

AN INVESTIGATION OF VARIOUS STRATEGIES FOR CONDUCTING
A FRESHMAN SEMINAR IN AFFECTIVE EDUCATION

by 6721

SARAH LYNNE MCMAHON

B. A., Southern Methodist University, 1961

A MASTER'S THESIS

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

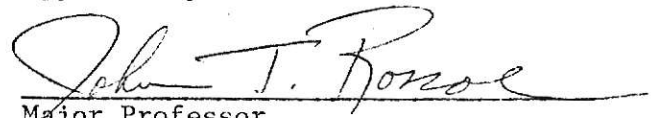
MASTER OF SCIENCE

College of Education

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

1971

Approved by:


Major Professor

**THIS BOOK
CONTAINS
NUMEROUS PAGES
WITH THE ORIGINAL
PRINTING BEING
SKEWED
DIFFERENTLY FROM
THE TOP OF THE
PAGE TO THE
BOTTOM.**

**THIS IS AS RECEIVED
FROM THE
CUSTOMER.**

LD
2668
T4
1971
M32
C.2

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Many people contribute to the completion of a thesis and a graduate degree, and that is particularly true in my case. My deepest gratitude goes to Professor Joseph F. McIlvaine who not only provided the original idea for this research but also the considerable encouragement, understanding, and assistance I needed to complete the study and make it a meaningful learning experience. Next I would like to express appreciation to Rowan Conrad, Coordinator of the Freshman Seminar, for his cooperation, substantial time and energy, and unwavering optimism. I am grateful to the secretaries in the Center for Student Development and the students in the University Learning Network for their aid in handling administrative details. I could not have completed the project without the enthusiasm of the group leaders.

I owe a special debt to my friends Alice and Steve Golin, Esther and Buddy Gray, MaryAnn and Steve Handel, and Diane Sandblade for their kind support through the last two years. Finally, my love and appreciation go to Michal who has always been my best advisor, editor, critic, and loyal supporter and to Sean who does not seem to mind that his mother is a student.

ILLEGIBLE DOCUMENT

**THE FOLLOWING
DOCUMENT(S) IS OF
POOR LEGIBILITY IN
THE ORIGINAL**

**THIS IS THE BEST
COPY AVAILABLE**

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	vi
 Chapter	
1. EDUCATING THE WHOLE PERSON	1
Introduction to the Problem	1
Critics of higher education	2
Towards a developmental education	4
The Need for an Effective Freshman Program	7
Philosophy and purpose	8
History of the Freshman Seminar	10
Present status	11
The Problem	12
Statement of the problem	12
Dimensions of the study	13
Importance of the Study	15
2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	16
Literature Concerning the POI	16
Concurrent validity	16
Correlations with other scales	19
Studies using the POI	21
Faking on the POI	22
Literature Concerning the Use of Counseling Models in a Group Setting	23

Chapter	Page
Audio tape models	24
Live models	24
Literature Concerning Group Dynamics	26
Literature Concerning Student Development in the University Setting	29
Developmental tasks for college students	29
Importance of peer groups	31
The university as a learning environment	35
3. PROCEDURES	38
Subjects	38
Selection procedures	38
Groups	38
Leaders	40
Assigning leaders to groups	40
Training <u>LG</u> leaders	41
Instrument	41
Construct validity	41
Content validity	43
POI scales	43
Normative data	47
Reliability	48
Collection of Data	49
Assigning students to groups	49
Testing procedures	49
Statistical Analysis	50
Hypotheses to be Tested	51

Chapter	Page
4. RESULTS	53
Description of the <u>Ss</u>	53
Analysis of Posttest POI Scores	53
5. DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY	59
Discussion	59
<u>LGs</u> compared with <u>RGs</u> compared with <u>CGs</u>	59
Apparent factors contributing to the results	59
Personal observations of the researcher	62
Suggestions	64
Summary	66
BIBLIOGRAPHY	69
APPENDIX	77

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Intercorrelational Matrix for <u>Personal Orientation Inventory</u>	46
2. Test-Retest Reliability Coefficients for Personal Orientation Inventory	48
3. Measures of Central Tendency and Variability	55

Chapter 1

EDUCATING THE WHOLE PERSON

Never in its history has the university been buffeted by the winds of controversy than it has in the last ten years. Apologists have reasserted the traditional definition of the purpose of the university as the unfettered pursuit of truth. Students, they say, attend a university to participate in that search while members of the faculty function both as guides for the young as well as pioneers traversing the frontiers of knowledge through scholarship. Defenders have pointed to the university's contribution to technological developments improving the quality of human life. Higher education for the masses has been viewed as a means of protecting our democratic institutions and insuring the dignity of the individual citizen. These high ideals have led to the assumption that whatever injustice, violence, or irrational change might be taking place within a society, at least this one protected institution insured the continuing progress of civilization.

Introduction to the Problem

It is perhaps ironic that at a time when the phenomenal growth of higher education and the wealth and technology of the nation make the university seem more successful than ever, the ideals and practices which have previously justified its existence are under attack from all segments of society. The university really functions, its critics argue, as an elite trade school to maintain the technological society by

filling the prestige vocations. Though a college degree is no longer the privilege of the upper classes, the belief that the more educated a populous (education in terms of years and degrees), the more democratic its institutions, is being challenged by the various minority movements. The American belief that bigger means better whether the statement pertains to grapefruit, a system of higher education, or a nation's gross national product is no longer applicable to burgeoning state university systems. The ivory tower concept of the university may have passed into oblivion, but the recent proliferation of books with such titles as Where Colleges Fail, The University Game, The Sheepskin Psychosis, The Embattled University, and Search for Relevance testify to the seriousness of the crisis the university faces.

Critics of higher education. Educators, students, critics, and events have made the failures of the university commonplace knowledge. Roszak (1968) and Keniston (1960), for example, indict the prevalence of technological values. Keniston complained that a technological society, and an educational system serving that society, subordinates the affective and expressive side of life in favor of the cognitive processes. An overemphasis is placed on problem solving techniques and objective reality; fairness is equated with impersonal impartiality. Roszak applied his criticisms more directly to high education: "We call it 'education,' the 'life of the mind,' the 'pursuit of truth.' But it is a matter of machine-tooling the young to the needs of our various baroque bureaucracies: corporate, governmental, military, trade union, educational" (1960, p. 16). Taylor concurred that education which should stir new currents of thought and feeling within students' lives "is

corrupted into a mechanical system to assure certain kinds of automatic American behavior" (1969, p. 10).

Rather than self-expanding, students can find the university a dehumanizing experience. Morgenthau (1970, p. 38) compared the university to other social institutions which, "in the measure that they are mechanized and bureaucratized, diminish the individual, who must rely upon others rather than himself for the satisfaction of his wants, from the necessities of life to his spiritual and philosophic longings." Friedenber (Graubard and Ballotti, 1970, p. 73) partially blamed society, in that "all the major functions of the university which the society endorses and supports are opposed to its function of providing a home and a place of their own for young men and women in which they can develop a sense of personal commitment and a basis for moral judgment."

The major criticism of American higher education by the Hazen Foundation report (1968) is the lack of concern for the total personality development of college students. Although the social sciences have provided understanding of the processes of learning and the integration of cognition into the whole personality, this knowledge is all but ignored in the educational structures. In this respect, the nation seems aware that higher education could and should be doing more for its students.

The bitterest attack, and one which has not limited itself to verbal assaults, has come from the students themselves. Indeed, the major changes in students during the 1960s was their politicization and their mounting hostility toward a curricula designed to track them into

the structures of our society (Wolin and Schaar, 1970; Taylor, 1969). Students have not limited their criticisms to the curricula, however, but have also challenged the university's collusion with the government and industrial-military complex in the proliferation of the world's problems. The student protest is aimed at the failure of the university to direct its resources as a social change agent to the solution of those problems and to provide a relevant, personal educational program for its students (Hascall, 1970).

Though the university community has not been totally unaffected by the criticisms and concerns expressed over the past decade, the processes of reform are so slow and the results so meager in the large bureaucracies that students and critics have failed to notice them and have become increasingly frustrated (Wolin and Schaar, 1970). The most alarming development in the student protest movement, a reaction to the seeming intransigence of the university, has been the outgrowth of violence. Many contemporary educational writers are concerned with the aimless destructiveness and the romanticized violence of the youthful revolt. They see the next few years as crucial in determining which path the student movement will take. Hopeful signs of positive change exist in the students' demands for meaning, commitment, and concern for the dignity of individuals.

Towards a developmental education. Those who are looking for solutions to the crisis emphasize human development as a counterbalance to the importance placed on information and technical training in the college curricula. The purpose of education like the purpose of any society "should be the greatest possible fulfillment of its individual

members," Keniston (1960, p. 9) stated, and "'fulfillment' usually requires the greatest possible integration of all aspects and potentials of the psyche." Integration of the individual is also stressed by Rogers (1957, p. 35) who proposed that change in the personality structure in the direction of greater maturity "means greater integration, less internal conflict, more energy utilizable for effective living." A developmental education would be responsive to students' needs for belonging and would create communities for work, study, and play (Hazen Foundation, 1968).

Despite the failures recently pointed out by critics of the university, McCullough (Adelman and Lee, 1968) argued that the university community should make the awesome attempt to transform its person-to-person relationships. In addition to the university's stated humanistic goals of human excellence and the search for truth, there has never been "a greater need for truly educated persons, . . . persons who have experienced and understand dialogue . . . who know what it is to have been in relationships of mutual respect and cooperation." To keep up with a changing world and to restore individual responsibility, Sanford (1968, p. 9) asserted that students need a broad education as opposed to one narrowly limited to imparting knowledge and skills. Education for individual development would promote "an identity based on such qualities as flexibility, creativity, openness to experience, and responsibility." Since universities are the "central pivot around which a modern post-industrial society turns" and since students are accorded a unique position in that society, Taylor (1969, p. xiii) reasoned that the colleges and universities have at hand "a set of

extraordinary resources for the transformation of human lives, and for the creation of new models of human community which can change the quality and character of life in that society."

In an attempt to move towards a more humanistic, individual-centered education, higher education has fostered innovations over the last decade mainly in the areas of experimental classes and limited student participation in the decision-making processes of the university. Harvard's experimental freshman seminar program, according to Estrin (1964) was one of the earliest and most successful of the informally structured programs. Launched during the 1959-60 school year, it proposed to enliven the intellectual experiences of the freshman year and engage the student more vitally in his education. The seminars allowed close relationships between prominent faculty and students, encouraged independent work and creativity, and eliminated such traditional institutions as lectures, examinations, and grades. In April 1964 Axelrod (Mayhew, 1967) reported, several colleges met to confer on their experimental programs. Represented were such colleges as Antioch, Michigan State, Stephens, and Parsons. Small College on the campus of California State College at Palos Verdes represents the movement toward breaking up the campus into smaller, community-sized segments which can provide a curriculum tailored for each student. Beloit College has overhauled its whole curriculum trying to integrate vocational exploration and "outside" activities into the learning process. The University of California at Santa Cruz attempted to break up faculty into small communities along non-departmental lines and encourage relationships among students and faculty (Jencks, 1968). What all of these programs

seem to stress is the student relating to his education in terms of personal commitment and the university striving to provide a sense of community within the university's bureaucratic structure.

The Need for an Effective Freshman Program

Serious academic reform should start at the beginning, that is, with the entering freshman. The curriculum of the freshman year, however, is so ineffective that forty to fifty percent of incoming freshman are eliminated by the end of their first year (Taylor, 1969). The curriculum of the freshman year constitutes the greatest failure of the colleges, Sanford asserted (Sutherland et al., 1962). The pressures faced by freshmen their first year in college have been lucidly summarized by Feldman and Newcomb (1969):

In general terms the freshman in college is a novice in unfamiliar social organization, and is therefore confronted with the values, norms, and role structures of a new social system and various new subsystems. Such an experience usually involves desocialization (pressures to unlearn certain past values, attitudes, and behavior patterns) as well as socialization (pressures to learn the new culture and participate in the new social structures) [p. 89].

The usual freshman orientation program was criticized in the Hazen Foundation report (1968, p. 31) for its week of teaching freshmen the "basic geographic and academic maps needed to survive in the college" so he can fit into the routine with as little effort on the part of administrators and faculty as possible. Considering the whole freshman year as an orientation to college learning was strongly recommended.

The Freshman Seminar at Kansas State University is an experimental program designed to meet the needs of students not frequently fulfilled in the regular college routine. Growing out of the same

cultural milieu that has spawned other innovative programs, the seminar was conceived as a means of helping new students through the socialization process and engaging them in the educational enterprise. The general purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of the Freshman Seminar in meeting the developmental needs of freshmen students.

