

A PROCEDURE FOR EVALUATING VISTA

PRE-SERVICE TRAINING

by

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Volunteers In Service To America (VISTA) was created as one of the War on Poverty programs under the Office of Economic Opportunity during President Lyndon B. Johnson's administration. With the establishment of this volunteer program, the United States Government increased by millions of dollars its financial investment in training anti-poverty workers. More specifically, VISTA trainees were prepared to work with poor migrant workers, Black and White ghetto dwellers, Indians, Mexican-Americans, Alaskan Eskimos, Chinese, Jews, Italians, and other ethnic and poverty-stricken victims.

After seven years under the Office of Economic Opportunity, VISTA was transferred in 1971, with other federally funded volunteer programs, to ACTION by Executive Order. ACTION was the new federal volunteer agency created by former President Richard M. Nixon to generate voluntarism in the private and public sector nationally and internationally.

Since its inception in 1964, VISTA's key weak link was its unsuccessful effort to provide adequate training for VISTA trainees, according to Balzano.¹ The two primary training problems VISTA faced were: (1) what kind of trainer was most effective? and

¹Michael Pasquale Balzano, Jr., "The Political and Social Ramifications of the VISTA Program: A Question of Ends and Means," (Ph.D. dissertation, Georgetown University, 1971).

(2) what kind of management system for training VISTA trainees was most effective? Various kinds of VISTA trainers and management systems were attempted. Balzano asserted that none were totally successful in terms of meeting the expectations of VISTA trainees and VISTA managers.²

Balzano's study in 1971 had profound impact on the VISTA training program. First, Balzano recommended a complete reorganization of the VISTA training management system. Secondly, following Balzano's appointment as ACTION National Director in April 1973, he discontinued using private consultant firms to train VISTA Volunteers. Thirdly, he developed ACTION's capacity to deliver and manage VISTA training in-house. ACTION's in-house training achieved two objectives. First, it reduced the cost of VISTA training. Secondly, it provided ACTION with complete control over all training activities. However, VISTA managers, trainers, and trainees wanted more data on the quality of the in-house training.³

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to develop a procedure for evaluating pre-service training programs for VISTA trainees.

Secondary purposes of the study were to:

²Ibid., p. 472.

³ACTION, An Evaluation of VISTA Pre-Service Training,
New York, New York, 1976.

1. Identify the training styles of a group of VISTA trainers in Region II.
2. Determine the success of several groups of VISTA trainees in reaching desired training objectives.
3. Determine whether the training style of the VISTA trainers affected the success of the VISTA trainees in reaching the desired training objectives.
4. Compare the VISTA trainers' perception of their training style with a team of expert observers' judgment of the training style of the VISTA trainers.

Significance of the Study

This study was an attempt to provide a procedure and some baseline information for evaluating VISTA pre-service training. Since no valid and reliable procedure existed for evaluating VISTA pre-service training, this study was especially significant for ACTION managers and trainers.⁴ The procedures and findings of this study will be shared with ACTION managers for implementation in all of ACTION's training programs.

The procedure developed in this study was proposed to advance the concept of performance standards for trainers and trainees in ACTION. The procedure was also proposed for use in determining the relationship between the training style of the trainer and the

⁴Ibid., p. 10.

trainees' success in reaching the desired training objectives in VISTA pre-service training programs.

The Research and Evaluation Department of ACTION gathered data on VISTA pre-service training with a national survey in April 1976. The data were gathered on training technology and budget management of VISTA pre-service training. An analysis of the data revealed that no procedures existed to measure whether or not pre-service training made a difference in the trainee's job performance on the VISTA project. The data also indicated that ACTION's ten Regional Training Directors emphasized the need for the development and application of a process for the evaluation of VISTA pre-service training programs. The training directors pointed out the difficulty of conducting meaningful research and evaluation since trainers and trainees resented and resisted participating in evaluation and research projects.⁵ Hopefully, this study will help change the negative attitudes of trainees and trainers toward research and evaluation by gathering meaningful data.

The training style of the VISTA trainer was considered essential to a successful training session for VISTA trainees. Thus, there was a need to investigate the training style of a group of VISTA trainers. By gathering data on the training styles of VISTA trainers and determining the most effective training style, ACTION managers might eventually be able to institute more successful

⁵Ibid., p. 25.

training programs for VISTA trainees. It was speculated that the training style of VISTA trainers correlated with the success of VISTA trainees in reaching the desired training objectives.

Some ACTION managers and trainers perceived that some trainers probably could not accurately identify their own training styles. This was thought to be due to a lack of awareness and concern for the concept of training style on the part of the trainer which reflected on the trainer's overall performance. If a group of trainers was studied, a comparison could be made. The results might encourage trainers to become more aware of their training style. The results of this comparison might also eventually lead to the implementation of training programs for trainers.

This study was also significant to the training field in general since little research had been conducted on trainers. The trainer was the most systematically under-examined subject in the whole field of training.⁶

Research Questions of the Study

The research questions of this study were as follows:

1. Are there differences in the training styles of VISTA trainers?
2. How successful are VISTA trainees in reaching the desired objectives in training classes?

⁶Peter B. Smith, Varying One's Training Style to Take Account of The Setting, School of Social Sciences, University of Sussex, Brighton, England, Interpers. Develop. 3:159-166 (1972).

3. Does the training style of the VISTA trainers affect the success of the VISTA trainees in reaching the desired objectives?

4. Is there a difference between the trainer's perception of his training style and the judgment of a team of expert observers of his style?

Definition of Terms of the Study

Several terms were pertinent to this study. The definition of those terms as they related to the research are as follows:

1. VISTA Trainer: A group leader of training sessions for VISTA trainees.

2. VISTA Trainee: A person eighteen years of age or older approved by ACTION as a VISTA trainee who is trained to work with poor people in poverty stricken communities throughout the United States and its territories.

3. Locally Recruited Trainee: A person who has been recruited locally through a sponsoring agency to serve at that agency.

4. Nationally Recruited Trainee: A person who has been recruited through ACTION's national recruiting system to serve in areas where his or her skill has been requested.

5. Training Styles: Patterns of verbal and non-verbal behaviors of the trainer which are communicated to the trainee.

6. Pre-service Training for VISTA Trainees: Ten days of generic and orientation training for new VISTA trainees.

7. Team of Expert Observers: A group of professional trainers who have been taught how to identify training styles.

Limitations of the Study

The study was limited to ten trainers in two cities in New York during January 1976. The educational level of the trainers ranged from a high school diploma to a Ph.D. Trainers had different social, ethnic, racial, cultural and professional backgrounds, as well as varying years of training experience.

The study was also limited to one-hundred trainees in two cities in New York during January 1976. The trainees varied in terms of education, annual income, work experience, ethnic background and recruitment procedures.

Only one of the objectives of VISTA training was evaluated in this research. The VISTA objective included in the study dealt with the cognitive development of trainees in regard to communications.

Organization of the Study

The literature and research related to the study are reviewed in Chapter 2. Chapter 3 contains the methodology of the study, including a description of the population, type of data collected, a description of the instruments used, and treatment of the data. In Chapter 4, an analysis of the data is presented. The summary of the study, conclusions, implications, and recommendations for further research are presented in Chapter 5.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND RESEARCH

The purpose of this chapter was to examine the related literature and research significant to this study. The background of the study was presented first. Other sections included in the chapter were: the training processes relevant to VISTA training; the effects of the trainer's style on group members in programs outside of VISTA; the effects of leadership styles on group members in programs outside of VISTA; and the use of the Cheffers Adaptation of Flanders Interaction Analysis System.

Background of the Study

Balzano's research was, in part, the basis for this study. As the first to research VISTA training, Balzano sought to answer the question: were VISTA trainees being adequately trained to perform in a manner which would insure the VISTA program success in reaching the economic and social objectives established by its founders? His analysis of the Congressional Hearings on the 1963 proposed legislation for The National Service Corps Act, The 1964 Volunteers in Service To America Act, and the perceptions and attitudes toward VISTA Volunteers by selected officials, and community representatives from areas where VISTA Volunteers served, established conclusive evidence

that the VISTA program was not functioning in 1971 as its founders had intended.⁷

Balzano's analysis of the VISTA Training Management System and VISTA training programs provided considerable evidence to support the position that VISTA training was not providing learning experiences which enabled VISTA trainees to reach the desired training objectives as outlined by VISTA managers.⁸ He also concluded that the reasons for the lack of productivity of the trainees were the unrealistic training processes, the autonomous regional training programs, and the training styles of the VISTA trainers.⁹ However, Balzano did not identify or define specific training styles of VISTA trainers.

Balzano was appointed National Director of ACTION in April 1973. To improve VISTA training, Balzano established a core training curriculum; the capacity to manage and deliver ACTION's own training; and a highly selective in-house training staff in each of the ten ACTION regions. He also contracted with the University of Colorado to provide one year of training and technical assistance to the in-house training staff.¹⁰ His goals were to achieve the social and

⁷Michael Pasquale Balzano, Jr., "The Political and Social Ramifications of the VISTA Program: A Question of Ends and Means" (Ph.D. dissertation, Georgetown University, 1971).

⁸Ibid., p. 112.

⁹Ibid., p. 113.

¹⁰Center for ACTION Research, ACTION Institute for the Trainers-The Report, Document Number 47, January 3-24, 1974, Boulder, Colorado, University of Colorado, July 1974.

economical objectives of VISTA by improving VISTA training by establishing a Corps of ACTION professional trainers with training styles unique to ACTION. Balzano also advocated increased observations of VISTA trainers with respect to their behavior and effectiveness. He concluded that this was necessary to increase the number of VISTA trainees successful in reaching the desired training objectives.¹¹

A team of four consultants conducted an evaluation of ACTION training programs for ACTION Research and Evaluation Department in April 1976. The consultants used the survey techniques to gather data from ACTION's ten regions on training technology and cost per trainee. After the data were gathered, the consultants held a two and one-half day workshop with all of the ten training directors to evaluate the data. The consultants found that there was no uniform approach for delivering and evaluating pre-service training for VISTA trainees. Each region varied in terms of materials, technology, methods of evaluation, philosophy of training and length of the training programs. The data also indicated that the ten regional training directors did not unanimously agree on the need for a uniform approach to delivering pre-service training to VISTA trainees. However, the directors did conclude that there was an urgent need for

¹¹Ibid., p. 35.

the development of a procedure for evaluating all ACTION training programs.¹²

Training Processes Relevant
to VISTA Training

Beginning in the 1960's under such programs as VISTA, Peace Corps, Job Corps, Model Cities, and Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965, the United States government became a big investor in training poverty workers.

One segment of that literature is examined in this section: specifically, those materials which have relevance to VISTA training.

Training for Social Relevance. Training for social relevance originally focused upon the self-actualization of the individual. This included personal interaction which referred to the survival of individuals through encounters between equal persons divested of status differences.¹³ Another process of training for social relevance emerged out of the social justice movement prevalent during the civil rights demonstrations of the fifties and sixties. This process emphasized discipline, militantism, conflict, violence, and direct confrontation.¹⁴ The University of Maryland VISTA Training Center employed certain aspects of this process to train VISTA

¹²ACTION, Report on the Evaluation of ACTION Training Programs (New York, 1976).

¹³Carl Rogers, Carl Rogers On Encounter Groups (New York: Harper and Row, 1970).

¹⁴Saul Alinsky, Rules for Radicals (New York: Random House, 1972).

trainees. Balzano found an unusually high rate of conflict and confrontation in the region served by the University of Maryland. He also found that the University of Maryland dropout rate was higher than any of the other seven VISTA regional training centers. Thus, Balzano concluded that this type of training was not providing the kinds of learning experience that VISTA trainees needed to prepare them for their job assignment. He also concluded that the training style of the VISTA trainer appeared to be a factor in the VISTA trainees' learning achievement.¹⁵

Reality Training. Reality training included responsibility, morality, and identity in activity. The reality training goal was social survival in the process of identity-discovery. Negatively stated, the goal was to avoid being defined as crazy while managing to obtain satisfactory role identification.¹⁶

The reality training process was instituted at the VISTA training center in Georgia. The analysis of the evaluation report by Pond indicated that one-hundred out of one-hundred and fifty VISTA trainees in two training programs said that they did not learn anything from the training. Pond concluded that the training style affected the VISTA trainees' learning achievement in the training

¹⁵Balzano, op. cit., p. 369.

¹⁶William Glasser, The Identity Society (New York: Harper and Row, 1972).

session. He also concluded that the trainees were not learning adequately to prepare them for their job assignment.¹⁷

Boot Camp. The largest training systems belong to the nations of the world. These large training systems prepare thousands of men and women to serve in their armed services. The military training emphasized discipline, repetition, achievement of specific goals, didactic presentation, examples, and exercises. The goals included ideological orientation and a high level of social control for group members. Certain aspects of this training process were implemented at the University of Colorado. Balzano found that this training center had the lowest dropout rate of all the centers. He also found that the VISTA trainees were more successful in adjusting to the ambiguous demands of their job assignments. Balzano concluded that the training styles of the VISTA trainers were factors in the trainees' success. He also concluded that all VISTA training programs should be modeled after the program at the University of Colorado.¹⁸

ADOPT. ADOPT referred to "Achieving Definitive Objectives Through Participative Training." This training process structured and built its training session around the individual needs of the

¹⁷Wally Pond, "VISTA Training Evaluation October 1976 to November 1973" (unpublished, Atlanta, Georgia, 1974).

¹⁸Balzano, op. cit., p. 413.

adult learner. The training system was based on a democratic participative approach. This training process permitted the trainer and the adult learner to dictate the training content and methodology of the training program by exerting their influence and control over the training process.¹⁹ This training process was used to train VISTA Volunteers in the Philadelphia Training Center. An analysis of Curber's VISTA Evaluation Report for the two training classes in 1973 indicated that one-hundred out of one-hundred and fifty VISTA trainees said they liked their trainer and the training session. One-hundred and twenty-five of the VISTA trainees said that they learned something from the training sessions. Curber concluded that the VISTA trainees' feelings about the trainers affected the trainees' attitude toward the training session.²⁰

New Careers Training. The new careers program sponsored by Department of Labor provided job-entry training and structured learning for adults from disadvantaged backgrounds. According to the research, the most effective method of training adults from disadvantaged backgrounds included explaining or demonstrating how a task was done, and then providing an opportunity for the adult learners to do the job under observation. The research also indicated that the

¹⁹F. M. Associates, Ltd., The ADOPT Training Process, A Practical Review Prepared for ACTION Staff Development, Rockville, Maryland, 1971.

²⁰Curber Associates, "VISTA Evaluation Report 1972-73" (unpublished, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, 1973).

personality and character of the trainers significantly affected the adult learners' achievement.²¹

The 1973 Domestic Service Act required that VISTA provide a Career Development Plan for each of its low income locally recruited VISTA Volunteers.²² The VISTA managers adopted the new career training process for this purpose. The goal of the training was to provide job oriented training, counseling, guidance, and support for disadvantaged VISTA Volunteers. The purpose was to prepare them for further occupational advancement prior to their termination with VISTA. The evaluation results of the training program influenced VISTA managers to conclude that the program had not been in operation long enough to determine its effectiveness.²³

The Effects of the Trainer's
Style on Group Members in
Programs Outside of VISTA

Despite a long tradition of research in laboratory settings, few studies have been conducted on the effects of various trainer styles on group members.²⁴ Culbert concluded that the absence of

²¹Avid Y. Pointer and Jacob R. Fiohman, New Careers: Entry-level Training for Human Services Aide, Washington, D.C., University Research Corporation, 1968, p. 65.

²²United States Senate and House of Representatives, Domestic Volunteer Service Act of 1973, Washington, D.C., U.S. Congress, 1973, p. 3.

²³ACTION, Report on Career Development Programs, Washington, D.C., 1975, p. 10.

²⁴Lee Bolman, "Some Effects of Trainers on Their T-Group," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Sciences, Volume 7, Number 3, 1971.

trainer research was due mainly to the complexity of the research topic itself. The complexity centered around the need for a methodological strategy that took into account the particular training orientation being studied. More specifically, he objected to the trainer behavior being researched without specifically considering both the training goals and the process the trainer used in reaching the goals.²⁵

Bolman investigated the relationships among certain dimensions of the T-group trainer's behavior, group members' reaction to the trainer, group climate, and group members' learning. Twenty trainers and one-hundred and eighteen group members were involved in the study. Bolman concluded that there was a set of consistent trainer behavioral patterns which affected group members' learning achievement in human relations laboratories. He found that the trainer empathy and congruence were related to liking for the trainer and the perceived group members' learning.²⁶

In a similar study, Peters' findings supported Bolman's conclusions. Peters found that group members' identifications with the trainers affected group members' learning and personal change in human relations laboratories. Group members with high degrees of

²⁵Samuel A. Culbert, "Trainer Self-Disclosure and Member Growth in Two T-Groups," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Sciences, Volume 4, Number 1, 1968.

