

FLORIDA STUDIES
IN THE HELPING PROFESSIONS

by Arthur W. Combs

*with Daniel W. Soper, C. Thomas Gooding,
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PREFACE

Over the past ten years at the University of Florida we have been engaged in a series of explorations of the helping relationship. These studies have attempted to discover the principles governing the nature and effective practice of helping relationships.

From a theoretical orientation the search has led through a series of seminars to a conception of the helping relationship based upon humanistic, perceptual approaches to psychological thought. Experimentally, we have sought to test a program of hypotheses in a series of research studies with teachers, students, nurses, counselors, college professors, and Episcopal priests. Some of these studies have been published in professional journals, and some exist at this point only as unpublished doctoral dissertations. Many requests have been received for reports of these studies which until now have existed in so many diverse places that access for interested readers was most difficult. Accordingly, in this monograph we have tried to bring them all together with a delineation of some of the

PREFACE

thinking which preceded the studies, accompanied the researches in progress, or which came about as a consequence of our findings. In addition to convenience for interested students, this monograph may serve another function. It represents an illustration of how knowledge grows and develops on a college campus as a consequence of the interaction of teachers and students in the dialogue provided by continuous discussion and the trial and error brought about by participation in careful research.

Many people have been involved in these explorations: faculty members, seminar discussants, graduate students, school administrators and, of course, the subjects of our researches—teachers, students, counselors, nurses, and Episcopal priests. Although Professor Arthur W. Combs, senior author of this monograph, served as the catalytic agent for these studies and the permanent thread which bound them together over the ten-year period, the studies reported here are truly the result of a major cooperative effort. The theory and concepts we arrived at in these explorations are a product of continuous dialogue. They are the result of the pulling and hauling and searching contributions of a very large number of people whose individual efforts can no longer be discriminated from the whole fabric. To emphasize that fact we have abandoned the usual "objective" format of research reporting in the discussion sections of this monograph in favor of the collective "we."

The material included herein is presented in three parts. Part One deals with the background of our studies and the evolution of the thought that established our hypotheses. Part Two presents in capsule form each of the researches completed to date. Part Three includes a further look at the helping relationship from the vantage point of our completed studies.

February 12, 1969

AWC

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Part One
The Evolution of Hypotheses

1. THE BACKGROUND

One of the interesting developments of the past fifty years has been the emergence of a whole series of helping professions in addition to the very old ones such as medicine, teaching, and the clergy. This new group of professions is especially concerned with assisting people in one way or another to cope with the increasing complexities of life and to achieve a greater measure of personal fulfillment. Included among these are social workers, counselors, human relations experts, social action workers, school psychologists, school social workers, visiting teachers, public health nurses, psychiatrists, psychiatric nurses, rehabilitation counselors, play therapists and, most recently, a whole constellation of professions concerned with helping people in groups such as basic encounter groups, sensitivity training groups, and T-groups. Each of these professions has emerged in response to a fairly specific and practical human need. Once come into being they continued to develop in their early days quite pragmatically in response to the problems of their special area and developed a methodology and philosophy out of the experiences of their practitioners. In this fashion the helping professions have become established, each with its own philosophy, techniques, possibilities, limitations, and training procedures becoming more and more clearly differentiated with time and more or less lustily defended by its adherents.

More recently a number of voices have been raised suggesting that these professions are not nearly so clearly differentiated from each other as they appear at first glance. Like other observers elsewhere, the editor of this monograph gradually came to this realization as the result of his study and experience in teaching, in counseling, and in the practice of psychotherapy in collaboration with psychiatrists, nurses, and social workers. It seemed reasonable that since all these professions are forms of applied psychology, though they may vary in practical expression, the principles governing their operation must find common roots in the fundamental discipline of the science of behavior. The fundamental question of the helping professions is, after all, human behavior and misbehavior, and that is the basic problem of psychology.

Contributing further to the belief in the common character of the

helping professions was the editor's involvement in the development of perceptual or phenomenological psychology. This is a frame of reference which attempts to understand behavior from the point of view of the behavior himself rather than the external observer.¹ Perceptual psychology takes a humanistic view of man and so lends itself especially well to the understanding of the problems of behavior as the practitioner confronts them. It has even sometimes been described as a "practitioner's psychology." Examined from this standpoint the principles and practices of the various helping professions look remarkably similar. Accordingly, we embarked upon a series of studies of the helping professions designed to tease out their fundamental structure and the determinants of effective practice.²

The original impetus for our experiments came about as a consequence of two research studies and a learned paper which so corroborated the general feeling kindled by our studies in perceptual psychology as to set our series of studies in motion.

The first of the researches was a paper by Dr. Fred Fiedler.³ Dr. Fiedler was interested in finding out what beginning and expert psychotherapists believed was the nature of an ideal therapeutic relationship. To examine this question he had beginners and experts from a number of different schools of thought about psychotherapy complete a Q-sort about the nature of the therapeutic relationship. Two of his findings were especially significant in stimulating our studies.

1. Expert psychotherapists, no matter what school of thought

1. Combs, A. W., & Snygg, D. *Individual behavior: A perceptual approach to behavior*. Boston: Harper and Brothers, 1959.

2. Although this monograph deals primarily with a series of research studies on the helping professions, readers interested in exploring the theoretical bases of these professions more deeply may find some of the following papers of special interest from a theoretical orientation: Combs, A. W. *The professional education of teachers: A perceptual view of teacher preparation*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1965. Combs, A. W. The personal approach to good teaching. *Educational Leadership*, 1964, 21, 369-378. Combs, A. W. Phenomenological concepts in non-directive therapy. *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, 1948, 12, 197-208. Combs, A. W. A phenomenological approach to adjustment theory. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 1949, 44, 29-35. Combs, A. W., & Soper, D. W. The self, its derivative terms and research. *Journal of Individual Psychology*, 1957, 13, 134-145. Combs, A. W., Courson, C. C., & Soper, D. W. The measurement of self concept and self report. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 1963, 23(3), 439-500.

3. Fiedler, F. E. The concept of an ideal therapeutic relationship. *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, 1950, 14, 239-245.

they began from, were more alike in their conception of the nature of a good therapeutic relationship than were beginners and experts from the *same* school of thought. This would seem to suggest that there is a "good" therapeutic relationship toward which good practitioners drift no matter what their beginning frame of reference. It would seem to imply the existence of a fundamental approach to helping people. As Fiedler put it, "The therapeutic relationship may be but a variation of good interpersonal relationships in general."

2. A second finding of Fiedler's was that the man in the street could describe a good helping relationship about as well as the experts. This rather astounding finding would seem to suggest that, not only is there a "good" helping relationship, but almost any of us can recognize it when it exists.

Fiedler's study thus seemed to corroborate the general hunch we had developed that helping professions were basically highly similar. The impression was further confirmed by a study by Heine.⁴ Heine carried out an experiment much like Fiedler's and concluded from his results that there probably is a psychotherapy and that all existing psychotherapies are more or less approximations of that fundamental relationship. This again seemed to suggest a common character to the helping professions and further encouraged the development of the studies herein.

The second major stimulus to the researches reported here was provided by a most provocative paper by Carl Rogers on "The Characteristics of a Helping Relationship."⁵ In this paper Dr. Rogers reviews a number of studies bearing upon the nature of helping relationships and comes to the following conclusion: "It seems clear that relationships which are helpful have different characteristics from relationships which are unhelpful. These differential characteristics have to do primarily with the attitudes of the helping person on the one hand, and with the perception of the relationship by the 'helpee' on the other." The corroboration of our hunches afforded by Fiedler, Heine, and Rogers launched us on a series of studies designed to explore these matters further.

4. Heine, R. W. A comparison of patients' reports on psychotherapeutic experience with psychoanalytic, non-directive, and Adlerian therapists. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1950.

5. Rogers, C. R. The characteristics of a helping relationship. *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, 1958, 37(1), 6-18.

ARE GOOD TEACHERS LIKE GOOD THERAPISTS?

The first study in our series⁶ sought to discover whether good teachers were similar to good psychotherapists. To examine this question the Q-sort used by Fiedler for his examination of psychotherapists was adapted for use with teachers by simply changing the word *therapist* to *teacher* and the word *client* to *student* in each item of the Q-sort. The following illustrate a few of these items as they appeared in Fiedler's Q-sort and in ours.

The Eight Most Ideal and Least Ideal Items as Sorted by Our Teachers and by Fiedler's Therapists

8 Most Ideal Items

RANK	OUR TEACHERS	FIEDLER'S THERAPISTS
1.	The teacher directs and guides the student.	The therapist is able to participate completely in the patient's communication.
2.	The teacher sees the student as co-worker on a common problem.	The therapist's comments are always right in line with what the patient is trying to convey.
3.	The teacher greatly encourages and reassures the student.	The therapist is well able to understand the patient's feelings.
4.	The teacher really tries to understand student's feelings.	The therapist really tries to understand the patient's feelings.
5.	The teacher usually maintains rapport with the student.	The therapist always follows the patient's line of thought.
6.	The teacher is well able to understand student's feelings.	The therapist's tone of voice conveys the complete ability to share the patient's feelings.
7.	The teacher is sympathetic with the student.	The therapist sees the patient as a co-worker on a common problem.
8.	The teacher gives and takes in the situations.	The therapist treats the patient as an equal.

6. Soper, D. W., & Combs, A. W. The helping relationship as seen by teachers and therapists. *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, 1962, 26, 288.

8 Least Ideal Items

75.	The teacher is hostile toward the student.	The therapist shows no comprehension of the feelings the patient is trying to communicate.
74.	The teacher is rejecting to the student.	The therapist acts in a very superior manner toward the patient.
73.	The teacher's own needs completely interfere with understanding of student.	The therapist is very unpleasant to the patient.
72.	The teacher is very unpleasant to the student.	The therapist is punitive.
71.	The teacher feels disgusted by the student.	The therapist is hostile toward the patient.
70.	The teacher is seductive toward the student.	The therapist feels disgusted by the patient.
69.	The teacher is punitive.	The therapist's own needs completely interfere with his understanding of the patient.
68.	The teacher cannot maintain rapport with student.	The therapist cannot maintain rapport with the patient.

For a sample of good teachers the faculty of the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School at the University of Florida was used. While this faculty would surely not claim to be composed 100 per cent of superb teachers, the staff is unusually carefully selected and would certainly represent a better than average sample of Florida teachers. Each member of this faculty completed the Fiedler Q-sort as modified to apply to teachers. When the Q-sorts of these teachers were compared with the Q-sorts of Fiedler's "good" psychotherapists, they proved to be highly similar. The correlation between the teachers' Q-sort and Fiedler's therapists was .809. These results seemed clearly to support our belief in the common basic character of helping professions.

The results of this study were met with great enthusiasm by Combs and Soper. They were delighted to find their hypothesis confirmed. In fact, the results seemed so clear that the experimenters were led to believe they had stumbled upon an effective device which might be used as a measure of good teaching. Accord-

ingly, they set about a second study to determine whether this Q-sort would clearly distinguish between "good" and "poor" teachers.

IS GOOD TEACHING A FUNCTION OF KNOWLEDGE ABOUT THE HELPING RELATIONSHIP?

To explore the question of whether good teaching is a function of knowledge about the helping relationship, a sample of "good" teachers and "poor" teachers who would be willing to cooperate by completing our modification of the Fiedler Q-sort was needed.⁷ To obtain these two samples, freshmen and sophomore students at the University of Florida, enrolled in a beginning course in the College of Education, were asked as part of a class assignment to tell us of the very best teacher they had ever had and the very worst teacher they had ever had. These teachers were then contacted by mail and asked if they would be willing to participate in our study on effective teaching. The teachers, of course, did not know how they had been selected for this rare privilege beyond a card sent to them which read as follows: "We are engaged in a study of effective teaching. You have been nominated by one of your former students as a person who once had a profound effect upon him. . . ." The card then went on to request their cooperation. Those who expressed a willingness to help were sent the modified Q-sort.

The results of this experiment were like a dash of cold water on the expectations of the experimenters. Instead of demonstrating its value as a device for distinguishing between good and poor teachers, the modified Q-sort showed absolutely no difference between the good and poor teachers. Good and poor teachers *both* seem to know what a good helping relationship *ought* to be like even though they may not be putting this knowledge into effect.

THE INADEQUACY OF METHODS AS A CRITERION OF EFFECTIVENESS

The authors of the two studies reported above were already familiar with the fact that good and poor practitioners cannot be discriminated on the basis of the methods they use. A National

7. Combs, A. W., & Soper, D. W. The helping relationship as described by "good" and "poor" teachers. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 1963, 14, 64-67.