Philosophy and purpose. The Freshman Seminar program was generated by Dean Walter Friesen's conviction that the incoming freshmen need more than a brief orientation to the university as they begin their college careers. The basic assumption of the seminar is that "students are good for students" (Conrad, 1970a, p. 1).

One suggestion by Axelrod (1969) that approximates the Freshman Seminar was the requirement that every freshman belong to a Rapp-Group. The R-Group would consist of three freshmen and two sophomore trained leaders who meet for one semester at which time they decide either to continue or disband. Taylor in his chapter entitled "Students as Teachers" (1969, p. 313) suggested that incoming freshmen be given a choice of student advisor drawn from a trained student staff. In addition, the students could organize a seminar where the freshmen could become involved in the discussion and clarification of the problems of becoming educated at a university. The advantages of this plan were to broaden the informal advising system which already exists among students, to give the entering student help in finding his bearings, and to establish a sense of "colleagueship" with upperclassmen.

At Kansas State University the student leaders were seen as the important catalyst in the educational process much as the plans suggested

by Axelrod (1969) and Taylor (1969). With their broader educational perspective and personal attributes, the leader-participants were to provide role models of openness, responsibility, and independence (MacMillan, 1969). Through identifying with mature group leaders and sharing with other freshmen, the individual student would better learn how to integrate his educational experiences. The end result of such experiences would be relevant education, that is "drawing out students so they could fit the universities [sic] resources to themselves; as opposed to the usual practice of disciplining and drilling students such that they fit themselves into pre-cast molds that may actually be very ill-fitting" (Conrad, 1970a, p. 2).

The Freshman Seminar seeks, first of all, to provide "a security base and continuing orientation for the new freshman as he initially comes to grips with his new environment and challenges him to grow and make the most of his college experiences" (Conrad, 1970a, p. 10). More specifically, the goals of the seminar are to increase, through group involvement and interaction, interpersonal awareness and skills and the number and range of active interpersonal relationships on campus. By sharing feelings, attitudes, and concerns with other students, the freshman should broaden his general perspective of himself and his educational possibilities. In addition, he should become more sensitive to larger social and personal issues (Conrad, 1970b). Another primary value of the program, MacMillan (1969) suggested, is that of diverse group membership:

Perhaps the principle advantage of the Seminars is that they cut across all the usual lines that divide college students--Greek vs. independent, on-campus vs. off-campus, male vs. female, farmer vs. city background, black student vs. white student. . . .

Ideally, at least, it is within such totally mixed groups that students can begin to resolve the questions of identity, learn to accept themselves and others and wrestle with decisions they each must make as they seek to become educated persons [pp. 20-21].

Finally, the seminar provides an opportunity for a weekly inventory of experiences, a time for integrating and synthesizing (Friesen, 1967).

History of the Freshman Seminar. In 1966 incoming freshmen were first given the opportunity to enroll in the Freshman Seminar. The students were then divided into groups of ten plus upperclass student co-leaders. The groups met weekly through the first half of the semester. At that time the groups had the option to continue or to disband. The emphasis during that first semester was not so much on orienting students to campus facilities and routines as on sharing experiences.

The need for new recruiting procedures was recognized in 1967. Since a surplus of student leaders had been trained the previous semester, the 180 enrolled students were divided into groups of four or five each, which proved to be entirely too small for effective functioning. The following year, though recruiting procedures and leader training were improved, an unexpected enrollment of six hundred resulted in a shortage of leaders.

The lack of structure, according to MacMillan (1969, pp. 13-14), contributed to the high dropout rate (estimated at sixty percent) and to the frustration of group leaders who felt that nothing had happened in their group. Another factor in the dropout rate may have been lack of commitment beyond the students' initial expression of interest, especially when the seminar competed with credit courses for time.

Credit was given to students and leaders during the 1969-1970 school year, one academic credit hour, pass-fail, for students and two academic credit hours for leaders. By making the Freshman Seminar an official course, the administration both recognized the legitimacy of its goals and content and attacked the dropout problem stemming from lack of commitment. Though the only formal requirements for course credit are that the students attend regularly and answer evaluation sheets (Conrad, 1970), leaders may withhold credit on the basis of a student's lack of involvement and participation.

During the 1970 fall semester, some attempt was made to evaluate the quality of the Freshman Seminar other than by checking percentages of attendance and dropout rates. Seminar leaders responded after every meeting to "quick-check" items relating to attendance, involvement and participation, and the quality of the group's experiences. Overall, the involvement and commitment felt by the group leaders was good, and over half of the groups were reported as having good experiences (Conrad, 1971). Near the end of the fall semester, it was decided to expand the Freshman Seminar to the spring semester of 1971 to give incoming freshmen as well as second semester freshmen an opportunity to enroll in the seminar. In summary, the seminar has provided an unstructured group experience for freshmen who probably had not participated in such an experience before and who, in many respects, were probably not prepared for an unstructured situation.

Present status. The first suggestion for revising the Freshman Seminar by MacMillan (1969, p. 17) concerned structure. While maintaining an awareness of group process, the seminar needed more structure

during the beginning weeks for the benefit of the participants and leaders alike. Though Conrad (1971) stressed the value of learner-centered, democratically structured groups, he too recognized the need to accept where each freshman is in his development and to facilitate his development toward humanistic values. The average freshman at Kansas State University, he argued (1970b, p. 9), would initially have difficulty adjusting to a totally democratic group. Because freshmen will expect leaders to fulfill an authoritarian or teacher role, these expectancies need to be partially met by providing some guidelines or structure for the first meetings.

The Problem

Statement of the problem. The purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of the Freshman Seminar as a means of facilitating personal growth in freshmen students using two experimental formats: the Impact Listening Group (ILG) and the regular format developed by the Center for Student Development. Specifically, the investigation had two major focuses: (1) the assessment of the overall effectiveness of the program in providing growth-producing experiences for students in comparison to freshmen who did not have those experiences; and (2) the assessment of the relative effectiveness of a structured format (ILG) compared with the regular Freshman Seminar format in generating changes in personal attitudes about self and group members.

Consistent with the purposes of the study, the following questions were formulated to serve as guidelines for the investigation and to emphasize the major focuses of the study:

1. Will the Freshman Seminar affect freshmen students' scores

on the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) when compared with students who are not taking the Freshman Seminar?

2. Will the structure of the ILG differentiate the POI scores of the structured group from the groups using the regular format?

Dimensions of the study. The purpose of this study, then, was to investigate the quality of the Freshman Seminar and to ascertain whether providing some group structure that corresponds with the overall purposes and philosophy of the seminar is growth-producing for the individual members. The ILG developed by Tubesing (1970b) at Ohio University was chosen as an experimental structure because its format seemed most adaptable to the Freshman Seminar and its goals coincided with those of the seminar.

The ILG grew out of Tubesing's concern for human-centered as opposed to information-centered education. "Education must concern itself with the whole man, and creatively deal with the student's struggles, joys, feelings, and growth, as well as his thoughts" (Tubesing, 1970b, p. 3). He seemed to agree with Roszak (1968) in maintaining that it is not so much the intellectual or rational that improves the quality of human life, but honest, open, responsible relationships which facilitate the goals of education--personal growth and change.

Tubesing took his rationale for the ILG from the Hazen Foundation's report The Student in Higher Education (1968). Education, it was emphasized, should be concerned with the total personality in the truest sense of the word. Self-expression, not intelligence, is the biggest problem of many students as they strive to clarify their own identity and assert it in the world. The problems of freshmen are frequently

accentuated by large and impersonal classes, by emphasizing competitiveness, and by ignoring the individual's need for commitment. Dormitory living places students within close proximity of each other without providing aids or skills to encourage the development of significant relationships. "Student friendship groups help determine what is learned at college, how it is learned, and what effect it will have on his [the student's] personality. We must," Tubesing (1970b, p. 5) asserted, "integrate the friend-group into the educational experience."

Specifically, the objectives of the ILG which correspond with those of the Freshman Seminar were for the students to: have an outlet for self-expression, discover that other students have many of the same feelings and thoughts as themselves, and exchange ideas on subjects not usually discussed. Further, the group would provide an opportunity to develop lasting relationships. Finally, the interpersonal communications skill most stressed by the ILG is good listening--understanding and accepting what others say without judging or arguing (Tubesing, 1970b).

The Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) developed by Shostrom (1963) was chosen as the criterion instrument for this study because it was designed as a measure of mental health or self-actualization. The dimensions of self-actualization that the POI measures are those values and self-concepts that would be expected to change in the type of successful group experience that has been described. The POI evaluates those stated goals of the Freshman Seminar having to do with interpersonal communication skills and self direction. Particularly, students would be expected to show more acceptance of their own feelings and needs as well as the needs of others. Through the development of meaningful

interpersonal relationships, their capacity for intimate contact would increase. Students should, finally, be able to act out how they feel and to be more self-motivated, or inner-directed, in their behavior.

Importance of the Study

Critics are suggesting that the university change its emphasis to one of responding to needs of students in more humanistic ways. To provide for the personal as well as the intellectual needs of students calls for more than the reform of existing structure, it demands providing new kinds of learning experiences. Yet, as the university community gropes for new forms and experiments with new programs, the justification for such programs cannot be either their innovativeness or their apparent effectiveness. The purpose of this thesis, then, was to attempt an objective evaluation of one such experimental program.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Literature relevant to the problem presented in this study may be grouped into four major categories: (1) literature concerning the Personal Orientation Inventory; (2) literature concerning group dynamics; (3) literature concerning the use of counseling models in a group setting; and (4) literature concerning student development in a university setting.

Literature Concerning the POI

Though self-report inventories are frequently used to evaluate the outcomes or effectiveness of various group experiences, Anastasi (1968, p. 464) suggested that this type of test needs to be strengthened by combining a personality theory framework, good content validity, and additional checking on criterion correlations and factor loading. An investigation of the correlations between the items and scores on the POI and other external criteria is important in determining its usefulness in this research setting. (A review of the validity and reliability of the POI is in the following chapter.)

Concurrent validity. The first studies on the POI were designed to investigate its sensitivity in clinical settings, as the one reported by Shostrom and Knapp (1966). In this instance, the POI was administered to two groups of outpatients in therapy, a group of thirty-seven

beginning patients entering therapy and a sample of thirty-nine patients in advanced stages of therapy. An analysis of the POI scores showed that all twelve scales differentiated between the criterion groups at the 0.01 level of significance.

In another clinical study reported by Fox, Knapp, and Michael (1968), 185 male and female patients under treatment in a psychiatric hospital were given the POI along with other psychological tests. The hospitalized sample was lower than the non-self-actualized norm on all scales with the exception of the scale that measures self worth. Differences between non-self-actualized and hospitalized samples were significant in seven out of twelve scales at the 0.05 confidence level.

Fisher has used the POI in two studies to measure psychopathic felons admitted to a California correctional institution. In the first study (1968), 150 male felons scored lower on nine of twelve scales than the normal population but higher on all scales than did a psychiatric group (Knapp, 1965). In the second study (Fisher and Silverstein, 1969), felons were found to possess a distorted view of the normative degree of self-actualization in the culture and their relationship to that norm.

In further studies, the POI was found to discriminate not only between neurotic and normal populations but also between average and self-actualized persons in a relatively normal sample. In two separate studies Foulds (1969a and 1969b) used the POI to measure effectiveness in counseling. In the first study (1969a), the POI was used to discriminate between the two groups of counselors with respect to their ability to communicate a facilitative genuineness within the counseling

relationship. Thirty graduate students in counseling were administered a scale to determine the top and bottom eight students. When results were compared with the POI scores, it was disclosed that seven of the twelve scales significantly differentiated between "high genuineness" and "low genuineness" groups. In the second study, Foulds (1969b) used the POI and judges' estimates of thirty beginning practicum students' sample tapes to correlate the ability to communicate facilitative conditions during counseling and personality characteristics associated with self-actualization. "Empathetic understanding in interpersonal processes" correlated significantly with six of the twelve POI scales. "Facilitative genuineness in interpersonal processes" was significantly related to ten of the twelve POI scales.

A study of thirty counselors attending a National Defense Education Act Guidance Institute reported by McClain (1970) further demonstrated that the POI can measure self-actualization among normal adults. The ratings for self-actualization by three staff members (practicum supervisor, group process leader, and a clinical psychologist), were compared with individual scores on the POI. Although the most significant correlation ($p > 0.01$) was on inner-directedness, significance to the 0.05 level was found on nine of the twelve scales.

