1.70	.146	3.840*
Comprehension	183	1.95	2.17	.161	136	1.43	2.05	.176	2.180*
4. DYNAMISM									
Vocabulary	160	1.80	2.101	.159	159	1.93	2.356	.187	.491
Comprehension	160	1.88	2.004	.159	159	1.58	2.250	.179	1.260

*Significant at the .05 level.

TABLE 6

t VALUES ON FOUR HUMANISTIC DIMENSIONS OF THE TTFF

Older Teachers' Ideal Humanistic Scores vs. Younger Teachers' Ideal Humanistic Scores

Dimension Area Measured	Older Teachers' Scores				Younger Teachers' Scores				
	Number of Subjects	$\bar{X}$ Scores	SD	$SE_{\bar{x}}$	Number of Subjects	$\bar{X}$ Scores	F Values	$S_{D_{\bar{x}}}$	t Values
1. CREATIVITY	7	28.71	13.918	7	29.14	18.694	1.343	2.331	.184
2. DYNAMISM	7	28.00	9.714	7	29.00	29.714	3.059	2.563	.390
3. ORGANIZED DEMEANOR	7	36.29	9.633	7	39.71	8.204	1.137	1.724	1.988
4. WARMTH AND ACCEPTANCE	7	37.71	7.633	7	36.57	10.245	1.342	1.726	.662

*Significant at .05 Point

**F is significant.

TABLE 7

t VALUES ON FOUR HUMANISTIC DIMENSIONS OF THE TTFF

Experienced Teachers' Ideal Humanistic Scores Vs. Inexperienced Teachers' Ideal Humanistic Scores

Dimension Measured	Experienced Teachers' Scores: Number of Subjects	$\bar{X}$ Scores	S^2	Inexperienced Teachers' Scores: Number of Subjects	$\bar{X}$ Scores	S^2	F Values	$S_{D_{\bar{X}}}$	t Values
CREATIVITY	7	27.86	16.122	7	30.00	14.286	1.128	2.251	.952
DYNAMISM	7	28.29	8.490	7	28.71	31.347	3.692	2.577	.166
ORGANIZED DEMEANOR	7	37.71	12.490	7	38.29	11.061	1.129	1.981	.288
WARMTH AND ACCEPTANCE	7	37.86	6.980	7	36.43	10.531	1.509	1.708	.836

*Significant at .05 Point

**F is significant.

Ideal Humanistic Behavior vs. Observed Humanistic Behavior (Table 8). The t test of differences between mean score of teachers' self-scored ideal humanistic behavior and the scores resulting from peer observations of respective teachers yielded the findings that on two dimensions of the TTFF (Organized Demeanor and Warmth and Acceptance) there were significant differences. In both significant findings the observed teacher mean humanistic score was lower than the self-scored mean. The TTFF dimensions of Creativity and Dynamism yielded no significant differences in their calculated results.

Analysis and Interpretation of Data

Elementary School Results. Results obtained from the z score analysis of reading score mean gains for students of elementary homeroom teachers showed, with one exception, in vocabulary, that there were no significant differences between teachers' effectiveness in improving reading when tested across the four Tuckman dimensions. Such results could have been anticipated from the structure established in the instructional program at the school being used in the study. Reading improvement, while the responsibility of any teacher instructing the child, would be more directly the product of the reading teacher.

Similarly, the factors found within the teacher-learner relationship as measured within the Tuckman dimensions

TABLE 8

t VALUES ON FOUR HUMANISTIC DIMENSIONS OF THE TTFF

Teacher Observed Humanistic Scores vs. Teacher Ideal Humanistic Scores

Dimension Measured	Observed Humanistic Score			Ideal Humanistic Score			F Values	$S_{D_{\bar{X}}}$	t Values
	Number of Subjects	$\bar{X}$ Scores	S^2	Number of Subjects	$\bar{X}$ Scores	S^2			
CREATIVITY	13	27.20	16.149	14	28.93	16.352	1.013	1.614	1.069
ORGANIZED DEMEANOR	13	33.60	29.116	14	38.00	11.857	2.456	1.798	2.446*
WARMTH AND ACCEPTANCE	13	32.74	27.52	14	37.14	9.265	2.970**	1.701	2.591*
DYNAMISM	13	28.85	28.585	14	28.5	19.964	1.432	1.966	.177

*Significant at .05 Point

**F is significant.

yielded no significant differences in the attendance behavior of these students. Similar results on attendance were found for both homeroom and reading teachers' students. Only one dimension (Table 3) reflected a difference in attendance. In that one case, an extremely high mean number of days absent and an unusually high standard deviation pointed to the possibility of unusual circumstances distorting the data for attendance. The results were not anticipated based upon the expectation contained in the Rogers' position, Purkey's constructs on self concept, and Tuckman's work on the open classroom in that students with more humanistic teachers would reveal more positive self-images and should have enjoyed the school environment and therefore been present more frequently than students of teachers who were less humanistic. The absence of significant results could have been attributed to grouping of students into other teachers' classrooms for part of each day, and the circumstance that elementary students were required to attend school regardless of their attitudes about their teachers. Results obtained support the acceptance of the null form of Hypothesis 2 in that no significant association was found between teacher humanistic characteristics and student attendance.