Education Association review of all the research available on good and poor teaching was forced to the conclusion that "there is no method of teaching which can be clearly shown to be associated with either good or poor teaching."⁸ This review covered hundreds of studies and the conclusion seems unquestionably definitive. Apparently there is no such thing as a "good" method or a "right" method of teaching. A review of research in the other helping professions seems to corroborate the point in those professions as well.

If the results of these studies are to be believed, the key to the nature of effective helping relationships is not to be found in what the helper knows or in the methods he uses. This was a stopper. It was apparent we were groping down the wrong alleys for the answers to our questions. To this point we had been looking at the problem of the helping professions from an objective frame of reference in the manner traditional to external approaches in psychological investigation. We decided to see what would happen if, instead, we approached the problem from a phenomenological orientation, analyzing it perceptually.

8. Ellena, W. J., Stevenson, M., & Webb, H. V. *Who's a good teacher?* Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administrators, N.E.A., 1961.

2. THE SELF AS INSTRUMENT CONCEPT OF PROFESSIONAL WORK

To explore the nature of the helping relationship from a perceptual orientation, a series of seminars open to faculty members and graduate students was instituted in the College of Education at the University of Florida in 1959. These seminars were addressed to the problem of defining the nature and characteristics of the helping professions. They began with a review of the existing literature, searching out all that could be found on the question. This information was subjected to examination and interpretation from a phenomenological or perceptual point of view through a process of continuous dialogue among the seminar participants. As a consequence of this procedure the thinking of the participants gradually changed and we came to see the helping professions in a somewhat different fashion.

Looking at the various helping professions, including teaching, counseling, social work, pastoral care, nursing, and psychotherapy in particular, it soon became apparent to us that the common characteristic of all of these was instantaneous response. That is to say, all of the helping professions seem to be differentiated from more mechanical operations in the immediacy of response required of the helper. For example, in teaching, when the child says something to his teacher, his teacher must respond instantaneously. The same thing is true in the interrelationships of the social worker and his client, the pastor and the parishioner, the nurse and her patient, or the counselor and his client. All of these professions are dependent upon immediate response. Professional helpers must be thinking, problem-solving people; the primary tool with which they work is themselves.

We came to describe this understanding of the nature of the helping professions as the "self as instrument" concept. The term was first introduced to our thinking by Dr. Daniel Soper, but we later found that it had long been used in the social work profession. By the "self as instrument" concept we meant that the outstanding fact about the helping professions was the use of the helper's self in the process. Effective operation in the helping professions,

whether we are talking about social work, counseling, teaching, or nursing, is a question of the use of the helper's self, the peculiar way in which he is able to combine his knowledge and understanding with his own unique ways of putting it into operation in such a fashion as to be helpful to others. We gave this understanding a formal statement as follows: "Effective helping relationships will be a function of the effective use of the helper's self in bringing about fulfillment of his own and society's purposes."

The self as instrument concept helps to explain why the attempt to distinguish the helping professions on the basis of knowledge or methods falters. If effective operation in the helping professions is a personal matter of the effective use of a self, then the search for a common knowledge or a common method is doomed before it begins. Since the self of each individual is unique, the search for a common uniqueness is, by definition, a built-in invalidation.

Further reasons why an examination of methods proved so disappointing a key to the helping professions became apparent to us as we applied the principles of perceptual psychology to the problem. In perceptual terms, behavior is always a function of perception. That is, how a person behaves at any moment will always be a function of the nature and condition of his perceptual field at the moment of his behavior. In everyday terms, "people behave according to how things seem to them." In this light, behavior is no more than a symptom, an expression of the dynamics of causation which lie in the perceptual field of the behavior. A given perception may produce many different behaviors. A feeling of thirst, for example, may produce innumerable varieties of drinking behavior. Conversely, the same behavior of taking a mouthful of water could conceivably be produced from many different perceptions, one of which might be thirst. With this understanding, it seems clear that the attempt to describe the helping professions on the basis of common behaviors can at best provide us with little more than a fairly low statistical relationship.

At this point we are confronted with a difficult question. If effective helping calls for instantaneous response which fits the peculiar needs of the person to be helped and if it depends upon the effective operation of the unique self of the helper, how can we hope to be sure the instantaneous use of the unique self will be good for the client? Helping, after all, must be a predictable pro-

cess, one in which we can be sure the results will be positive. In answering this question we found it helpful to draw an analogy with a giant computer. The modern computer is a magnificent machine capable of taking in great quantities of data from outside itself and combining this information with that stored in its "memory bank" to give an almost instantaneous "best answer" for the complex of data with which it deals. Like a human being it provides appropriate responses to mountains of data. Now, what kind of answers the computer provides out of the data available to it is dependent upon the formula in the machine, the program. Similarly, for human beings the peculiar responses occurring as a consequence of the circumstances in which people find themselves are also a product of the formula in the person. But the formula in the human case is not a mathematical equation. It consists of the individual's perceptions, especially those we call values, beliefs, and purposes.

Carl Rogers in his article on the nature of the helping relationship observed that it didn't seem to make much difference how the helper behaved if his "intent" (purpose) was to be helpful. We are all familiar from personal experience with how our behavior is an expression of our beliefs. Indeed, this intimate effect of belief on behavior is so strong it betrays us even when we consciously try to hide it. As the old Indian said, "What you do speaks so loudly I cannot hear what you say!" Our friends are aware of this and they say of us, "Well! He would!" Beliefs have a controlling, directing effect. They determine the choices of behavior we make from moment to moment. In the light of this close relationship between behavior and belief, it occurred to us that a study of the beliefs of helpers might provide a more profitable approach to understanding the helping relationships than had heretofore been possible when the problem was approached from the question of knowledge or methods. Before exploring this question further, let us stop for a moment to review some theoretical principles underlying this position.

In perceptual psychology the causes of behavior are ascribed to perception, more precisely, to the perceptual field of the behavior at the instant of action. At any moment a person's behavior, then, is a consequence of all the perceptions available to him just as, in the computer, answers are products of the data fed in or already there. In the computer the organizers of data are the formulae or

programs placed in the machine. In people the organizers of perception are themselves perceptions having special relevance for the individual. Existing perceptions have a selecting, determining effect on further perceptions.

In perceptual terms behavior is understood as a consequence of two kinds of perceptions: the perceptions one has about the world and those he has about himself. However, not all perceptions existing for an individual are of equal value to him at any particular time. Some perceptions come to have much greater importance and relevance for the individual as a consequence of his experience. Among the most important of these, of course, are the perceptions a person has about himself, the self concept. Everyone has many different kinds of beliefs about himself which he has acquired in the course of his experience over the years. Some of these will be quite superficial on the periphery of the perceptual field. Others will be quite central to the person's experience, seeming to him to be at the very heart of his being. In a sense, it is the more central character of a perception that changes it from a mere observation into the powerful force we recognize in a belief. Thus, a perception like "I walked to school this morning" is little more than a fact, while an observation like "I am a male" is a matter of much relevance and importance. It is a belief which affects almost everything the person does. Most of an individual's perceptions begin on the periphery of his experience as observations, facts, or knowledge. This is why mere knowledge is not enough to produce a change in behavior. It is only as knowledge is experienced with deeper and deeper meaning so that it takes on the quality of belief (becomes central to experience) that it is likely to produce much change in behavior.

Once established, perceptions having the quality of belief tend to determine further perceptions. This is especially true of the beliefs we hold about ourselves which psychologists have come to describe as the self concept. Other organizers of behavior are perceptions of considerable relevance and meaning which we call beliefs, values, or attitudes. Even ideas about factual matters are unlikely to affect behavior except in the degree to which they develop the quality of belief.

Whatever their origin, beliefs, once established, tend to have an organizing effect upon further perception and so upon the behavior exhibited by an individual. This selective effect on perception gives

stability and predictability to behavior. It is these beliefs, these highly meaningful perceptions, then, that we concluded we needed to explore in search of the dynamic bases of the helping relationships. It was to this question our seminar next addressed itself.

HELPING RELATIONSHIPS AS A FUNCTION OF BELIEFS

A special seminar of faculty and graduate students tackled the task of formulating a series of hypotheses for the exploration of helping relationships from a perceptual orientation. The hypotheses isolated by this seminar were reported as: Sample Hypotheses for Exploring the Perceptual Organization of "Helpers" and "Non-Helpers."

As a consequence of our discussions of the helping relationship in phenomenological or perceptual terms, it seemed to us that effective helpers could be described in terms of their perceptions in five major areas: (1) the general frame of reference or point of view from which the helper approached his problem; (2) the ways in which the helper perceived other people; (3) the ways in which the helper perceived himself; (4) the ways in which the helper perceived the task with which he was confronted; and (5) the ways in which the helper perceived appropriate methods for carrying out his purposes. Under each of these headings we listed a series of probable continua with respect to the ways in which the helper saw events under that heading. For example, under the heading "Seeing other people and their behavior," it seemed to us helpers would more often perceive those they worked with as "capable" rather than "incapable," as "trustworthy" rather than as "untrustworthy," and so on down the list.

The Basic Assumption.—The seminar members believe that persons who have learned to use themselves as effective instruments in the production of helping relationships can be distinguished from those who are ineffective on the basis of their characteristic perceptual organizations. More specifically, "helpers" can be distinguished from "non-helpers" with regard to their characteristic ways of perceiving:

1. Adapted from Combs, A. W. A perceptual view of "helpers." *Personality Theory and Counseling Practice, Papers of First Annual Conference on Personality Theory and Counseling Practice*. Gainesville, Florida: University of Florida Press, 1961.

- A. Generally—Frames of Reference
- B. People and Their Behavior
- C. The Helper's Self
- D. The Helping Task and Its Problems
- E. Appropriate Methods for Helping

Under each of the above headings, the seminar formulated a series of perceptual continua that seemed fruitful for investigation. In each instance the perceptual organization presumed to be characteristic of the helper is stated first.

- A. *General Frame of Reference*
 - Internal—External
 - Growth orientation—Fencing in or controlling
 - Perceptual meanings—Facts, events
 - People—Things
 - Hopeful—Despairing
 - Causation oriented—Mechanics oriented
- B. *Seeing People and Their Behavior*
 - As capable—Incapable
 - As trustworthy—Untrustworthy
 - As helpful—Hindering
 - As unthreatening—Threatening
 - As respectable—No account
 - As worthy—Unworthy
- C. *The Helper's Self*
 - Sees Self as:
 - Identified with people—Apart from people
 - Enough—Not enough
 - Trustworthy—Not trustworthy
 - Liked—Not liked
 - Wanted—Not wanted
 - Accepted—Not accepted
 - Feels certain, sure—Doubt
- C. (*continued*)
 - Feels aware—Unaware
 - Self revealing—Self concealing
- D. *The Helping Task and Its Problems*
 - Purpose is helping—Dominating
 - Purpose is larger—Narcissistic
 - Purpose is altruistic—Narrower
 - Purpose is understanding—Condemning
 - Purpose is accepting—Rejecting
 - Purpose is valuing integrity—Violating integrity
 - Approach to problems is:
 - Positive—Negative
 - Open to experience—Closed to experience
 - Process oriented—Ends oriented
- E. *Appropriate Methods for Helping*
 - Sees helping methods superior to manipulating methods
 - Sees cooperation superior to competition

THE HELPING PROFESSIONS

E. (continued)

Sees acceptance superior to
appeasing
Sees acceptance superior to
rejecting (attacking)
Sees permissive methods superior
to authoritarian
Sees open communication superior
to closed communication

Sees giving methods superior
to withholding
Sees vital methods superior
to lifeless
Relaxed—Compulsion to
change others
Awareness of complexity—
Oversimplification
Tolerant of ambiguity—Intolerant

Since the original publication of these hypotheses and as a result of our experiences in working with them in practical settings, we have become aware that some do not really represent perceptions. Rather, in stating some of these hypotheses, our seminar quite unconsciously slipped back into more familiar behavioral rather than perceptual descriptions. For example, items in Section B (Seeing People and Their Behavior) are stated in perceptual terms, how the helper sees others. Some of the items in Sections A and D, however, are more behavioral than perceptual. An internal frame of reference, for example, is a way of behaving, not a perception in itself. Similarly, approaches to problems in Section D are ways of acting rather than ways of perceiving. In designing some of our later research studies, some of these errors in conceptualization were corrected before being put to test.