The criterion-related validity of the POI was checked by Graff (1970) in an examination of the relationship between the POI and dormitory assistant effectiveness as evaluated by students. The findings suggested that the factors of inner-directedness, spontaneity, and acceptance of aggression as indicated by the POI were the significant predictors of success for dormitory assistants in their diverse roles

when POI scores were compared with student ratings.

The POI was used in a study by Hekmat and Theiss (1971) to measure the relative influence of social conditioning on affective self-disclosures on a group of high self-actualizers and low self-actualizers as indicated by the POI. The self-actualized group was least susceptible to therapeutic conditioning through reflection.

Correlations with other scales. The POI was developed as an aid for assessing a patient's more positive mental health attributes and for evaluating progress in therapy. Shostrom (1966) suggested that where other diagnostic instruments were developed from mentally disturbed populations and provide a negative approach to the therapeutic process, the POI provides an objective delineation of the client's mental health and a positive approach to the therapeutic process.

Shostrom's assumption, then, was that as therapy progresses, health increases and pathology decreases. To test this (Shostrom and Knapp, 1966), a group of thirty-seven patients in beginning therapy and thirty-nine patients in the advanced stages of therapy were administered the POI and the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI). All twelve POI scales differentiated between the two groups; on the MMPI, seven of the ten clinical scales differentiated between groups at the 0.05 level of confidence. While the correlations of the POI scales with certain of the MMPI scales were generally consistent in the direction expected, it was apparent that the two instruments are not measuring exactly the same aspects of mental health.

To measure the relationship between self-actualization and neuroticism, the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) and the POI were

administered to 136 undergraduate college students in a study by Knapp (1965). On the basis of the EPI scores, students were divided into high and low neuroticism groups and their scores correlated with the POI. Differences on all scales were significant at the 0.05 level of confidence. When compared to the standardized norms, the high neurotics scored below the level of the non-self-actualizing mean on ten of twelve scales. The low neurotics scored below the normal population mean on nine of twelve scales.

In a study reported by LeMay (1969) of 194 male and female freshmen at Oregon State University, sex differences were found in the needs that accompany self-actualization when correlating the POI with the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule. A comparison between the POI and the Gordon Personal Inventory in a study by Braun and Asta (1968) found nine significant correlations. The Original Thinking scale of the Gordon Personal Inventory showed the most consistent tendency to relate to the dimensions measured by the POI.

The POI was used in a study by Foulds and Warehime (1971) to determine the relationship between self-actualization and the Repression-Sensitization scale developed by Byrne. All twelve POI scales were found to be negatively and significantly related to the Repression-Sensitization scores suggesting that repressors may be better adjusted than sensitizers. The hypotheses that self-actualized persons would be more accurate perceptually, demonstrate superior reasoning ability, and prefer ambiguous stimuli was not supported when the POI was correlated with abbreviated versions of the Seashore Measures of Musical Talent, the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal, and the Barron-Welsh Art

Scale as reported by Braun (1969).

Studies using the POI. Though the POI is a relatively new test and research is somewhat limited, the POI was selected as the instrument for this study because several investigations had successfully used the POI to measure personal growth in educational settings and group situations. The POI measured change in the self-actualization of under-achieving college students after nine weeks of special lectures or group discussion in a report by Leib and Snyder (1967). Young and Jacobson (1970) noted change toward positive self-actualization after a fifteen hour marathon group experience using test and retest scores on the POI. Although the experimental subjects showed an increase in their ability to react without rigid adherence to principles and to affirm the values related to self-actualization, the scores did not statistically differentiate them from the control group on the other scales. Guinan and Foulds (1970) found more significant changes after a weekend marathon group experience using test and retest scores on the POI. Although all twelve means scores changed in a positive direction, the experimental means scores changed significantly on seven scales while none of the mean scores for the control group changed significantly.

Culbert, Clark, and Bobele (1968) reported an increase on all twelve POI scales after a group of university students participated in thirteen weeks of sensitivity training. The pretest means were comparable to the norms established for a normal adult population, and the post-test scores showed scores within the range of a comparison population of self-actualizers. Four scales produced significant statistical increase. In the study it was found that the POI does not correlate

with the Problem Expression Scale, which could suggest that in T-groups, values change before behavior.

Gibb (1968) used the POI for a cross-sectional study of 250 students to identify variables related to self-actualization. Using questionnaires on home background, positive correlations between certain scales were related to father's education, mothers who work, and families with little or no formal religious training. Stewart (1968) found no significant correlation between personal factors and academic performance using the POI, grade point averages, and the Cooperative School and College Aptitude Tests in a study of thirty-one students.

Faking on the POI. Self-report personality inventories are especially subject to faking as one answer is usually recognized as more socially desirable than the other (Anastasi, 1968, p. 456). Since the evaluation of the experimental groups depends solely on the POI scores, the question of test transparency seems particularly relevant to this study. Braun (1966 and 1969) reported two studies that relate to this question. Students in a social psychology class were asked to answer POI items as a typical neurotic would and then immediately afterward as the same hypothetical person after two years of therapy (1966). The difference between the two sets of scores was significant to the .001 confidence level on all scales. Since fifteen students were able to manipulate their test scores so readily, Braun suggested this might indicate that the POI is somewhat transparent and should be used with caution where persons might want to make a good impression.

In a later study Braun and LaFaro (1969) instructed six groups of psychology students in order to demonstrate the fakability of

self-report inventories. After taking the POI using standard instructions during classroom meetings, four groups were asked to take the test deliberately trying to make a good impression or answer as a self-actualized person would. Two other groups were given special lectures on the concept of self-actualization and then were asked to fake the test. The first four groups' scores were consistently less favorable faking than under standard instructions in forty-five of forty-eight comparisons, twenty-three of which were significant at the 0.05 level. The two additional groups with specific knowledge about self-report inventories and existential psychology were able to achieve more favorable scores on the faked test in twenty-two of twenty-four comparisons, eleven of which were significant at the 0.05 level of confidence. Braun concluded that the inventory shows an unexpected resistance to faking, especially among self-report inventories.

Literature Concerning the Use of Counseling Models in a Group Setting

How much learning takes place through observation and imitation is unknown, yet as Krumboltz (1969) showed, social scientists increasingly consider it to be quite significant. The literature of the social sciences continually asserts the importance of role models in such central areas as sex identity and vocational development. Madison (1969) observed that just when students need to make new identifications and increase their repertoire of behaviors, their university environment lacks an adequate variety and number of adult role models. Keniston (1960 and 1970) suggested that the absence of such models within the context of the general youthful rebellion against middle class America

magnifies the importance of peer group identification. Thus the young look to each other for behavior patterns by which to assert their identity. The Freshman Seminar program was established with the assumption that the group leaders would act as role models and would therefore elicit such traits and attitudes as openness, commitment, and warmth by embodying the desirable characteristics themselves.

Audio tape models. Krumboltz (1969) noted the advantages of tape-recorded models applicable to the Freshman Seminar: there are fewer cues than with live or video models, the cost is considerably less, the procedure is quick and less complex, and the situation or setting more varied. The ILG uses essentially two types of modeling on tape--examples of typical student responses to the topic and the instructions read by an anonymous leader.

In Behavioral Counseling: Cases and Techniques, Krumboltz and Thoresen (1969) reported several studies using taped models in an educational setting. High school students were used as models for vocational planning groups along with printed information in a study by Stewart. Smith found that symbolic modeling can produce desired behavior changes using models to encourage more effective use of time in high school students. A series of audio models were used in group sessions in an investigation by Beach to help underachieving junior high students improve their academic performance.

Live models. In clinical and educational literature, social modeling techniques are just beginning to be recognized. The theory that live models, for example, provide incentive to change behavior or to

explore new behaviors has prompted considerable research. Truax and Carkhuff (1965) found that vicarious therapy pre-training produces greater change in a shorter period of time than under regular counseling procedures. Bandura (1968) reported that single and multiple-modeling treatments reduce aversion to dogs in disturbed children. In an investigation of behavior rehearsal therapy reported by Lazarus (1966), the therapist's assuming a model role and demonstrating desirable responses was found to be very effective in resolving specific social and interpersonal problems.

More relevant to the present study are experiments reported by Sarason and Ganzer (Krumboltz, 1969) and Whalen (1969). Sarason and Ganzer investigated the assumption that delinquent behavior is partly the result of inadequate opportunities to view socially useful behavior by using live models to change the behavior of male juvenile delinquents. The models were persons with whom the subjects would identify, and they had an opportunity to practice complex reactions with the models in a group situation. The Freshman Seminar and the ILG provide similar modeling techniques and opportunities for students to experiment with new listening and sharing responses.

The purpose of Whalen's study (1969) was to determine whether interpersonal openness (readiness to convey information about one's feelings, one's reaction to others, and one's own life) might be increased through the use of models and instructions in a group setting. Students exposed to a filmed model of interpersonal openness as well as taped instructions expressed greater interpersonal openness and fewer impersonal responses than those subjects exposed only to either the film

or the taped instructions. Heller (1969) suggested some implications of the study which relate to the structure of the ILG. While within the context of a personal interview, single modes of modeling have elicited self-disclosures, in a group setting fears regarding risk-taking behavior and potential embarrassment appear greater. Therefore, more than one type of modeling procedure may be needed in group situations to overcome the greater anxiety of the subjects.

Literature Concerning Group Dynamics

Though an abundance of literature exists relating to group dynamics, various forms of therapeutic group techniques, and the popular encounter group, very little investigation has been made of the particular type of structure employed by the ILG. Another feature of the ILG which puts it out of the domain of most group research is that the leadership role is divided between the tape and the student leaders-participants who are neither trained group counselors nor teachers. Nevertheless, there are a few reports which lend support to the goals and methods of this experimental group in an educational setting.

Rogers (1969) argues that to develop a climate conducive to personal growth within the educational system, the focus must be not upon teaching but upon the facilitation of self-directed learning. Only then can creative individuals develop, persons who are open to all their experiences and continually in the process of changing. The major tool for developing this climate, he proposes, is intensive group experiences.

Cartwright (1951, p. 358) proposed two principles of group change relevant to the present study. First, those who are to be changed and those who are to facilitate change must feel they belong to the same

group. The structure of the ILG encourages this group cohesion through leader participation. Cartwright's second principle stated that the attractiveness of a group to its members is proportionate to the influence it will exert on the participants.

These principles have been clarified in a study of group structure as a variable of group cohesion. Raven and Rietsema (Cartwright and Zander, 1953) investigated the effects of varied clarity of group goals and group paths to those goals upon the individual and his relation to his group. In one experimental group, the group goal and path were clearly perceived by the individual members; in the other group, both the goal and the procedure for reaching it were kept ambiguous. The results indicated that subjects in the clear group condition were more interested in their personal tasks, showed less hostility, experienced greater feelings of group belonging, and were more willing to be influenced by the group than subjects whose group situation was unclear. In this study, it is suggested how the clearly defined goals and processes of the ILG might benefit the individual and encourage personal growth in a relatively short period of time.

Chestnut (1965) found further support for the assumption that groups with specific tasks and goals may be more productive in some situations. The investigation compared the effects on freshman and sophomore underachieving male college students of counselor-structured and group-structured sessions to a control group. After eight weeks of group sessions, the counselor-structured groups showed a significantly greater rate of change in grade point average than either the group-structured or control groups. In a three month follow-up, however, the

counselor-structured groups were the same as the group-structured though both were significantly higher than the control group. The study indicated that the counselor-structured groups' experiences were more effective in a shorter time. An interesting point Chestnut noted was that the students in the counselor-structured group expressed a desire to continue their group while the group-structured students did not.

The need for further exploration of the potential of short-term, task-oriented, structured groups was cited in the special issue of the Personnel and Guidance Journal on "Groups in Guidance" (1971). Gordon and Liberman (1971) offered Theme-Centered Interactional Therapy (TCI), similar in some respects to the ILG, as a more facilitative alternative to traditional group therapy procedures. The value of TCI is that it balances the cognitive, conative and affective aspects of personality. The theme functions as does the topic in the ILG by providing a focal center for learning about oneself and others. Guidelines and groundrules invite authentic communication with concentration on the here-and-now. Driver (1954) discussed various applications of the small group discussion method for personal growth in her book Multiple Counseling.

Though research is scarce on the use of groundrules, Gendlin and Beebe (1968) provided their use to emphasize the experiential group process. First of all, groundrules provide a structure whereby people could explore their capacity for expressing feelings spontaneously and at the same time become more perceptive of others' feelings. More specifically, the purposes of these rules are to encourage closeness, protect the worthwhileness of individuals, and create a climate conducive to free expression and willingness to listen.