²⁶Bolman, op. cit., p. 45.

identification with the trainers reached the highest learning achievement levels and had the greatest increased personal change.²⁷

Lundgren studied two T-groups during a four-day training laboratory. Participating in the study were two trainers, twenty group members, and one research observer. Following each session, the group members, the trainers, and the observer recorded their observations of the session with a checklist using a rating scale. The specific focus of the research involved determining the effects of differing training styles upon the course of T-group formation. One training style was inactive and non-directive. The other training style was active and directive. Lundgren found that group members with the inactive and non-directive style trainer developed a high degree of cohesiveness and productivity. He also found that group members with the active and directive style of trainer developed significantly less solidarity, openness, and productivity. Lundgren concluded that the differences in the developmental patterns and results of the T-group members were due to the contrasting training styles of the trainers.²⁸

Culbert compared the effects of "more" or "less" self-disclosing trainer behavior upon group members of two T-groups.

²⁷D. R. Peters, "Identification and Personal Change in Laboratory Training" (Ph.D. dissertation, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1966).

²⁸David C. Lundgren, "Trainer Style and Patterns of Group Development," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Sciences, Volume 7, November 6, 1971.

Twenty graduate students and two trainers ascribing to similar philosophies on group members' learning participated in the study. The trainers differed only in two experimental conditions which included more trainer self-disclosure in one group and less trainer self-disclosure in the other group. Culbert found that each trainer had a different style of self-disclosing. He also found that each trainer had a different style of conducting his T-group. He concluded that self-disclosure enhanced the trainer's overall effectiveness with group members. Culbert found that more self-disclosing trainers caused group members to accelerate ratings of self-awareness and stimulated them to moving more quickly to their highest potential. He also found that more self-disclosing trainers caused group members to form therapeutic relationships beyond the laboratory structure. Culbert concluded that too much self-disclosure or too much of one or both types of "interaction" of self-disclosure by trainers may result in group members' resistance toward participation.²⁹

The Effects of Leadership Styles
on Group Members in Programs
Outside of VISTA

Most of the research on leadership styles has been done with task groups and T-groups. Lewin and his colleagues were central figures in the early research on such groups. Lewin, Lippitt, and

²⁹Samuel A. Culbert, "Trainer Self-Disclosure and Member Growth in Two T-Groups," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Sciences, Volume 4, Number 1, 1968.

White found that the democratic, authoritarian, and laissez-faire leadership styles produced different behaviors and results in group members. They found that the democratic leadership style could improve the productivity of group members. They also found that democratic behavior could not be taught by autocratic methods. They concluded that even the same group members learned to relate differently when they were assigned a group leader who behaved differently.³⁰ Cartwright and Zanders concluded that subsequent research has supported the findings of Lewin and his colleagues.³¹

Research also supported the hypothesis that the autocratic leadership style was more effective than the democratic leadership style with some group members. Hare concluded that the autocratic leadership style seemed to produce greater quantitative results while the democratic leadership style seemed to produce better morale and qualitative results with group members.³² Fielder found that the directive leadership style was more effective for group members where the situation was either highly favorable or highly unfavorable for the leader, whereas the nondirective leadership style was more effective in the intermediate stage of favorability.³³

³⁰Kurt Lewin, "The Dynamics of Group Action," Educational Leadership, 1944, 1:195-200.

³¹D. Cartwright and A. Zanders, Group Dynamics: Research and Theory (New York: Harper and Row, 1968).

³²A. P. Hare, Handbook for Small Group Research (New York: Free Press of Glencoe, 1962).

³³Fred E. Fielder, A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967).

Shaw and Blum tested Fielder's basic thesis on relative effectiveness of the directive leadership style versus the non-directive leadership style. They concluded that the directive leadership style was more effective than the non-directive leadership style when the task was highly structured, especially when there was only one solution and one way to reach the solution.³⁴

One of the largest studies ever done on encounter groups was conducted by Lieberman, Yalom, and Miles under the auspices of Stanford University. The study was conducted with sixteen group leaders and two-hundred and nine undergraduate students. The study included eighteen encounter groups representing ten approaches to training in personal change. The ten approaches to personal change included (1) two sensitivity training groups following a traditional National Training Laboratory approach, (2) two NTL-Rogerian (personal growth) orientation groups, (3) two synanon groups (4) two transactional analysis groups, (5) two Gestalt groups, (6) two psychodrama groups, (7) two marathon groups, and (8) two leaderless tape groups (using Berzon's Bell and Howell Peer tapes). Also included were (9) one sensory awareness approach group patterned after groups at Esalen and (10) one psychoanalytically oriented group.³⁵

³⁴M. E. Shaw and J. M. Blum, "Effects of Leadership Style Upon Group Performance as a Function of Task Structure," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Volume 11, Number 2, 1966.

³⁵Morton A. Lieberman, Mathews B. Miles, and Irvin D. Yalom, "The Impact of Encounter Groups on Participants: Some Preliminary Findings," The Journal of Applied Behavior Sciences, Volume 8, Number 1, 1972.

All group sessions were attended by systematically rotated observers who made codings of content, working pattern, emotional climate, themes, normative behavior, rewarding and sanctioning behavior, and group leader behavior and style. Questionnaires were administered to determine the group members' roles, group members' cohesiveness, and group members' learning achievements.

Lieberman, Yalom, and Miles found that in all, forty-eight scales of the leader's behavior were rated by observers and group members. By means of factor analyses, these forty-eight categories were reduced to four basic dimensions of leader behavior--emotional stimulation, caring, meaning attribution, and executive functions. These four dimensions accounted for seventy percent of the variance in total leader behavior. By means of statistical clustering, all group leaders in the study were organized under seven group leader types. The seven group leader types that Lieberman, Yalom, and Miles identified were labeled: energizers, providers, social engineers, laissez-faire, cool, aggressive stimulators, and high structure leaders. They concluded that the different leadership styles affected the group members' behavior, emotional climate, learning and productivity in different ways. They also concluded that group leader behavior was associated with differences in casualty and dropout rates, as well as with stability of personal changes.³⁶

³⁶Ibid.

The Use of the Cheffers
Adaptation of Flanders
Interaction Analysis
System

The Cheffers Adaptation of Flanders Interaction Analysis System (CAFIAS) was used with CASES (Spaulding's system of measuring student behaviors in depth) to evaluate an experimental, high-risk training program to help teachers develop and immediately implement humanistic principles of education. Twelve teachers were pre-tested, subjected to the treatment, and post-tested. Videotapes were used to standardize data collection. The CAFIAS observations revealed that the teachers were less dominating in the post-test situations, that students were more active and interacted with each other more, and that there were less direct teacher behaviors. It was concluded that there was a definite change in the affective climate from the pre-test to the post-test situations.³⁷

The CAFIAS was used by Mancini in a study to investigate the effects of teaching models on children. The purpose of this experimental study was to investigate the effects of two teaching models on children's attitudes and their verbal and non-verbal interaction patterns. One teaching approach used was that in which the teacher made all the decisions and in the other, the children were allowed to share with the teacher in the decision-making process.

³⁷J. T. F. Cheffers and V. M. Mancini, Fall River Projected Teacher Training in Psychological Education--An Evaluation, Title III Grant: Project Number 31-73-004-1, Boston, Massachusetts, 1973-1974.

The CAFIAS was used to measure the interaction patterns between the students and the teacher. This system, which had been previously validated and measured for reliability, was used to identify various types of teaching agencies being used, as well as to describe the class structure.

It was also shown from the results of the data collected by the CAFIAS, that there were clear percentage differences in the interaction behavior patterns of the teachers and students in the two groups.

From the over-all findings of the study it was concluded:

1. That children show an increase in enjoyment of a human movement when given decision-making opportunities.

2. That when children are given decision-making opportunities in a human movement program, there is a positive interaction between students and their teachers, an increase in student initiative and contributions and an increase in the variety of teaching agencies.³⁸

Batchelder conducted a study using the CAFIAS in which twenty-five elementary school teachers filled out a questionnaire on their process objectives for a Math, English, and Physical Education class. The subjects were then observed in each of these classes, using CAFIAS as the observation instrument. For approximately 60 percent of the parameters measured in this study, there was no significant difference

³⁸Victor H. Mancini, "A Comparison of Two Decision-Making Models in an Elementary Human Movements Program Based on Attitude and Interaction Patterns," Research Quarterly, 1975.

in either the teachers' objectives or the observed classroom behavior when Math, English, and Physical Education classes were compared. Whenever there was a significant difference, Physical Education was different from either Math or English. There was a significant difference in the teachers' process objectives and the observed classroom behavior on 53 percent of the parameters in Math, on 77 percent of the parameters in English, and on 88 percent of the parameters in physical education. Overall, the subjects in this study were only able to accurately estimate the interaction parameters 27 percent of the time.³⁹

Summary

Included in Chapter 2 was a review of the literature and research related to this study. The background of the problem was presented first which included the basis for the study and the historical development of VISTA training.

The training processes relevant to VISTA training were also presented. This included some analysis and the results of various relevant training processes. The training processes relevant to VISTA training which were included were: training for social relevance, reality training, boot camp training, ADOPT training, and new career training.

³⁹ Ann S. Batchelder, Process Objectives and Their Implementation in Elementary Mathematics, English, and Physical Education Classes, Boston University,

Also presented were the effects of the training style of trainers on group members in programs outside of VISTA. This included a study by Bolman who investigated the relationships among certain dimensions of the T-group trainer's behavior, group members' reaction to the trainer, group climate, and group members' learning. Bolman concluded that there was a set of consistent trainer behavior patterns which affected group members' learning achievements in human relation laboratories.

Other studies which were presented included Lundgren's research which focused on determining the effects of differing training styles upon the course of T-group formation. He compared the results of the inactive and non-directive trainer style with the active and directive trainer style. He concluded that the training style affected group behavior. Culbert studied the comparison of "more" or "less" self disclosing trainer's behavior on group members. He found that each trainer had a self-disclosing style and a particular style of conducting a T-group. He concluded that too much self-disclosure or too much of one or both types of "interaction" of self-disclosure by trainers may result in group member resistance toward participation.

The effects of leadership styles on group members in programs outside of VISTA included the results of studies by Lewin, Lippitt, and White. They concluded that the leadership style affected group members' behavior. Cartwright and Zanders concluded that subsequent research supported Lewins' findings. Hare's, Fielder's, Shaw's and Blum's findings on when the autocratic and directive leadership

style was effective were also included. They also concluded that the leadership style affected group members' behavior. Lieberman's, Yalom's and Miles' study on encounter groups was also presented. They identified seven types of group leaders. They also concluded that the different leadership styles affected group member climate, learning, productivity, and behavior.

Previous research with the Cheffers Adaptation of Flanders Interaction Analysis System was presented. Cheffers and Mancini used CAFIAS to evaluate an experimental, high-risk training program to help teachers develop and immediately implement humanistic principles of education. Mancini also used CAFIAS to measure the interaction pattern between the students and teacher.

The following conclusions based on the related research and literature provided the foundation for this study: (1) No research has been done on VISTA training since 1971; (2) ACTION had difficulty in determining the success of VISTA training; (3) there was a supposition that the training style of VISTA trainers affected VISTA trainees' learning; (4) little research had been conducted on trainers, (5) little research had been conducted on the training styles of trainers; (6) there were recognitions of different training styles of trainers; (7) there was evidence which indicated that the training style of the trainer affected the learning and behavior of the trainees; (8) trainees did learn in training sessions; (9) there were difficulties in determining to what degree trainees were successful in training sessions; (10) there was a recognition of different leadership styles;

(11) there was evidence which indicated that leadership style affected group members' learning and behavior; (12) Cheffers Adaptation of Flanders Interaction Analysis System was used as a research instrument in various ways with learning and experimental projects; (13) various methods could be used to identify the training styles of trainers; and (14) little or no valid and reliable technology and data were available for the evaluation of VISTA pre-service training.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

The methodology of the study is contained in this chapter. Sections are included on the research questions, the locale, the population, the design procedure, and the instruments. The procedures for the collection of the data and the treatment of the data are also discussed.

Research Questions

The research questions of this study were as follows:

1. Are there differences in the training styles of VISTA trainers?
2. How successful are VISTA trainees in reaching the desired objectives in training classes?
3. Does the training style of the VISTA trainers affect the success of the VISTA trainees in reaching the desired objectives?
4. Is there a difference between the trainer's perception of his training style and the judgment of a team of expert observers of his style?

Locale of the Study

The study was conducted within the geographical boundaries of ACTION Region II which included New York, New Jersey, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands. Forty-five VISTA projects were funded annually in urban and rural areas throughout the region. The projects were

developed to eliminate the causes of poverty and poverty related problems in housing, law, education, health, and social services. Approximately five hundred VISTA trainees were trained to work on the various VISTA projects each year. These trainees were taught in six separate training classes throughout the year.

Ninety percent of the VISTA trainees were local community people who were approved by ACTION to work as VISTA Volunteers on projects in their local communities. Most of the locally recruited trainees were high school graduates. They were trained to identify and to solve local problems with local people.

The remaining ten percent of the VISTA trainees were recruited nationally. These trainees were approved by ACTION to work as VISTA Volunteers on projects throughout Region II in communities where their skills were needed. The nationally recruited trainees were college graduates and undergraduates who were trained to transfer their skills and knowledge to community people. The objectives of the nationally recruited trainees were to aid local communities in developing learning skills and techniques to solve local problems.

At the time of this study, there were several thousand practicing professional trainers in Region II. ACTION employed ten of these trainers to deliver training to the VISTA trainees in Region II during a six month period in 1976. The trainers' educational achievements ranged from a high school diploma to the Ph.D. The trainers were professional social services program managers and educators. ACTION considered these professionals to be experienced

trainers with broad training backgrounds. The agency also considered them to be well versed in the various techniques and theories of training. They received their training assignments from the Regional Chief of Training and Technical Assistance Division.

The Population

Ten VISTA trainers were selected to participate in this study. There were no other trainers involved from January 1976 to June 1976, since Region II had no other training programs scheduled during this time. Trainers were notified by mail that they had been selected to participate in the study. (See Appendix A for letter to trainers and Appendix B for instructions for trainers.)

One-hundred VISTA trainees were selected to participate in this study since there were no other trainees involved in VISTA training from January 1976 to June 1976. The trainees were told about the study and their involvement in it when they arrived for training. Each trainer was assigned a group of ten trainees for his training session since it was the ACTION agency policy that the trainer-trainee ratio be maintained as one trainer to ten trainees. (See Appendix C for identification of participants and Appendix D for videotaping schedules.)

The Design Procedure

A pre-test post-test design was used in this study. The steps in the design procedure were as follows:

1. A pre-test was administered to the VISTA trainees to measure their knowledge about communications.
2. The trainees were exposed to one and one-half hours of instruction on communications delivered by the trainers.
3. A post-test was administered to the trainees to measure what difference, if any, was made by the communications instruction.
4. Individual increases (or decreases) in scores were computed and the number of trainees who had improved their scores was determined.

It was recognized that the pre-test post-test design has some weaknesses, but several procedures were employed to minimize some of those weaknesses. Maturation and history are usually cited as two of the shortcomings in this type of design. Van Dalen and Meyer⁴⁰ and Borg⁴¹ suggested that in this type of design there is less opportunity for history and maturation to operate when the interval between the pre-test and post-test is of brief duration. In illustrating the point, Borg gave the example of using movies to change attitudes. He suggested that the pre-test be given immediately before the movie and the post-test immediately after the movie. Consequently, in this study, the pre-test and the post-test were administered on the same day to lessen the influence of outside variables.

⁴⁰Deobold B. Van Dalen and William J. Meyer. Understanding Educational Research, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966.

⁴¹Walter R. Borg. Educational Research: An Introduction, New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1963.

Instrument variables are also recognized as a weakness. To minimize this problem the same questions were used on both pre-test and the post-test.

The Instruments

The instruments used in this study included the training session pre-test and post-test, the Modified Cheffers Adaptation of Flanders Interaction Analysis System (MCAFIAS), and the trainer and trainee characteristics profile.

Pre-Test and Post-Test. The fourteen item pre-test and post-test was developed by ACTION Region II training staff. The tests were used to determine the success of VISTA trainees in reaching the desired training objectives in the training session on communications. The items on the pre-test and post-test were identical. (See Appendix E for pre-test and post-test.)

Analysis System. Amidon and Flanders developed the Flanders Interaction Analysis System (FIAS) ". . . for the observation and analysis of teacher behavior in the classroom and its use in understanding and changing this behavior."⁴² The Flanders system uses only verbal behavior, since the authors assumed that the verbal behavior of an individual is representative of his total behavior.

⁴²Edmund J. Amidon and Ned A. Flanders, The Role of The Teacher in The Classroom, Minneapolis, Minnesota: Association for Productive Teaching, 1971, p. 5.