MEASUREMENT PROBLEMS IN RESEARCH

Our original thinking in this exploration had been: "If we can discover valid differences in characteristic ways of perceiving of good and poor helpers, this information should be useful as guidelines for the development of the kinds of programs needed to produce effective helpers." Thus, we were immediately faced with several knotty problems: (1) how to distinguish between good and poor practitioners, and (2) how to measure the perceptions of these persons once they had been isolated.

Distinguishing "Good" and "Poor" Practitioners

Since all reviews of research to date had demonstrated that effective practice could not be distinguished from ineffective practice by objective means (either knowledge or behavior), we were faced

SELF AS INSTRUMENT

with the problem of how to achieve samples of "good" and "poor" helpers for our researches. Clearly, existing means could not be used to provide us criteria. After much discussion we came to the following conclusion: "The task we confront is one of finding valid criteria in the current absence of such distinguishers. We are pioneering. Our problem is similar to that faced by Binet with early intelligence tests when he used teachers' judgments to select more intelligent and less intelligent children, then constructed his tests to differentiate between them. We will, therefore, attempt to differentiate effective from ineffective practitioners on the basis of the best judgments possible obtained from persons in positions to know. In each instance we will accept only those with a minimum of two independent judgments, made by qualified persons, which corroborate each other. Wherever possible we will seek corroboration from more than the minimum sources." In the researches reported later in this monograph it can be observed that these criteria led to a number of ways of obtaining judgments from diverse sources.

THE MEASUREMENT OF PERCEPTION

Since perceptions lie inside people, they are not available for direct manipulation or measurement. It is necessary, therefore, to approach the matter through some form of inference made from a sample of observable behavior. Many writers have maintained that the self concept could be directly measured by more or less sophisticated techniques of asking subjects to report the nature of their self perceptions. This is a straightforward, "logical" approach to the problems of perception measurement of internal phenomena. However, on theoretical grounds, there is serious reason to doubt the adequacy of self reports as accurate measures of perception and self concept. Accordingly, we carried out several theoretical and research investigations to explore whether the relationship between self perceptions and self report was sufficiently close to warrant experimental use. As a result of our theoretical analysis we came to the conclusion that the self report (a behavior) and the self concept (perceptions) cannot be accepted as valid measures of the same phenomena.²

2. Combs, A. W., & Soper, D. W. The self, its derivative terms and research. *Journal of Individual Psychology*, 1957, 12, 134-145. Soper, D. W., & Combs, A. W. Planning future research in education. *Educational Leader-*

To test these conclusions empirically several studies were carried out by Combs, Courson, and Soper³ and by Parker.⁴ These clearly confirmed the lack of trustworthy relationships between self report and self concept. With regret, therefore, we abandoned self report forms of measurement and sought to approach the problem of measuring perception by inferential means. This calls for the use of observers specially trained in the making of perceptual inferences from various kinds of behavior samples as illustrated in the research projects reported in the remainder of the monograph.

Having established the hypotheses needing exploration our next step was to find ways of testing them experimentally. The first research was carried out by Combs and Soper with counselors-in-training at the University of Florida. The results were so exciting that we decided to follow it with a much larger study of "good" and "poor" teachers. After months of planning with the cooperation of public schools, a research proposal was finally submitted to the United States Office of Education. The project was "disapproved" by the Cooperative Research Branch with what must surely be one of the more remarkable rejections of all time. We quote: "It certainly is important to have a better understanding of effective teachers. However, the type of study proposed here would be at best useless, and at worst most dangerous to all concerned." We, therefore, decided to reduce the size of our effort and carry out our researches without outside funding. The research reports which follow represent attempts to test some of our fundamental hypotheses on various groups of "helping" persons and were carried out in each instance by the authors indicated with little or no outside support.

ship, 1957, 5, 315-318. Combs, A. W. New horizons in field research: The self concept. *Educational Leadership*, 1958, 15, 315-319. Combs, A. W. The self in chaos. Review of R. C. Wylie, *The Self Concept*. University of Nebraska Press, 1962, *Contemporary Psychology*, 1962, 7, 53-54.

3. Combs, A. W., Courson, C. C., & Soper, D. W. The measurement of self concept and self report. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 1963, 23(3), 439-500. Courson, C. The use of inference as a research tool. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 1965, 25, 1029-1038.

4. Parker, J. The relationship of self report to inferred self concept in sixth grade children. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Florida, 1964. Parker, J. The relationship of self report to inferred self concept. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 1966, 26, 691-700.

Part Two Research Reports

3. THE PERCEPTUAL ORGANIZATION OF EFFECTIVE COUNSELORS

by *Arthur W. Combs and
Daniel W. Soper*

The forty-one hypotheses formulated in 1959 by the seminar of faculty and graduate students were not subjected to experimental study until the fall of 1961. At that time the present study¹ was initiated as the first in a series designed to test the validity of the hypotheses with different branches of the helping professions.

THE ANALYSIS OF PERCEPTUAL ORGANIZATION

During the academic year 1961-62, the University of Florida operated a year-long Guidance Institute. Thirty-one counselors-in-training, nominated by their local school systems and accepted after a screening program by the Department of Personnel Services for this special program, composed the student body. None of the students had done extensive graduate work in the field of guidance and counseling. During their first semester at the university, twenty-nine of these counselors-in-training were enrolled in a graduate course in Personality Dynamics taught by Dr. Arthur Combs. This was not a special class for counselors, but a regular graduate course open to any graduate student in the college, and the guidance group was scattered among the one hundred and ten students enrolled. Four times during the semester each student was required to hand in a description of a "Human Relations Incident" in which he had been involved, including a critique covering: (1) what he thought about it at the time, (2) what seemed to him to be the crux of the problem, and (3) what he now felt he might better have done about it. The protocols produced by the twenty-nine

1. This chapter is adapted from an article of the same title originally published in the *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, Vol. 10, pages 222-227, 1963. Portions reprinted here by permission of the Journal of Counseling Psychology, Inc., published by the American Psychological Association, Inc., at Mt. Royal and Guilford Avenues, Baltimore, Maryland, 21202. This research was awarded a Certificate of Commendation by the American Personnel and Guidance Association in 1962.

counselors-in-training were separated from those of the rest of the class and subjected to a perceptual analysis for the purposes of this research.

Since the forty-one hypotheses proposed by the seminar described in Chapter 2 were much too lengthy for our purposes, we scored the human relations incidents for only twelve perceptual variables defined as follows:

A. With respect to their general perceptual orientations, good counselors will be more likely to perceive:

1. From an internal rather than from an external frame of reference. The protocol writer's general frame of reference can be described as internal rather than external, that is to say, he seems sensitive to and concerned with how things look to others with whom he interacts, and he uses this as bases for his own behavior. He is concerned with perceptions of others as well as their overt behavior.

2. In terms of people rather than things. Central to the thinking of the subject is a concern with people and their reactions rather than with things and events.

B. With respect to their perceptions of other people, good counselors will perceive others as:

1. Able, rather than unable. The subject perceives others as having the capacities to deal with their problems. He has faith that they can find adequate solutions as opposed to doubting the capacity of people to handle themselves and their lives.

2. Dependable rather than undependable. The subject regards others as being essentially dependable rather than undependable. He shows confidence in the stability and reliability of others and does not need to be suspicious of them.

3. Friendly rather than unfriendly. The subject sees others as being friendly and enhancing. He does not regard them as threatening to himself but, instead, sees them as essentially well-intentioned rather than evil-intentioned.

4. Worthy rather than unworthy. The subject tends to see other people as being of worth rather than unworthy. He sees them as possessing a dignity and integrity which must be respected and maintained rather than as unimportant people, whose integrity may be violated.

C. With respect to their perceptions of self, good counselors will perceive themselves as:

1. Identified with people rather than apart from people. The subject tends to see himself as a part of all mankind; he

sees himself as identified with people rather than as withdrawn, removed, apart, or alienated from others.

2. Enough rather than wanting. The subject generally sees himself as enough; as having what is needed to deal with his problems. He does not see himself as lacking or unable to cope with problems.

3. Self revealing rather than self concealing. The subject is self revealing rather than self concealing; that is, he appears to be willing to disclose himself. He can treat his feelings and shortcomings as important and significant rather than hiding them or covering them up. He seems willing to be himself.

D. With respect to purposes, good counselors will perceive their purposes as:

1. Freeing rather than controlling. The subject's purpose is essentially freeing and facilitating rather than controlling, dominating, coercing, or manipulating.

2. Altruistically rather than narcissistically. The subject appears to be motivated by feelings of altruism rather than narcissism. He is concerned about others, not merely about self.

3. Concerned with larger rather than smaller meanings. The subject tends to view events in a broad rather than narrow perspective. He is concerned with larger connotations of events, with larger, more extensive implications than the immediate and specific. He is not exclusively concerned with details but can perceive beyond the immediate to future and larger meanings.

Using these definitions a score sheet was made on which each of the above perceptual categories could be scored on a seven point scale. Blind analyses of the protocols were then made in the following manner. The four "Human Relations Incidents" written by each of the counselors-in-training were kept in a folder identified only by a number. These folders were checked out, one at a time, by each of our four research assistants. The protocols were carefully read with an eye to the kinds of perceptions held by the writer in describing the human relations incident. Research analysts asked themselves, "How must this person have perceived to have written of this incident this way?" Raters were not permitted to read more than two cases at a sitting in order to avoid halo effect and were not permitted to discuss their findings with each other until all research team members had completed the analysis of a given case.

We were fortunate in having available for our perceptual analysis an experienced team of four graduate research assistants who had no connection with the guidance institute and who had been making perceptual inferences for six months as part of another research on the perceptions of children.² The competence and reliability of these people in making such analyses had been demonstrated statistically in the factor analyses of our previous study. To confirm their reliability in the present experiment, however, we subjected them to a retraining period for this study and did not use them for making perceptual inferences until we were satisfied they were making common judgments. The per cent of agreement of our four raters with themselves and with each other on a sampling of ten cases is indicated in Table 1.

TABLE 1. PER CENT OF SCORING AGREEMENT
AMONG RATERS ON TEN SAMPLE CASES

Raters	A	B	C	D
A	89.4			
B	87.0	90.5		
C	84.7	83.8	91.0	
D	88.1	88.8	82.3	88.7

The perceptual inferences obtained in the above manner were recorded on a seven point scale for each item on the score sheet. The sum of the four ratings assigned to each item was used as the final score for each counselor-trainee on that particular item. When all the perceptual scores had been recorded, the counselors-in-training were placed in rank order with respect to each of the perceptual items under investigation and with respect to the total score for all items summed. These rank orders were then correlated with effectiveness ratings made by the faculty.

THE COUNSELOR EFFECTIVENESS RATINGS

The University of Florida 1961 Guidance Institute participated in a national program of research which required extensive testing of students and a number of ratings by the faculty at various points

2. Combs, A. W., & Soper, D. W. *The relationship of child perceptions to achievement and behavior in the early school years*. Cooperative Research Project No. 814, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida, 1963.

throughout the year. The faculty evaluations needed for this research were requested along with those called for by the national program during the last week of the institute. Without fanfare the faculty was simply asked to evaluate the students in the institute in this additional way during a time set aside in the last faculty meeting of the year. Only the department chairman had been told the precise nature of the experiment we were conducting.

The group making the evaluations included the professors who had been responsible for training and supervising students in the strictly counseling aspects of the program. It also included those professors and graduate assistants who had served as supervisors in the practicum phases of training. All but two of the sixteen members of the staff were present. A series of twenty-nine cards, each bearing the name of one of the counselors-in-training, was scattered on a table before the group. They were then asked to come to a consensus as to the proper order in which the trainees should be placed in respect to their promise as counselors. More specifically, the faculty was told, "Let us suppose you are in a position to hire a number of counselors. Put these Institute counselors in the order in which you would hire them for your staff." In a case conference procedure the faculty then arranged the twenty-nine counselor-trainees in order from best to poorest counselor. In this fashion we acquired a rank order of probable effectiveness of our counselors-in-training. Rank order correlations were then computed between each perceptual variable and the counselor effectiveness rankings provided from the staff judgment. These correlation coefficients are reported in Table 2.

It is apparent from an examination of Table 2 that all of our predictions are supported. All but two of the correlations are significant beyond the .01 level. Apparently it is possible to distinguish good counselors from poor ones on the basis of their perceptual organization. With more refined techniques of perceptual analysis and counselor ratings the correlations achieved here would probably be higher still.