A study by Grater (1958) illustrated the conditions under which the Freshman Seminar goal of promoting self acceptance and acceptance of others could be facilitated. Thirty students enrolled in a university leadership training group were used to explore changes in attitudes towards self resulting from a non-psychotherapeutically oriented group. The group leader provided a role model of warmth, acceptance, and understanding. Pretest and posttest scores showed a significant reduction in discrepancy between real self and ideal self, the change being in the self concept. The results of the study suggested that change in self concept takes place in groups where a permissive atmosphere prevails, where evaluative statements are kept to a minimum, and where each individual contribution is valued.

Literature Concerning Student Development in the University Setting

The literature on students and a university education is monumental, and therefore it is impossible to adequately survey even the most important studies. A few articles have been selected as representative of the areas necessary for defining goals for any college program: development of tasks for college students, peer group relationships, and learning theory. (The philosophic aspects of higher education have already been considered in Chapter 1.)

Developmental tasks for college students. A few of the problems freshmen encounter upon entering college were summarized by Feldman and Newcomb (1969) as follows: must rescale level of aspirations and compete with a more select group, confront a new set of adult role models, alter the tempo of life, feel anonymity along with pressures to be

independent, and intensify the desire to succeed socially and intellectually. Given the stresses of the freshman year, it is little wonder that the rate of attrition is so high during the first year (Yamamoto, 1970).

Patterns of personality change and development in college were succinctly presented by Madison (1969, pp. 487-488). The first personality organization growing out of the individual's encounter with the college environment is the initial organization. This initial organization is based primarily on pre-college experiences and not on reality. As the student encounters the realities and experiences of the college environment, the discrepancy between expectations and the realities of his abilities, his relationships with peers, and the outside world cause an erosion of the initial organization. Finally, the student's forces are organized around a new, more realistic self image suited to his matured values and abilities and thus he achieves a resynthesis.

According to Madison (1969), failure to complete this developmental process can have a crippling effect on further personality development. This sometimes happens when the process proceeds too rapidly past the individual's capacity to integrate change. However, the student must be able to meet new challenges within a new environment and be competent enough to grow because of the challenge.

Chickering (1969) augmented Madison's developmental stages with specific tasks that college students should complete to reach maturity. The first of these, development of autonomy, consists of emotional independence from adult authority and institutions. Autonomy also consists of instrumental independence, or the ability to carry out life's

activities by oneself. The recognition and acceptance of interdependencies with others and society constitute the final stage of autonomy development. The student must also learn to manage emotions, which is not to say he should not trust feelings or should resist feelings or develop rigid self-control. The control, rather, should be inner-directed and a product of increased awareness of feeling and a readiness to express impulses, together with increased integration of emotions into all reactions.

Achieving competence is one of the tasks relating to the development of college students which receives the most support--intellectual and physical skills--and the least support--interpersonal competence. Interpersonal communication skills are neglected even though they comprise one of the major student concerns. Chickering (1969) described the components of interpersonal competence which are also the goals of the ILG: to listen as well as talk, understand the concerns and motives of others, vary one's reactions according to the situation, and avoid imposing one's attitudes and values on others.

Self knowledge was seen by Sanford (1968) as one of the keys to maximizing the educational experience for the individual. Learning is frequently blocked when students are unaware of their own motivations, and when defense mechanisms prevent new responses or ideas from being tried.

Importance of peer groups. From numerous studies on the importance of student peer relationships, the following generalizations on the function of peer groups were made by Feldman and Newcomb (1969, pp. 236-237): (1) peer groups provide support as students make the

transition from home to independence; (2) peer groups can either reinforce and facilitate academic goals or can discourage students from changing; (3) peer groups meet emotional needs not fulfilled by the curriculum and faculty; (4) peer groups can provide opportunities to interact with people of different backgrounds, interests, and attitudes; and (5) peer groups can provide positive experiences to compensate for disappointments in academic areas, even to the point of keeping students from dropping out of college.

A recent study by Bolton and Kaymeyer in The University Student (summarized by Yamamoto, 1970) further illustrated the importance students play in each other's development. In a breakdown of the typical student's 168 hour week, seventy-seven hours were left for peer interaction after subtracting time spent on academic activities and sleep. Of these seventy-seven hours, twenty percent of the time was given to bull sessions, thirteen percent to dating, fifteen percent to miscellaneous activities, and fifty-two percent, or forty hours, to such casual interactions as room-hopping and snacking. The content of the bull sessions was devoted to personal and campus topics. These results raised the issue of whether casual interaction is as effective as thought in broadening student's perspectives when left to chance. Two factors conducive to desired growth were usually lacking in bull sessions--small size and heterogeneity of sex and class.

That peer group relations today are relatively divorced from academic concerns was further supported by Sutherland et al. (1962). Propinquity is considered one of the main factors determining peer relationships, particularly when students first arrive at college. At that

juncture, few students know each other and differences are relatively indistinguishable. Since students, because of the size of most universities, know each other as persons and not as students, similarity of interests and attitudes are the other primary determinants of friendship.

Given the importance of social incentives to the intellectual process, Bay (McLendon, 1966, pp. 9-13) maintained that colleges fail students by not giving them the competencies to help them conquer their social anxieties. One rule of social incentives is that the more meaningful relationships a person can establish with a few people, the less dependent he is on social acceptance by greater numbers and the more open he is to developing other kinds of incentives. Bay suggested that the extent to which a student has mastered his personal and social anxieties determines the courage and independence he exhibits in defining for himself what kind of life he wants to live.

The importance of peer relations was demonstrated in a study by Alfert (1966) correlating college attrition and housing arrangements. The results showed that the more isolated the student from his peers, the higher the percentage of dropouts. Students in private homes, boarding houses, and, to a lesser extent, those living at home have a significantly higher dropout rate than those students living in dormitories, coops, and fraternity or sorority houses. Alfert suggested that the lack of support from other students and the lack of opportunity for social mastery, plus no sharing or enlarging of the individual environment, contribute to attrition, especially during the freshman year.

One of the most definitive studies of the socialization of

freshmen by peers was reported by Wallace (1966). One of the findings relevant to this study is that students change more rapidly in their orientation toward college in the first seven weeks and the rate of change gradually decreases until it levels off by Fall 1. During the initial socialization period, valuing academic achievement was positively related to social integration but rapidly became negatively related. It was suggested that the decline in grade orientation was the result of socialization of freshmen by their nonfreshman student hosts. Grade orientation and performance were not positively related as cause and effect though grades affected students' attitudes in terms of congruence between expectations and performance. Further, the higher the proportion of nonfreshman in the individual's environment, the greater is the loss of grade orientation. Emotional involvement was a significant variable influencing attitude change; the students most anxious for social integration turned more to nonfreshmen.

Students latch onto other students as a means of coping with the anxiety of change and of asserting their identity. Wallace suggested that the criterion for friendship selection of the adolescent freshman is not necessarily attitudes relating to transition into college life but problems concerned with transition into adult life in general. This study underlined the important role the Freshman Seminar could play in freshmen socialization during the first few weeks of school when attitude change is so radical and the need for new friends so crucial. Madison (1969, p. 67) aptly summarized the studies on college peer groups: "The student culture is the principle influence they [students] feel and respond to in college."

The university as a learning environment. Statements on how people learn and what students should learn are abundant in the popular periodicals as well as the scholarly journals. If a single trend can be gleaned from the tremendous amount of literature, it is away from the pitcher-to-mug theory--where the teacher pours facts and information into the passive, receptical student mind. Most scholars now view learning as an active process that should engage more than the intellect to be integrated. Rogers maintained (1969, p. 163), "The most socially useful learning in the modern world is the process of learning, a continuing openness to experience and incorporation into oneself of the process of change." From several sources, Feldman and Newcomb (1969, pp. 295, 296) summarized the attributes that comprise openness to change: flexibility of personality, readiness to express impulse, flexibility of cognitive style, awareness of self, curiosity, and openness to college goals. The more of these qualities a person entering college has, the more impact college may have on him. Openness to change, however, as measured by thinking introversion, nonauthoritarianism, and intellectual orientation, can also change during the college years. Thus the kinds of experiences the college environment and student subculture provide are important in determining the nature and degree of this change.

Several tenets of Rogers' theory (1969, p. 162) of learning are relevant to this study. First of all, students learn in significant ways only that which seems relevant and self-enhancing. Learning that involves a change in the organization of the self, or self concept, is perceived as threatening and tends to be resisted (also see Madison,

1969). Finally, learning that challenges the self concept is more easily perceived and assimilated when external threats are at a minimum. The purpose of the IIC groundrules is to minimize the threat of expressing ideas and personal feelings by encouraging understanding and inhibiting argument. Personal involvement and a sense of meaningfulness are elements essential to experiential learning that the Freshman Seminar tries to provide.

Katz and his associates in No Time for Youth reviewed by Korn (1969) presented results of a five-year longitudinal study of students at Stanford and the University of California at Berkeley. The researcher found that college had little impact on student development, which led the authors to propose that the focus of education should be on the individual student and his development rather than just his grade point average. Chickering (1969) supported those conclusions in that to be more effective, colleges must take a broader view of student development and their responsibilities in bringing that growth about.

To bring about these necessary changes, more than reform is needed; new innovative programs are being tried at colleges throughout the nation (see Chapter 1). Nixon in "The Learner's View about Personalizing Higher Education" discussed in Korn (1969) how experimental colleges contributed to the students' awareness of the possibility of change, that what had been the case in their previous experiences was not seen as the only alternative in education. To combat depersonalization, stimulate interest in curricular innovation, and illustrate new methods of teaching, Axelrod (1967) proposed a model experimental college for entering freshmen. The college would provide opportunities for

people to meet in small groups where they can learn to care about each other in personal ways. Such a sense of community is essential for real education (Perry, 1968; Yamamoto, 1970; and Gardener in Eurich, 1968).

Chapter 3

PROCEDURES

Subjects

The subjects (Ss) for the study were eighty-one first and second semester freshmen enrolled in the Freshman Seminar (Education 405-110) for one hour pass-fail credit during the 1971 spring academic semester at Kansas State University.

Selection procedures. Letters were sent to all incoming freshmen accepted for admittance to the university by 18 December 1970 informing them about the Freshman Seminar and explaining how they might benefit from such an experience (Appendix). The interested freshmen then enrolled in the course through their respective advisors during registration for the 1971 spring semester. Second semester freshmen signed up for the Freshman Seminar during the pre-enrollment period of the 1970 fall semester.

Groups. Three major groups were used in the investigation: the Listening Group, the Regular Group, and the Control Group. Each group contained three sub-groups with nine Ss each, which was designed to permit interaction in a small group setting as suggested by the Hazen Foundation report (1968) and Taylor (1969).

The Listening Groups (LGs) used the experimental Impact Listening Group method developed at Ohio University by Tubesing (1970b) based on

the recommendations of the Hazen Foundation report (1968). The Impact Listening Group (ILG) is a series of six subject-oriented, structured discussions designed to promote better listening--understanding and accepting ideas, perceptions, and feelings other than one's own--among college freshmen. The groundrules of the discussions (Appendix) controlled the conversation so that the members primarily reflected each other's reactions to such topics as the university, friendship, depression, and belonging. The goals of the group were further facilitated by the use of tapes. These tapes structured the discussion by giving instructions, introducing the topic, and reminding the group of the guidelines. A short segment of the tape includes examples of other students' reactions to the topic and thus provides models of honest self-expression. It also leads the group into deeper levels of communication than they might otherwise experience. The tapes not only assumed some of the leadership responsibility, allowing the use of relatively inexperienced leaders, but also permitted the leaders to participate in the group interaction on a relatively equal basis as suggested by Perry (1968) and Axelrod (1969).

The Regular Groups (RGs) followed the previous Freshman Seminar format developed by the Center for Student Development, Kansas State University. Although the structure of the regular Freshman Seminars has been the responsibility of the leaders, they have been encouraged to provide some leadership and structure, at least for the beginning of the semester (Conrad, 1970a, p. 14). The early meetings frequently deal with some aspects of college life pertinent to freshmen (classes, dormitory life, strangeness of a big university). Only the time for the

meeting is fixed; the place can vary from the zoo to a classroom.

The Control Groups (CGs) received no treatment and were comprised of those students who had neither taken nor were enrolled in Freshman Seminar. The researcher solicited volunteers for the CGs from the freshman English Composition classes during the first week of classes in the spring semester. The purposes of the Freshman Seminar program were explained to the class. Then students were asked to give half an hour of their time on two different occasions to answer questions for a research project designed to improve the Freshman Seminar. The first thirty volunteers from both English Composition I and II were accepted and randomly assigned to groups. This procedure was not completely randomized; however, the group composition was structured to meet the basic criterion of control groups as set forth by Angell and Freedman (Festinger and Katz, 1953) and Kerlinger (1964, pp. 315-316).