Conversely, the strong differences found in Gates-MacGinitie mean scores between the reading-group teachers' students on three of the four TTFF dimensions spoke forcefully to the conditions at work in the relationship between the

learner and the teacher. Such results were consistent with arguments set forth by Rogers, Purkey, Bloom and others that improvement in the human condition would be associated with improvement in product or result, which in the present case was academic achievement.

It was noted with interest that in nearly every test made across Tuckman's dimension of Dynamism throughout the study, students tended to produce higher gains where teachers scored lower on the dynamism dimension. It was apparent that some elements within the learning atmosphere which tended to be viewed by the students as forceful, assertive, or aggressive behavior by the teacher may have produced less than optimum learning behavior from students.

The one dimension in the test of elementary reading groups which did not produce significant mean score differences involved creativity. The more creative reading teachers appeared to produce no significant increases in reading gains beyond the less creative reading teachers.

Findings related to elementary reading teacher groups of students were sufficiently strong to have caused rejection of the null form of Hypothesis 1 and the acceptance of the alternate.

Secondary School Results. Because Gates-MacGinitie reading test results were used district-wide for evaluation of Title I student reading progress through the school year, analysis was made first of all teachers' students grouped

across the Tuckman dimensions. Where all students' vocabulary scores were measured, four out of four Tuckman humanistic dimensions produced significant differences. As observed in the elementary sample, the Dynamism dimension indicated the less dynamic (forceful) teachers' students showed the greater improvement in reading results. Nearly identical results were obtained where scores on the comprehension section of the Gates-MacGinitie test were involved. Only the dimension of Dynamism, again, was at variance to the remaining three elements showing no significant comprehensive score difference between teacher groups. These results for secondary students remained consistent with the elementary school findings and consistent with the alternate to Hypothesis 1 that there was a significant difference in learning behavior for students of teachers who were observed to display high levels of humanistic teaching behavior in their daily relationship with their students. The null form of Hypothesis 1 was therefore rejected with respect to the secondary school findings.

Similar analysis was made of the largest single subgroup of secondary Title I students and their teacher utilizing one single form of the Gates-MacGinitie reading test, Form E. With only exception, significant findings were identical to the district-wide, all-student sample discussed in the preceding section. The exception again was found in the Dynamism dimension where the smaller, Form E analysis

generated no significant findings between teachers' groups on either vocabulary or comprehension. At the secondary-school level, a persuasive case could be made as in the elementary school findings that humanistic elements of teacher behavior were strongly associated with student achievement. Gains in student achievement demonstrated through both samples provided a basis for rejection of null Hypothesis 1 and the acceptance of the alternative.

The z score analysis of disadvantaged Title I students when compared to the strength of results for regular elementary students suggested that the humanistic character of the teacher-student relationship had somewhat greater impact on the improvement in academic achievement for students who were in need of remedial instruction.

Teacher Ideal TTFF Score Results. Analyzing the technical results of the test of difference between mean scores for teacher ideal humanistic behavior led to the interpretation that the age and experience of teachers in the study were not significant factors in how a teacher viewed ideal humanistic relationships. These findings required the acceptance of Hypotheses 3 and 4 in the null form.

A different interpretation resulted from the data generated in the test of mean humanistic scores for teachers ideal vs. observed behavior. Two of the dimensions showed strong differences in t values which, while not conclusive, indicated sufficient evidence to warrant the rejection of

hypothesis 5. The meaning of this rejection was that teachers who participated in the study tended to practice humanistic habits and behavior inconsistent with their own view of what ideal humanistic behavior should have been.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary of Problem

The problem in this study was to determine if teacher humanistic behavior in the teaching program was in some way associated with differences in learning behavior of students. A related problem was to determine if a low socio-economic status of students would yield results different from non-disadvantaged students. A third problem was to determine differences between teachers' perceptions of idealistic humanistic teaching behavior and their observed behavior, and to determine if teacher age or experience would yield differences in views of ideal teaching behavior.