Since the faculty in this institute have all been more or less affected by client-centered approaches to counseling, the question might be raised whether similar correlations would be found for a group of counselors whose effectiveness had been rated by experts from a different school of thought. That question, of course, can only be answered by further research. We venture the prediction,

however, that similar results would occur for there is evidence in the work of Fiedler³ and Heine⁴ that expert counselors, even those from quite different schools of thought, nevertheless show high degrees of agreement as to what constitutes a good counseling relationship.

The definition of "good" and "poor" workers is of great importance to all the helping professions including counseling, social work, medicine, law, teaching, or the clergy. It is equally important in such relationships as those between foreman and worker, supervisor and staff, parent and child, or the myriad interrelationships of administrators and their staffs. Almost without exception,

TABLE 2. RANK ORDER CORRELATIONS BETWEEN STAFF JUDGMENTS OF COUNSELOR EFFECTIVENESS AND PERCEPTUAL INFERENCE FOR TWENTY-NINE COUNSELORS-IN-TRAINING

Perceptual inference	Rank order correlation	Significance level
Internal—External frame of reference	.496	.01
People—Things orientation	.514	.01
Sees people as able—unable	.589	.01
Sees people as dependable—undependable	.489	.01
Sees people as friendly—unfriendly	.555	.01
Sees people as worthy—unworthy	.607	.01
Sees self as identified—unidentified	.556	.01
Sees self as enough—not enough	.394	.05
Sees self as revealing—not revealing	.447	.02
Sees purpose as freeing—controlling	.638	.01
Sees purpose altruistically—narcissistically	.641	.01
Sees purpose in larger—smaller meanings	.475	.01
Total categories	.580	.01

the attempt to distinguish between effective and ineffective persons in such relationships on the basis of their overt behavior has proven most disappointing.

In the light of the almost universal failure to find objective behavioral criteria which differentiate "good" and "poor" professional workers, correlations of the magnitude obtained in this study

3. Fiedler, F. E. The concept of an ideal therapeutic relationship. *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, 1950, 14, 239-245.

4. Heine, R. W. A comparison of patients' reports on psychotherapeutic experience with psychoanalytic, non-directive, and Adlerian therapists. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1950.

assume a very great significance. They seem to suggest new directions for research on this important problem that may eventually provide us with more satisfactory answers than we have had heretofore. These findings suggest that what we have failed to define objectively we may be able to distinguish perceptually.

4. THE PERCEPTUAL ORGANIZATION OF EFFECTIVE TEACHERS

by C. Thomas Gooding

The results of the study of counselors reported in Chapter 3 proved so exciting we turned next to apply these techniques to the problem of effective and ineffective teachers. This study was therefore designed to determine whether certain perceptual organizations, as inferred from observations and interviews of selected teacher subjects, are clearly characteristic of effective teachers.¹

THE PERCEPTUAL CHARACTERISTICS

Twenty perceptual hypotheses were investigated in this study; twelve were identical with those in our research on counselors (Chapter 3), and eight additional dimensions were selected from those originally proposed by the Helping Relationship Seminar (Chapter 2). They were as follows:

- A. Perceptions of people and their behavior
 - 1. Able—Unable
 - 2. Friendly—Unfriendly
 - 3. Worthy—Unworthy
 - 4. Internally motivated—Externally motivated
 - 5. Dependable—Undependable
 - 6. Helpful—Hindering
- B. Perceptions of self
 - 7. With people—Apart from people
 - 8. Able—Unable
 - 9. Dependable—Undependable
 - 10. Worthy—Unworthy
 - 11. Wanted—Unwanted
- C. Perception of the teaching task

1. Gooding, C. T. An observational analysis of the perceptual organization of effective teachers. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Florida, 1964.

- 12. Freeing—Controlling
- 13. Larger—Smaller
- 14. Revealing—Concealing
- 15. Involved—Uninvolved
- 16. Encouraging process—Achieving goals
- D. General frame of reference
 - 17. Internal—External
 - 18. People—Things
 - 19. Perceptual meanings—Facts and events
 - 20. Immediate causation—Historical

THE SELECTION OF EFFECTIVE AND INEFFECTIVE TEACHERS

A group of teachers clearly identified as effective and a group of teachers equally well identified as ineffective were required for this research. The two groups were identified as follows: The principal and curriculum coordinator from each of the elementary schools in the project were called to a meeting at which they were instructed to list independently the names of the very best and very worst teachers in their buildings. In order for a subject to be selected for participation in the research both the teacher's principal and curriculum coordinator had to arrive at independent, identical classification of the prospective subject as among "the very best or poorest in your school." The agreement on nominations between principals and curriculum coordinators was 52.5 per cent.

In an effort to control certain variables not related to the purpose of the study, no men were used in the sample. Groups were also compared on the basis of age, years' experience in the county system, total years of teaching experience, National Teacher Examination (NTE) scores, and academic training. Tests of significance of differences between means of the two groups on age, experience in the county, total experience, and NTE scores revealed no statistically significant differences between means on any of these criteria. All teachers in both groups held at least a bachelor's degree. Five members of the effective group and one member of the ineffective group held master's degrees.

Initial letters were sent to seventy-seven prospective subjects requesting their participation in "a study of effective teaching." Affirmative replies were received from thirty-three subjects. One teacher in the effective group dropped out due to illness, leaving

a final sample of nineteen teachers classed as effective and thirteen classed as ineffective.

It is interesting to note that there was a considerable difference in the rate of agreement to participate between teachers judged effective and those judged ineffective. The rate of acceptance for the effective group was 51.3 per cent whereas the rate of acceptance for the ineffective group was 38.2 per cent. It would, of course, be desirable to have unanimous acceptance in both groups. However, in practical research conditions the investigator is seldom able to achieve the exact sample which would be theoretically most desirable. In fact, when the difficulty of getting permission of an entire county school system to conduct research in such a sensitive area is considered, the degree of cooperation received seems excellent indeed. Experimenters cannot force prospective subjects to participate in a study of this nature and still remain on firm ground in terms of the ethics of research. However, the two groups were clearly different in respect to being judged effective and ineffective. Factors affecting the degree of response from the two groups, while intriguing, do not destroy this basic difference.

COLLECTING THE PERCEPTUAL DATA

Four carefully selected observers were given special training, over a one-month period, in making perceptual inferences from observations of teacher behavior in the classroom and from interviews with teachers. This training enabled them to arrive at highly reliable inferences regarding the perceptual organizations of subjects on the series of twenty hypotheses. Table 3 summarizes reliability data after training.

During the course of the research additional weekly calculations of the reliability of ratings were made. At the close of the data collection phase the overall reliability remained quite constant at 80.5 per cent. A summary of individual and overall rater reliability will be found in Table 4. An inspection of this table reveals that, while overall reliability was quite high, the reliability level for the interviews dipped to the minimum 75 per cent level stated as acceptable at the beginning of the research. This appears to indicate that further refinement of self as instrument inferential methodology should be continued to increase reliability and validity.

TABLE 3. PERCENTAGE OF AGREEMENT* OF OBSERVERS WITH EACH OTHER ON TEN PRACTICE CASES AFTER A ONE-MONTH PERIOD OF TRAINING

Observer	Inferences from observations (per cent)	Inferences from interviews (per cent)	Overall reliability (per cent)
1	82.5	75.0	78.8
2	80.7	80.0	80.8
3	81.6	76.3	78.8
4	78.0	81.3	81.3
All observers	80.7	78.2	79.2

a. Percentage of agreement is a ratio arrived at by computing the inference scores on which an observer agrees with the other three observers and dividing by the number of possible agreements.

Trained observers visited each of the teachers for three observation sessions and one interview. Neither they nor the teachers had any knowledge of how the teachers were classified. Each observer made his ratings independently although they visited teachers in teams of two. Ratings were made on a perception score sheet which included each of the twenty perceptual variables. On this instrument each of the twenty hypotheses was described as a seven point scale. For example, in the case of the first hypothesis "does the teacher see others as able or unable?" the observer made an inference on the basis of his observations, then rated the teacher from highly able (1) to highly unable (7).

To reduce halo effect the score sheet was divided into two forms, X and Y. One of these was filled out after observation number 2 and the other after observation number 3.

TABLE 4. SUMMARY OF OBSERVER RELIABILITY BASED ON PERCENTAGE OF AGREEMENT OF OBSERVER INFERENCES

Observer	Inferences from observations (per cent)	Inferences from interviews (per cent)	Overall reliability (per cent)
1	80.6	72.5	78.4
2	81.1	71.7	78.3
3	84.1	76.7	82.2
4	85.0	78.3	83.3
All observers	82.7	74.8	80.5

RESULTS

The ratings of the teachers' perceptual organizations as inferred from the observations and from the interview sessions were subjected to discriminant function analysis. The data from the inferences on observation yielded results which were significant at better than the .01 level of confidence (see Table 5). The data from inferences on interviews did not yield significant results. However, the interview data revealed trends which were in the same direction as the observation inferences.

TABLE 5. DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS RESULTS

Inferences	Sample size	Mean Z	Variance Z	Standard deviation Z	F $f_2=20, f_1=11$	Sig-nificance level
<i>From interviews</i>						
Effective group	19	.01343	.01005	.10024	1.41	Not significant
Ineffective group	13	-.01973	.01256	.11208		
<i>From observations</i>						
Effective group	19	.42339	.03732	.19310	4.43	.01
Ineffective group	13	-.61959	.03093	.17588		

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

Conclusion 1.—Apparently in teaching as in counseling there is a strong relationship between the perceptual organization of the person and his effectiveness as a professional worker.

Conclusion 2.—A statistically significant difference was demonstrated to exist between groups of effective and ineffective teachers on the basis of perceptual organization as inferred from observation of the teachers' classroom behavior.

The effective group of teachers was characterized by perceptual organizations as follows:

- A. The general frame of reference of effective teachers tends to be one which emphasizes:
1. An internal rather than an external frame of reference.
 2. Concern with people rather than things.
 3. Concern with perceptual meanings rather than facts and events.

4. An immediate rather than a historical view of causes of behavior.

B. Effective teachers tend to perceive other people and their behavior as:

1. Able rather than unable.
2. Friendly rather than unfriendly.
3. Worthy rather than unworthy.
4. Internally rather than externally motivated.
5. Dependable rather than undependable.
6. Helpful rather than hindering.

C. Effective teachers tend to perceive themselves as:

1. With people rather than apart from people.
2. Able rather than unable.
3. Dependable rather than undependable.
4. Worthy rather than unworthy.
5. Wanted rather than unwanted.

D. Effective teachers tend to perceive the teaching task as:

1. Freeing rather than controlling.
2. Larger rather than smaller.
3. Revealing rather than concealing.
4. Involved rather than uninvolved.
5. Encouraging process rather than achieving goals.

Conclusion 3.—Inferences concerning perceptual organization based upon observation of teachers may be made with a high degree of interobserver reliability. This inferential technique may be used with added confidence in further studies of this type.

The results of this study have revealed that effective and ineffective teachers have characteristically different perceptual organizations in terms of the perceptual hypotheses which were tested. In view of the general failure of objective approaches to the question of good and poor teaching, these findings must have great significance. They point the way to what seems likely to be a most fruitful new approach to the study of professional effectiveness and suggest new goals for teacher education programs.

The Teachers' General Frame of Reference

The effective teachers in this study were characterized by a greater degree of sensitivity to the feelings of students. They were more concerned with seeing the child's point of view and were more concerned with people and their reactions than with material

things. Further, the effective teachers had more concern for perceptual meanings than had their less effective colleagues.

These differences in perceptual organization suggest that teacher education will need to place greater emphasis on developing sensitivity in student teachers. To do this, teachers' colleges will need to place greater emphasis on perceptual factors during the teacher's training and to include a perceptual emphasis in the psychology taught to teachers in training. They also suggest a different emphasis in observation programs. Traditionally such programs stress objectivity of observation. If developing greater sensitivity on the part of beginning teachers is accepted as a goal of teacher education, however, then observation training will need to emphasize the development of greater sensitivity to the feelings of students and to their perceptions of school experiences rather than factual reporting.

Sensitivity denotes a deeper understanding of how things are perceived by those with whom one works. It does not seem likely that the usual courses in child development, child psychology, etc., can provide the kind of sensitivity characteristic of the good teachers in this research. More than subject matter and methods is required. This calls for greatly increased opportunities to enter into more personal, meaningful relationships with other students, faculty, and the children with whom teacher candidates plan to work.

The Teachers' Perceptions of Self

The effective teachers tended to see themselves as more identified with others, as having the capacity to meet the problems of life successfully, as being someone who is dependable, as having dignity and integrity, and as being likable and attractive.