All statements which are made in the classroom are classified in three major categories, including teacher talk, student talk and a third category which consists of silence, confusion and anything other than teacher or student talk. (See Table 1 for A Summary of Categories for Interaction Analysis.)

Teacher talk and student talk are subdivided into smaller sections. Teacher talk consists of indirect influence which is further divided into (1) accepting feeling, (2) praising or encouraging, (3) accepting ideas and (4) asking questions; and direct influence which is divided into (5) lecturing, (6) giving directions and (7) criticizing or justifying authority. Student talk is divided into (8) responding to teacher and (9) initiating talk. All ten categories in the Flanders system are mutually exclusive.

Cheffers adapted the FIAS to include the non-verbal dimension of classroom activity, as well as modifying and adding to the categories. His system for analyzing classroom behaviors is known as the Cheffers Adaptation of Flanders Interaction Analysis System (CAFIAS). (See Table 2 for A Summary of the Categories of the Cheffers Adaptation of Flanders' Interaction Analysis System.) Flanders' Category 1. was eliminated and combined with Category 3 in the CAFIAS. Cheffers added Category Eine which furnished another dimension for describing student response. In both the FIAS and the CAFIAS, the verbal interactions are coded in the same way with numbers 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10. In the CAFIAS, the non-verbal interactions are

Table 1

A Summary of Categories for Interaction Analysis

TEACHER TALK	INDIRECT INFLUENCE	<p>1. <u>*ACCEPTS FEELING</u>: accepts and clarifies the feeling tone of the students in a nonthreatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative. Predicting or recalling feelings is included.</p> <p>2. <u>*PRAISES OR ENCOURAGES</u>: praises or encourages student action or behavior. Jokes that release tension, but not at the expense of another individual; nodding head, or saying "um hm?" or "go on" are included.</p> <p>3. <u>*ACCEPTS OR USES IDEAS OF STUDENTS</u>: clarifying, building, or developing ideas suggested by a student. As teacher brings more of his own ideas into play, shift to Category 5.</p> <p>4. <u>*ASKS QUESTIONS</u>: asking a question about content or procedure with the intent that a student answer.</p>
	DIRECT INFLUENCE	<p>5. <u>*LECTURING</u>: giving facts or opinions about content or procedures; expressing his own ideas, asking rhetorical questions.</p> <p>6. <u>*GIVING DIRECTIONS</u>: directions, commands, or orders with which a student is expected to comply.</p> <p>7. <u>*CRITICIZING OR JUSTIFYING AUTHORITY</u>: statements intended to change student behavior from nonacceptable to acceptable pattern; bawling someone out; stating why the teacher is doing what he is doing; extreme self-reference.</p>
STUDENT TALK		<p>8. <u>*STUDENT TALK - RESPONSE</u>: talk by students in response to teacher. Teacher initiates the contact or solicits student statement.</p> <p>9. <u>*STUDENT TALK - INITIATION</u>: talk by students, which they initiate. If "calling on" student is only to indicate who may talk next, observer must decide whether student wanted to talk. If he did, use this category.</p>
		<p>10. <u>*SILENCE OR CONFUSION</u>: pauses, short periods of silence, and periods of confusion in which communication cannot be understood by the observer.</p>

*There is No scale implied by these numbers. Each number is classificatory; it designates a particular kind of communication event. To write these numbers down during observation is to enumerate--not to judge a position on a scale.

Table 2

A Summary of The Categories of Cheffers Adaptation of Flanders' Interaction Analysis System

Categories	Verbal	Relevant Behaviors	Nonverbal
2-12	2 Praises, commends, --	Face: Posture:	12 Smiles, nods with smile, (energetic) winks, laughs Claps hands, pats on shoulder, places hand on head of student, wrings student's hand, embraces joyfully, laughs to encourage, spots in gymnastics, helps child over obstacles.
3-13	3 Accepts, clarifies, uses, and develops suggestion and feelings by the learner.	Face: Posture:	13 Nods without smiling, tilts head in emphathetic reflection, sighs empathetically. Shakes hands, embraces sympathetically, places hand on shoulder, puts arm around shoulder or waist, catches an implement thrown by student, accepts facilities.
4-14	4 Asks questions requiring student answer.	Face: Posture:	14 Wrinkles brow, opens mouth, turns head with quizzical look. Places hands in air, waves finger to and fro anticipating answer, stares awaiting answer, scratches head, cups hand to ear, stands still half turned towards person, awaits answer.
5-15	5 Gives facts, opinions, expresses ideas, or asks rhetorical questions.	Face: Posture:	15 Whispers words inaudibly, sings, or whistles. Gesticulates, draws, writes, demonstrates activities, points.

Table 2 (Continued)

Categories	Verbal	Relevant Behaviors	Nonverbal
6-16	<p style="text-align: center;">6</p> <p>Gives directions or orders.</p>	<p>Face:</p> <p>Posture:</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">16</p> <p>Points with head, beckons with head, yells at.</p> <p>Points finger, blows whistle, holds body erect while barking commands, pushes child through a movement, pushes child in a given direction.</p>
7-17	<p style="text-align: center;">7</p> <p>Criticizes, expresses anger or distrust, sarcastic or extreme self-reference.</p>	<p>Face:</p> <p>Posture:</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">17</p> <p>Grimaces, growls, frowns, drops head, throws head back in derisive laughter, rolls eyes, bites, spits, butts with head, shakes head.</p> <p>Hits, pushes away, pinches, grapples with, pushes hands at student, drops hands in disgust, bangs table, damages equipment, throws things down.</p>
8-18	<p style="text-align: center;">8</p> <p>Student response that is entirely predictable, such as obedience to orders, and responses not requiring thinking beyond the comprehension phase or knowledge (after Bloom)</p>	<p>Face:</p> <p>Posture:</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">18</p> <p>Poker face response, nod, shake, gives small grunts, quick smile.</p> <p>Moves mechanically to questions or directions, responds to any action with minimal nervous activity, robot like.</p>

Table 2 (Continued)

Categories	Verbal	Relevant Behaviors	Nonverbal
eine (8) & eineteen (18)	<p style="text-align: center;">EINE (8)</p> <p>Predictable student responses requiring some measure of evaluation and synthesis from the student, but must remain within the province of predictability. The initial behavior was in response to teacher initiation.</p>	<p>Face:</p> <p>Posture:</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">EINETEEN (18)</p> <p>A "What's more, Sir" look, eyes sparkling.</p> <p>Adds movements to those given or expected, tries to show some arrangement requiring additional thinking; e.g., works on gymnastic routine, dribbles basketball, <u>all game playing</u>.</p>
9-19	<p style="text-align: center;">9</p> <p>Pupil-initiated talk that is purely the result of their own initiative and that could not be predicted.</p>	<p>Face:</p> <p>Posture:</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">19</p> <p>Interrupting sounds, gasps, sighs.</p> <p>Puts hands up to ask questions, gets up and walks around without provocation, begins creative movement education, makes up own games, makes up own movements, shows initiative in supportive movement, introduces new movements into games not predictable in the rules of the games.</p>
10-20	<p style="text-align: center;">10</p> <p>Stands for confusion, chaos, disorder, noise, much noise.</p>	<p>Face:</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">20</p> <p>Silence, children sitting doing nothing, noiselessly awaiting teacher just prior to teacher entry, etc.</p>

coded by the addition of the "teen" equivalent of the verbal category. For example, an 8 (predictable student verbal response) becomes an 18 (predictable student nonverbal response). In the CAFIAS, Category 10 is used for confusion and Category 20 for silence.⁴³

Cheffers reported that the ". . . CAFIAS was a valid and concordant instrument when compared with FIAS."⁴⁴ He showed that the CAFIAS performed the task that it set out to perform and that observers using the CAFIAS were concordant beyond the .05 level of significance.

The CAFIAS was modified by the researcher, after requesting and receiving permission from Cheffers, for use with VISTA trainers. The researcher's system was referred to as the Modified Cheffers Adaptation of Flanders Interaction Analysis System (MCAFIAS).

The first modification of the CAFIAS was changing the word, teacher, to trainer and the words, student or pupil, to trainee. The second modification was in labeling categories with names, rather than numbers. For example, Category 2-12 was relabeled "high indirective training style." The third modification was in combining several of the CAFIAS categories. The fourth change was in eliminating the categories which dealt with student behavior, since only trainer behavior was involved in this study.

⁴³ John T. F. Cheffers, Edmund J. Amidon, and Ken D. Rodgers, Interaction Analysis: An Application to Nonverbal Activity, Minneapolis, Minnesota: Association for Productive Teaching, 1974.

⁴⁴ Ibid., p. 54.

The categories of the CAFIAS which were used in this study were: 2-12, 3-13, 4-14, 5-15, 6-16, 7-17, 9-19, and 10-20. These categories were reshaped into six training styles which were labeled: (1) high indirective training style, (2) moderate indirective training style, (3) low indirective training style, (4) high directive training style, (5) low directive training style, and (6) nondirective training style. Table 3 reveals the manner in which the categories were combined and relabeled and Table 4 contains the MCAFIAS.

Characteristic Profile. The characteristic profile was developed by the ACTION Region II training staff to establish a profile of the trainers and trainees. Two forms of the profile were prepared--one for the trainers and one for the trainees. All but five items on the characteristic profile were the same for both trainees and trainers. The trainers' characteristic profile had two different items which included the number of years they had been delivering training and the kinds of training experiences they had. The volunteer characteristic profile had different items which included volunteer status and past work experiences. (See Appendix F for Characteristic Profile Form for Trainers and Appendix G for Characteristic Profile Form for Trainees.)

Collection of the Data

All data for this study were collected in January 1976 in New York City and Buffalo, New York.

Table 3

A Summary of the MCAFIAS Training Styles

CAFIAS Categories	MCAFIAS Training Styles
2-12	High Indirective Training Style
3-13	Moderate Indirective Training Style
4-14	Low Indirective Training Style
5-15	Low Directive Training Style
6-16	High Directive Training Style
7-17	
9-19	Non-Directive Training Style
10-20	

Table 4

The Modified Cheffers Adaptation of Flanders Interaction Analysis System

Training Style Category of VISTA Trainer	Trainer's Verbal Behavior	Trainer's Relevant Behaviors	Trainer's Non-Verbal Behavior
High Indirective Training Style	Praises, commends, -- jokes, encourages	Face: Posture:	Smiles, nods with smile, (energetic) winks, laughs Claps hands, pats on shoulder, places hand on head of trainee, wrings trainee's hand, embraces joyfully, laughs to encourage, spots in gymnastics, helps trainee over obstacles.
Moderate Indirective Training Style	Accepts, clarifies, uses, and develops suggestion and feelings by the learner.	Face: Posture:	Nods without smiling, tilts head in empathetic reflection, sighs empathetically. Shakes hands, embraces sympathetically, places hand on shoulder, puts arm around shoulder or waist, catches an implement thrown by trainee, accepts facilities.
Low Indirective Training Style	Asks questions requiring trainee's answer.	Face: Posture:	Wrinkles brow, opens mouth, turns head with quizzical look. Places hands in air, waves finger to and fro anticipating answer, stares awaiting answer, scratches head, cups hand to ear, stands still half turned towards person, awaits answer.
Low Directive Training Style	Gives facts, opinions, expresses ideas, or asks rhetorical questions.	Face: Posture:	Whispers words inaudibly, sings, or whistles. Gesticulates, draws, writes, demonstrates activities, points.

Table 4 (Continued)

Training Style Category of VISTA Trainer	Trainer's Verbal Behavior	Trainer's Relevant Behaviors	Trainer's Non-Verbal Behavior
High Directive Training Style	<p>Gives directions or orders</p> <p>Criticizes, expresses anger or distrust, sarcastic or extreme self-reference.</p>	<p>Face:</p> <p>Posture:</p> <p>Face:</p> <p>Posture:</p>	<p>Points with head, beckons with head, yells at.</p> <p>Points finger, blows whistle, holds body erect while barking commands, pushes trainee through a movement, pushes a trainee in a given direction.</p> <p>Grimaces, growls, frowns, drops head, throws head back in derisive laughter, rolls eyes, bites, spits, butts with head, shakes head.</p> <p>Hits, pushes away, pinches, grapples with, pushes hands at trainee, drops hands in disgust, bangs table, damages equipment, throws things down.</p>
Nondirective Training Style	<p>Trainee-initiated talk that is purely the result of their own initiative and that could not be predicted.</p> <p>Stands for confusion, chaos, disorder, noise, much noise.</p>	<p>Face:</p> <p>Posture:</p> <p>Face:</p>	<p>Interrupting sounds, gasps, sighs.</p> <p>Puts hands up to ask questions, gets up and walks around without provocation, begins creative movement education, makes up own games, makes up own movements, shows initiative in supportive movement, introduces new movements into games not predictable in the rules of the games.</p> <p>Silence, trainees sitting doing nothing, noiselessly awaiting trainer just prior to trainer entry, etc.</p>

The characteristic profile of the trainer was completed by each trainer during an individual conference with the researcher. Data were requested on the trainers' educational level, ethnic background, age, profession, years of experience in delivering training, and kind of training experiences.

Each group of trainees was assembled at the designated time and place with their assigned trainer for the two hour training session on communications. (See Appendix H for communication content for the training session.)

All trainees were administered the characteristic profile prior to the training session. The characteristic profile of the trainees provided data on the trainees' educational level, volunteer status, ethnic background, age, past work experience, and profession.

After the trainees completed the characteristic profile, the trainees were administered the pre-test to determine how much the trainees knew about communications prior to the training session. After the trainees completed the pre-test, the scene was set to video tape the trainers. Each VISTA trainer was video taped for two hours delivering training in communications content to VISTA trainees. The video tape operators were professionals who earned their livelihood as video tape experts. The settings for the video taping were conference rooms. The post-test was given after the session to determine how much of the content the trainees had learned. The trainer for each group of trainees administered the characteristic profile, pre-test, and post-test to the trainees.

After each trainer was video taped, the characteristic profiles, pre-tests, and post-tests, and the video tapes were collected and placed in a secure area. The video tapes were identified by labeling each with the alphabetical letter assigned to the appropriate trainer. The characteristic profiles and tests of the trainees were identified by labeling the form with the letter given to the trainer prior to the training session.

Treatment of the Data

Videotapes. The video tapes of the VISTA trainers were observed by a team of expert observers to identify the training styles of the trainers. The team included an ACTION manager, an ACTION training specialist, and a free lance training consultant. (See Appendix I for the team of expert observers.)

The team of expert observers was trained prior to the analysis of the video tapes. Two special training sessions were conducted for the expert observers. In the first training session, an exercise was administered to the team of experts for five separate one minute intervals in order to observe the non-verbal and verbal concepts of trainer behavior. In this exercise, the experts practiced observing and identifying the verbal and non-verbal behavior of a VISTA trainer recorded on video tape. This tape was made during an earlier training session in 1974 and was not a part of the present study. The exercise was practiced until there was an eighty-five percent level of congruency among the expert observers. The experts recorded the verbal and

non-verbal behavior using the symbols V and N on a special form (see Appendix J for training recording form) with the aid of an audiotape which had been prepared by the researcher prior to the training session. The audiotape consisted of a verbal directive which instructed the experts to "Mark" every three seconds.

The second training exercise for the team of expert observers was identical to the previous exercise except that the Modified Cheffers Adaptation of Flanders Interaction Analysis System was used. The team of experts observed the same video training tape as in the previous exercise. The team of experts recorded the symbols of the MCAFIAS on the MCAFIAS recording form (see Appendix K for the MCAFIAS recording form every three seconds using the audio signal). This exercise was also practiced until there was an eighty-five percent level of congruency among the expert observers. The 85 percent congruency level confirmed the rater reliability coefficient.

The same format was used for analyzing the videotapes as was practiced in the second training session. The team of expert observers identified the training styles of VISTA trainers using the guidelines of the MCAFIAS. The team of experts observed the tapes simultaneously and recorded their observations individually.

The first ten minutes of each video tape was observed without recording any behavior. This was done so that the experts could orient themselves to the climate, atmosphere, and nature of the interaction in the training session. After the brief orientation period, the observers then recorded the trainer behavior. With the

researcher acting as timekeeper, the experts observed ten minutes and then observed and recorded for five minutes. This pattern was followed for the full two hours of video tape on each trainer so that twenty minutes of each hour were observed and recorded using the MCAFIA symbols.

After the experts finished recording their observations, each scoring sheet was tabulated for the training style of the VISTA trainer. After all the scoring sheets were tallied, they were grouped according to trainer code. Then the data were summarized for each trainer.

Tests. The pretests and post-tests were hand scored by the ACTION Training and Technical Assistance staff using a test key. Equal weight was given to each of the fourteen items on the test.

Because of the extreme variations in education and experience among the VISTA trainees, the ACTION training staff decided that absolute and relative standards on the pre-test and post-test would be inappropriate. In other words, passing scores on the tests would not be determined by high percentages of correct answers, such as in a school setting where scores above 65 percent are passing and those below 65 percent are failing. Neither would passing scores be based on a curve, with all trainees being rated against each other. Instead, it was determined that each trainee would be evaluated on the basis of his own gains. The ACTION training staff determined that each trainee should improve his score by at least five correct

responses between the pre and the post-test in order to reach the desired training objective of the training session.