Summary of Methodology

Two separate, independent samples of subjects from the Lawton Public School District participated in the study which included 488 students and 20 teachers from regular elementary and Title I secondary classrooms. The procedure began with teachers in each program being divided into either high or low humanistic groups by peer observation scores on the Tuckman Teacher Feedback Form. Student pre and post test

scores on the Gates MacGinitie Reading Test for the school year were used to determine reading score gains for students of each teacher. Analysis of Z-score difference between mean gain scores of the high TTFF and low TTFF teachers completed the analysis. Similar analysis was done for student attendance in the elementary school program. The Title I reading program was analyzed to determine if low socio-economic grouping would yield different results.

The final procedures were completed to analyze possible differences in TTFF scores based upon teacher age and experience, and the last analysis was done to determine if differences between teachers' ideal humanistic behavior and observed humanistic behavior were significant. t tests were used for analysis.

Summary of Hypotheses

The following hypotheses and results were obtained from the present study. Hypotheses were in the null form.

Hypothesis 1. There is no statistically significant difference in achievement between students of teachers scoring high in humanistic behavior and students of teachers scoring low in humanistic behavior in each of four humanistic dimensions.

The null hypothesis was rejected based upon significant findings on several dimensions of the study. The following alternate hypothesis was accepted: There was a statistically significant difference in achievement between students

of teachers scoring high in humanistic behavior and students of teachers scoring low in humanistic behavior. High TTFF teachers, with one exception, had higher achieving students.

Hypothesis 2. There is no statistically significant difference in class attendance between students of teachers scoring high in humanistic behavior and students of teachers scoring low in humanistic behavior in each of four humanistic dimensions.

The null hypothesis was accepted based upon the findings that, with only one exception, all tests of significant difference failed on all dimensions of the study. The exception was high TTFF teachers had more student days absent on the Creativity dimension than low TTFF teachers.

Hypothesis 3. There is no statistically significant difference in ideal humanistic scores between teachers based upon age in each of four humanistic dimensions.

The null hypothesis was accepted based upon the findings that all tests of significant difference failed.

Hypothesis 4. There is no statistically significant difference in ideal humanistic scores between teachers based upon teaching experience in each of four humanistic dimensions. The null hypothesis was accepted based upon the findings that all tests of significant differences failed.

Hypothesis 5. There is no statistically significant difference between ideal humanistic scores determined by teachers and observed humanistic scores determined by peers for those teachers.

The null hypothesis was rejected based upon significant findings in the study. The following alternate hypothesis was accepted: There was a statistically significant difference between ideal humanistic scores determined by teachers and observed humanistic scores determined by peers for those teachers. On two of the four TTFF dimensions, teachers ideal humanistic scores were significantly higher than their observed humanistic scores.

Discussion and Conclusions

Two of the five null hypotheses proposed in this examination were rejected based upon the evidence acquired. Conversely, the research failed to find sufficient differences within the other three areas under investigation to warrant rejection of the null position. Those three research questions which resulted in findings of no statistically significant difference were not considered central to the issue being examined, but were rather designed to establish perspective and provide descriptive data with respect to the more essential activity on-going within the teacher-student relationship.

In the rejection of the first null hypothesis, the data generated from the research strongly suggested that improved academic performance by students was in some way associated with qualities or behaviors brought into the teaching relationship by teachers. How these qualities or

behaviors were so associated, or possibly caused such improvement in the teaching environment, was a potential question for continued research. The investigation done here documented that, to some degree, when those teaching qualities or behaviors were present, a difference in the academic products of students resulted.

It was observed and noted with interest that the Dynamism dimension of the Tuckman instrument tended to be inversely associated with improved student achievement. It was possible that the effects of forceful, aggressive and dominant qualities or behavior of teachers were negative ones in the teacher-student relationship. A second plausible explanation for the inverse findings on the Dynamism dimension was that as the more outspoken, assertive, or extroverted teachers tended to place emphasis and attention upon themselves, they in effect took attention away from the students or the relationship between themselves and their students which resulted in a lower rate of achievement gain in the students' reading skills. The results reflected a high degree of consistency for this dimension throughout the analysis even though it was an inverse one.

Part of the investigation intended to provide an observation of how this association between humanistic behavior and improved achievement would differ with on-level students and those deficient in skills. While differences in results between these two categories of students were not

quantified in the study, there were indications that Title I reading students tended to show somewhat stronger responses to humanistic qualities or behavior by teachers than did non-Title I students. However, both types of students showed significant achievement differences in the analysis between less humanistic teachers and more humanistic teachers as measured by the Tuckman instrument in the study.