People learn about themselves from their experience, particularly with the significant persons in their lives. The kinds of self perceptions characteristic of good teachers in this research, then, suggest new criteria for teacher selection and new goals for curricula. Teacher candidates, beginning early in their professional development, must be dealt with in their training as persons of dignity, integrity, and worth. They must be provided with success experiences which will aid them in developing positive attitudes toward themselves.

The Teachers' Perceptions of Others

The effective group of teachers tended to see others more as having the capacity of dealing successfully with their problems, as being friendly, and well-intentioned, and as having dignity and integrity. They also tended to see other people as creative and dynamic, as dependable and trustworthy, and as sources of fulfillment and enhancement rather than as threatening or sources of frustration and discouragement.

If such characteristic ways of perceiving others are important to teaching effectiveness, then teacher training institutions will need to foster the growth of these attitudes in prospective teachers. The atmosphere needed to facilitate the development of the perceptual organization stated above must be one in which the student teacher himself feels accepted, wanted, valued.

To produce the kinds of perceptions of others characteristic of good teachers in this research calls for rich opportunities for student teachers to interact with students in warm, friendly, cooperative kinds of atmospheres. It requires, also, acquaintance with current scientific findings, opportunities to work closely with others, and exposure to diverse and varying points of view. Teachers need to see others as aids rather than as threats to self. This is difficult if not impossible for those who have inaccurate, distorted perceptions about the nature of people.

The Teachers' Perceptions of the Teaching Task

This research found that the effective group of teachers tended to see the purpose of the teaching task as one of freeing and assisting rather than as controlling or coercing. In addition, the effective group members were more disclosing of their true selves, and they exhibited evidence of greater commitment or involvement in the teaching process. Likewise, they were more concerned with facilitating the process of learning and discovery than the achievement of specific, rigid goals.

The findings concerning the perceptions of the effective group in terms of the purpose of the teaching task provide many implications for teacher training. The effective group members, for example, were characteristically more process oriented than subject matter or ends oriented. This supports the view that we need to foster the development of teachers who see the role of subject

matter not exclusively as content to be mastered but as an aid to facilitating growth and discovery. The results seem also to suggest the need for flexibility in approaches to subject matter. Teaching methods do not facilitate optimum growth if they impose a rigid, stereotyped, lockstep progression through a maze of experiences which are meaningful to the teacher but not necessarily to the student. We need to move in the direction of producing teachers who are flexible in terms of methods and approaches to subject matter, who have an abiding concern for fostering the development of search and discovery, who do not insist upon rigid application of predetermined procedures and goals, and who encourage the student to contribute to the interaction. This calls for teacher education programs which do not insist upon particular methods but encourage students to find their own best ways to approach the teaching task with maximal openness. It is difficult to see how this can be accomplished unless the experiences of teacher candidates in the course of their training are such as to lead them to these ways of perceiving. Hence, teacher education programs themselves should encompass wide varieties of approaches.

It is probably easier to teach a student professional worker the steps of a method of teaching or to help him gain an adequate command of a given body of subject matter than to facilitate the development of new and more positive ways of seeing one's self and one's students. However, if this research and other studies which have pointed in this same direction are accurate, teacher education institutions will need to consider the question of the attitudes and perceptions of teachers as significant aspects for the development of effective teachers.

5. PERCEPTUAL CHARACTERISTICS OF EPISCOPAL PASTORS

by John A. Benton, Jr.

This research was designed to determine whether two groups of Episcopal priests rated effective or ineffective pastors by their bishops in respect to their counseling could be discriminated from one another on the basis of their perceptual organization.¹ Since the author is himself an Episcopal priest, his major concern was to obtain information concerning the counseling activities of pastors which might be of value in curriculum improvement of theological schools. A theoretical base, outlined in the first chapters of this book, had already been laid down in what has been called the phenomenological orientation for dealing with the problem of the helping professions.

Of the perceptual characteristics formulated in the original seminar,² five characteristics, called in this research "dimensions," were selected for study as they applied to clergy and their pastoral counseling. These were: (1) the pastor sees himself in the relationship as identified with people or apart from people; (2) the pastor sees other persons as able or as unable; (3) the pastor perceives other persons primarily as persons or objects; (4) the pastor perceives his role as being involved or not involved with other people; and (5) the pastor sees his task as freeing or controlling. One dimension dealt primarily with how the priest sees himself. Two dimensions dealt with his perception of the parishioner, or other person, in the pastoral relationship, and two dimensions dealt more directly with the pastor's perception of the nature of the pastoral relationship. These dimensions were defined in terms of a continuum as follows.

1. Benton, J. A. Perceptual characteristics of Episcopal pastors. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Florida, 1964.

2. Combs, A. W. A perceptual view of the nature of helpers in personality theory and counseling practice. *Papers of First Annual Conference on Personality Theory and Counseling Practice*. Gainesville, Florida: University of Florida Press, 1961.

Dimension One.—The pastor sees himself, in the pastoral relationship, as more *identified with people than apart from people*. The pastor perceives himself to be of a piece of all mankind, to be subject to all of the temptations, troubles, and joys of other human beings; to share a common life and destiny with the parishioner. Contrariwise, the pastor perceives himself as separate from, and unrelated to, the life of people and their problems; as a person alienated from his fellow human beings. His values are unrelated to the welfare of people.

Dimension Two.—The pastor sees the other person in the pastoral relationship as more *able than unable*. The pastor perceives the other person as having the capacity to deal with his problems and believes that he can find adequate solutions to his problems. Contrariwise, the pastor doubts the capacity of the other person to handle himself or his life.

Dimension Three.—The pastor sees other people more as *persons* than as *objects*. The pastor relates to the other person as if he were a unique, living, human being possessing uniquely human capacities and meaningful experiences; a being having feelings that are of importance; an individual striving toward goals; a being in process of becoming; dynamic and creative. The pastor perceives the parishioner as, in the words of Buber, a "thou" and not an "it." Contrariwise, the pastor perceives the parishioner more as an object; as an "it" with few feelings or whose feelings are of little meaning or account; as a "problem" or "case"; as simply the personification of his difficulty, e.g., an alcoholic, a gossip, a juvenile delinquent, a sinner, a nagging wife, an adulterer; as a "good" or "bad" statistic in the church records; as one properly and beneficially moved about according to a plan not of the individual's own choosing; as essentially reactive and passive.

Dimension Four.—The pastor sees his role as being more *involved than not involved* (with other persons). The pastor perceives that his real personal characteristics and feelings may rightly enter into his relationships in an interactive process. He feels committed to the helping process. He perceives that he may be genuinely warm, interested, and concerned with the other person and that he must enter into the other person's world of feelings and experiences. Contrariwise, the pastor sees his task as a "professional" one characterized by impersonal, distant, and detached attitudes. He feels the ideal pastoral relationship is a formal one in which the pastor

should strive for personal anonymity. He may, on the other hand, perceive that an inactive, inert, unconcerned role is appropriate to him.

Dimension Five.—The pastor sees his task more as *freeing* than as *controlling*. The pastor perceives the purpose of his pastoral task is to facilitate growth and to help the person become aware of the number of choices available to him; to create, during the relationship, an atmosphere that enables the parishioner to feel free from threat and external evaluation, to be more open to his experience. Contrariwise, the pastor perceives the purpose of his pastoral task to be the manipulation of the parishioner's perceptions, goals, feelings, and ideas in accordance with a plan judged best by the pastor; the creation, within the parishioner, of feelings of dependency upon the pastor; the assumption of responsibility for the behavior of the other person; the inhibition of feelings of the other person; the evaluation of the other person.

SELECTION OF THE SAMPLE

The sample was drawn from priests who were engaged in work as rectors, curates, or vicars in the diocese under study and who (1) were for four years prior to November, 1963, so engaged in work in the diocese, (2) were members of one of the two groups chosen effective or ineffective by two of the three bishops of the diocese, and (3) consented to participate in the study.

There are in the diocese under study three bishops exercising jurisdiction—a diocesan or chief bishop, and two suffragans or assistant bishops. The panel of bishops was chosen as raters not only because all three men have been in the diocese for over twenty years and know both priests and laity well, but also because, by the nature of their responsibilities, they frequently must make such evaluations in the placement of their clergy.

Each bishop was requested to select from the list of 146 eligible priests 20 whom he considered effective pastors and 20 whom he considered ineffective. Each bishop was told he might use any criteria he chose, but he was requested not to discuss his ratings with either of the other two bishops until after the lists were submitted. All lists were addressed to a confidential secretary who coded them for the research. For a name to be included in the sample, two bishops out of three had to agree on the rating of a

priest as effective or ineffective. Thirty-two priests met all criteria, seventeen effective and fifteen ineffective.

THE PERCEPTUAL DATA

Three projective instruments were used in the collection of data: (1) a pastoral problem response blank, (2) a picture story, and (3) three pastoral incidents.

The Pastoral Problem Response Blank.—This consisted of ten problems set forth in direct discourse following a brief introduction of each person and situation. These cases were from the experience of either the researcher or of clergy with whom he was familiar. The ten conversations were read by the researcher in a role-playing type presentation.

Following is an example of one of the ten cases used in this instrument.

Problem 1. The speaker in this instance is a leading layman in your parish and his wife is president of one of the women's guilds. You have seen him lately when you thought that he'd had too much to drink, and gossip has it that he has been a little too friendly with his secretary. He seems to be a good father to his three children. The time is during your regular afternoon office hours and the place is in your office of the church.

Man: Well, you see, Father, it's not that I want a divorce because I don't. I don't believe in divorce and I know what the church's teaching is. Maybe it isn't all her fault, but, my God, that woman is hard to live with! I never get a moment's peace around the house because she's always after me, hounding me, just boring in on me.

Standardized instructions for responding to this instrument were read by the researcher and then each of the ten problems was read with a pause following each for the pastor's response. The response was electronically recorded and later transferred to a typescript coded to conceal identity of subjects. This typescript formed the protocol from which judges later made ratings on the perceptual dimensions.

Picture Story Card.—In order to provide a greater latitude in the selection of a problem with which the pastor was compelled to deal, a picture about which the pastor was to compose a story was

used. This story was to set forth, within the context of the picture, a personal problem involving one or both of the persons in the picture. The pastor was asked to relate in his story how he would minister to these people.

Card 13 MF of Murray's TAT was chosen. This picture shows a young man standing with downcast head buried in his arms while behind him is the figure of a woman lying in bed. The primary concern was with the pastor's response as to how he would minister to the people involved in the problem as he saw it rather than the problem itself. Each subject was asked to imagine that he had been called to minister to these people in the situation as he saw it in the picture. He was to have one minute in which to compose a story involving the subjects, himself, and the situation, answering these questions: Who are these people? What has happened? Where are they? What is the trouble? Who called you and why? What are you going to do to minister to these people in the situation as you see it? Each was told that the nature of the problem was not the main interest in the research but the manner in which the pastor planned to minister to these people. The card was presented for a fully timed sixty seconds but was not removed from sight while each subject's response was recorded electronically. Later, the response was transcribed and scored in the same fashion as the responses to the Pastoral Problem Response Blank.

Pastoral Incidents.—In order to permit subjects the widest latitude of expression, the third instrument was a series of three incidents freely chosen from the pastoral experience of each priest in which he felt he had done an effective job as a pastor. This approach permitted each pastor to include material which he felt exemplified his best efforts as a pastor. Each subject was asked to think back over his pastoral ministry to three cases where he felt that he had done a particularly effective job as a pastor. He was further requested to try to recall from each of these cases an incident which revealed how he functioned as the pastor. He was told that a bit of conversation from the person and the pastor would be particularly helpful, if it could be recalled at this late date. The point was emphasized that these responses were to be incidents from cases and not the complete case history with preliminary information, total care, and ultimate outcome of the case. Responses to this part of the research were also tape recorded.

In addition to the responses garnered by the three instruments

already indicated, the researcher asked each priest for personal information such as age, number of children, the kind and size of congregation in which he now served, his educational background, etc. It was found that there were few differences in the two groups on any of these items with three exceptions. Almost all of the effective pastors were rectors of parishes, that is, held a position which is commonly felt to be more desirable and responsible than the positions in which the majority of the ineffective pastors were found. While the mean and median ages of the effective group were lower than the ineffective group, the effective pastors had been in the priesthood an average of about two years longer than those pastors in the ineffective group.