Several educators, including Ebel,⁴⁵ Payne,⁴⁶ and Ahlmann and Glock,⁴⁷ have discussed growth scores and the rationale for assigning grades based on improvement. Ebel wrote,

Some instructors, seeking to improve the fairness of the marks they issue, attempt to base them on the amount of improvement the student has made rather than on the level of achievement he reached.⁴⁸

Payne also encouraged this practice when he stated,

Assigning marks on the basis of how much improvement a student has shown over the semester holds great intrinsic appeal and intuitively appears to be a fair and unbiased procedure.⁴⁹

The pre- and the post-test scores were compared for each trainee. Then the number of trainees in each group that reached the desired training objectives was determined. These data were later compared to the styles of each trainer to determine if the training style affected the success of the trainees in reaching the desired training objectives.

⁴⁵Robert L. Ebel, Measuring Educational Achievement, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1965.

⁴⁶David A. Payne, The Specifications and Measurement of Learning Outcomes, Woltham, Mass.: Blaisdell Publishing Company, 1968.

⁴⁷J. Stanley Ahlmann and Marvin D. Glock, Evaluating Pupil Growth: Principles of Tests and Measurements, 4th Edition, Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1971.

⁴⁸Ebel, op. cit., p. 502.

⁴⁹Payne, op. cit., p. 186.

Characteristic Profiles. The data gathered on the trainees characteristic profile were summarized in order to establish a profile of the trainees involved in the study. In addition, the data gathered on the characteristics profile of the trainers were summarized in order to establish the profile of the trainers.

Identification of Training Styles. Each trainer was interviewed individually and was asked to identify his style of training using the MCAFIAS. These data were compared with the team of expert observers' judgment of the training style of the VISTA trainer. (See Appendix L for the trainer interview form.)

Summary

This study tested four major questions related to VISTA pre-service training. The questions were: (1) are there differences in the training styles of the VISTA trainers? (2) how successful are the VISTA trainees in reaching the desired objectives in training classes? (3) does the training style of the VISTA trainer affect the success of the VISTA trainees in reaching the desired objectives? and (4) is there a difference between the trainer's perception of his training style and the judgment of the expert observers of his style?

The study was conducted in ACTION Region II. This included New York, New Jersey, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands. The cities selected for the training sessions of the study were New York

City and Buffalo, New York. These were the only scheduled training classes from January 1976 to June 1976 in Region II.

The population of the study included ten VISTA trainers and one-hundred VISTA trainees. A characteristic profile form was administered to both the VISTA trainer and the VISTA trainee. The information on the characteristic profile form was used to establish a characteristic profile on each. The characteristic profile was later used to compare the training styles of the VISTA trainers and the success of the VISTA trainees in reaching the desired training objectives.

A pre-test was administered to trainees before the training session and a post-test was administered to the trainees after the training session. These tests were administered to determine how successful the VISTA trainees were in reaching the desired training objectives. In order to reach the desired training objective, trainees had to improve their post-test scores by five correct responses over their pre-test scores. The test was developed by ACTION Region II Training Staff.

Each VISTA trainer was video taped for two hours delivering training in communications to ten VISTA trainees in small training groups. Each of the video tapes of the VISTA trainers was observed by a team of expert observers to identify the training style of each of the VISTA trainers. In identifying the training style of the VISTA trainer, the team of expert observers used the guidelines of

the Modified Cheffers Adapatation of Flanders Interaction Analysis System.

The results of the test scores were compared with the identified training styles of the trainers to determine if the training style of the trainer affected the trainees' success in reaching the desired training objective.

Trainers were interviewed to obtain their perception of their own training styles. The trainer's perception of his training style was compared to his training style identified by the team of expert observers.

Chapter 4

ANALYSIS OF DATA

This chapter contains an analysis of the data collected in this study. A section on the participation of the VISTA trainers and trainees is also included. The analysis is organized around the research questions.

Participation of VISTA Trainers and Trainees

Ten VISTA trainers were selected to participate in this study. They were selected because they were the only VISTA trainers available since Region II had no other VISTA training programs scheduled from January 1976 to June 1976. Six of the ten VISTA trainers participated in the study. The participants indicated that they did so because they felt that more research was needed in the field of training. Four of the VISTA trainers refused to participate in the study for personal or professional reasons. Trainer A refused to participate in the study because he thought that video taping would interfere with the group process of his group. Trainers H and I refused to participate because they complained that the video tapes might later be used to evaluate their effectiveness as trainers and determine their contracts for employment with ACTION. Trainer J refused to participate because he felt that the study violated the individual private rights of the VISTA trainees.

One-hundred VISTA trainees were scheduled to participate in the study. There were no other VISTA trainees available for the study since only one-hundred VISTA trainees were scheduled for training programs from January 1976 to June 1976.

The VISTA trainees were told about their involvement in the study upon their arrival for training. Each group requested a private meeting with their trainers after they learned about the study. A private meeting was granted for each group of trainees to discuss issues with their trainers related to the study. Each group was given up to one hour for their meeting. After all of the meetings between VISTA trainees and trainers had been completed, fifty-seven VISTA trainees decided to participate in the study as scheduled because they said that the results might help improve future training for other VISTA trainees. Forty-three VISTA trainees refused to participate in the study for personal reasons. Ten trainees in Group A refused to participate because they felt that the study was an invasion of their privacy. Twenty trainees in Group H and I refused to participate because they said that they wanted to support the trainers in their convictions. Ten trainees in Group J refused to participate because they did not want to take the pre-test and post-test. Three trainees in Group D did not attend their training session.

Analysis of Data

Research Question One: Are there differences in the training styles of VISTA trainers?

The training styles of the VISTA trainers in this study were identified by a team of expert observers using the guidelines of the Modified Cheffers Adaptation of Flanders Interaction Analysis System (MCAFIAS). The observers analyzed the styles of the trainers from training sessions which had been recorded on video tape. Table 5 shows the profile of the VISTA trainers and the training styles of the VISTA trainers identified by the observers.

The summary of the data on each VISTA trainer indicated that five of the six VISTA trainers had different training styles. The observers classified the training style of trainer B as being high indirective. The training style of trainer C was identified as non-directive. The characteristic chart of the trainers shows that trainers B and C had different training styles, yet they had very similar characteristics.

The moderate indirective training style was determined to be the training style of trainers D and F. However, the characteristic chart of the trainers shows that D and F were quite different in terms of education, age, ethnic background, profession, and years of training experience.

The low directive style was established as the training style of Trainer E. The training style of trainer G was identified as being low indirective.

Table 5

Profile of the VISTA Trainers and the Training
Styles of the VISTA Trainers

Trainers	Training Styles of the VISTA Trainers Identified by the Team of Expert Observers	Education	Ethnic Background	Age	Profession	Years of Training	Training Experience
B	High Indirective	BA	Blk	36-40	Manager of Program	4-6	Human Relations Sensitivity Training Group Training
C	Non-Directive	BA	Blk	36-40	Manager of Program	4-6	Human Relations Sensitivity Training Group Training
D	Moderate Indirective	HS	Puerto Rican	31-35	Manager of Program	7-9	Human Relations Sensitivity Training Group Training
E	Low Directive	BA	Blk	20-25	Manager of Program	1-3	Skill Training
F	Moderate Indirective	Ph. D.	Jewish	41-45	Educator	4-6	Human Relations Sensitivity Training Group Training
G	Low Indirective	BA	Jewish	41-45	Educator	4-6	Human Relations Sensitivity Training Group Training

The profile of the trainers shows that trainer E was younger chronologically and had fewer years of training experience than any of the other trainers. Further, trainer E's background was not as broad as the other trainers. Trainer G's ethnic background, age, and profession were similar to the ethnic background, age, and profession of trainer F, yet they had different training styles.

Research Question Two: How successful are VISTA trainees in reaching the desired objectives in training classes?

Table 6 shows the pre- and post-test results, gain scores for each trainee in each group, the number of trainees in each group who reached the desired training objective, and the percentage of trainees reaching the desired training objectives in each group. The results of the pre-test administered to each group of VISTA trainees before the training session and the post-test after the training session shows that thirty five of fifty-seven VISTA trainees (61.4 percent) were successful in reaching the desired training objectives since these trainees improved their scores by at least five correct responses between their pre- and post-test scores.

Five or fifty percent of the VISTA trainees in Group B reached the desired training objectives. Four or forty percent of the trainees in both Group C and Group E achieved the desired training objectives. Seven or one-hundred percent of the trainees in Group D reached the desired training objectives. Nine or ninety percent of the trainees in Group F and six or sixty percent of the trainees in Group G reached the desired training objectives.

Table 6

Pre- and Post-Test Results, Gain Scores, Number and Percentage of Trainees Reaching Desired Training Objectives

Group	Pre- and Post-Test	TRAINEES										Number Reaching Desired Objective	Percentage Reaching Desired Objctv
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
B	Pre-Test	8	5	7	8	5	4	6	3	5	9	5	50%
	Post-Test	9	7	11	13	10	5	11	8	7	14		
	Gain Scores	+ 1	+ 2	+ 4	+ 5	+ 5	+ 1	+ 5	+ 5	+ 2	+ 5		
C	Pre-Test	9	2	4	5	6	2	5	6	4	8	4	40%
	Post-Test	10	2	4	11	9	7	0	6	10	10		
	Gain Scores	+ 1	0	0	+ 6	+ 3	+ 5	+ 5	0	+ 6	+ 2		
D	Pre-Test	4	4	8	2	2	2	4				7	100%
	Post-Test	10	12	13	8	7	7	9					
	Gain Scores	+ 6	+ 8	+ 5	+ 6	+ 5	+ 5	+ 5					
E	Pre-Test	0	5	4	2	6	7	6	13	8	6	4	40%
	Post-Test	8	6	11	7	8	12	6	13	8	6		
	Gain Scores	+ 8	+ 1	+ 7	+ 5	+ 2	+ 5	0	0	0	0		
F	Pre-Test	2	8	3	0	8	7	2	3	4	8	9	90%
	Post-Test	7	7	8	6	13	14	8	8	10	13		
	Gain Scores	+ 5	- 1	+ 5	+ 6	+ 5	+ 7	+ 6	+ 5	+ 6	+ 5		
G	Pre-Test	5	11	7	8	4	3	3	5	7	5	6	60%
	Post-Test	11	11	8	14	3	8	8	6	12	11		
	Gain Scores	+ 6	0	+ 1	+ 6	- 1	+ 5	+ 5	+ 1	+ 5	+ 6		

Tables 7 through 12 show the profile of each group of trainees and their test scores.

The five VISTA trainees in Group B (Table 7) who reached the desired training objectives included two Whites, one Black, and one Jew. All were between the ages of twenty-three and twenty-seven. One Italian trainee between the ages of twenty-eight and thirty-two also reached the desired training objectives. The Jewish, Italian, and one White trainee were locally recruited trainees with MA degrees. The Black trainee was locally recruited with a high school degree while the other White trainee was nationally recruited with a BA degree. Those who failed to achieve the desired training objectives in Group B were one Jewish nationally recruited trainee with an MA degree; one Black locally recruited trainee with a BA degree; one White nationally recruited trainee with a BA degree; one Italian locally recruited trainee who completed the eleventh grade; and one White locally recruited trainee with a high school degree. The Black, Jewish, and White trainees were between the ages of eighteen and twenty-two. The locally recruited White trainee was between the ages of twenty-three and twenty-seven while the Italian trainee was between the ages of forty-three and forty-seven.

Four out of the ten VISTA trainees in Group C (Table 8) reached the desired training objectives. Three of these trainees were Black, locally recruited, and high school graduates. The age category for the three trainees was between eighteen and twenty-two, twenty-eight and thirty-two, and thirty-three and thirty-seven.

Table 7

Profile and Test Scores of Trainees in Group B

Trainee	Education	Volunteer Status*	Ethnic Background	Age	Work Experience	Profession	Pre-test Scores	Post-test Scores	Gain Scores
1	MA	NRV	Jewish	18-22	Community Worker	Lawyer	8	9	+1
2	BA	LRV	Black	18-22	Skilled Worker	Teacher	5	7	+2
3	BA	NRV	White	18-22	Community Worker	Legal Aid	7	11	+4
4	MA	LRV	Jewish	23-27	Skilled Worker	Teacher	8	13	+5
5	MA	LRV	Italian	28-32	Skilled Worker	Teacher	5	10	+5
6	11th Grade	LRV	Italian	43-47	Non-Skilled Worker	Cook	4	5	+1
7	BA JD	NRV	White	23-27	Skilled Worker	Lawyer	6	11	+5
8	HS	LRV	Black	23-27	Community Worker	Mother	3	8	+5
9	HS	LRV	White	23-27	Community Worker	Teacher Aid	5	7	+2
10	MA	LRV	White	23-27	Skilled Worker	Teacher	9	14	+5

*Volunteer Status

NRV - Nationally Recruited Volunteer

LRV - Locally Recruited Volunteer

Number of Trainees: 10 Number of Trainees reaching desired training objectives: 5

Percentage of trainees reaching desired training objectives: 50%

Table 8

Profile and Test Scores of Trainees in Group C

Trainee	Education	Volunteer Status*	Ethnic Back-Ground	Age	Work Experience	Profession	Pre-test Scores	Post-test Scores	Gain Scores
1	BS	LRV	Italian	23-27	Volunteer	Teacher	9	10	+1
2	HS	LRV	Black	Above 48	Community Worker	None	2	2	0
3	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Non-Skilled Worker	None	4	4	0
4	HS	LRV	Black	28-32	Community Worker	None	5	11	+6
5	BS	NRV	Italian	23-27	Skilled Worker	Teacher	6	9	+3
6	HS	LRV	Black	33-27	Community Worker	Nurse	2	7	+5
7	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Community Worker	College Student	5	10	+5
8	HS	LRV	Polish	18-22	Skilled Worker	Secretary	6	6	0
9	MA	NRV	White	38-42	Volunteer	Teacher	4	10	+6
10	MA	LRV	Jewish	28-32	Volunteer	Teacher	8	10	+2

*Volunteer Status

NRV - Nationally Recruited Volunteer

LRV - Locally Recruited Volunteer

Number of
Trainees: 10Number of Trainees reaching desired
training objectives: 4Percentage of
trainees reaching
desired training
Objectives: 40%

One White nationally recruited trainee with an MA degree and between the ages of thirty-eight and forty-two also reached the desired training objectives. The VISTA trainees in Group C who failed to obtain the desired objectives included two Black locally recruited trainees with high school degrees. One of these trainees was above forty-eight years of age while the other trainee was between the ages of eighteen and twenty-three. Other trainees who failed to reach the desired objectives included two Italian locally recruited trainees with BS degrees between the ages of twenty-three and twenty-seven; one Polish locally recruited trainee with a high school degree between the ages of eighteen and twenty-three; and one Jewish locally recruited trainee with an MA degree between the ages of twenty-eight and thirty two.

All of the VISTA trainees in Group D (Table 9) attained the desired training objectives. The five Black, one White, and one Jewish trainee were locally recruited with high school degrees. The ages of the Black trainees included two between eighteen and twenty-two, two between twenty-three and twenty-seven, and one between thirty-three and thirty-seven. The age range of the other trainees were between thirty-three and thirty-seven for the Jewish trainee and above forty-eight for the White trainee.

Four out of ten VISTA trainees in Group E (Table 10) reached the desired training objectives. The four trainees were locally recruited with high school degrees. All of the trainees were between the ages of eighteen and twenty-two. The six VISTA trainees in

Table 9

Profile and Test Scores of Trainees in Group D

Trainee	Education	Volunteer Status*	Ethnic Back-ground	Age	Work Experience	Profession	Pre-test Scores	Post-test Scores	Gain Scores
1	HS	LRV	White	Above 48	Skilled Worker	Book-keeper	4	10	+6
2	HS	LRV	Black	33-37	Community Worker	Social Worker	4	12	+8
3	HS	LRV	Jewish	33-37	Skilled Worker	Nurse	8	13	+5
4	HS	LRV	Black	23-27	Non-Skilled Worker	Part-time Student	2	8	+6
5	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Community Worker	None	2	7	+5
6	HS	LRV	Black	23-27	Community Worker	None	2	7	+5
7	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Community Worker	None	4	9	+5

*Volunteer Status

NRV - Nationally Recruited Volunteer

LRV - Locally Recruited Volunteer

Number of Trainees: 7 Number of Trainees reaching desired training objectives: 7

Percentage of trainees reaching desired training objectives: 100%

Table 10

Profile and Test Scores of Trainees in Group E

Trainee	Education	Volunteer Status*	Ethnic Background	Age	Work Experience	Profession	Pre-test Scores	Post-test Scores	Gain Scores
1	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Community Worker	None	0	8	+8
2	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Volunteer	House Wife	5	6	+1
3	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Community Worker	Student	4	11	+7
4	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Non-Skilled Worker	None	2	7	+5
5	HS	LRV	Black	23-27	Skilled Worker	None	6	8	+2
6	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Volunteer	None	7	12	+5
7	GED	LRV	Black	18-22	Volunteer	None	6	6	0
8	GED	LRV	Black	18-22	Skilled Worker	None	13	13	0
9	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Non-Skilled Worker	None	8	8	0
10	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Community Worker	None	6	6	0

*Volunteer Status

NRV - Nationally Recruited Volunteer

LRV - Locally Recruited Volunteer

Number of
Trainees: 10Number of Trainees reaching desired
training objectives: 4Percentage of
trainees reaching
desired training
objectives: 40%

Group E who failed to attain the desired objectives were Black, locally recruited trainees. Of the trainees who did not reach the training objectives, four had high school degrees and two had passed the General Education Development (G.E.D.) test. Five of the trainees were between the ages of eighteen and twenty-two and one was between the ages of twenty-three and twenty-seven.