The second null hypothesis to be rejected, although results were mixed, established that teachers' ideal view of humanistic qualities or behavior was different from peer observation and scoring of actual behaviors of that same teacher. This finding led to one possible conclusion referenced ealier in this report that the greater the difference between observed behavior and actual behavior, the greater the potential for actual movement by the individual toward that ideal view of behavior. The rejection of the null hypothesis in this area was anticipated. It was concluded that teachers did not perform according to their ideal. Teachers were not made aware of these differences as a part of the present study and it was unclear that teachers would always want to perform according to their own analysis of ideal teaching behavior.

Application of Findings to Theory and Related Literature

Results of the statistical analysis, when taken against background research presented in Chapters I and II,

were of significance and interest. In accepting alternate hypotheses that evidence of humanistic qualities were associated, to some degree, with increased student academic gain, the conclusion was reached that the qualities tested in the Tuckman instrument did make a difference in teaching. Such a conclusion was supported throughout the referenced background research. The statistical dimensions tested in the study, while designed by Tuckman, reflected precisely those components put forward by Rogers for the facilitation of learning. All such components involved attitude and personal relationships between teacher and student. Behavior which demonstrated realness, prizing, acceptance, trust, empathic understanding, unconditional positive regard and congruence appeared to improve academic performance in the present study as Rogers' theoretical construct would have anticipated.

Combs' beliefs about people likewise paralleled Tuckman's dimensions and the findings supported in this study. If teachers were helping, accepting, positive, and open in their relationships with students, and if there was understanding of students' perceptions in the relationship, then the resulting personal meaning for the student would be seen as learning. In a similar way, the study results were consistent with the findings by Purkey that showed persistent and significant relationships between self concept and academic achievement.

Bloom's findings indicated that affective qualities established in a child's early educational years helped determine the student's view of the school in later years and, as such, were a determinant of future achievement. His findings that up to one-fourth of the achievement variation could depend upon the student's affective characteristics were born out in the present investigation. Title I academically disadvantaged students showed strong academic gains where students were associated with teachers scoring high on most humanistic dimensions.

Positive interpersonal relationships have been cited by the NCHE studies, by Bloom, Patterson, and Jarrett as facilitating learning and should be the focus of concern in the improvement of the quality of education. The particular Tuckman dimensions found to be associated with improved learning appeared to be based upon the same positive focus on interpersonal relations.

Differences in teachers' ideal views of humanistic teaching behavior and scores from peer observation were cited in earlier Tuckman research as being associated with change or movement by the teacher toward the ideal and thus, in effect, improving the humanistic qualities of the teacher. While change in behavior of teachers was not the object of the present study, the differences found between teachers' ideal vs. observed humanistic scores were consistent with the previous research findings.

Findings of no difference in TTFF scores for age or experience of teachers in the present study were generally consistent with the research cited. There was, however, some evidence in earlier research that, in some areas of investigation, teaching experience was associated with differences in the teaching output or result being analyzed. Nevertheless, the present findings of no significant differences for age or teaching experience were anticipated where previous research was considered.

In summary, the results and findings of the present study reflected a high degree of consistency with findings or positions taken in the referenced literature and research. Additional areas of research suggested in the present study were closely related to questions developed, or issues raised, in the related literature.

Implications and Recommendations for Further Study

Further replication of similar research questions concerning the relationship between teachers' behavior and student product will be needed before widespread field use of instruments such as the Tuckman form can be used. However, the experience gained in the present study does signal a beginning for the use of low-cost, field-scored systems to quantify one of the most significant factors within the educational realm, that of the humanistic behavior demonstrated by the teacher while teaching.

As reported in earlier Tuckman humanistic research references, teachers' humanistic behavior can be changed through feedback systems. The earlier findings by Tuckman and the present study results suggest improvement in student achievement can be attained quickly, inexpensively, and widely with a minimum of training, time and trauma by educators in the field. The application of theory to field use is possibly the most significant finding in the present investigation. As such, these findings, when added to future results of additional research, lend support to Rogers' concern addressed at the outset of the study that a theory of teaching is needed to go beyond the concepts advocated by learning theory alone.

The following suggestions are offered for future research in the area of the relationship between the teacher and student:

1. Determine more specifically which elements within the concept of humanistic behavior are related to student achievement.

2. Determine the strength of correlation between particular teacher behaviors and student gains in the teaching relationship in order to understand the level of variation associated with the teacher's behavior.

3. Determine the difference in the effect between remedial and nonremedial students and other classifications of

students in the relationship between teacher behavior and student gains, and determine the factors which account for the difference among students.

4. Explore the correspondence between factors in student self concept and factors in teacher humanistic behavior to determine how self concept is involved and altered in teaching.

5. Explore the factors which prevent teachers from performing humanistically in the classroom at the level they see as ideal performance. Why is there dissonance between the two levels?

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