The ten responses to the Pastoral Problem Response Blank, the Picture Story, and the three Pastoral Incidents from each subject were stapled together to form a single protocol from which global ratings of the five perceptual dimensions were made. These thirty-two protocols were rated by three judges, two of whom were on the faculty of the Department of Personnel Services, College of Education, University of Florida, whereas the third was an advanced doctoral student in the field of Psychological Foundations of Education at the University of Florida. All three of the judges had had considerable experience in making the kind of inferences necessary for making the required ratings.

Judges were asked to rate each dimension on a nine point scale with the high end representing the positive extreme and the low end indicating a relative lack of the perceptual characteristics in the pastor whose protocol was being rated. Each protocol was to receive a global rating on each dimension, that is, the responses of each subject to all three instruments were to be taken into consideration in making the rating on any one dimension.

Each judge read the set of protocols five different times, once for each dimension but in a different order each time. These precautions were taken in order to avoid the possibility of a scoring "set" on the part of the judges. As a further safeguard against judge response set, each judge was instructed to read and rate not more than four protocols per hour, nor more than one dimension per day. Each judge was asked to make global ratings. No instructions were given as to what each judge was to take into consideration in making his ratings, but he was told to use whatever data in the protocol seemed to him significant. After all the rating sheets were

scored, these scores were then divided into the two groups by code number, previously rated by the bishops as effective and ineffective.

THE HYPOTHESES

This study was designed to test the validity of five hypotheses. Specifically, it was predicted that a group of pastors rated effective by their bishops would: (1) see themselves, in their relationships, as more identified with people, (2) in their relationships see other people as more able, (3) relate to other people more as persons, (4) see their role more as being involved with people, and (5) see the purpose of their pastoral task more as freeing, than would the group of pastors rated ineffective.

THE RESULTS

To test each of the hypotheses the null hypothesis for each one was formulated and the median test applied to test the difference in medians for each of the five hypotheses. Obtained chi squares were compared with a table of chi square of various levels of probability at one degree of freedom for a one-tailed test. Results of this significance analysis are given in Table 6.

From this table it can be seen that three dimensions, namely, Identified with People, Seeing Others as Able, and Seeing the Purpose of the Pastoral Task More as Freeing, discriminated effective from ineffective pastors beyond the .005 level of confidence. The other two perceptual dimensions, Relating to People More as Persons, and Seeing Role More as Involved with People, discriminated the two groups of pastors at the .05 level of confidence. Because of the reliabilities of the ratings of the three judges, it was believed that the acceptance of the hypotheses at the .05 level of confidence was justified.

In order to determine the reliability of the three judges' ratings, a split-half technique was utilized. This choice was made because both between and within judge reliabilities could be determined in one operation. A Pearson coefficient of correlation of .94 was calculated between the two halves of the 480 scores. The Spearman-Brown prophecy formula was used to produce an estimated correlation coefficient of .97 for the entire group of ratings by the judges.

CONCLUSIONS

On the basis of the results of the study, the following conclusions seemed to be warranted concerning effective and ineffective Episcopal pastors.

1. Priests who perceive that they are persons just as everyone else, sharing a common life and destiny with other people, are more effective pastors than priests whose values are unrelated to people and who perceive themselves to be isolated, or insulated, from the rest of humanity.

TABLE 6. MEDIAN SCORES AND OBTAINED CHI SQUARES BY DIMENSION FOR TWO GROUPS OF EFFECTIVE AND INEFFECTIVE PASTORS

Hypothesis	Median score total sample n=32	No. at or above sample median		Chi square
		Ef. n=17	Inef. n=15	
Pastor sees himself as more identified with people (Dimension One)	4.3	13	3	8.03 ^a
Pastor sees others as more able (Dimension Two)	4.3	13	3	8.03 ^a
Pastor relates to people more as persons (Dimension Three)	4.7	10	3	3.50 ^b
Pastor sees role as more involved with people (Dimension Four)	4.7	10	3	3.50 ^b
Pastor sees purpose of pastoral task more as freeing (Dimension Five)	5.3	11	1	9.11 ^a

a. Significant beyond .005 level, one-tailed test.

b. Significant beyond .05 level, one-tailed test.

2. Priests who perceive other people as human beings capable not only of seeing the right thing for them to do, but also doing it, are more effective pastors than priests who see others as lacking the ability to find adequate solutions to their problems and, therefore, must have answers supplied for them.

3. Priests who relate to their counselees as dynamic, creative human beings striving to live in the best way they know how and whose feelings are of value, significance, and importance to everyone, are more effective pastors than priests who relate to their counselees as if they were reactive and passive beings whose

feelings were not as important as the facts which can be fitted into a diagnostic pattern to form a basis for the priest to give directions.

4. Priests who permit their own feelings to enter into a pastoral relationship, who perceive the possibilities of personal growth existing in all interpersonal relationships, who seek to understand their counselees' feelings, are more effective pastors than priests who will not permit themselves to get involved personally with others, but strive for impersonal, unemotional, detached relationships with their counselees.

5. Priests who perceive their pastoral counseling task to be primarily a freeing of their counselees from the threat of external judgment, including the priest's, the church's, or God's, are more effective pastors than priests who seek to control the behavior and/or feelings of their counselees and who feel it their duty to pronounce judgment upon counselees. Effective pastoral counselors also perceive their task to be freeing of their counselees to discover and be aware of the various solutions to their problems and to choose the solution the counselee thinks the best for himself in his situation.

SOME IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this research seem to support several further observations. Contemporary psychologists who have been saying that the perceptual organization of a person provides a fruitful, meaningful, and helpful area of study in order to understand the dynamics of human behavior, specifically helpful behavior, may derive aid and comfort from the results of this investigation into the field of pastoral counseling. The protocols utilized in the research are rich in varieties of behavior manifested by the several pastors, but the perceptions behind the behavioral masks remained consistently stable and describable in the terminology of the dimensions selected for study.

A more general concern of this study was the possible value that the findings might have for seminary education. Without doubt there is need of adequate training of clergy to do pastoral counseling because priests will be faced with a welter of their parishioners' personal problems. The effective pastor cannot be described simply in terms either of what he does or what he knows. Often the effective pastors in this study did little that was very different from what the ineffective pastors did. Few, if any, of the effective

pastors seemed to manifest any special ability at diagnosing the emotional problems of their parishioners.

The criteria used by the bishops in making their evaluations of the counseling effectiveness of these priests were not attributes which were specifically related to a polished or particular counseling technique. The three bishops were in general agreed that the pastors' attitudes toward people were of prime importance. That is to say, the bishops valued such qualities as warmth, genuine interest in people, and priests' acceptance of others. They also emphasized whether priests were nonjudgmental in their approach to people and were nonrigid in the sense that there were no absolute answers to problems apart from particular situations and the priest did not possess all the answers to life's problems. They were also concerned with the priests' permissiveness, their willingness to listen to others, a reticence at the imposition of the pastor's will upon decisions, their feelings of security, and their capacity to love.

For theological schools, therefore, to concentrate on the teaching of a technique of counseling to seminarians would seem to be less than beneficial to their students and future counselees of their priests. Seminary faculty who are highly trained in a particular counseling orientation would seem not to be necessary. What would seem to be pointed up by this research is a greater concentration on the creation of a climate for emotional as well as intellectual growth of the seminarian as of greater importance and value. Whether a man is an effective pastor seems to be far more dependent upon how he perceives than upon what he specifically knows or does.

It would seem that seminaries would do well to provide opportunities for seminarians to experience relationships which are nonjudgmental, freeing, and deeply personal as a facilitation to becoming the kind of person who later seems to be an effective pastor. It would seem also that the future pastor should become increasingly familiar with himself, with the structure of his own perceptual world.

The concentration of many contemporary theological educational programs upon clinical training centering in a study of the psychiatric diagnosis and treatment of the mentally ill may be quite unhelpful to the seminarian. Such a program may tend to focus again upon the learning of an extensive body of specialized knowledge somewhat alien to the traditional role of the priest as a help-

ing person. Such clinical training in mental hospitals and exclusively by psychiatrists may tend to convince the seminarian that the only way people can be helped is through psychotherapy. It may also becloud the outlook of the seminarian so that he will see all personal problems as psychopathological. The present findings would seem to indicate that the effective pastor is the one who perceives in a certain way rather than the one who possesses a corpus of professional knowledge, psychiatric or theological.

This is not to deny the value to the pastor of knowledge which will enable him to recognize the pathological nature of certain behaviors in his counselees and make the proper referral to a psychiatrist. But sometimes the net effect of specialized knowledge has been to alienate the possessor from the remaining population. The good pastor, however, is actively involved and identified with his counselees, not for the purpose of directing or controlling them in the right way, but in order that the pastor may help each to be free to grow and develop in his own unique way.

6. PERCEPTUAL ORGANIZATION OF PERSON-ORIENTED AND TASK-ORIENTED STUDENT NURSES

by John Frederick Dickman

The American Nurses' Foundation states that nurses must accept the responsibility of meeting psychological needs of the patient since these needs are a major influence in effective treatment.² Assuming that the nurse who cares for the patient as a living, feeling person is more effective than the nurse who primarily conceives of the patient as a physiological organism on which to perform prescribed tasks, how may nursing schools select and train student nurses capable of relating helpfully with patients? Data on whether unique personality features characterize the person-centered nurse would help to answer this question. This research was an attempt to throw some light on the matter by examining some personality dimensions of individuals making up two groups of student nurses: a group judged predominantly person-oriented, and a group judged predominantly task-oriented in their professional work.

Generally speaking, research into the relations of various types of personality characteristics with success in nursing has produced equivocal results. Some researches report small positive correlations, but the preponderance of studies have shown no significant relationships.³ In view of this failure to relate nursing success to particular aptitudes, intelligence levels, or personality traits, the

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2. Whiting, J. S., et al. *The nurse-patient relationship and the healing process*. A Progress Report to the American Nurses' Foundation, June, 1955, to December, 1957. 1958, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, Veterans Administration Hospital.

3. Hill, Taylor, & Stacy. Is there a correlation between attrition in nursing schools and the job turnover in professional nursing. *Nursing Outlook*, September, 1964, 11, 666-669. Lentz, E. M., & Michaels, R. G. Personality contrasts among medical and surgical nurses. *Nursing Research*, 1965, 14(1), 43-48.

present research sought to determine whether perceptual characteristics would be more successful.

The decision to investigate possible differences in perceptual variables between persons employing a person-oriented as opposed to a task-oriented type of nurse-patient relationship was influenced by insights from studies on the helping relationship discussed or reported earlier in this monograph. These studies have seemed to suggest that there are distinct similarities in helping relationships and that the helper's own attitudes and ways of perceiving himself and others may be far more crucial in fostering growth in the person being helped than are the particular technical procedures carried out by the helper. Believing that the nurse-patient relationship, when person-oriented rather than task-oriented, falls within the category of helping relationships as defined by these researchers, it appeared that a study of perceptual characteristics of person-oriented versus task-oriented nurses might be more fruitful than the traditional investigations of possible trait differences between groups have proven to be.

The perceptual variables investigated in this study were:

1. *Positive view of self or positive self concept* defined as general overall basic regard for the self and a notion of worth as a person. It is a fact of "being" alone and not "doing" that determines the individual's positive concept of self. Generally a person with a positive self-regard does "do" and "accomplish" but these are by-products of his more basic existence as a person of value.

2. *Identified with others* defined as feeling a part of the human race sharing all the problems, joys, and temptations of other human beings. This variable is the opposite to regard of self as different from or alienated from others.

3. *Perceiving others as able* defined as seeing another person as having the capacity to deal with his problems and believing he can find adequate solutions to his problems. This variable is the opposite of solving the other's problems for him and assuming control of his life.

The primary hypotheses of the study were that person-oriented student nurses would: (1) perceive themselves more positively than do task-oriented student nurses, (2) would perceive themselves as more identified with others than do task-oriented student nurses, and (3) would perceive others as more able than do task-oriented student nurses.

The study further tested three sub-hypotheses concerning relationships between the three perceptual variables under investigation and three behavioral characteristics of the subjects. This was accomplished by investigating the relationship between each of the primary perceptual dimensions and the behavioral dimensions of (1) openness to experience, (2) self acceptance, and (3) sensitivity to the feelings of others (empathy). It was theorized (a) that a person who perceives his self in positive ways also will be more open to his experience, self accepting, and sensitive to the feelings of others. Likewise it was hypothesized (b) that a person who can sense himself as identified with others will be characterized by the same behavioral traits, and (c) that one who perceives others as able rather than unable will be more open, self accepting, and empathic.