Nine out of ten VISTA trainees in Group F (Table 11) achieved the training objectives. This included one White and eight Black locally recruited trainees. All of the trainees were high school graduates. Seven Black trainees and one White trainee were between the ages of eighteen and twenty-two. The other Black trainee was between the ages of twenty-three and twenty-seven. The trainee who failed to reach the desired training objective was Italian, locally recruited, a high school graduate, and between the ages of eighteen and twenty-three.

Six out of ten VISTA trainees in Group G (Table 12) attained the desired training objectives. They were Black, locally recruited, and between the ages of eighteen and twenty-three. Five of the trainees had high school degrees and one had completed the tenth grade. The trainees who failed to reach the desired training objectives were Black, locally recruited, high school graduates, and between the ages of eighteen and twenty-two.

Research Question Three: Does the training style of the VISTA trainers affect the success of the VISTA trainees in reaching the desired objectives?

Table 11

Profile and Test Scores of Trainees in Group F

Trainee	Education	Volunteer Status*	Ethnic Back-ground	Age	Work Experience	Profession	Pre-test Scores	Post-test Scores	Gain Scores
1	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Volunteer	None	2	7	+5
2	HS	LRV	Italian	18-22	Non-Skilled Worker	None	8	7	-1
3	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Non-Skilled Worker	Student	3	8	+5
4	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Volunteer	None	0	6	+6
5	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Volunteer	Student	8	13	+5
6	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	None	Student	7	14	+7
7	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Volunteer	None	2	8	+6
8	HS	LRV	Black	23-27	None	None	3	8	+5
9	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Skilled Worker	Teacher	4	10	+6
10	HS	LRV	White	18-22	None	None	8	13	+5

*Volunteer Status

NRV - Nationally Recruited Volunteer

LRV - Locally Recruited Volunteer

Number of
Trainees: 10Number of Trainees reaching desired
training objectives: 9Percentage of
trainees reaching
desired training
objectives: 90%

Table 12

Profile and Test Scores of Trainees in Group G

Trainee	Education	Volunteer Status*	Ethnic Background	Age	Work Experience	Profession	Pre-test Scores	Post-test Scores	Gain Scores
1	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Community Worker	None	5	11	+6
2	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Skilled Worker	None	11	11	0
3	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Volunteer	None	7	8	+1
4	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Non-Skilled Worker	None	8	14	+6
5	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Skilled Worker	None	4	3	-1
6	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Skilled Worker	None	3	8	+5
7	10th Grade	LRV	Black	18-22	Non-Skilled Worker	None	3	8	+5
8	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Volunteer	None	5	6	+1
9	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Volunteer	None	7	12	+5
10	HS	LRV	Black	18-22	Community Worker	None	5	11	+6

*Volunteer Status

NRV - Nationally Recruited Volunteer

LRV - Locally Recruited Volunteer

Number of
Trainees: 10Number of Trainees reaching desired
training objectives: 6Percentage of
trainees reaching
desired training
objectives: 60%

Table 13 shows the comparison between the training style of the VISTA trainers identified by the team of expert observers and the success of the trainees in achieving the desired training objectives. The training styles of the VISTA trainers who were least effective were trainers B, C, and E. These trainers had the lowest number of trainees who reached the training objectives. Only 40 percent of the trainees in Group C, 40 percent of the trainees in Group E, and 50 percent of the trainees in Group B reached the desired training objectives. The VISTA trainer for Group C had a non-directive training style; the trainer for Group E had a low directive training style; and the trainer for Group B had a high indirective training style.

The training style of the VISTA trainer who had moderate success with the trainees was trainer G with 60 percent of the trainees reaching the desired training objectives. This VISTA trainer had a low indirective training style.

The VISTA trainers who had the most success with the VISTA trainees were the trainers for Groups D and F who had the highest number of trainees to reach the desired training objectives. One-hundred percent of the trainees in Group D and 90 percent of the trainees in Group F reached the desired training objectives. Both of these trainers had a moderate indirective training style.

Research Question Four: Is there a difference between the trainer's perception of his training style and the judgment of a team of expert observers of his style?

Table 13

Comparison Between Training Style of Trainers and the Success of the Trainees in Reaching Desired Training Objectives

Trainer	Training Style	Number and Percentage of VISTA Trainees Successful in Reaching Training Objectives		
		Number in Group	Number Passed	Percentage
B	High Indirective	10	5	50
C	Non Directive	10	4	40
D	Moderate Indirective	7	7	100
E	Low Directive	10	4	40
F	Moderate Indirective	10	9	90
G	Low Indirective	10	6	60

Each VISTA trainer was interviewed by the researcher to ascertain his perception of his training style using the guidelines of MCAFIAS. Table 14 shows the comparison between the trainers' perceptions of their training styles and the team of expert observers' judgment of the training styles.

The analysis of the data gathered from the trainers from the interviews with the trainers on their training styles indicated that trainers B, C, D, F, and G identified their training styles as high indirective. Trainer E identified his training style as high directive.

The results indicated that five of the VISTA trainers' perceptions of their training styles were different from the team of expert observers' judgment of their training styles. Only one trainer's perception of his training style was the same as the team of experts' judgment of his training style.

The perceptions of trainers C, D, F, and G of their training styles were different from the observers' judgment of their training style. Trainer B was the only trainer whose perception of his training style was the same as the observers' judgment of his training style.

Summary

This chapter included an analysis of the data collected for this study. Ten VISTA trainers and one-hundred VISTA trainees were selected to participate in this study. Six trainers and fifty-seven trainees participated as scheduled. Four VISTA trainers and

Table 14

Comparison of Trainer's Perception of the Training Style and
Expert Observers' Judgment of the Training Styles

Trainer	Trainer Perception	Expert Observer Judgment	Results
B	High Indirective	High Indirective	Same
C	High Indirective	Non-Directive	Different
D	High Indirective	Moderate Indirective	Different
E	High Directive	Low Directive	Different
F	High Indirective	Moderate Indirective	Different
G	High Indirective	Low Indirective	Different

Same as Team of Expert Observers: 1

Different from Team of Expert Observers: 5

forty-three trainees refused to participate in the study because of personal or professional reasons.

The data were collected and analyzed in relation to four research questions. Research question one was: Are there differences in the training styles of VISTA trainers? To determine the training styles of the VISTA trainers, a team of expert observers identified the training styles of the six trainers by observing them on video tapes and by using the guidelines of the Modified Cheffers Adaptation of Flanders Interaction Analysis System. The team of expert observers identified five different training styles among the six VISTA trainers. The training styles of the VISTA trainers identified by the team of expert observers included the non-directive, moderate indirective, low directive, low indirective, and high indirective.

The second research question was: How successful are VISTA trainees in reaching the desired objectives in training classes?

A pre-test was administered before the training session and a post-test was administered after the training to determine the number of trainees who were successful in achieving the desired training objectives. Trainees were required to score at least five more correct responses on the post-test than on the pre-test in order to reach the desired training objectives. Thirty-five of the fifty-seven VISTA trainees (61.4 percent) were successful in reaching the desired objectives. The percentage of trainees reaching the desired training objectives ranged from 40 percent in two groups to 100

percent in one group. In the other groups, 50, 60 and 90 percent of the trainees reached the desired training objectives.

The third research question was: Does the training style of the VISTA trainers affect the success of the VISTA trainees in reaching the desired objectives? The training styles of the VISTA trainers were compared to the number and percentage of trainees successful in reaching the desired training objectives in each group. The analysis indicated that the trainers with the non-directive, low directive and high indirective training styles were the least effective with their trainees. The trainer with the low indirective training style was moderately effective. The most effective trainers had the moderate indirective training style.

The fourth research question dealt with the differences between the trainer's perception of his training style and the judgment of a team of expert observers of his style. The training styles of the VISTA trainers which were identified by the team of expert observers were compared to the trainers' perceptions of their styles. Five trainers' perceptions of their training styles were different from the findings of the expert observers and only one trainer's perception of his training style was the same as the observers.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This chapter includes a summary of the procedures and findings of this study. The conclusions and implications, and the recommendations for further research are also presented.

Summary

The primary purpose of this study was to develop a procedure for evaluating pre-service training for VISTA trainees. Secondary purposes of the study were to:

1. Identify the training styles of a group of VISTA trainers in Region II.
2. Determine the success of several groups of VISTA trainees in reaching desired training objectives.
3. Determine whether the training style of the VISTA trainers affected the success of the VISTA trainees in reaching the desired training objectives.
4. Compare the VISTA trainers' perception of their training style with a team of expert observers' judgment of the training style of the VISTA trainers.

The study was conducted in ACTION, Region II which was composed of New York, New Jersey, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands. All data were collected in January 1976 in New York City and Buffalo, New York.

Ten VISTA trainers and one-hundred VISTA trainees were selected to participate in the study. Six of the ten VISTA trainers and fifty-seven of the one-hundred VISTA trainees participated in the study as scheduled. Four VISTA trainers and forty-three VISTA trainees refused to participate because of personal and professional reasons.

Arrangements were made for the video taping part of the study with audiovisual technicians in New York City and Buffalo, New York. The video taping in New York City occurred at the New York City Staff Training and Development Center and was done by the audiovisual technicians who were specifically employed to video tape training activities for the New York City Staff Training and Development Center. The video taping in Buffalo, New York, occurred at the YMCA and was done by an audiovisual technician from one of the television stations in Buffalo. The video taping for each training session was conducted in a conference room.

A characteristic profile form was administered to each VISTA trainer prior to the training session. A characteristic profile form was administered to each VISTA trainee after they assembled as a group for the training session.

A pre-test was administered to the trainees before the training session. After the pre-test, each VISTA trainer was video taped for two hours delivering the training session on communications. A post-test was administered to each of the trainees at the completion of the training session.

The Cheffers Adaptation of Flanders Interaction Analysis System (CAFIAS) was modified by the researcher to establish a system to identify the training style of VISTA trainers. The system was referred to as the Modified Cheffers Adaptation of Flanders Interaction Analysis System (MCAFIAS).

At the conclusion of the training session, each VISTA trainer identified his training style using the guidelines of the Modified Cheffers Adaptation of Flanders Interaction Analysis System (MCAFIAS).

After the team of expert observers was trained in the use of MCAFIAS, they observed the videotapes of the trainers and identified the training styles of the trainers.

The team of expert observers identified five different training styles of the six VISTA trainers. The training styles identified by the team of experts included the non-directive, the low directive, the moderate indirective, the high indirective, and the low indirective.

The pre-tests and the post-tests for each VISTA trainee were scored according to the test keys. The gain scores of the trainees were used to determine the number of trainees successful in attaining the training objectives. The results indicated that thirty-five out of fifty-seven trainees (61.4 percent) reached the desired objectives.

The training styles of the VISTA trainers identified by the team of experts were compared with the number of trainees successful in reaching the training objectives in each group. The results indicated that the moderate indirective training style was more effective than

the other training styles. The low indirective training style was moderately effective and the non-directive, the low directive, and the high indirective training styles were found to be the least effective.

The training styles of the VISTA trainers as identified by the expert observers were also compared to the trainers' perception of their own training styles. The results of the comparison demonstrated that five of the six trainers identified styles different from the ones described by the experts.

Conclusions and Implications

Several conclusions and implications were reached by the researcher as a result of this study. They included:

1. Some VISTA trainers and trainees object to being used as research subjects. This conclusion was based on the fact that four of the ten trainers and forty-three of the one-hundred trainees refused to participate in the study for personal or professional reasons. The VISTA trainers who participated in the study did so because they wanted to see more research in the field of training. The VISTA trainees participated because they wanted to improve training for other trainees. Unfortunately, there is a negative attitude toward research by some VISTA trainers and trainees. This may mean that there will not be an increase in the amount of research on the VISTA trainers in the near future. The nature of the research itself makes it difficult to pursue because some trainers and trainees feel that it will dehumanize their personal and confidential relationship. They think that all of their energies should be devoted to helping people

help themselves, and not to research. Thus, the trainers' and the trainees' resistance to research may continue because of the nature of the research. The 1976 ACTION Training Report emphasized the resistance of trainers and trainees to research and evaluation. This report also pointed out the need for a procedure for evaluating VISTA pre-service training. Smith made reference to a similar situation with trainers for sensitivity training. He stated that the behavior of the trainer in sensitivity training was one of the most systematically under-examined topics in the whole field of training. Culbert made reference to a similar problem with T-group trainers. He stated that the absence of trainer research is no oversight, but is the result of the complexity of the research topic itself.

2. Most of the training styles of the VISTA trainers fell into one of the indirective training styles. This conclusion was based on the finding that four of the six VISTA trainers had training styles that fell into one of the indirective training style categories as identified by the expert observers. The styles included the low indirective, the moderate indirective, and the high indirective. This finding suggested that Balzano had developed a Corps of VISTA trainers with similar training styles. This was one of Balzano's main approaches in attempting to improve the quality of VISTA training.

Although the training styles of the VISTA trainers were similar in four cases, only two of the six were the same. Thus, there are different training styles for VISTA trainers which can be identified. Lundgren acknowledged that there were different training styles of

T-group trainers. He identified the active and inactive training styles of T-group trainers and the effects of training styles on T-groups.

3. VISTA trainees are being given the kind of learning experience that enables them to reach the desired training objectives as outlined by VISTA managers and executives. This conclusion was based on the finding that thirty-five of fifty-seven trainees reached the desired training objectives. Each of the thirty-five trainees improved his test scores by at least five correct answers even though the trainees generally expressed dislike for the tests. Many of the Volunteers appear to be frightened of tests since most of their experience with tests has been negative. This was especially true of the locally recruited trainees since most of them were poor, Black or Puerto Rican, and undereducated. Written tests have sometimes been used to deprive them of educational opportunities and jobs. Yet, it appears that the test results were not unduly influenced by the trainees' characteristics.

It appears that slightly more than 60 percent of the VISTA trainees are learning the intended content of the communications training session. This finding refuted Balzano's and Pond's conclusions which were that VISTA trainees were not reaching the desired training objectives as outlined by VISTA managers and executives. It is important to point out that perhaps the differences in Balzano's conclusions and the findings in this study were due to the changes and improvement in VISTA training after

Balzano was appointed National Director of ACTION. It may also imply that other constructive changes have happened to VISTA training as a result of Balzano's study in 1971.

Since VISTA trainers had problems measuring the quality and success of VISTA training objectively, it would appear that pre-tests and post-tests should be used to determine the success of all training sessions. This would give VISTA trainers evidence to support what they are doing. It would also generate solid justification and provide tangible end products for the financial, moral, and professional support of training. The justification and tangible end products may lead VISTA managers and executives to understand and appreciate the value and potential of VISTA training.

4. The training style of the VISTA trainers affected the degree of success of the VISTA trainees in reaching the desired training objectives. This conclusion was based on the finding that trainers with the moderate indirective training style had a higher percentage of VISTA trainees who reached the desired training objectives. The trainers with non-directive and low directive training styles had the least number of volunteers who reached the desired training objectives. This implies that some training styles may be more effective than other training styles with VISTA trainees. Although Balzano, Pond, and Curber did not specifically define or specify the training styles of VISTA trainers, the findings in this study supported their conclusions that the training style of the

VISTA trainer affected the success of VISTA trainees in training sessions.

5. The VISTA trainer's ethnic background and education have little effect on the success of the trainees in reaching the desired training objectives since the most effective trainers had groups different from their own ethnic background. This conclusion is based on the results of the two trainers who had the highest number of trainees reaching the desired training objectives. One successful trainer was a Puerto Rican with a high school degree. His trainees included one White, one Jew, and five Blacks. The other successful trainer was Jewish with a Ph.D. His trainees included one Italian and nine Blacks. All of the Black trainees in this group reached the desired training objectives.