Leaders

The group leaders were twelve undergraduate volunteers who had led a Freshman Seminar group during the 1970 fall semester. An even number of male and female leaders were paired to reduce a sex factor variable.

Assigning leaders to groups. At a meeting of all Freshman Seminar leaders, the leaders filled out a card indicating their preference for the group format (structured/programmed or unstructured), and the meeting time and day. The Freshman Seminar coordinator and the researcher used this information to select leaders for the LGs and RGs, first on the basis of their schedule and next according to their

preference for group format. The leaders were then paired to obtain similar levels of leadership ability among the groups based on students' evaluations of their leadership performance during the previous fall semester and on the personal evaluation of the Freshman Seminar coordinator.

Training LG leaders. The LG leaders participated in two training sessions to prepare them for their role as leader-participants in the ILG (lesson plans in Appendix). These sessions included explaining the purposes of the study and of the ILG. An overview of the six weeks was given as well as the structure for the individual meetings. The necessity of keeping the content of the experimental groups confidential was discussed in relationship to the purposes of the investigation and the goals of the ILG. Since the LGs were carried out within the framework of a semester course, the leaders were free to determine their own meeting place. The LG leaders met weekly with the researcher to evaluate their group's progress and to work out any problems pertaining to the groups.

Instrument

The Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) was designed by Shostrom (1963) as a measure of positive mental health or self-actualization. The POI consists of 150 two-choice, paired-opposite statements of values and behavior judgments. The items are first scored for the two basic scales of personal orientation: Inner-Directed and Time Competence. The inventory is then scored on ten subscales which measure important characteristics commonly associated with self-actualization.

Construct validity. Recently, Maslow (1954, 1962) developed the

idea of the self-actualizing person as a person who is more fully functioning and lives a more enriched life than does the average person (Shostrom, 1966). Such an individual is seen as developing and utilizing all of his unique capabilities free of the inhibitions and emotional turmoil of those less self-actualized. Rogers (1951, 1961, 1969) reflected the same idea, and both of these authors suggested that such a person might be seen as the goal of the psychotherapeutic process and the educational process. The scales of the POI are also related to the research and theoretical formulations of Maslow's (1954, 1962) concept of self-actualization, Reisman's et al. (1950) system of inner- and other-directedness, and May's et al. (1958) and Perls' (1951) concept of time orientation.

The work of Ellis (1962) has suggested that psychotherapy can be viewed as a process of critically examining the irrational ideas and value orientations of the patient. As Buhler (1962, pp. 30-31) has suggested, value orientations are definite existential judgments. Following Kluckhohn, she states that these value orientations symbolize the fact that value and strictly cognitive elements are blended. A value orientation may be defined as a generalized and organized conception which influences behavior. Ellis (1962, p. 41) noted that much of what is called emotion is nothing more than a certain kind of biased, prejudiced, or strongly evaluative thought. Therefore, an affectively loaded idea about life may be properly defined as a value. Items in the POI were designed to reflect value orientations which are commonly held and which are considered to be significant to a person's approach to living.

Content validity. Value items appear twice in the POI so that the particular continuum or extremes of the dichotomy are quite clear to the person taking the inventory. Items on the POI are stated both positively and negatively to further clarify the context of usage in the concept under consideration.

The items on the POI were chosen from significant, value judgment problems as seen by therapists at the Institute of Therapeutic Psychology over a five year period (Shostrom, 1966). Items were selected from the observed value judgments of clinically healthy and clinically troubled patients, though the criteria for neither of these categories was specified. Therapists were asked to describe the self-actualizing and the non-self-actualizing person with two or three adjectives. Shostrom listed the adjectives (1965, pp. 214-215), which included such items as rigid, frustrated, hostile, and non-committed for non-self-actualized persons and flexible, responsible, warm, constructive, and non-defensive for self-actualized persons. As previously discussed, the scales and items were also based on the research and theoretical formulations of many writers in Humanistic, Existential, and Gestalt psychology.

POI scales. The POI consists of two main scales; Time Ratio (twenty-three items) and Support Ratio (127 items) comprise the basic scales of personal orientation. Time Competence (Tc) according to Shostrom (1966), measures the degree to which a person lives and focuses his life in the present. The self-actualized person appears to live more fully in the here-and-now. He is able to tie the past and the future to the present in meaningful continuity. He appears to be less burdened by guilt, regrets, and resentments from the past and fears and

fantasies about the future than is the non-self-actualized person. His use of time in a competent way is expressed in a Time Ratio score of approximately 1:8.

Inner-Directed (I) is designed to measure how independent and self-supportive an individual is and whether his reactivity orientation is basically toward the self. The inner-directed person goes through life apparently independent, but still obeying an internal source of principles and motivations. This person is free, but his freedom is not gained by rebelling or pushing against others. For the validating groups the ratio between other-directedness, and inner-directedness is approximately 1:3.

The ten subscales are designed to measure the specific self-actualizing tendencies of an individual as described by Shostrom (1966). The Self-Actualizing Values (SAV) subscale consists of twenty-six items and measures the affirmation of the primary values held by self-actualizing people. The Existentiality (Ex) scale measures one's flexibility in applying such values or principles to one's life. It measures the ability of the individual to react in the situation without rigid adherence to principles and consists of thirty-two items. A high score on Feeling Reactivity (Fr) measures sensitivity to one's own needs and feelings and consists of twenty-three items. Spontaneity (S) contains eighteen items and indicates whether a person is fearful of expressing his feelings behaviorally. Self Regard (Sr) measures the ability to like one's self because of one's strength as a person. A low score on this sixteen item subscale indicates low self-esteem. Self Acceptance (Sa) indicates an acceptance of one's self in spite of one's

weaknesses or deficiencies and consists of twenty-six items. Nature of Man (Nc) is designed to measure whether one sees man as essentially good. The individual can resolve the goodness-evil, masculine-feminine, spirituality-sensuality dichotomies in the nature of man (sixteen items). Synergy (Sy) is designed to measure the ability to see the opposites of life as meaningfully related and contains nine items. Acceptance of Aggression (A) is designed to show acceptance of feelings of anger or natural aggressiveness as opposed to defensive denial and repression of aggression. A high score on the twenty-five items indicates an ability to express anger. The Capacity for Intimate Contact (C) is designed to measure the ability to develop intimate, warm relationships with other human beings and consists of twenty-eight items. Intimate contact seems to include expressing feelings intensely to another person.

The Tc and I scales and all subscales are scored for the positive or self-actualized end of the continuums and correlations among the scales tend to be positive. Self-actualized groups are significantly higher on all scales and non-self-actualized groups tend to be lower on all scales (Shostrom, 1966). Normal groups tend to score in between. In the logical development of the scoring categories, the scales were not conceptualized as representing independent dimensions so that items may contribute to the measurement of more than one scale. The Tc and I scales are the only scales that do not have overlapping items. Inter-correlations among the POI scales are presented in the following table:

**THIS BOOK
CONTAINS
NUMEROUS PAGES
WITH DIAGRAMS
THAT ARE CROOKED
COMPARED TO THE
REST OF THE
INFORMATION ON
THE PAGE.**

**THIS IS AS
RECEIVED FROM
CUSTOMER.**

Table 1

Intercorrelational Matrix¹ for Personal Orientation Inventory

POI Scales	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Time Competent Tc	.49	.26	.31	.20	.38	.44	.43	.19	.29	.17	.25
2. Inner Directed I		.54	.70	.58	.71	.62	.63	.37	.41	.61	.55
3. Self-Actualizing Value SAV			.21	.23	.45	.56	.03	.41	.58	.32	.15
4. Existentiality Ex				.32	.42	.32	.57	.27	.36	.39	.48
5. Feeling Reactivity Fr					.44	.25	.21	-.03	.12	.64	.53
6. Spontaneity S						.44	.40	.17	.30	.47	.30
7. Self Regard Sr							.21	.32	.26	.28	.23
8. Self Acceptance Sa								.24	.22	.32	.30
9. Nature of Man Nc									.53	-.04	-.02
10. Synergy Sy										.28	.14
11. Acceptance of Aggression A											.44
12. Capacity for Intimate Contact C											

¹Correlations are based on a college sample of 138 from a report by Knapp (1965).

In an investigation by Silverstein and Fisher (1968) of the factors measured by the POI, the factors were not found to be built into the test structure due to item overlap. The factors dealing with affective phenomena and intellectual/conceptual phenomena appear to be attributable to the relationships among the variables the test is designed to measure, and therefore clinically meaningful.

Normative data. Normative data for the POI is available for college students and for selected occupational and clinical groups. The POI Profile Sheet was constructed from adult norms that can be converted into standard scores with a mean of fifty and a standard deviation of ten. The college student scores are given in percentiles and were based on a sample of 2,607 entering college freshmen at Western and Midwestern liberal arts colleges. The relationship of standard scores and percentiles used in this analysis are established using the raw score (see Table 1, Shostrom, 1966).

To determine if the POI can significantly discriminate between self-actualized and non-self-actualized adults (Shostrom, 1964), the test was administered to clinically nominated groups of adults, twenty-nine and thirty-four respectively. The norms for average adults were based on a sample size of 160, but the Manual does not specify the criteria for selecting these subjects nor the circumstances under which they were tested. Though the other two groups were nominated by members of the Los Angeles Society of Clinical Psychologists, the criteria for these selections were not clearly defined. Results of the study indicated that the test discriminates between self-actualized and the normal adult mean on eleven of the twelve scales. Based on these analyses, it

appears the inventory discriminates between clinically judged self-actualized and non-self-actualized groups on eleven of twelve scales to the 0.05 level of confidence (Nc was the exception).

Reliability. Test-retest reliability coefficients have been obtained for POI scales based on a sample of forty-eight undergraduate college students when the test was administered twice with a one week interval (Klavetter and Mogar, 1967). Reliability coefficients for the major scales of Tc and I are .71 and .84 respectively, and coefficients for the subscales range from .55 to .85 as shown in the table below:

Table 2
Test-Retest Reliability Coefficients for
Personal Orientation Inventory¹

POI Scales		Test-Retest Reliability
Time Competent	Tc	.71
Inner Directed	I	.84
Self-Actualizing Value	SAV	.74
Existentiality	Ex	.85
Feeling Reactivity	Fr	.69
Spontaneity	S	.81
Self-Regard	Sr	.75
Self-Acceptance	Sa	.80
Nature of Man	Nc	.66
Synergy	Sy	.72
Acceptance of Aggression	A	.55
Capacity for Intimate Contact	C	.75

¹Reliability coefficients are based on a college sample of forty-eight from a report by Klavetter and Mogar (1967).

Reliability coefficients as high as .91 using test-retest methods were reported by Shostrom (1964) on 650 freshmen at Los Angeles State College, seventy-five members of a Sensitivity Training Program at the University of California in Los Angeles, and fifteen school psychologists in a group training program in Orange County.

Although POI profile patterns have been used to measure self-actualization, Damm (1969) was interested in which alternative methods might yield the best overall measure of self-actualization. Using 208 subjects, a raw score distribution was derived. The highest average of the coefficients between any scale or combination of scales and the other scales was obtained by combining the I and Tc scales (.97). The I scale alone was .93.

Collection of Data

Assigning Ss to groups. Students enrolling in Freshman Seminar received instructions to go to Holtz Hall for assignment to their group. At Holtz Hall students filled out a registration card which included preference for meeting times. Criteria for inclusion in this study, then, were enrollment and free time. Ss were assigned to RGs and LGs using acceptable random procedures as set forth by Crow, Davis, and Maxfield (1960).

The Ss were given a card informing them of the time and place for the first group meeting. The purpose of this first meeting was to administer the POI, make brief introductions within the groups, and determine a place for future meetings.

Testing procedures. At the first meeting of the experimental

Freshman Seminar groups, the researcher and group leaders administered the POI to the Ss in this investigation. The Ss were told that in order to help improve the quality of the Freshman Seminar program, they were being asked to answer a Personal Orientation Inventory which would take only twenty to thirty minutes to complete. The researcher stressed the importance of being as honest as possible in answering the questions and emphasized the following points: there are no right or wrong answers (an unusual situation in one's college career), and the results are confidential since we are interested in group results rather than individual scores.

Due to administrative problems in university scheduling, some students were tested at a later time, but prior to the first group meeting. This variable may lend to some source of internal validity; however, it is expected to be at a minimum (Campbell and Stanley, 1963). The verbal instructions given at the group meeting were written for the individual testing.