Definitions for the behavioral variables were:

1. *Openness to experience* defined as ability to assimilate accurately all perceptions of self, others, and the world with a minimum of distortion.
2. *Self acceptance* permits a person to acknowledge his basic humanness and remain content with this state. The self-accepting person can admit to failure and human mistakes because he is human. He does not need to be a superhuman because he is content to be human. He can live with what is and therefore experience the present while anticipating the future with joy.
3. *Sensitivity* defined as the empathic ability to see the world from the point of view of the related other. The sensitive person tries to place himself in the frame of reference of others and is generally acutely sensitive to the emotional world of others.

THE STUDENT NURSE RATINGS

The student nurse groups were selected from the sixty students enrolled in the junior (second-year) and senior (third-year) classes of the Gordon Keller School of Nursing, Tampa, Florida. Gordon Keller is a three-year city-owned nursing school leading to certification as a registered nurse. It is fully accredited by the National Leagues of Nursing and is affiliated with a large (800-bed) metropolitan hospital (Tampa General). Primary responsibility for the

education of these student nurses lies with the staff of the nursing school. Duties of the instructors include active classroom instruction and floor supervision of the students. Thus, instructors have extensive opportunity to view students not only in the classroom but in interaction with patients. Among the ten instructors were four who had been with the training staff for at least two years and who had both taught and supervised each person among the junior and senior students. These four instructors were used to distinguish the person-oriented and task-oriented groups of nurses for the study.

First, they were given an intensive training period by the researcher devoted to defining the task-oriented versus the person-oriented approach to nurse-patient relationships so as to insure that the instructors would agree on the meaning of the terms. After they had reached a consensus on scoring these definitions each instructor rated each of the sixty second- and third-year students on a five point scale of approach to nursing care from task-oriented (low score) to person-oriented (high score). Thus, each student nurse had four independent ratings. Ratings were summed yielding a single score for each subject. From these scores the experimenter selected the twenty-three student nurses with the highest scores to comprise the person-oriented subject group and the seventeen student nurses with the lowest scores to comprise the task-oriented subject group. Although not statistically matched on these variables, students in the two groups were observed to be comparable in age (median age, twenty years; range, nineteen to twenty-seven years), general sociological background, and relative intelligence. Mean rating score for the task-oriented group was 9.6. Mean rating score for the person-oriented group was 16.5. The difference in these means is significant beyond the .001 level. Instructor agreement in rating was very high although no formal inter-instructor reliability coefficient was obtained.

PERCEPTUAL AND BEHAVIORAL CHARACTERISTIC RATINGS

Measurements of perceptual and behavioral characteristics of all subjects were obtained by use of judges from a battery of three projective instruments.

Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) Cards.—Responses were obtained to three cards of the TAT, 13M, 3BM, and 4. Cards were presented by the group method of projection on a screen while sub-

jects responded in writing according to the standard Murray instructions.

Critical Incident.—This technique required the subject to describe in writing the most significant experience she had had in nursing to date indicating what the incident was, what happened, and why this was significant.

Structured Incidents.—Three structured incidents were presented to each subject in written form as follows:

1. If I were an unwed mother what would I do and how would I feel? What response could I expect from important people like friends, parents, and hospital personnel?
2. If I were assigned to a busy pediatric ward on which an eight-year-old girl was terminally ill of leukemia, what would I do and how would I feel? In what ways would I try to deal with the child's parents or would I at all?
3. What would be the best way to deal with a cranky, demanding old man who had been told he is soon to die of lung cancer after long years of smoking two packs of cigarettes a day?

Responses to TAT cards, Critical Incident, and Structured Incidents were obtained during a group meeting of the junior and senior nursing classes at which only the researcher was present. Anonymity of subjects was secured by use of a coding system so that subjects did not have to sign their names to their protocols. Although the sixty members of the classes responded to the battery of test instruments only the data obtained from the forty students comprising the subject groups of this study were analyzed.

Written protocols were typed and coded so that no judge was aware of the subject group to which a nurse had been assigned. Copies of the protocols were given to three judges for independent ratings on the perceptual and behavioral variables. All judges hold doctorates and are currently engaged in clinical and counseling work. In addition, each has had much experience in analyzing perceptual data gained from projective techniques. Judges were asked to rate each subject's protocol on a seven point scale for each of the six variables. During a training period with the researcher, judges came to agreement on definitions of the dimensions to be measured. Judges were requested to make ratings on a single one of the six variables at a time. Order of reading of the forty protocols was varied for each of the six readings and each judge followed a

different order of variables in making the ratings. Judges were required to space their task over a two-week period.

Three months after the original rating each judge rerated the same protocols on a single variable with each judge rerating on a different variable. The rerating provided data on intra-judge reliability. Results of rerating showed that each judge varied, on the average, less than one rating point from one rating to the other. Inter-judge reliability was estimated by an analysis of variance technique. By this procedure a coefficient of correlation was obtained between the total rating on the six dimensions by one judge and the total rating by the other judges. The obtained coefficient was $r = .72$, indicating a high degree of agreement among the judges.

RESULTS

To test the hypotheses of significant differences between the two subject groups on the perceptual variables, estimates of the degree of relationship were computed by means of biserial correlations. Tests of significance by the "Z" score method were computed. In each case the biserial $r = .00$. Therefore, the data indicated no significant relationships between person-orientation and positive view of self identification with others or perceiving others as able. Thus, none of the primary hypotheses of the study was upheld.

Sub-hypotheses were tested by correlating (Pearson Product Moment) each of the three perceptual dimensions with each of the behavioral dimensions. The three judges' ratings on each dimension were summed, providing a total score on each dimension for each of the forty cases. Since these data were on a continuous scale, and each judge's score approximated a normal curve, use of the Pearson Product-Moment correlation method was justified. Results of these correlations are reported in Table 7.

The data of Table 7 indicate high positive relationships between the perceptual and behavioral variables. The student nurses who perceived themselves positively also tended to be open to their experience, self-accepting, and sensitive to the feelings of others. Conversely, student nurses who perceived themselves negatively were less open to their experience, less self-accepting, and less empathic in regard to the feelings of others. These same conclusions are also valid with respect to the dimensions of "Identification with Others" and "Perceives Others as Able."

In Table 7 the relationship found to exist between student nurses who are rated identified with others and self-accepting is represented by a correlation coefficient of $r = .89$. This correlation coefficient is exceptionally high but consistent with previous research of Stock,⁴ Sheerer,⁵ Fey,⁶ and Suinn,⁷ demonstrating an important relationship between self-acceptance and acceptance of others.

Findings recorded in Table 7 also suggest other relationships between dimensions of perceiving and dimensions of behaving.

TABLE 7. PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN PERCEPTUAL AND BEHAVIORAL DIMENSIONS

Perceptual dimensions	Behavioral dimensions		
	Open to experience	Self-acceptance	Empathic
Positive view of self	.69 ^b	.78 ^a	.71 ^b
Identification with others	.58 ^a	.89 ^c	.74 ^b
Perceives others as able	.61 ^a	.69 ^b	.74 ^b

a. Significant beyond the .001 level.

b. Significant beyond the .0005 level.

c. Significant beyond the .0001 level.

They indicate, for example, that persons who perceive themselves positively will demonstrate behavioral characteristics of openness, self-acceptance, and sensitivity to the feelings of others. These data add support to Combs' theory that behavior is a function of perception⁸ and, further, that certain kinds of perception lead to certain predictable kinds of behavior.

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7. Suinn, R. M. The relationship between self acceptance and acceptance of others: A learning theory analysis. *Dissertation Abstracts*, 1960, 20, 3846-3847.

8. Combs, A. W., & Snygg, D. *Individual behavior*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1959.

A FURTHER INVESTIGATION

The nonsignificant relationship obtained in this research between person-orientation and the perceptual variables differed markedly from the studies reported earlier in this monograph distinguishing between effective and ineffective helpers in other professions. The author, therefore, carried out a second study, this time dividing the student nurses with respect to effectiveness as nurses instead of person- or task-orientation.

To obtain ratings of the effectiveness of the subjects, the author met with the instructors who had originally rated subjects on the person-oriented to task-oriented dimension. This meeting took place approximately one month after the original ratings. Each instructor was given a list of the forty students in alphabetical order. They were not told which students had been judged earlier as task- or person-oriented. The instructors now selected the twenty-three most effective nursing students by a consensus procedure. This involved a pretense by instructors that they were the hiring committee for the hospital and the floor supervisors. From the list of forty students they could hire twenty-three nurses only. They were reminded that they would not only hire these nurses but that they would work with them. They ranked the student nurses from one to twenty-three by arriving at consensus as to whom they would hire first, second, etc., up to the twenty-third student to be hired. It was then proposed that the judges complete the same procedure on the remaining seventeen students. They did so, producing as an end product ranks on all cases from 1 to 40. Students ranked high were assumed to be those most effective and those ranked low were assumed to be least effective.

The ratings for the perceptual variables obtained in the first experiment were then placed in rank order and compared with the effectiveness ratings by means of the standard formula for rho. None of the rho's obtained was significant at the .05 level of confidence. The rho (.27) obtained between effectiveness and identification with others was significant at the .10 level of confidence. Thus, no significant relationship between professional effectiveness and the three perceptual variables was found although there was a tendency toward a slight positive relationship between effectiveness and identification with others. The results of both studies thus show no significant relationship between perceptual organization and

either effectiveness as nurses or person orientation. These findings are clearly out of line with the previous studies reported in this monograph. The implications of this disparity are difficult to assess. Among the reasons we have considered are the following.

1. Nursing is a helping profession dependent upon a different set of perceptual variables than teaching, counseling, or pastoral care. This is a possibility. We are loath to accept it, however, at this stage and prefer to await further research evidence before accepting that conclusion.

2. Our experimental techniques or our judging procedures were faulty. This may be the problem, but a painstaking review of our processes has provided no satisfactory answers.

3. It may be that a person who appears to concentrate on technological tasks rather than on human relationships may be just as psychologically healthy as one who seems more involved with human relations. For example, a scientist, more or less a recluse in a laboratory but working constantly to find a cure for a disease, may perceive himself deeply identified with other people, see others as able, and feel very positively about himself. In this research it appears that technological proficiency in a chosen field and the perceptual dimensions which have been studied seem not to be incompatible.

4. Perhaps students who enter nursing in the first place already possess a large measure of the kinds of perceptual organization we have investigated here. In addition, the further selection imposed by three years of exposure to a nursing staff valuing such qualities may have resulted in a distribution so skewed toward one end of the continuum as to make effective discrimination most unlikely.

Further research is clearly required to investigate these questions more fully.

The data obtained in this study show a clear relationship between perceptual organization and behavioral characteristics and thus lend support to the general hypothesis that perception is related to behavior. The exceptionally high relationship between student nurses who perceive themselves identified with others and student nurses who tend to accept themselves also provides further validity to the premise of Sheerer,⁹ Fey,¹⁰ and Suinn¹¹ that self-accepting people tend to be more accepting of others.

9. Sheerer, *op. cit.*

10. Fey, *op. cit.*

11. Suinn, *op. cit.*

7. PERCEPTUAL CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE COLLEGE TEACHERS

by Richard H. Usher

This study was designed to explore the perceptual characteristics of selected college professors.¹ College professors are notoriously independent people and studies on the effectiveness of college teachers are extremely rare in the literature. Few institutions engage in any sort of systematic appraisals of their faculties. In the College of Education at the University of Florida, however, a comprehensive procedure for the rating of faculty members has been in operation for more than fifteen years. These unique data were made available to the experimenter by the administration of the college and members of the faculty for purposes of this investigation.

The major hypothesis of this research is that there is a significant positive relationship between faculty members' ways of perceiving and their ratings on various criteria of faculty effectiveness. The experimenter restated twelve of the original dimensions, prepared by the seminar described in Chapter 2, as hypotheses for this research. Accordingly, it was predicted that college faculty rated most effective would perceive:

- A. Other people as:
 - 1. more able than unable
 - 2. more worthy than unworthy
 - 3. more dependable than undependable
 - 4. more internally motivated than externally molded
- B. Themselves as:
 - 1. more with people than apart from people
 - 2. more wanted than unwanted

1. This report has been abstracted by Arthur W. Combs for purposes of this monograph from the original dissertation written by Dr. Usher. Proper reference to the original is: Usher, R. H. The relationship of perceptions of self, others and the helping task to certain measures of college faculty effectiveness. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Florida, 1966.