There was a difference in the educational background of the trainers, but their trainee population was similar in terms of education and ethnic background. It appears that good trainers are effective with all groups irrespective of their ethnic, racial, and education background.

6. Most VISTA trainers are unable to identify their own training styles. The conclusion was based on the finding that the perceptions of five of the VISTA trainers of their own training styles were different from the judgment of the team of expert observers. Only one VISTA trainer's perception of his training style was the same as the experts' judgment.

The implications from this finding were that VISTA trainers may not be aware of themselves and their behavior. Other implications of this finding are that VISTA trainers have not been involved in identifying their own training styles. The implications seem to lend support to the belief that the VISTA trainers' perceptions of their behavior may be different from what their behavior actually is. This could mean that the VISTA trainers may be communicating something different to VISTA trainees from what they intend to communicate to the trainees. Thus, the trainees and the trainer may have different perceptions of the trainer's behavior. If this is true, then it could be concluded that the training style of the trainer was interfering with the learning process. By having the trainers analyze and understand their training style, they might be able to improve their effectiveness.

7. The high indirective training style is perceived by most trainers as the most desirable training style. This conclusion was based on the finding that five of the six VISTA trainers identified their training styles as high indirective. It appears that the trainers were taught through the formal education and the socialization process that is more fashionable to be labeled high indirective if one's training style must be labeled. Apparently little thought goes into understanding what the high indirective style means. The high indirective training style also appears to have a different meaning to

different trainers. Yet, some VISTA trainers appear to have blocked out any thought of being anything other than a trainer with a high indirective training style.

The assumption by the trainers that the high indirective training style is the most desirable also gives the impression that the trainers think that this style is also the most effective training style with all trainees in all situations. Since the moderate indirective training style was the most successful in this study, this assumption appears to be refuted.

It also appears that the VISTA trainers may be products of the sensitivity and T-group training period of the 1960's. The National Training Laboratory appears to have had an influence because of the leadership in training over the past thirty years and its great emphasis in the early years of high indirective styles.

Recommendations for Further Research

The training styles of VISTA trainers, the success of the VISTA trainees in reaching the desired training objectives, the effects of the training styles of the trainers in reaching the desired objectives, and the trainer's perception of his own training style were investigated in this study. The investigation of these areas generated several additional questions that were beyond the scope of this study. These questions are recommended for further research which hopefully will provide other data and procedures for evaluating VISTA pre-service training. The recommendations are as follows:

1. An investigation should be conducted to evaluate all the objectives of VISTA training. The question is, how many VISTA trainees reach all the VISTA objectives?

2. A study should be conducted to ascertain whether training style affects both cognitive and affective learning. The question is, how do cognitive and affective learning correlate in VISTA pre-service training?

3. This study should be replicated in other ACTION Regions with a greater number of trainers and trainees. The question is, will the results be similar?

4. Other classification systems for identifying training styles should be developed. The question is, how will other systems compare with the MCAFIAS?

5. An investigation should be conducted to determine the level of cognitive development needed by VISTA trainees. The question is, is cognitive ability related to effectiveness as a VISTA volunteer?

6. An investigation should be conducted which would allow the trainees to participate in identifying the training style of the VISTA trainers. The question is, would the trainees' perception of the training style of the VISTA trainer be the same as a team of expert observers and the VISTA trainers?

7. An investigation should be conducted on the relationships between the characteristics of the trainees who are successful in reaching the desired training objectives and the training style of

the VISTA trainer. The question is, do the VISTA trainees with certain characteristics respond better to certain training styles?

8. An investigation should be conducted with the trainees who were successful in reaching the desired training objectives and those who failed to reach the desired training objectives six months after the job assignment. The question is, are the VISTA trainees who reached the desired objectives more effective on their job assignments than those VISTA trainees who failed to reach the desired training objectives?

9. An investigation should be conducted on the secondary training style of the VISTA trainers. The question is, is the secondary training style a factor in the success of trainees in reaching the desired training objectives?

10. An investigation should be conducted on the effectiveness of VISTA trainers who are unable to identify their own training style. The question is, does the ability of a trainer to identify his training affect his success with VISTA trainees?

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APPENDIX A

Letter to Participating VISTA Trainers



ACTION

REGION II

26 Federal Plaza
New York, New York 10007

November 20, 1975

Dear

You have been selected to participate in a research study on VISTA training. The training will be conducted in New York City and Buffalo, New York. The results of the research study should improve VISTA training. You will be video taped delivering a two hour training session on communications to ten VISTA trainees. Other directions will be presented to you at your individual conference. You are not expected to make any special preparation for your session. You are simply expected to do what you would normally do, and we will tape your session.

The data will be used by the researcher only. The data will be destroyed four months after collection. Your privacy and anonymity will be maintained.

I will call within the next few days to discuss the research, set up the individual conference, and deal with other concerns you may have.

Yours truly,

Hosea Zollicoffer
Chief, Training and Technical
Assistance Division

APPENDIX B

Instructions for Trainers

Instructions For Trainers

In addition to the letters sent to the trainers, a telephone conference was held with each trainer as well as a face to face meeting with each to discuss the training assignment, training session, desired training objectives, the study, and any other concerns of the trainers. The meetings with each trainer lasted fifteen to twenty minutes depending on the trainer's needs for clarification of the training assignment. This was done since it was an expected procedure of the ACTION agency to make sure that the trainers clearly understood the agency's expectations, the procedures, and the desired objectives.

No specific instructions were given to the trainers with respect to their verbal and nonverbal behavior. They were simply instructed to do and say what they would normally do and say to reach the desired training objectives.

Each trainer was given the training session content in communications with the exact time and place of the training session. The training session which was videotaped always occurred after the first day of the training program to allow trainees and trainers to adjust to one another, to the training climate, and to the general training setting.

The training session content in communications included in this study was developed by the ACTION training staff as a part of the ACTION Basic Curriculum which is an ACTION academic training requirement for all VISTA trainees. It was developed by the ACTION

training staff since it was the training staff's responsibility to develop and implement training programs required by the ACTION agency. ACTION required all VISTA trainees to participate in this training session in order to improve their communications skills with people from different cultural, social, and economical backgrounds.

APPENDIX C

The Identification of Participants

Identification of Participants

Each group of trainees was identified by an alphabetical letter from A to J. The trainers were identified by the same alphabetical letter as their trainees. For example, Group A and the trainer for Group A were identified as Group A and Trainer A. Trainees were identified in their group by each trainee receiving a number from one to ten with the alphabetical letter of the trainee's group added. For example, the trainee in Group A with the number one was identified as A (1A). This procedure was established to maintain the privacy and anonymity of the participants. It was used to identify the trainer with his or her trainee group and the trainees in their respective trainee group. It was also done to identify the trainees' scores on the pre-test, post-test, and characteristic profile. This process was also used to identify the training styles of the trainers, characteristic profile of the trainers and the video tape of each trainer.

APPENDIX D

Videotaping Schedule

Videotaping Schedule

<u>Group</u>	<u>Trainer</u>	<u>Date</u>	<u>Time and Place</u>
Group A	A	January 13, 1976	3:00 - 5:00 p.m. Training and Development Center New York, New York
Group B	B	January 14, 1976	3:00 - 5:00 p.m. Training and Development Center New York, New York
Group C	C	January 15, 1976	3:00 - 5:00 p.m. Training and Development Center New York, New York
Group D	D	January 16, 1976	9:00 - 11:00 a.m. Training and Development Center New York, New York
Group E	E	January 22, 1976	9:00 - 11:00 a.m. Training and Development Center Buffalo, New York
Group F	F	January 22, 1976	11:00 - 1:00 p.m. Training and Development Center Buffalo, New York
Group G	G	January 22, 1976	1:00 - 3:00 p.m. Training and Development Center Buffalo, New York
Group H	H	January 22, 1976	3:00 - 5:00 p.m. Training and Development Center Buffalo, New York
Group I	I	January 23, 1976	9:00 - 11:00 a.m. Training and Development Center Buffalo, New York
Group J	J	January 23, 1976	11:00 - 1:00 p.m. Training and Development Center Buffalo, New York

APPENDIX E

Pre-Test and Post-Test Communications Questionnaire

Communications Questionnaire

1. Which one of the following is a basic pattern of action and recreation in the Developmental pattern of communication?
 - A. Inform-Stimulate
 - B. Persuade
 - C. Enforce-Dominate
 - D. Controlling

2. Which one of the four major patterns of communication include the Explore pattern of action and reaction?
 - A. Controlling pattern
 - B. Relinquishing pattern
 - C. Developmental pattern
 - D. Defensive pattern

3. Which of the following is an example of the Relinquishing pattern of communication?
 - A. The individual gives up all or part of his influence to win acceptance.
 - B. The individual attempts to exert his influence on the situation and get people to do what he wants.
 - C. Influence flows back and forth between people, with each participant attempting to contribute his ideas and draw out the ideas of others.
 - D. The individual withdraws from the problem solving process.

4. Which of the following two approaches make up the Relinquishing pattern of communication?
 - A. Flight and Fight
 - B. Persuade and Explore
 - C. Accommodate and comply-submit
 - D. Accommodate and inform-stimulate

5. How would you classify comply-submit?
 - A. Relinquishing pattern of communication.
 - B. Controlling pattern of communication.
 - C. Developmental pattern of communication.
 - D. Defensive pattern of communication.

6. Which of the following two directions can the Defensive pattern take?
- A. Flight and Fight
 - B. Fight and Explore
 - C. Explore and Persuade
 - D. Fight and Persuade
7. Which one of the following responses is an example of the Explore situation?
- A. "What facts are available?"
 - B. "I think it would be possible for us to look at this problem in an entirely different way."
 - C. "The boss wants us to get this order out as quickly as possible."
 - D. "Well, if you'll do me a favor and work with me on this, I'll try to work along with you."
8. Which one of the following responses is an example of the Fight reaction?
- A. "That's not my job."
 - B. "That was a stupid mistake."
 - C. "Well, I don't agree with you, but you're the boss, so that's the way it's going to be."
 - D. "The boss wants us to get this order out as quickly as possible."
9. Which one of the following responses is an example of the Enforce-Dominate?
- A. "Well, I really would like to have this report. So do me a favor and see if you can get it done."
 - B. "The last time we did this your way, we lost several thousand dollars."
 - C. "You don't know what you're talking about."
 - D. "Well, I've done all I can. There's nothing else I can do."
10. Which one of the following situations is most appropriate for the Controlling pattern of communication?
- A. When there is a crisis or an emergency.
 - B. When dealing with a person that is in a highly emotional state.
 - C. The individuals involved do not have all of the facts, experience and knowledge involved.
 - D. When there is a legal, moral, or ethical issue.

11. Which one of the following situations is most appropriate for the Defensive pattern of communication?
- A. When there is a legal, moral, or ethical issue.
 - B. There may be resistance or difference of opinion between the people concerned.
 - C. The other person is highly motivated.
 - D. Resistance to change is low.
12. Which one of the following situations is most appropriate for the Relinquishing pattern of communication?
- A. The other person has most of the facts and experience related to the problem.
 - B. The individuals involved do not have all of the facts, experience and knowledge involved.
 - C. When the individual is frustrated or does not understand the situation in which he is involved.
 - D. Joint commitment is not important.
13. Which one of the following situations is most appropriate for the Developmental pattern of communication:
- A. Joint commitment is important.
 - B. The individual has control of the alternatives.
 - C. The problem is highly personal and not work related.
 - D. When there is a legal, moral, or ethical issue.
14. Which one of the following situations is most appropriate for the Controlling pattern of communication?
- A. Resistance to change is low.
 - B. The other person is highly motivated.
 - C. Joint commitment is important.
 - D. The other person has most of the facts and experience related to the problem.

APPENDIX F

Characteristic Profile Form For Trainers

Characteristic Profile Form for Trainers

VISTA Trainer Identification _____

VISTA Trainee Group Identification _____

VISTA Trainer Characteristics:

1. Educational Background:

- a. High School degree _____
- b. B.S. or B.A. degree _____
- c. Masters degree _____
- d. Ph.D. or Ed.D. _____

2. Ethnic Background:

- a. Black _____
- b. Italian _____
- c. Jewish _____
- d. Puerto Rican _____
- e. Other _____

3. Age:

- | | | |
|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| a. 20-25 _____ | c. 31-35 _____ | e. 41-45 _____ |
| b. 26-30 _____ | d. 36-40 _____ | f. 46-50 _____ |

4. Profession:

- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------|
| a. Educator _____ | e. Sociologist _____ |
| b. Lawyer _____ | f. Social Worker _____ |
| c. Manager _____ | g. Other _____ |
| d. Psychologist _____ | |

5. Number of years experience in delivering training:

- a. 1 to 3 years _____
- b. 4 to 6 years _____
- c. 7 to 9 years _____
- d. 9 or more years _____

6. Kind of training experience:

- a. Human Relations training _____
- b. Sensitivity training _____
- c. Skill training _____
- d. Group training _____

APPENDIX G

Characteristic Profile Form for Trainees

Characteristic Profile Form for Trainees

VISTA Trainer Identification _____

VISTA Trainee Group Identification _____

VISTA Trainee Characteristics:

1. Educational Background:

- a. High School degree _____
- b. B.S. or B.A. degree _____
- c. Masters degree _____
- d. Ph.D. or Ed.D. _____

2. Local or National trainee (How recruited):

- a. Locally recruited trainee _____
- b. Nationally recruited trainee _____

3. Ethnic Background:

- a. Black _____
- b. Italian _____
- c. Jewish _____
- d. Polish _____
- e. Puerto Rican _____
- f. White Anglo Saxon _____

4. Age:

- a. 18-22 _____
- b. 23-27 _____
- c. 28-32 _____
- d. 33-37 _____
- e. 38-42 _____
- f. 43-47 _____
- g. 48 and above _____

5. Past Work Experience:

- a. Non-skilled worker _____
- b. Community Worker _____
- c. Volunteer _____

6. Profession:

- a. Doctor _____
- b. Lawyer _____
- c. Nurse _____
- d. Teacher _____
- e. Other _____

APPENDIX H

Communications Content for the Training Session

Communications Content for the Training Session
Developed by Reynolds Associates Consulting Firm
New York, New York

Communication has been defined as "behavior that results in an exchange of meaning." Words, facial expressions, bulletin board notices and staff meetings are all examples of behavior (something a person does) which transmits feelings, facts and ideas to someone else. Or put in terms of the definition there is some kind of exchange - between sender(s) and receiver(s) - which carries meaning.

Communication processes often result in "communication misfires" or misunderstanding because:

1. the behavior of the sender (expressions, words, ideas) is not clear.
2. or the receiver in some fashion distorts or misinterprets the sender's signal or transmission.

Therefore, the basic definition of communication does not specify "good" or "bad," rather, it indicates that any transmission that results in an exchange of meaning is communication.

The more critical question then is, "What is effective communication?" Our first assumption might well be that an effective communication is one that is understood. Unfortunately, understanding does not always result in positive action. It follows that there must be acceptance of the intent and content of the "message." But even then, the action generated by this understanding and acceptance may be inappropriate. For example, a manager may say to a subordinate: "I want you to reduce costs by 10%." The subordinate may understand and accept the

message. He may then reduce costs by terminating valuable people or by lowering quality standards. The result of his actions may be undesirable in terms of the total situation. Therefore in the final analysis, effective communication is that which results in positive action in line with the needs of the situation. This suggests that the sender and receiver need to do more than give and receive instructions. They must clarify purposes and situational needs. In complex situations there may be a need for a careful examination of goals, alternatives, and the possible consequences of a given course of action.

The manager must therefore choose the appropriate communication pattern for dealing with the specific problems and people involved. How can the manager influence his subordinates and associates in building positive action? How much influence should his associates have? Does he wish to build commitment by providing opportunities for contribution from others--or is he concerned with getting people to conform to a stated policy or rule? Depending on the situation it may be extremely important to draw out the influence (ideas, feelings and experiences) of others. In other cases there may be conflicting views which must be reconciled before those involved are motivated to act. Often the integration of conflicting viewpoints requires two-way influence with an opportunity for persons involved to change their own viewpoint as a result of influence from others or to influence others to change part or all of their viewpoint. And so communication processes are essentially influence

processes. Words, ideas, facts, and feelings are communicated to others in order to influence behavior--to produce understanding, acceptance and positive action.

The Communication Model which follows identifies alternative patterns of influence--their characteristics and consequences. First, four basic patterns of influence will be described:

- I. THE DEVELOPMENTAL PATTERN. Here, influence flows back and forth between people, with each participant attempting to contribute his ideas and draw out the ideas of others. The Developmental communication process involves no attempt by one person to "win" his position, but rather a desire to find the best course of action--a willingness to listen, explore, test out new ideas. Within the Developmental quadrant of communication there are two basic patterns of action and reaction.
 - A. Inform-Stimulate. If an individual is attempting to develop a course of action, build commitment, get understanding, he is willing to give information, contribute ideas, and attempt to stimulate discussion and interaction. One way he can approach the communication situation is to think in terms of what he can contribute, how he can stimulate thinking, how he can challenge other people in a positive, constructive way. Some examples of Inform-Stimulate responses in a Developmental situation are:
 1. "I saw a report the other day that indicated that 20 percent of our customers produce about 80 percent of our volume. I think this has real significance for use on how we're going to market our product."