A week before the second testing, the CGs were sent a notice informing them of the time and place of the meeting. Experimental groups took the test at the same time as part of their regular meeting. Due to scheduling conflicts, some students were tested during the following two days at the University Counseling Center. Sixty-five Ss took part in the post-test evaluation: twenty-four LGs, twenty-one RGs, and twenty CGs. The attrition from the pre-test evaluation was determined to be from illness, leaving the university, or schedule conflicts.

Statistical Analysis

A one-classification, univariate analysis of variance within a

completely randomized design as mentioned in Kirk (1968, p. 104) was used to analyze the data. Analysis of all data was completed using an IBM 360/50 computer located in the Computer Science Center at Kansas State University. The program for this analysis was obtained from Roscoe (1970). The 0.05 level of significance was established for the rejection of the null hypotheses.

Hypotheses to be Tested

The following null hypotheses served as the focus for this investigation; the alternative hypotheses in each case were the research hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1. There is no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the I scale of the POI.

Hypothesis 2. There is no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the Tc scale of the POI.

Hypothesis 3. There is no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the SAV scale of the POI.

Hypothesis 4. There is no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the Ex scale of the POI.

Hypothesis 5. There is no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the Fr scale of the POI.

Hypothesis 6. There is no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the S scale of the POI.

Hypothesis 7. There is no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the Sr scale of the POI.

Hypothesis 8. There is no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the Sa scale of the POI.

Hypothesis 9. There is no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the Nc scale of the POI.

Hypothesis 10. There is no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the Sy scale of the POI.

Hypothesis 11. There is no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the A scale of the POI.

Hypothesis 12. There is no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the C scale of the POI.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

Description of the Ss

The Ss for this study were eighty-one first and second semester freshmen. Fifty-four Ss were enrolled in the Freshman Seminar for one hour pass-fail credit in the College of Education at Kansas State University during the 1971 spring academic term. The remaining twenty-seven Ss, who were neither enrolled in nor had taken the Freshman Seminar, were recruited for the investigation from English Composition I and II (courses 229-100 and 229-120) at Kansas State University and served as the control group. During the first weeks of the semester, several students dropped out of the experimental groups due to conflicts with other classes, illness, or withdrawal from the university. Several members of the CG did not appear for the final administration of the POI. These actions reduced the total number of Ss participating in the study to sixty-five (twenty-four in the LGs, twenty-one in the RGs, and twenty in the CGs).

Analysis of Posttest POI Scores

A one-classification, univariate analysis of variance within a completely randomized design as mentioned in Kirk (1968, p. 104) was conducted on the pretest and posttest scores on all twelve scales of the POI. The pretest scores were used to establish an initial homogeneity of variance. The means and standard deviations for the pretest and

posttest scores on the POI scales are listed in Table 3 below.

The hypothesis that the experiences obtained during the first six weeks of the Freshman Seminar would be an important variable when compared with the CGs on the Tc scale of the POI was investigated. The analysis of this dimension resulted in an F ratio of 1.14 which was not statistically significant at the 0.05 level of significance ($F_{.05,2,62} > 3.15$). As a result of this finding, the null hypothesis that there is no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the Tc scale of the POI was retained.

The Freshman Seminar as a variable in the Ss' posttest score on the I scale was investigated, and the result was an F ratio of 0.22. This analysis was not statistically significant at the 0.05 level of significance ($F_{.05,2,62} > 3.15$). The null hypothesis that there is no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the I scale of the POI was retained.

The Ss' participation in the Freshman Seminar as a variable on the SAV scale of the POI was investigated, and the result was an F ratio of 0.04. This analysis was not statistically significant at the 0.05 level of significance ($F_{.05,2,62} > 3.15$). The null hypothesis that there is no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the SAV scale of the POI was retained.

The hypothesis that the experiences obtained during the first six weeks of the Freshman Seminar would be an important variable when compared with the CGs on the Ex scale of the POI was investigated. The analysis of this dimension resulted in an F ratio of 0.11 which was not statistically significant at the 0.05 level of significance

Table 3
Measures of Central Tendency and Variability

		LG		RG		CG	
		Pretest	Posttest	Pretest	Posttest	Pretest	Posttest
Tc	\bar{X}	15.38	15.38	16.00	16.76	15.50	15.75
	JD	3.33	2.79	2.32	3.02	2.84	3.64
I		76.96	85.50	83.00	86.57	83.10	87.75
		18.79	11.21	7.13	10.36	9.46	11.94
SAV		18.13	19.71	20.00	19.71	20.05	19.90
		3.47	1.78	2.35	2.70	2.91	2.85
Ex		21.33	21.50	20.00	22.14	21.10	21.55
		4.27	5.25	3.33	5.34	3.28	4.39
Fr		14.96	16.38	15.52	16.05	15.30	16.65
		3.90	2.79	2.60	2.44	2.08	1.87
S		11.75	12.79	12.76	12.86	12.30	13.05
		2.72	1.96	1.61	3.04	1.72	2.56
Sr		11.08	12.63	12.05	12.05	11.80	12.00
		2.36	1.84	1.77	2.18	2.48	2.27
Sa		14.50	13.79	14.19	15.00	14.95	15.15
		2.98	3.43	2.77	3.21	2.52	3.30
Nc		11.21	11.96	11.43	11.10	11.15	11.35
		2.34	1.99	1.86	2.36	2.30	2.81
Sy		6.54	6.58	6.71	6.57	6.90	6.50
		1.47	1.47	1.10	1.57	1.52	1.54
A		15.00	16.92	16.05	16.43	16.00	16.65
		3.32	3.69	2.87	2.96	2.27	2.72
C		17.21	16.71	17.33	18.57	17.25	17.35
		3.68	3.90	2.42	3.09	2.92	3.33

($F_{.05,2,62} > 3.15$). As a result of this finding, the null hypothesis that there is no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the Ex scale of the POI was retained.

The Freshman Seminar as a variable in the Ss' posttest score on the Fr scale was investigated, and the result was an F ratio of 0.32. This analysis was not statistically significant at the 0.05 level of significance ($F_{.05,2,62} > 3.15$). The null hypothesis that there is no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the Fr scale of the POI was retained.

The Ss' participation in the Freshman Seminar as a variable on the S scale of the POI was investigated, and the result was an F ratio of 0.06. This analysis was not statistically significant at the 0.05 level of significance ($F_{.05,2,62} > 3.15$). The null hypothesis that there is no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the S scale of the POI was retained.

The hypothesis that the experimental groups' experiences would be an important variable when compared with the CGs on the Sr scale of the POI was investigated. The analysis of this dimension resulted in an F ratio of 0.63 which was not statistically significant at the 0.05 level of significance ($F_{.05,2,62} > 3.15$). As a result of this finding, the null hypothesis that there is no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the Sr scale of the POI was retained.

Participation in the Freshman Seminar as a variable on the post-test score of the Sa scale of the POI was investigated, and the result was an F ratio of 1.14. This analysis was not statistically significant at the 0.05 level of significance ($F_{.05,2,62} > 3.15$). The null hypothesis

that there is no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the Sa scale of the POI was retained.

The hypothesis that membership in the experimental groups would be an important variable when compared with the CGs' scores on the Nc scale of the POI was investigated. The analysis of this dimension resulted in an F ratio of 0.78 which was not statistically significant at the 0.05 level of significance ($F_{.05,2,62} > 3.15$). As a result of this finding, the null hypothesis that no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the Nc scale of the POI was retained.

Participation in the Freshman Seminar as a variable on the post-test scores on the Sy scale of the POI was investigated, and the result was an F ratio of 0.02. This analysis was not statistically significant at the 0.05 level of significance ($F_{.05,2,62} > 3.15$). The null hypothesis that there is no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the Sy scale of the POI was retained.

The Ss' participation in the Freshman Seminar as a variable on the A scale of the POI was investigated, and the result was an F ratio of 0.13. This analysis was not statistically significant at the 0.05 level of significance ($F_{.05,2,62} > 3.15$). The null hypothesis that there is no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the A scale of the POI was retained.

The hypothesis that participation in the Freshman Seminar would be an important variable when compared with the CGs' scores on the C scale of the POI was investigated. The analysis of this dimension resulted in an F ratio of 1.64 which was not statistically significant at the 0.05 level of significance ($F_{.05,2,62} > 3.15$). As a result of this

finding, the null hypothesis that there is no significant statistical difference between the LGs, RGs, and CGs on the C scale of the POI was retained.

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY

Discussion

LGs compared with RGs compared with CGs. The first analysis of this investigation dealt with the relative effectiveness of the structure of the listening group as opposed to the regular Freshman Seminar format. Homogeneity of variance was established on the pretest scores of the POI. A review of the analysis of variance between the two groups (Table 3) shows that over a six weeks period no significant statistical difference was found between the two groups on any scale of the POI.

The second focus of investigation was a comparison of the effectiveness of the Freshman Seminar groups to the CGs which received no treatment. An analysis of variance between the three groups indicated that there was no statistical difference between any of the groups on the twelve dimensions measured by the POI in the posttest scores. Since there was no significant statistical difference between the pretest and posttest scores of the three groups, all the null hypotheses were retained.

Apparent factors contributing to the results. This study of the Freshman Seminar is confined to evaluating only those stated goals that correspond to the dimensions of personal growth the POI purports to measure. Despite further limitations of sample size and group composition (large number of second semester freshmen), some inquiry into

possible explanations for the failure to find any of the expected differences between the groups seems indicated.

1. The first possibility is that the dimensions investigated by this study using the POI are not valid. Though most educators and psychologists (Rogers, 1969; Sanford, 1968; Jenck and Riesman, 1968; and Perry, 1968) would agree that these values and attitudes are those that should change during the college years, possibly the Freshman Seminar produces change and makes a contribution to individual growth in areas other than those measured by the POI. A study by Stewart (1968), for example, showed that juniors and seniors in college scored significantly higher on the I and C scales than did freshmen. Since the POI has been effectively used in educational settings (Culbert, Clark and Bobele, 1968; Foulds, 1969; Gibb, 1968; and Leib and Snyder, 1967) and since the goals of the seminar include interpersonal awareness and skills, the assumption that the POI is a valid instrument for the purposes of this study still seems indicated.

2. The seven week interval between pretest and posttest was possibly too short to produce significant, measurable attitude changes. Though marathon groups have produced change on the POI scales in a relatively short time span (Guinan and Foulds, 1970), the type of group experience in the Freshman Seminar setting is less intense and not intentionally therapeutic. Further, the groups experienced a two week interruption between the third and fourth session due to the University suspending classes which could have broken the group cohesion and development and thus lent an internal source of error.

3. The nature of the control group itself may account for lack

of significant variance. Difference in pretest and posttest scores in a study by Guinan (1970) suggests that people who volunteer for experiments without promise of rewards may not be representative. Though the controls when compared to college freshmen normative data were found relatively normal, the control group in Guinan's study scored higher on seven scales. A study by Young and Jacobson (1970) produced a similar slight increase in the control group scores. This factor may lend itself to some small internal source of variance since the students were asked to give their time as controls for the present study for relatively altruistic reasons, the improvement of the Freshman Seminar program. Nevertheless, statistically a homogeneity of variance between groups was established on pretest scores, so any problem caused by the control group should be insignificant.

4. Another factor contributing to the retention of the null hypotheses could be regression toward the mean between pretest and posttest scores (Campbell and Stanley, 1966).

5. In a comparison of the experimental groups' pretest scores with freshman norms (Shostrom, 1966), the groups' means were found to be in the ninetieth percentile on several scales, which would make significant change on these dimensions less probable.

6. Second semester freshmen comprised a larger proportion of the groups' composition than did incoming freshmen. Wallace (1966) found that the greatest degree of change in freshmen takes place during the first seven weeks of college and levels off during the spring semester. Significant measurable change might have occurred within the pretest and posttest period had the groups been comprised entirely of

incoming freshmen.

7. Administrative difficulties somewhat diminished the effectiveness of the Freshman Seminar program, especially during the first two weeks of the spring semester.

8. Mahler's discussion (1971) of the effective use of groups within an institutional setting may be most pertinent to the findings of this study. Group experiences must coincide with the goals of the host institution. Group processes cannot, Mahler warned, make up for the deficiencies of the relationship between the bureaucratic organization and the individuals within it. The goals of the Freshman Seminar are desirable (see Axelrod, 1967), but it is perhaps naive to expect one hour a week to compensate for the total experience encountered by Kansas State University freshmen in their dormitories, their dining halls, and their classrooms. He further criticizes the misuse of counseling groups for not having a clearly defined theoretical basis and specific, measurable behavioral goals. The theoretical basis of the seminar appears sound, but the goals are not stated in specific behavioral terms that can be easily evaluated.

Personal observations of the researcher. While these comments are not within the formal limits of the research, some of this data could have bearing on the Freshman Seminar program.