2. "I notice that turnover is greatest among people with less than two months service. It seems to me that we ought to be able to dig into this problem by figuring out what's happening during those two months and how to improve the situation."
3. "I think it would be possible for us to look at this problem in an entirely different way."

(Note that all of these statements have one thing in common. They aim at developing alternatives, bringing new facts to light, providing information which can be the basis for problem-solving. One approach in the Developmental Quadrant is to give information, inform, stimulate ideas, and develop new possibilities by challenging the status quo.)

B. Explore. The second pattern of Developmental communications is to seek out the opinions of others, explore their ideas, listen with understanding to their point of view. The Developmental communicator can ask questions, mirror or reflect the opinions of others; and indicate support, concern or interest in the contributions and points of view of others. A few responses in an Explore situation are:

1. "How do you feel about this problem?"
2. "Tell me more about your opinion."
3. "What facts are available?"

(Note that all of these Developmental responses aim at finding out more about the other person's point of view, digging out more facts or experience to bring to bear on the problem. Thus, in improving our capacity to be Developmental, search out new solutions and ideas, and solve problems more effectively, we have two basic approaches available to us within the Developmental Communication Pattern. We can Inform-Stimulate or we can Explore.)

II. THE CONTROLLING PATTERN. Here the communicator is attempting to exert his influence on the situation, stay in control, win the argument, get other people to do what he wants. There are two basic patterns for controlling the influence process:

A. Persuade. Here one tries to sell his ideas. We will define persuasion as "pointing out the benefits or advantages of a given course of action." Some examples of Persuade responses in the Controlling pattern of communication are:

1. "If you follow this procedure the way I've outlined it, you'll save money for your department and also get more recognition from top management."
2. "Quite a few people have tried it the way I've suggested, and every one of them agrees that it really pays off--makes the job easier and gives them a lot of satisfaction."
3. "Look, if you really want to get recognition and rewards in this company, it's important to be on time. Believe me, management appreciates people who are punctual and can be relied upon."

(Note that all of these responses try to sell the other person on a course of action or piece of behavior which the communicator thinks is desirable. One thing they have in common is that the person talking knows what he wants and uses a variety of persuasive arguments or incentives to try to convince someone else to go along.)

B. Enforce-Dominate. The second pattern under the Controlling approach to communication is to impose one's views on others--to enforce or dominate the situation. One uses power, authority, or threats to get the other person to do what he wants done. However, even when a person does not have authority, he can sometimes use superior knowledge or threats of undesirable consequences to get people to go along with his approach.

Some examples of the Enforcing or Dominating approach to communication are:

1. "The boss wants us to get this order out as quickly as possible."
2. "If you don't follow this rule in the future, I'll have to take disciplinary action."
3. "The last time we did this your way, we lost several thousand dollars."

(Note that all of these approaches attempt to push or pressure another person into action by pointing out the undesirable results that will occur if he doesn't do what is expected, or as instructed. In the Enforce-Dominate pattern of communication there is almost always a stated or implicit threat: "If you don't do this you'll be fired," or "If you don't do this, you'll lose money,"--or prestige, or some other undesirable effect.)

III. THE RELINQUISHING PATTERN. Here the individual gives up all or part of his influence--usually in order to win acceptance, or to fit in with others. Often, relinquishing or backing down occurs in the face of superior authority or power. The communicator often puts his suggestions or directions in a personal way, since he doesn't like to use authority or "get tough." The process of Relinquishing involves two approaches:

A. Accommodate. In the Accommodating pattern one defers to others, tries to fit in with their point of view without giving up all of one's own ideas or convictions. Some examples of Accommodate responses, in the Relinquishing pattern are:

1. "Well, I really would like to have this report. So do me a favor and see if you can get it done."
2. "Okay, I don't agree with you 100 percent, but I'll certainly try to fit in with your plan. I can't say I'll follow it exactly, but I'll come as close as I can."

3. "Well, if you'll do me a favor and work with me on this, I'll try to work along with you."

(Note that in each of these cases, the individual gives up some of his own convictions or authority to fit in with the opinions of others. He takes a rather "soft" approach, tries to curry favor or win a person over to his side through friendship or loyalty. However, typically, in the Accommodating approach, the individual retains some influence on the situation. He doesn't give it all away but shows a willingness to fit in, adapt, and adjust to others even though not convinced.)

(Also note that changing one's mind or being willing to cooperate with others is not Relinquishing or Accommodating. If truly convinced that his position was wrong to begin with, one may change his mind without losing influence or respect in the situation.)

- B. Comply-Submit. A second pattern for relinquishing influence is to submit completely, or comply with the other person's point of view. This often sounds somewhat like withdrawal--pulling out of the situation altogether. The difference is that when one complies, he is still involved. He is willing to do what is asked of him without putting up any resistance, even though he may disagree. (Here again, it is important to note that agreeing with someone is not the same as complying with him. Compliance describes communication reactions that occur when one is not in agreement, or does not understand the situation, but goes along with it just to keep others happy or because he is afraid to stick his neck out. But he is still willing to act, even though he himself is not convinced.) Some typical Comply-Submit statements in the Relinquishing Quadrant of communication are:

1. "Okay, if that's the way they want it upstairs, that's the way I'll do it. I'm pretty sure I won't have any trouble following through."
2. "Well, I don't agree with you, but you're the boss, so that's the way it's going to be."
3. "Tell me what I can do to help. I'll do anything that has to be done in order to help you over this rough spot."

(Note that in each case the individual gives up all of his influence, shows a complete willingness to comply or submit to the other person. In some cases, these reactions may be from a boss to a subordinate as well as from a subordinate to a boss.)

Here is a statement from a boss to a subordinate: "Now, look, you do whatever you want in any situation that comes along and I'll back you all the way."

This is actually a statement of compliance. When a boss says he'll back the subordinate under any circumstances he is saying, "I will give up my influence on the situation and back you, even though I may not agree with you."

IV. THE DEFENSIVE PATTERN. Here the person withdraws from the problem-solving process. He stops contributing or soliciting contributions to get the job done. The Defensive pattern can take two directions.

A. Flight. A Flight response involves withdrawing from the situation, pulling away from it, being unwilling to contribute.

Some Flight responses in the Defensive pattern are:

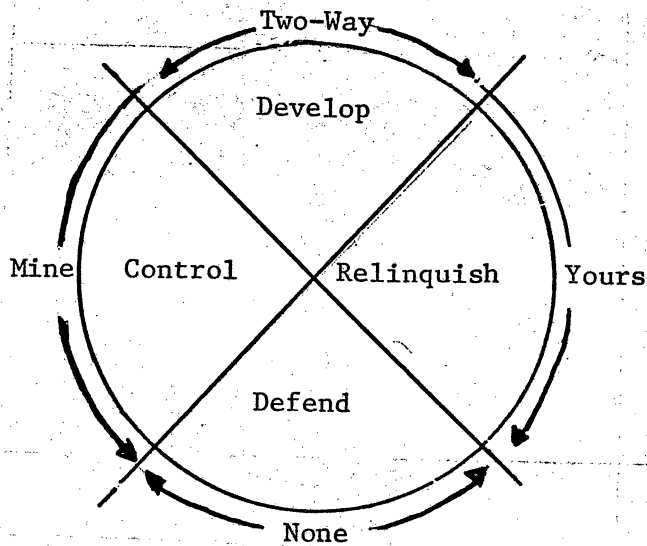
1. "Well, I don't have enough information to discuss that right now. (Of course, this may be a factual statement, but if the person really has information or could contribute his own ideas to this particular situation, it is a Flight response.)"
2. "Well, I've done all I can. There's nothing else I can do."
3. "That's not my job."

B. Fight. This second Defensive reaction is often a bit harder to understand. If an individual strikes out or attacks another person, vents his feelings and emotions, without addressing them to the problem at hand he expresses a Fight reaction. In a sense, he withdraws from the problem and indulges himself in an emotional outburst. One example is the football player who after being tackled pounds the ground with his fist or gets into a fight with another player. This is a Fight reaction. It moves him no closer to the goal but does ventilate some of his feelings and perhaps satisfies some of his personal needs. It does not contribute to the solution of the problem or the achievement of the goal. Here are some typical Fight reactions in the Defensive pattern:

1. "I'm fed up with the way you've been acting. Why don't you straighten out?"
2. "You don't know what you're talking about."
3. "That was a stupid mistake."

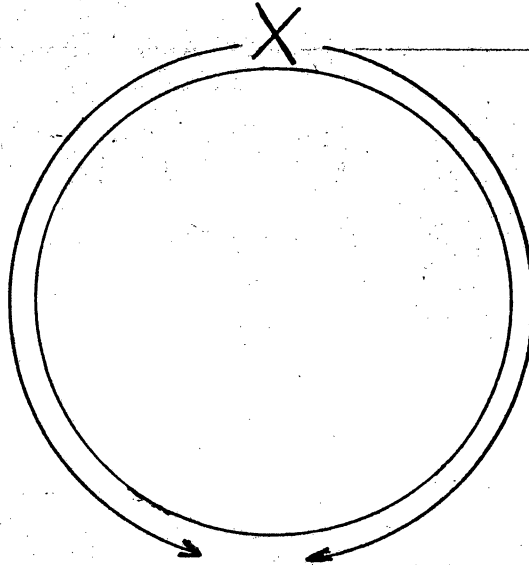
(Note that in most cases these responses are directed at the person, not at the situation or problem at hand. Often they tend to build hostility and defensiveness in the person talked to and rarely contribute to the problem-solving process.)

Whenever two or more people engage in decision-making, problem-solving, performance review, counseling, or any other interpersonal communication process, a flow of influence between and among people is involved. The way this influence process works can be shown with a circle.



The circle is divided into four quadrants, indicating the four approaches to another person:

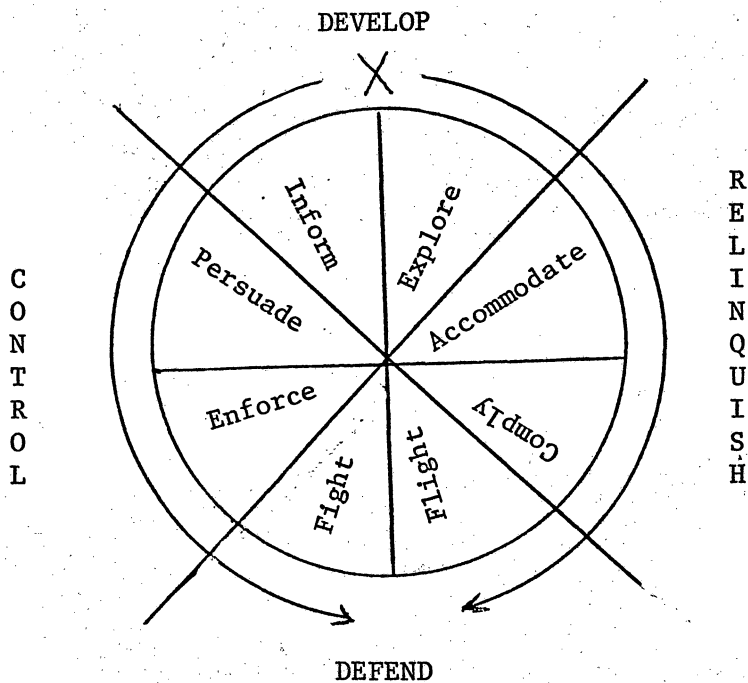
<u>Quadrant</u>	<u>Approach</u>
Control	"I want to have most of the influence."
Relinquish	"I want to give you influence."
Develop	"I want to use my influence and yours to solve a problem."
Defend	"I want to stay uninvolved and neither exert nor respond to influence."



Starting at the top of the circle, at Point X (as an individual enters a situation willing to influence or be influenced), it is possible to chart communication interactions from that mid-point. As a person attempts to have more and more influence on a situation, he moves around the left-hand side of the circle--from Informing or Stimulating to Persuasion (where he attempts to sell his point of view and exert more influence than the other person;) to Dominating or Enforcing where he tries to take over the whole situation, and finally, to Fight, where he stops working on the problem and begins attacking or quarreling with the other person. Thus, from the mid-point at the top of the circle, moving toward the left we see a pattern of increasing influence. Now, starting from the top of the circle and moving to the right, we see a pattern of decreasing influence. At the top of the circle, an individual

is interested in interacting with someone--not giving up influence, but sharing it; and he does this by exploring. However, as he moves in the direction of giving up influence he begins to accommodate, back down, or try to fit in with the other person. As he goes a step beyond this, he moves toward complying, or submitting to the ideas of others--giving up all of his influence and just doing what he's told. And beyond this, he moves toward complying or submitting to the ideas of others--giving up all of his influence and just doing what he's told. And beyond this is the level of almost no influence where he engages in a flight reaction, and ultimately withdraws from the influence process.

So, the communication process can be shown as a circle with each of the steps moving in the direction of more influence or less influence. The circle shown on the following page illustrates another aspect of the influence process:



Finally, one last way of looking at the communication circle is to say that the upper section, the Developmental area, is where people are most concerned with the problem. (What is the situation? What are the facts? How should we bring our knowledge to bear to solve the problem?)

Moving to the left--toward the increasing need for influence in the Controlling quadrant--the people involved are most concerned with solving the problem the way they see it, getting their own way, having things come out the way they think they should.

Moving in the other direction--toward the Relinquishing quadrant--people are most concerned with solving the problem to meet the demands, requirements, and expectations of other people. Thus, the problem becomes less important and acceptance and understanding of the other person increasingly important.

Finally, in the last quadrant, the Defensive quadrant, there is almost no concern with the problem. The individual is primarily concerned with himself. He becomes defensive and either "fights or flees" in the situation.

MANAGEMENT MODELS

APPLICATIONS OF COMMUNICATION PATTERNS.

INTRODUCTION

The basic patterns of communication, as they relate to the influence process, have been described in the preceding section. Below you will find a brief review of some of the considerations involved in determining when a given communication pattern is most appropriate.

THE CONTROLLING APPROACH

You will recall that the Controlling Approach involves putting on pressure, using authority, or attempting to persuade or cajole someone into doing something the way you feel it should be done. Now the question is: When is it appropriate to utilize this approach? First, in general, if one attempts to control a given course of action, to have things come out in a pre-determined way, then it seems reasonable that he should have the facts, information and experience to justify taking this kind of directive approach. For example, a very simple illustration is one in which a supervisor is unfamiliar with a job he is responsible for.

This obviously would not be a time for him to tell someone else what to do, since he might have neither the facts nor the experience to make this kind of judgment. Therefore, frequently when a person moves into a new supervisory job and is not familiar with the jobs under his direction, he uses the Developmental or problem-solving or even a Relinquishing approach. He doesn't tell people what to do since he doesn't have the facts or experience to make this kind of judgment. In selling an idea, or even in the case of a salesman selling a product, it is inappropriate to use persuasion and pressure if you are not familiar with the other person's interests, problems and concerns. Therefore, good salesmen do not attempt to persuade someone to buy something until they have a pretty good understanding of the other person's needs, until they have some facts about the customer's situation so that they know what it is that would best suit the customer's needs. In the same sense, the supervisor who is attempting to install a new system or program needs to have quite a few facts about the other person's experience, point of view and feelings before he begins trying to control this situation.

Therefore, our first conclusion is that the Controlling Approach is appropriate when the supervisor has the facts, knows the situation and has the necessary experience and knowledge to make a judgment.

A second situation where the Controlling Approach is appropriate is when there is an emergency or crisis and action must be taken rapidly. So, for example, if a fire broke out in a given area this would not be

an appropriate time to sit down and develop a jointly arrived at course of action. Directive, controlling behavior might well be more appropriate. Anyone who has the presence of mind and the knowledge to give directions and organize people to fight the fire would be behaving in an appropriate and effective way by attempting to control this situation. Therefore, when there is a crisis or an emergency, Controlling behavior is often appropriate.

A third situation where Controlling behavior might be appropriate is when joint commitment or motivation is unimportant.

To use a very obvious and perhaps unusual example, let's assume a plant is being shut down early and people are going to be allowed to leave before the end of the scheduled shift, but will be paid for their time. Usually, it doesn't take too much discussion or joint problem solving for people to accept early dismissal with pay. Thus, in many cases, when you are giving people information that they need or want or that is positive and useful from their point of view, it is not necessary to develop joint commitment and understanding and a rather direct Controlling approach can be taken.

Recognizing that these are some of the factors which indicate that the controlling approach is useful, we must also investigate what circumstances have to exist in order for that approach to work effectively.

There are two basic ingredients usually required: The first is that to control the behavior of someone, to direct his activities in a

forceful way, we must usually have some authority or control over alternatives. For example, a Controlling or authoritarian approach to someone of equal rank rarely works. You would not go to the department head who works with you and give him a direct order since you have no authority or responsibility over his affairs. Even with your own subordinates, you would not tell them what church to attend or how to deal with their private life, since this is outside of your span of interest or control. However, one of the key factors in modern management is that increasingly our subordinates and employees have greater and greater freedom. Therefore, authoritarian and controlling methods are becoming generally less effective. For example, in the "old days" when there were few jobs around, people could often be treated in a very direct way; given orders, told what to do and if they didn't like it they could be fired. There were always other people to take their place. In today's mobile labor market, people can react to authoritarian treatment by quitting their jobs and working for someone else.

In addition, there are a number of legal requirements regarding the way in which you treat people, such things as unemployment compensation, unfair labor practices, Federal employment legislation, and so on. This means that today's supervisor often does not have control of very many aspects of his subordinate's activities. Therefore, he can rarely rely completely on controlling techniques to induce action and to motivate people.

Most important, it should be noted that even when the boss has control of alternatives from a legal or authority point of view, he still does not have control of the individual's motives, feelings and attitudes. If the subordinate feels over-controlled, over-directed or feels he's being "bossed around," he may find very quiet and subtle ways of resisting. Psychologists have referred to this reaction as "passive resistance." The employee slows down his effort and does as little as possible or perhaps actually engages in work stoppages if he feels over-controlled and over-dominated. So it's often dangerous for the supervisor to assume he has control over alternatives. He should remember that one of the alternatives for his subordinate is to slow down, resist change and become disinterested or uncommitted to his work. Certainly that's one alternative which is hard to control.

In summary then, a brief check list follows which indicates some of the ingredients which should be present if a Controlling approach is going to work. Note that the last item on this list is perhaps the most important one in day-to-day relationships; that is, when resistance to change is high, controlling techniques rarely work. Most of us know from practical experience that when someone is opposed to a course of action we rarely get their commitment and motivation by forcing the change upon them. Usually we have to discuss the problem with them, try to develop better understanding and get them involved. It's more appropriate to try to prepare people for the change and to get their understanding and acceptance of the change before proposing it.

Many managers have learned through experience that imposing unpleasant changes on people often causes resistance to harden and makes it more difficult to get positive results. From a practical point of view, it must be recognized that there are management situations where hard decisions must be made, where changes must be imposed. Nevertheless, in general, controlling, authoritarian approaches are not recommended ways of introducing new ideas into an organization when there is resistance.

Here's the check list:

1. The boss has all or at least most of the facts, experience or knowledge related to the problem at hand.
2. He has control of alternatives.
3. Joint commitment is not important.
4. Speed is important (or there is an emergency).
5. Resistance to change is low.

When most of these factors are present, the Controlling approach may be appropriate. Obviously, the supervisor still has to use personal judgment in determining the nature of the situation but the above check list will provide some guidelines for selecting a controlling communication pattern.

THE RELINQUISHING APPROACH

The process of relinquishing involves giving up influence and reducing one's contribution or role in the situation. It most often occurs when one is concerned about losing acceptance by taking a direct or authoritarian stand. Unfortunately, in many situations, this pattern of

communication is used to avoid unpleasantness or to keep people happy. Rarely is this sufficient reason for a supervisor to act in a relinquishing way.

He needs to be concerned with the goals of the organization, with the specific problems at hand and with the various precedents he may be establishing. In dealing with people he cannot act merely to keep people happy, but must be concerned with the total situation.

However, there are some circumstances under which Relinquishing may be an appropriate pattern of communication. For example, it is sometimes suitable to relinquish influence when the person you are dealing with is in a highly emotional state. Even though you feel he is wrong or misinformed, you may want to go along with him in the short run until he calms down and can be talked to more directly. It is dangerous to always assume that whenever anyone is emotional you should relinquish influence. However, if he is truly disturbed and is behaving in a totally irrational way, it may be appropriate to let him ventilate some of his feelings. Later on you can move in and talk directly about the problem at hand.

Secondly, it's often appropriate to relinquish influence when the other person has most of the information, most of the experience, and most of the facts. Thus, you may be willing to go on "faith" in areas where you have little knowledge or experience. For example, if you need information of a highly technical nature you may "go along with" the views of an engineer or technical person based on the fact that his

experience and knowledge is greater than yours. Obviously, in the long run, you want to learn enough about the situation to make your own judgment, or at least to work jointly with the other person to decide what should be done.

Often in emergency situations or in the short run we may take the opinions of others on faith. Another example of this kind of Relinquishing is in the relationship between a doctor and a patient. When you go to a doctor for advice you may not agree with the advice, but because of his experience, technical knowledge and objectivity about your problems you may relinquish your influence and do what he wants you to do--even though you're not too pleased with his suggestion.

You may also relinquish influence when the situation at hand is highly personal, unrelated to the job, and does not interfere with the work situation. Therefore, when people have home, family or personal problems unrelated to work you may very well exert no influence on the problem and let the other person make the decision without becoming involved. This is not to say that you should not become involved in your employees' personal problems, but rather that the Relinquishing pattern may be appropriate in some situations unrelated to work. For instance, if one of your subordinates was considering a divorce and asked your advice, you might decide it was best for you to express no opinion and exert no influence on the problem. You might not totally withdraw from the situation. You might show interest in his problem and be willing to discuss it with him but exert no influence on his decision.

Finally, when the other person in the situation is highly motivated and there is opportunity for him to get involved and learn from the situation you may relinquish your influence and let him learn by experience. Perhaps he will come up with a creative solution that had not occurred to you. For example, an inexperienced subordinate might come to a supervisor who has been involved in production processes for years with an idea. The supervisor's first reaction might be to exert influence to indicate to the subordinate that the idea had been tried before and did not work out. This might, with a highly motivated subordinate, cause him to assume that his boss is not interested in new ideas. It might also be true that the boss himself is so close to the situation that he isn't really able to be objective about the suggestion. Therefore, it may be appropriate to let the highly motivated or inexperienced person develop more knowledge and understanding through experience without control of influence from his boss. Obviously, this approach would not be used if the subordinate's efforts might be costly, dangerous or clearly misguided.

In review, some of the key factors to consider in judging whether the Relinquishing approach is appropriate are:

1. The other person has most of the facts and experience related to the problem.
2. The problem is highly personal and not work related.
3. The other person is highly motivated.
4. The other individual is highly emotional or disturbed by the problem at hand.

THE DEVELOPMENTAL APPROACH

In a large majority of supervisory situations many of the conditions outlined under Controlling and Relinquishing do not exist. In most cases neither person has all the facts; there are differences of opinion and there is a need to develop understanding through two-way communication.

In most any situation, the supervisor needs the ideas of others. He needs their commitment and motivation. He cannot operate unilaterally if he wishes to build team work and understanding between himself and his associates.

In summary then the key points to consider in applying the Developmental Approach are:

1. The individuals involved do not have all of the facts, experience and knowledge involved.
2. Joint commitment is important.
3. There may be resistance or difference of opinion between the people concerned.
4. There's a need or an opportunity for creativeness or innovation - new ideas are needed.

THE DEFENSIVE APPROACH

There are a few situations where the Defensive pattern of communication is appropriate. Generally speaking Defensive patterns may be appropriate when there is a legal, moral or ethical issue at hand and the individual does not wish to get involved. For example, in discussing a problem with a competitor the supervisor might refuse to comment on a

manufacturing process or marketing practice of his company. He might withdraw from the situation and actually avoid involvement. Thus this would appear to be a Flight response but might well be appropriate in terms of his company's best interests.

Secondly, if a supervisor was approached by a subordinate or some other individual and was asked to engage in a practice which might be illegal, the supervisor might well express a Fight reaction--becoming angry at the person rather than analyzing the problem.

Thus there are a few rare circumstances where Defensive patterns are certainly understandable and perhaps even appropriate. However, these situations rarely emerge between boss and subordinate. In passing, however, it probably needs to be clear that supervisors, managers and executives are "after all" human. They sometimes engage in non-productive behavior and do have emotional reactions. It is certainly desirable for a supervisor to avoid losing his temper. However, if such an incident occurs, he should at least be willing to come back to the situation and try to achieve a better understanding with those involved.

Similarly, he must, in dealing with others, develop a capacity to be somewhat tolerant of human reactions. He needs to recognize that when people are frustrated or when they misunderstand some of the problems around them, they may well engage in Defensive (Fight or Flight) reactions.

Thus, although it is generally undesirable to utilize Withdrawal communication patterns, the situation where they are most likely to occur are:

1. When there is a legal, moral, or ethical issue.
2. When the individual is frustrated or does not understand the situation in which he is involved.

SUMMARY

Whenever we interact with people, our communications fall into a pattern. When speed is important, when we have the knowledge and experience to "call the shots," the Controlling pattern of communication is often effective. However, we have to recognize that when we control, we often cut off the other fellow's idea. We also run the risk of burying any resistance he has. Resistance has a way of bouncing back if the other fellow feels pressured. So, the best time to control is when we are sure we're right and when the other fellow is not resistant. On the other hand, when the other fellow has most of the facts and knows what's required, we may Relinquish influence. Rarely is it desirable to withdraw, but we should appreciate that Fight and Flight reactions are normal and should be responded to with understanding. Finally, the Developmental Approach is often useful in supervising situations where you are trying to identify causes of resistance to change or to work out joint solutions to produce high quality results and high motivation.

APPENDIX I

Team of Expert Observers

A. Team of Expert Observers

The following professional trainers were selected as members of the team of expert observers

1. Maria Perez, M.A., Education
Training Specialist
ACTION
New York, New York
2. Dr. Margaret Green, Ph.D., Education
Dean of Student Services
City University of New York
New York, New York
3. Ronald J. Johnson, B.A.
Director of Operations
ACTION
New York, New York

B. The professional trainers were selected as members of the team of expert observers because of the following:

1. Formal training and experience in verbal and nonverbal behavior.
2. Formal training and experience in group processes.
3. Formal training and experience in group dynamics.
4. Formal training and experience in theories and techniques of training and adult learning.
5. Each trained VISTA trainees for one year or more.
6. Each had been exposed to several approaches to training.
7. Each was a trained and skilled observer in human behavior.
8. Each had a background on the VISTA training and the VISTA program.
9. Each had been rated as superior trainers by consultant firms' supervisors.
10. Each was a trainer observer in interaction analysis.
11. Each had at least five years of professional training experience.
12. Each was interested in advancing the training style concept.

APPENDIX J

Training Recording Form

Training Recording FormVerbal and Nonverbal Concepts

Observer _____ Date _____

Observational Code

V - Verbal Interaction
 N - Non-verbal Interaction,
 Exchange of Gestures

3	6	9	12	15	18	21	24	27	30
33	36	39	42	45	48	51	54	57	60

3	6	9	12	15	18	21	24	27	30
33	36	39	42	45	48	51	54	57	60

3	6	9	12	15	18	21	24	27	30
33	36	39	42	45	48	51	54	57	60

3	6	9	12	15	18	21	24	27	30
33	36	39	42	45	48	51	54	57	60

3	6	9	12	15	18	21	24	27	30
33	36	39	42	45	48	51	54	57	60

APPENDIX K

Modified Cheffers Adaptation of Flanders Interaction
Analysis System Recording Form

Modified Cheffers Adaptation of Flanders Interaction Analysis System Recording Form

VISTA Trainer _____
 Identification _____

Trainee Group _____

<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Nonverbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Nonverbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Nonverbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Nonverbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Nonverbal</u>
01	_____	21	_____	41	_____	61	_____	81	_____
02	_____	22	_____	42	_____	62	_____	82	_____
03	_____	23	_____	43	_____	63	_____	83	_____
04	_____	24	_____	44	_____	64	_____	84	_____
05	_____	25	_____	45	_____	65	_____	85	_____
06	_____	26	_____	46	_____	66	_____	86	_____
07	_____	27	_____	47	_____	67	_____	87	_____
08	_____	28	_____	48	_____	68	_____	88	_____
09	_____	29	_____	49	_____	69	_____	89	_____
10	_____	30	_____	50	_____	70	_____	90	_____
11	_____	31	_____	51	_____	71	_____	91	_____
12	_____	32	_____	52	_____	72	_____	92	_____
13	_____	33	_____	53	_____	73	_____	93	_____
14	_____	34	_____	54	_____	74	_____	94	_____
15	_____	35	_____	55	_____	75	_____	95	_____
16	_____	36	_____	56	_____	76	_____	96	_____
17	_____	37	_____	57	_____	77	_____	97	_____
18	_____	38	_____	58	_____	78	_____	98	_____
19	_____	39	_____	59	_____	79	_____	99	_____
20	_____	40	_____	60	_____	80	_____	100	_____

APPENDIX N

Trainer Interview Form

Trainer Interview FormObjective:

To obtain the perception of the participating trainer's style of delivering training.

<u>Time</u>	<u>Method</u>	<u>Interview Expectation</u>
10 Minutes	Researcher will explain broad purpose of the interview and describe each training style.	The trainer will understand the purpose of the interview and each of the training styles.
	Researcher will ask the trainer to think about the training style and repeat the description of the training.	The trainer will think about his own training style and then indicate what the trainer thinks his training style is to the researcher.

The results of the interview should produce the following:

The trainer's perception of his own style of training.

Trainer's perception of own training style

1. High Indirective _____
2. Moderate Indirective _____
3. Low Indirective _____
4. Low Directive _____
5. High Directive _____
6. Nondirective _____

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A PROCEDURE FOR EVALUATING VISTA
PRE-SERVICE TRAINING

by

Hosea Zollicoffer

(ABSTRACT)

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of the study was to develop a procedure for evaluating pre-service training programs for VISTA trainees.

Secondary purposes of the study were to:

1. Identify the training styles of a group of VISTA trainers in Region II.
2. Determine the success of several groups of VISTA trainees in reaching the desired training objectives.
3. Determine whether the training style of the VISTA trainers affected the success of the VISTA trainees in reaching the desired training objectives.
4. Compare the VISTA trainers' perceptions of their training style with a team of expert observers' judgment of the training style of the VISTA trainers.

Methodology

The data were collected in January 1976 in New York City and Buffalo, New York. Six VISTA trainers and fifty-seven VISTA trainees participated in the study.

Each VISTA trainer was video taped delivering a two hour training session on communications to VISTA trainees in small groups. Pre-tests were administered to the trainees before the training and post-tests were administered to the trainees after the training session to determine the number of trainees who were successful in reaching the desired training objectives.

A characteristic profile was established on each VISTA trainer and trainee by requesting them to complete a characteristic profile form.

At the conclusion of the training session, VISTA trainers were asked to identify their training style using the guidelines of the Modified Cheffers Adaptation or Flanders Interaction Analysis System (MCAFIAS). The MCAFIAS was a modification of the Cheffers Adaptation of Flanders Interaction Analysis System (CAFIAS). A team of expert observers was trained in the use of the MCAFIAS. The expert observers identified the training styles of the VISTA trainers by analyzing the training style of each VISTA trainer in the two hour video taped training session, using the guidelines of MCAFIAS.

Findings

Research Question One: Are there differences in the training styles of VISTA trainers? The team of expert observers identified five different training styles of the six VISTA trainers. They were the high indirective, moderate indirective, low indirective, low directive, and nondirective.

Research Question Two: How successful are VISTA trainees in reaching the desired objectives in training classes? The results of the pre-test administered to each group of VISTA trainees before the training session and the post-test after the training session indicated that thirty-five out of fifty-seven VISTA trainees (61.4 percent) were successful in reaching the desired objectives.

Research Question Three: Does the training style of the VISTA trainers affect the success of the VISTA trainees in reaching the desired objectives? The comparison between the training style of the VISTA trainer identified by the team of expert observers and the percentages of trainees successful in reaching the desired training objectives indicated that the non-directive, low directive, and high indirective training styles were the least effective training styles. The low indirective training style was moderately effective. The most effective was the moderate indirective training style.

Research Question Four: Is there a difference between the trainer's perception of his training style and the judgment of a team of expert observers' of his style? The comparison between the trainers' perception of their training styles and the team of expert observers' judgment of training style of the trainers indicated that five of six VISTA trainers' perceptions of their training styles were different from the team of expert observers' judgment of their training styles.

Conclusions

1. Some VISTA trainers and trainees object to participating in research studies.
2. Most of the training styles of the VISTA trainers fell into one of the indirective training styles.
3. VISTA trainees are being given the kind of learning experience that enables them to reach the desired training objectives as outlined by VISTA managers and executives.
4. The training style of the VISTA trainers affects the success of the VISTA trainees in reaching the desired training objectives.
5. The VISTA trainer's ethnic background and education have little effect on the success of the trainees in reaching the desired training objectives since the most effective trainers had a group different from their own ethnic background.
6. Most VISTA trainers are unable to identify their own training styles.
7. The high indirective training style is perceived by most trainers as the most desirable training style.