1. Informal feedback from the group leaders and participants in the LGs indicates that the seminar was most successful in increasing the number of student relationships and the awareness of common experiences and feelings. Near the end of the semester, one student who stated she had enrolled in the course for easy credit wrote, "I learned to

understand others and communicate. The most important part of understanding or communicating was that I felt what others felt." Of the few students who responded to an informal questionnaire, all answered yes to questions relating to understanding the thoughts and feelings of others and to sensing the commonality of feelings and thoughts.

2. Democratic leadership was successful within the philosophy of the seminar in that all students reported their leaders were more of a participant than an official leader.

3. In general, students favored several aspects of the ILG format. One student who took the course in order to meet other freshmen stated that "as a group, we've probably generated some thought that might not have come up otherwise. I would attribute this mainly to the structure of our first meetings. I don't believe we would have gotten started quite so well without the record." Several students felt the groundrules benefited the group; they enjoyed the use of topics such as friendship and belonging to provide a focus while practicing good communication skills.

4. Most criticisms of the ILG were directed toward the technical deficiencies of the recording. Two groups experienced some difficulties maintaining group involvement after the ILG format was completed. The group that had expanded their discussions beyond the formal structure of the ILG, however, experienced no break in the continuity of the group process.

5. In general the students did not feel that they applied their experiences in the seminar to other areas of their lives. Specifically, relationships within the group and the communication skills they

practiced were not generalized to situations outside the group.

6. Statements from leaders and students in groups other than the LGs suggest that the Freshman Seminar may need some revision, particularly for use with second semester freshmen. More research, however, is needed before evaluating the relative effectiveness of the program for first as opposed to second semester freshmen. According to Wallace (1966), the major socialization process has occurred by the end of the first semester, and the needs and attitudes of the two groups of freshmen are different. One of the four stated goals of the seminar is inapplicable to second semester freshmen (providing support during transition). Thus the second semester freshman is less likely to feel involved in and committed to the seminar, for he already has a set of friends and knows his way around the campus. Having covered similar "relevant" topics in their classes, several students stated that they found the serious conversations repetitious. A few students said they gave higher priority to other classes and activities than attendance at the seminars. Because of these factors, the use of second semester freshmen in evaluation of this program may have been inappropriate. Nevertheless, this informal critique could not have been foreseen.

Suggestions. Based on the results of this analysis, the purposes and goals of the Freshman Seminar should be reexamined, if for no other reason than to make a definitive statement concerning the objectives of the program that can be clearly identified for program development and necessary empirical research of the direction and outcomes. This particular point needs special emphasis. In an earlier study of the Freshman Seminar, Coppersmith's (1969, p. 28) major criticism of the

program was its lack of definite goals against which the program could be evaluated. Using the criticisms and suggestions of educators cited in this study, the program administrators and leaders might concentrate on a specific area of the program, such as setting individual educational goals or concentrating on interpersonal communication skills. The groups should arrive at some desired behavioral changes and/or developments that could be evaluated by individual participants, leaders, and program sponsors.

Replication of this study with some alterations should be made in the 1971 fall academic semester with entering freshmen to see if significant changes result. The dimensions measured by the POI should be reinvestigated to ascertain whether they relate to the purposes of the Freshman Seminar. Other methods of evaluation should be included in further studies. For example, students' evaluation of the effectiveness of the seminar (see Appendix for sample questions) could be correlated with leaders' perceptions of their involvement and measured change on some instrument such as the POI.

The findings of this study indicate that the Freshman Seminar could be more effectively structured for second semester freshmen and should possibly be revised. Each of any second semester freshman program should undergo a reevaluation in the light of known research in the field and the results of this study. One possible alternative would be to offer several types of seminar formats concentrating on more specific areas such as evaluating and integrating college experiences, developing interpersonal communication skills, setting individual educational goals, and achieving vocational and educational development.

To accomplish its goals, the freshman program should be intensified through more effective leadership training. Coppersmith (1969, p. 30) also noted the need for more intensive leader training, especially in the area of group dynamics. The sophistication of the leaders should be increased through personal experiencing of various group methods within the training period. Practical instruction in group techniques should be included. Further, these experiences should be continued through the semester in the leader support groups.

Finally, the Freshman Seminar program is experimental. Though it has been in existence several years, the program has changed greatly since its inception though many of the goals have remained. The findings of this study and future investigations should be used to objectively evaluate an innovative program not, as some would have it, to justify returning to traditional classes and the trade school approach to education, but to redefine our goals and refine our methods.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of the Freshman Seminar in helping students develop interpersonal skills. Specifically, the investigation had two major focuses: (1) to determine whether group structure of the type provided by the Impact Listening Group (ILG) would facilitate individual growth more effectively than the regular Freshman Seminar format; and (2) to investigate the influence of the Freshman Seminar on individual development when compared to students who do not have this group experience.

The subjects for the study were sixty-five first and second semester freshmen, forty-five of whom were enrolled in the Freshman

Seminar for the spring semester of 1971 at Kansas State University. The twenty students comprising the control group were recruited from freshman English Composition I and II classes. Three different treatments were administered: (1) the ILG method used by the Listening Groups (LGs); (2) the standard Freshman Seminar format used by the Regular Groups (RGs); and (3) no treatment administered to the Control Groups (CGs).

Shostrom's Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) was administered twice within a seven week interval. The POI purports to be a measure of mental health or self-actualization. The test yields two basic scales, Time Competence and Inner/Other-Directed Support, in addition to ten subscales covering various factors related to self-actualization. The data was analyzed using a one-classification, univariate analysis of variance within a completely randomized design.

The results of the investigation indicated that the Freshman Seminar as evaluated in the dimensions of this study does not appear to make a difference on the dimensions of personality change investigated. There were no significant statistical differences between either of the experimental Freshman Seminar groups and the CGs on the twelve scales of the POI. Consequently, all the null hypotheses were retained.

Several recommendations pertain to the future of the Freshman Seminar seemed consistent with the findings of the report. Since the study was limited to a small sample of first and second semester freshmen, it was suggested that the investigation be replicated with some changes in the fall with a larger number of first semester freshmen. The Freshman Seminar could possibly be more effectively structured for second semester freshmen, and therefore should possibly be revised in

purpose and design. Although the goals of the Freshman Seminar and the ILG apparently coincide with the current trends in group research and in higher education, it is urged that the goals and methods of this experimental project be carefully reevaluated and more specifically defined in the light of the results of this investigation.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

A. BOOKS

- Adelman, H. and D. Lee (eds.). The University Game. Toronto: Anansi, 1968.
- Anastasi, A. Psychological Testing. 3rd ed. London: Collier-Macmillan Ltd., 1968.
- Axelrod, J. et al. Search for Relevance. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc., 1969.
- Bradford, L. P., J. R. Gibb, and K. D. Benne. T-Group Theory and Laboratory Method. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1964.
- Buhler, C. Values in Psychotherapy. New York: Free Press of Glencoe, 1962.
- Campbell, D. T. and J. C. Stanley. Experimental and Quasi-Experimental Designs for Research. Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1966.
- Cartwright, D. and A. Zander. Group Dynamics. 2nd ed. New York: Harper and Row, 1953.
- Chickering, A. W. Education and Identity. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc., 1969.
- Crow, E. L., F. A. Davis, and M. W. Maxfield. Statistics Manual. New York: Dover Pub., 1960.
- Driver, H. I. Multiple Counseling. Madison, Wisconsin: Monona Publications, 1954.
- Ellis, A. Reason and Emotion in Psychotherapy. New York: Lyle Stuart, 1962.
- Estrin, H. A. and D. M. Goode (eds. and authors). College and University Teaching. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown, Co., 1964.
- Eurich, A. C. (ed.). Campus 1980. New York: Dell Publishing Co., Inc., 1968.
- Feldman, K. A. and T. M. Newcomb. The Impact of College on Students. Vol. I. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc., 1969.

- Festinger, L. and D. Katz (eds.). Research Methods in the Behavioral Sciences. New York: Dryden Press, 1953.
- Graubard, S. R. and G. A. Ballotti (eds.). The Embattled University. New York: George Braziller, 1970.
- Hazen Foundation. The Student in Higher Education. New Haven, Connecticut: The Hazen Foundation, 1968.
- Jencks, C. and D. Riesman. The Academic Revolution. Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Co., 1968.
- Keniston, K. The Uncommitted: Alienated Youth in American Society. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1960.
- Kerlinger, F. N. Foundations of Behavioral Research. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1964.
- Kirk, R. E. Experimental Design: Procedures for the Behavioral Sciences. Belmont: Brooks/Cole Pub. Co., 1968.
- Krumboltz, J. D. and C. E. Thoresen (eds.). Behavioral Counseling: Cases and Techniques. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1969.
- Madison, P. Personality Development in College. London: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1969.
- Maslow, A. H. Motivation and Personality. New York: Harper and Row, 1954.
- _____. Toward a Psychology of Being. New York: Van Nostrand, 1962.
- May, R., T. Angel, and H. Ellenberger. Existence. New York: Basic Books, 1958.
- Mayhew, L. B. (ed.). Higher Education in the Revolutionary Decades. Berkeley, California: McCutchan Pub. Corp., 1967.
- McLendon, J. C. Social Foundations of Education. New York: Macmillan Co., 1966.
- Montagu, A. Education and Human Relations. New York: Grove Press, Inc., 1958.
- Ohlsen, M. M. Group Counseling. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1970.
- Perls, F., R. Hefferline, and P. Goodman. Gestalt Therapy. New York: Julian, 1951.

- Perry, Jr., W. D. Forms of Intellectual and Ethical Development in the College Years. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1968.
- Riesman, D., N. Glazer, and R. Denny. The Lonely Crowd. New York: Doubleday and Co., 1950.
- Rogers, C. R. Client-Centered Therapy. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1951.
- _____. On Becoming a Person. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1961.
- _____. Freedom to Learn. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Pub. Co., 1969.
- Roszak, T. The Making of a Counter Culture. New York: Doubleday and Co., 1968.
- Sanford, N. Where Colleges Fail. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc., 1968.
- Schein, E. H. and W. D. Bennis. Personal and Organizational Change Through Group Methods. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1965.
- Shostrom, E. L. Manual for the Personal Orientation Inventory. San Diego, California: Educational and Industrial Testing Service, 1966.
- Sutherland, R. L. et al. Personality Factors on the College Campus. Austin, Texas: The Hogg Foundation for Mental Health, University of Texas, 1962.
- Taylor, H. Students without Teachers: the Crisis in the University. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1969.
- Wallace, W. L. Student Culture: Social Structure and Continuity in a Liberal Arts College. Chicago: Aldine, 1966.

B. PERIODICALS

- Alfert, E. "Housing Selection, Need Satisfaction and Dropout from College," Psychological Reports, 19:183-186, 1966.
- Axelrod, J. "An Experimental College Model," Educational Research, 48:327-337, 1967.
- Bandura, A. and F. L. Menlove. "Factors Determining Vicarious Extinction of Avoidance Behavior Through Symbolic Modeling," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 8:99-108, 1968.

- Braun, J. R. "Effects of 'Typical Neurotic' and 'After Therapy' Sets on Personal Orientation Inventory Scales," Psychological Reports, 19:1282, 1966.
- _____. "Search for Correlates of Self-Actualization," Perceptual and Motor Skills, 28:557-558, 1969.
- _____ and P. Asta. "Intercorrelations Between Personal Orientation Inventory and Gordon Personal Inventory Scores," Psychological Reports, 23:1197-1198, 1968.
- _____ and D. LaFaro. "A Further Study of the Fakability of the Personal Orientation Inventory," Journal of Clinical Psychology, 25:296-299, 1969.
- Cartwright, D. "Achieving Change in People: Some Applications of Group Dynamics Theory," Human Relations, 4:381-392, 1951.
- Chestnut, W. J. "The Effects of Structured and Unstructured Group Counseling on Male College Students' Underachievement," Journal of Counseling Psychology, 12:388-394, 1965.
- Cohn, R. C. "The Theme-Centered Interactional Method: Group Therapists as Group Educators," Journal of Group Psychoanalysis and Process, 2:19-36, 1970.
- Culbert, S. A., J. V. Clark, and H. K. Bobele. "Measures of Change toward Self-Actualization in Two Sensitivity Training Groups," Journal of Counseling Psychology, 15:53-57, 1968.
- Damm, V. J. "Overall Measures of Self-Actualization Derived from the Personal Orientation Inventory," Educational and Psychological Measurement, 29:977-981, 1969.
- Fisher, G. "Performance of Psychopathic Felons on a Measure of Self-Actualization," Educational and Psychological Measurement, 28:561-563, 1968.
- _____ and A. B. Silverstein. "Simulation of Poor Adjustment on a Measure of Self-Actualization," Journal of Clinical Psychology, 25:198-199, 1969.
- Foulds, M. L. "Positive Mental Health and Facilitative Genuineness During Counseling," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 47:762-766, 1969a.
- _____. "Self-Actualization and the Communication of Facilitative Conditions During Counseling," Journal of Counseling Psychology, 16:132-136, 1969b.

- Foulds, M. L. and R. G. Warehime. "Relationship Between Repression-Sensitization and a Measure of Self-Actualization," Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 36:257-259, 1971.
- Fox, J., R. R. Knapp, and W. B. Michael. "Assessment of Self-Actualization of Psychiatric Patients: Validity of the Personal Orientation Inventory," Educational and Psychological Measurement, 28:565-569, 1968.
- Gazda, G. M. "A Comprehensive Appraisal of Group and Multiple Counseling," Journal of Research and Development in Education, 1:57-132, 1968.
- Gendlin, E. T. and J. Beebe III. "An Experimental Approach to Group Therapy," Journal of Research and Development in Education, 1:19-29, 1968.
- Gibb, L. L. "Home Background and SA Attainment," Journal of College Student Personnel, 9:49-53, 1968.
- Gordon, M. and N. Liberman. "Group Psychotherapy: Being and Becoming," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 49:611-617, 1971.
- Graff, R. W., et al. "The POI: a Validity Check," Educational and Psychological Measurement, 30:429-432, 1970.
- Grater, H. "Changes in Self and Other Attitudes in a Leadership Training Group," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 37:493-496, 1959.
- Guinan, J. F. and M. L. Foulds. "Marathon Group: Facilitator of Personal Growth?" Journal of Counseling Psychology, 17:145-149, 1970.
- Hascall, E. O. "Campus Unrest: Worldwide Challenge for Student Affairs," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 48:619-638, 1970.
- Hekmat, H. and M. Theiss. "Self-Actualization and Modification of Affective Self-Disclosures During a Social Conditioning Interview," Journal of Counseling Psychology, 18:101-105, 1971.
- Heller, K. "Effects of Modeling Procedures in Helping Relationships," Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 33:522-526, 1969.
- Keniston, K. "Youth: a 'New' Stage of Life," American Scholar, 39: 631-653, 1970.
- Klavettetter, R. E. and R. E. Mogar. "Stability and Internal Consistency of a Measure of Self-Actualization," Psychological Reports, 21:422-424, 1967.
- Knapp, R. R. "Relationship of a Measure of Self-Actualization to Neuroticism and Extraversion," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 29:168-172, 1965.

- Korn, H. A. "Higher Education Programs and Student Development," Review of Educational Research, 39:155-172, 1969.
- Lazarus, A. A. "Behavior Rehearsal vs. Non-Directing Therapy vs. Advice in Effecting Behavior Change," Behavior Research and Therapy, 4: 209-212, 1966.
- Leib, J. W. and W. V. Snyder. "Effects of Group Discussions on Underachievement and Self-Actualization," Journal of Counseling Psychology, 14:282-285, 1967.
- LeMay, M. L. and V. J. Damm. "Relationship of the Personal Orientation Inventory to the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule," Psychological Reports, 24:834, 1969.
- Lovaas, O. I., et al. "The Establishment of Imitation and Its Use for the Development of Complex Behavior in Schizophrenic Children," Behavior Research and Therapy, 5:171-181, 1967.
- Mahler, C. A. "Group Counseling," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 49:601-608, 1971.
- McClain, E. W. "Further Validation of the Personal Orientation Inventory: Assessment of Self-Actualization," Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 35:21-22, 1970.
- Morgenthau, H. J. "Reflections on the End of the Republic," New York Review of Books, 15:38-41, 1970.
- Rogers, C. R. "The necessary and Sufficient Conditions of Therapeutic Personality Change," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 21:95-103, 1957.
- Shostrom, E. L. "Personal Orientation Inventory." San Diego, California: Educational and Industrial Testing Service, 1963.
- _____. "An Inventory for the Measurement of Self-Actualization," Educational and Psychological Measurement, 24:207-218, 1964.
- _____ and R. R. Knapp. "The Relationship of a Measure of Self-Actualization (POI) to a Measure of Pathology (MMPI) and to Therapeutic Growth," American Journal of Psychotherapy, 20:193-202, 1966.
- Silverstein, A. B. and G. Fisher. "Is Item Overlap Responsible for a 'Built-in' Factor Structure?" Psychological Reports, 23:935-938, 1968.
- Stewart, R. A. C. "Academic Performance and Components of Self-Actualization," Perceptual and Motor Skills, 26:918, 1968.

- Truax, C. B. and R. R. Carkhuff. "Personality Change in Hospitalized Mental Patients During Group Psychotherapy as a Function of the Use of Alternate Sessions and Vicarious Therapy Pretraining," Journal of Clinical Psychology, 21:225-228, 1965.
- Whalen, C. "Effects of a Model and Instructions on Group Verbal Behaviors," Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 33:509-521, 1969.
- Wolin, S. S. and J. H. Schaar. "Is a New Politics Possible?" New York Review of Books, 15:3-9, 1970.
- Yamamoto, K. "Healthy Students in the College Environment," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 48:809-816, 1970.
- Young, E. R. and L. I. Jacobson. "Effects of Time-Extended Marathon Group Experiences on Personality Characteristics," Journal of Counseling Psychology, 17:247-251, 1970.

C. UNPUBLISHED WORKS

- Conrad, R. "The Freshman Seminar Program at Kansas State University." Manhattan, Kansas: Center for Student Development, Kansas State University, 1970a. (Mimeographed.)
- _____. "Some Goals of the Freshman Seminar." Manhattan, Kansas: Center for Student Development, Kansas State University, 1970b. (Mimeographed.)
- Coppersmith, D. H. "An Evaluation of Freshman Seminars at Kansas State University." Unpublished Master's report, Kansas State University, 1969.
- Friesen, W. S. "A Handbook of Conversations on KSU Freshman Seminars." Manhattan, Kansas: Center for Student Development, Kansas State University, 1967. (Mimeographed.)
- MacMillan, W. M. "Freshman Seminar--Whence and Whither?" Manhattan, Kansas: Center for Student Development, Kansas State University, 1969. (Mimeographed.)
- Roscoe, J. T. "Funstat Package." Manhattan, Kansas: Administrations and Foundations, Kansas State University, 1970. (Mimeographed.)
- Tubesing, D. A. "Listening Group Fall Report." Athens, Ohio: Department of Residence Life, Ohio University, 1970a. (Mimeographed.)
- _____. "Listening Group Manual." Athens, Ohio: Ohio University Residence Hall Program, Ohio University, 1970b. (Mimeographed.)

APPENDIX

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas 66502
Center for Student Development
Holtz Hall

December 17, 1970

Dear New K-Stater:

In a few weeks you will be arriving here at K-State, and you are probably getting a bit excited by now. Are you also feeling a little anxious about coming to the University, wondering about making grades, making new friends, finding your way around? Are you worrying about everyone being a semester ahead of you?

Other incoming freshmen share some of these concerns with you. Since there are a small number of freshmen entering this spring semester, we are sending this special letter drawing your attention to the Freshman Seminar.

Freshman Seminar offers you the opportunity to meet other new freshmen in small groups and make friends by sharing common questions, problems, feelings, and gripes. Upperclassmen who understand how it feels to be a freshman lead the groups. They can help you get the most out of your college experience--which we all know means more than just classes. In addition, you receive one hour of class credit for meeting once a week. When you enroll just have your advisor add this as one of your classes and report to Holtz Hall sometime during the first two days of classes for your group assignment.

Yours truly,

Rowan W. Conrad
Co-ordinator of Freshman Seminar

pd

DISCUSSION GUIDELINES

When listening

1. You are to hear each other out. Concentrate on understanding the feelings of the person who is sharing.
2. Listen with acceptance, openness, and positive interest. Withhold judgment or advice.
3. Please check back with the other person until he feels that you understand his point of view and feelings.
4. Encourage others to attend to their feelings and share them with the group, but don't pry or prod.
5. Always listen with care and concern.

When sharing

1. Be honest with yourself--tune in to your own feelings so that you can share them with the group.
2. Be specific and personal.
3. Aim your sharing toward the whole group, not just one person.
4. You may be confident that others will listen to you, try to understand you, accept what you have to say, and respect it as true for you.

LG TRAINING SESSION LESSON PLANS

SESSION #1

- I. Purpose of the study
 - A. Goals of ILG
 - 1. Think about themselves
 - 2. Share thoughts and feelings with others
 - 3. Recognize shared feelings
 - 4. Practice good listening
 - 5. Talk about significant things
 - B. Significance of study to Freshman Seminar
 - C. Value of ILG to LG leaders
 - 1. Become acquainted by sharing reactions to increasingly risk-taking topics
 - 2. Establish positive patterns of communication
 - 3. Share responsibility for the group with members
- II. Structure of the ILG
 - A. Overview of the program topics
 - B. Groundrules for discussion
 - C. Format of individual sessions
- III. Listen to sample tapes

SESSION #2

- I. Responsibilities of the leaders
 - A. Prepare group for record
 - B. Play record or tape
 - C. Deal with problems of individual members
- II. Responsibilities shared with group members
 - A. Participate in discussions and evaluations
 - B. Keep group on topic and abide by groundrules
 - C. Take care of individual member and the group (checking on missing members, for example)
- III. Need for confidentiality regarding group content
 - A. Promote openness and honesty
 - B. Validity of the experiment
- IV. Discuss questions and problems

SOME SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

1. I was stimulated to think creatively about myself as a person and given an outlet for self-expression.
2. I became acquainted with the important and unique thoughts of other students.
3. I found that others have many of the same unexpressed feelings and thoughts as myself.
4. I had the opportunity to practice good listening. I learned to hear more, to understand and accept the feelings of others, even when these feelings were different from my own.
5. I exchanged ideas on subjects that I do not normally talk about.
6. I feel that the university through this group has shown an interest in me, my ideas and my personal growth, as well as my GPA.
7. This group has helped me to form a relationship with someone which will last beyond the last meeting of the group.
8. The group leaders were successful in that they were more of a participant than a leader.
9. I feel less apprehensive about speaking in classes and other gatherings as a result of participating in this group.

AN INVESTIGATION OF VARIOUS STRATEGIES FOR CONDUCTING
A FRESHMAN SEMINAR IN AFFECTIVE EDUCATION

by

SARAH LYNNE MCMAHON

B. A., Southern Methodist University, 1961

AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S THESIS

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

College of Education

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

1971

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of the Freshman Seminar in helping students develop interpersonal skills. Specifically, the investigation had two major focuses: (1) to determine whether group structure of the type provided by the Impact Listening Group (ILG) would facilitate individual growth more effectively than the regular Freshman Seminar format; and (2) to investigate the influence of the Freshman Seminar on individual development when compared to students who do not have this group experience.

The subjects for the study were sixty-five first and second semester freshmen, forty-five of whom were enrolled in the Freshman Seminar for the spring semester of 1971 at Kansas State University. The twenty students comprising the control group were recruited from freshman English Composition I and II classes. Three different treatments were administered: (1) the ILG method used by the Listening Groups (LGs); (2) the standard Freshman Seminar format used by the Regular Groups (RGs); and (3) no treatment administered to the Control Groups (CGs).

Shostrom's Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) was administered twice within a seven week interval. The POI purports to be a measure of mental health or self-actualization. The test yields two basic scales, Time Competence and Inner/Other-Directed Support, in addition to ten subscales covering various factors related to self-actualization. The data was analyzed using a one-classification, univariate analysis of variance within a completely randomized design.

The results of the investigation indicated that the Freshman

Seminar as evaluated in the dimensions of this study does not appear to make a difference on the dimensions of personality change investigated. There were no significant statistical differences between either of the experimental Freshman Seminar groups and the CGs on the twelve scales of the POI. Consequently, all the null hypotheses were retained.

Several recommendations pertaining to the future of the Freshman Seminar seemed consistent with the findings of the report. Since the study was limited to a small sample of first and second semester freshmen, it was suggested that the investigation be replicated with some changes in the fall with a larger number of first semester freshmen. The Freshman Seminar could possibly be more effectively structured for second semester freshmen and therefore should be considered for revision in purpose and design. Although the goals of the Freshman Seminar and the ILG apparently coincide with the current trends in group research and in higher education, it is urged that the goals and methods of this experimental project be carefully reevaluated and more specifically defined in the light of the results of this investigation.