3. more worthy than unworthy
 4. more able than unable
- C. Their task in terms of:
1. freeing rather than controlling
 2. larger rather than smaller meanings
 3. personal meanings rather than facts- or events-oriented
 4. accepting rather than not accepting

DATA ON FACULTY EFFECTIVENESS

Within the University of Florida, College of Education, an unusual opportunity for research on faculty effectiveness was afforded. A comprehensive procedure for evaluation of faculty members had been in use for a number of years. These evaluations were obtained on each professor with respect to three phases of his work: (1) teaching, counseling, and ability to work with colleagues, (2) research and publications, and (3) participation in professional activities. Data concerning these matters were obtained every two years from the professor himself, from his students, department head, deans, and a committee of senior faculty peers. These data were then formulated into a series of ratings by the dean's office.

Fifty-five members of the faculty met the criteria for acceptance in the study; namely, a minimum rank of assistant professor and membership on the faculty at least two years. Of these, 27 per cent were unavailable for one reason or another and 5 per cent refused to be involved, leaving twenty-six subjects for the study. For each of these professors six ratings were obtained as follows.

Student Rating (SR).—The student rating form used in the college consisted of twelve multiple choice items covering various aspects of the professor's teaching. Only the first question from this form was used in this research. This question asked, "How would you rate your instructor in general teaching ability?" The five possible answers and points scored for each were: an outstanding and stimulating instructor, 5; a very good instructor, 4; a good instructor, 3; an adequate but not stimulating instructor, 2; a poor and inadequate instructor, 1.

The mean SR score for each teacher was found by summing the numerical values for each student's rating and then dividing by the number of students. Some teachers had been evaluated by only one class, other teachers by several classes. For one evaluation, the

mean score was that for only the one class. For several evaluations, the mean score was the mean of all student ratings for that teacher.

Department Head Rating (DH).—Every two years the department heads evaluated each faculty member in their department on teaching, counseling, and working with colleagues. Some department heads took into account the student ratings when making this evaluation; others did not. These evaluations were turned in to the dean of the college who sorted them into three groups scored as follows: superior, 9 points; middle, 6 points; least effective, 3 points.

Research and Publications (RP).—This evaluation made by the dean rated a faculty member according to the number and quality of publications he had. It ranged from a score of zero for a minimal amount to a score of four for the greatest amount.

Professional Activities (PA).—In this category staff members were rated according to the number of offices held in professional organizations and frequency of speaking engagements or program participation. The range was from 0 to 3.

Adjusted Total (AT).—The dean and selected senior faculty members reviewed the initial four ratings on each professor then added or subtracted points where it appeared ratings were unjust to the staff member in question. The total of these adjustments could range from -3 to +3.

General Effectiveness Rating (GE).—The SR, DH, RP, and PA raw scores were changed into standard scores. Each standard score was then multiplied by an empirically derived weight for that score to achieve comparability. Then the four weighted scores were summed into a General Effectiveness rating.

THE PERCEPTUAL DATA

Three judges, including the writer, were given training in the "self as instrument" technique of inferring perceptual characteristics from samples of classroom behavior. Judges made repeated observations of teachers in the classroom and were encouraged to utilize the full resources of their experience and sensitivity in making inferential ratings. It was stressed that the judges were to make inferences based on how it must seem from the *subject's* rather than the *observer's* point of view.

Judges started their training by careful discussion of each of the perceptual hypotheses, making sure there was general agreement as to the nature of the perceptual characteristic defined on the score sheet. Next, a series of practice observations were made on the faculty of the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School at the University of Florida. A percentage of agreement figure was tabulated by computing the inferences on which an observer agreed with the other two observers divided by the possible number of agreements. Agreement was defined as three judges not varying more than one point on the ratings for each dimension. Acceptable levels of agreement for the research were defined as agreement on at least 80 per cent of the items. The training session data revealed 83 per cent agreement after eighteen hours of practice. During the actual study the reliability of perceptual inferences was rechecked periodically by computing per cent of agreement between the writer and each of the other judges.

Each faculty subject for this study had indicated a class which observers could visit for two different one-hour periods. The writer and one other judge observed each faculty subject in the study for two different one-hour periods. Following each observation the writer and the other judge immediately and independently recorded perceptual inferences on a specially prepared score sheet. The perceptual score sheet contained the twelve perceptual continua of the investigation. Item one is reproduced to show how these appeared.

A. The subject's perception of other people and their behavior
1. Able—Unable

The subject sees others as having the capacities necessary to deal with their own problems successfully. He perceives others as basically able to make their own decisions and deal with their own crises effectively.

The subject sees others as being essentially unable to meet the crises in their lives and make their own decisions. His perceptions of the abilities of others are doubtful in nature.

Able 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Unable _____
SCORE

Judges recorded their inferences by circling the appropriate number and also recording it in the blank to the right. A similar set of definitions for the other eleven hypothetical continua followed with a seven point scale for each. To reduce halo effect the twelve

hypotheses were divided into two forms with six hypotheses on each of the two half-forms. When observing the first hour, the writer would fill out one of the half-forms, the other judge would fill out the second half-form. In the second observation period, the forms used were reversed. Though observing twice, each observer filled out only one complete score sheet for the twelve hypotheses.

Sixteen perceptual scores were computed for each subject. Twelve were obtained from each of the twelve hypotheses. Four additional scores were obtained as follows: the four scores under the heading "Subject's Perception of Other People," were summed for a sub-total score. This was also done for the four scores under "Perception of Self" and the four ratings under "Perception of the Task." Finally, all twelve ratings were combined for a total score. Thus, there were twelve single scores, three sub-total scores, and one total score. To examine the relationship between the perceptual scores and effectiveness ratings, Pearson Product-Moment correlations were computed between the sixteen perceptual scores and the six faculty rating scores. Intercorrelations for perceptual scores and effectiveness scores were also computed.

THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

Significant findings from this study are as follows.

1. The characteristic ways in which these college faculty perceive themselves, other people, and their tasks are highly inter-related. From an examination of Table 8 it can be seen that intercorrelations of ratings on the twelve perceptual hypotheses are generally high and positive. This is consistent with perceptual self-concept theory which holds that an individual's behavior is at any moment the function of a highly interrelated, interactive field of personal perceptions of which the self-concept is the basic referent. The consistency of this correlation also suggests that a high degree of overlap may exist among these factors. Combs and Soper² have suggested in another study that significant and discreet perceptual characteristics may be fewer in number than we have supposed. They recommend the use of factor analysis techniques to explore this question in greater detail.

2. Combs, A. W., & Soper, D. W. *The relationship of child perceptions to achievement and behavior in the early school years*. Cooperative Research Project No. 814, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida, 1963.

TABLE 8. INTERCORRELATIONS OF TWELVE PERCEPTUAL HYPOTHESES UTILIZING OBSERVATION INFERENCE SCORES (N=26)

	A				B				C				
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	
Perceives others													
Able													
Worthy	.84												
Dependable	.85	.85											
Internally	.88	.90	.86										
Perceives self													
With people	.81	.85	.81	.86									
Wanted	.80	.74	.74	.83	.84								
Worthy	.70	.58	.62	.74	.77	.81							
Able	.76	.69	.72	.68	.79	.82	.80						
Helping task													
Freeing	.76	.84	.91	.85	.84	.71	.60	.71					
Larger	.80	.84	.84	.82	.84	.74	.66	.81	.89				
Meaning	.68	.81	.78	.80	.84	.70	.62	.68	.85	.91			
Accepting	.76	.88	.87	.84	.72	.59	.47	.56	.89	.78	.75		

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2. Intercorrelation of ratings on the six measures of faculty effectiveness shown in Table 9 suggests that two very different aspects of faculty effectiveness are involved in the criteria used for faculty ratings in the college.

a) One aspect of effectiveness is represented by the student ratings (SR) and deals primarily with classroom teaching competence.

b) Another aspect of effectiveness is suggested by ratings on research and publications (RP) and professional activities (PA).

c) Department head ratings (DH) seem to be a compromise score somewhere between a and b.

TABLE 9. INTERCORRELATIONS OF SIX FACULTY EFFECTIVENESS MEASURES (N=26)

Effectiveness measure	Faculty effectiveness scores					
	SR	DH	RP	PA	AT	CE
Student ratings						
Department head ratings	.48 ^a					
Research and publication	.23	.54 ^b				
Professional activities	-.03	.38	.72 ^b			
Dean's adjusted total	.44 ^a	.87 ^b	.81 ^b	.72 ^b		
Total general effectiveness	.69 ^b	.86 ^b	.77 ^b	.56 ^b	.94 ^b	

a. Significant at 5 per cent level.

b. Significant at 1 per cent level.

These findings suggest that research, publications, convention attendance, consultant work, travel, etc., are not closely related to teaching competence, an observation many professors and students have long suspected. In this study we have accepted as our criteria of effectiveness items in actual use by this college. These results suggest, however, that two only slightly related aspects are involved, a. classroom effectiveness, and b. research, writing, and consulting activities. The first of these functions seems much more closely related to the interpersonal interactions characteristic of the other helping professions explored in these studies. The second is much more a matter of objective activity of a much less personal nature. It would thus appear, if these are valid criteria for judgment, that college teaching is a somewhat different task from the other helping professions. The helping function seems less central an aspect of the profession than is true for counseling, public

school teaching, and pastoral activities if the effectiveness ratings used in this college are accepted as indicators of quality performance.

3. No significant relationships were discovered between faculty perceptual characteristics and research and publications, department head ratings, professional activities, or college dean ratings. The general hypothesis of the study that effectiveness of college

TABLE 10. CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TWELVE PERCEPTUAL HYPOTHESES AND FACULTY EFFECTIVENESS AS RATED BY STUDENTS (SR) (N=26)

Perceptual variables	Correlations with SR
Perceives others	.50 ^a
Able—unable	.56 ^a
Worthy—unworthy	.43 ^b
Dependable—undependable	.39 ^b
Internally motivated—externally molded	.49 ^b
Perceives self	.39 ^b
With people—apart from people	.36
Wanted—unwanted	.44 ^b
Worthy—unworthy	.27
Able—unable	.33
Perceives helping task	.28
Freeing—controlling	.32
Larger—smaller	.29
Meaning oriented—facts, events oriented	.14
Accepting—not accepting	.32
Total perceptual rating	.40 ^b

a. Significant at the 1 per cent level.
b. Significant at the 5 per cent level.

teachers is related to certain perceptual characteristics is not borne out, at least when effectiveness is determined by these factors.

4. Significant relationships were found between total perceptual ratings for faculty members and general effectiveness as judged by students. These correlations are shown in Table 10. The general hypothesis of the study that certain perceptual characteristics are related to the effectiveness of college teachers is thus borne out when effectiveness is determined from student ratings.

It will also be noted from Table 10 that, despite the appearance

of a significant difference in the total rating, not all of the perceptual characteristics reach significant levels. In fact, none of the perceptual factors relating to the professor's perceptions of his task reach sufficient levels to be considered significant and only one in the self-perception area achieves significance.

5. Faculty members who perceive other people as basically able, worthy, dependable, and internally motivated are rated by students as more effective in overall teaching ability (Table 10). All four of the "Perceptions of Others" categories show significant relationships to student ratings of their professors.

6. The summed scores of all the items pertaining to "Perceptions of Self" show a significant correlation with student ratings in Table 10. Only one of the individual items in the category, "Sees Self as Wanted," however, achieves a significant level.

It may be that the perceptual organization of professors is more pertinent to the "human" and personal aspects of effectiveness in professional work than to the less personal aspects of research, publication, and professional activity. The present research is the first one in this series of studies to use indications of professional effectiveness not directly involved in human relationships. Further research is needed to determine what aspects of a person's perceptual organization may be of primary importance in determining success in objective pursuits like writing and research.

Previous researches which demonstrated a significant relationship between perceptual organization and effectiveness were performed with a sample selected on a "good"—"poor" basis, whereas the present study had a faculty sample that was strictly voluntary and whose spread on the effectiveness-ineffectiveness continuum was really an unknown quantity. In the present study, there was no attempt to create best-worst groupings of faculty members or to use only those faculty who were unequivocally one or the other on all ratings.

It may be that college teaching is simply a different breed of cat. Previous theoretical evidence which suggests that effective professionals are characterized by certain perceptions they hold about the nature of the helping task is only partly supported by the results of this research. The college teacher's helping task may be somewhat different from other helping professions studied. Much more research is needed before more definite conclusions can be stated.

Previous research on good teaching has repeatedly shown that

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correlation of methods, behaviors, etc., with effectiveness is low. Ellena et al., for example, conclude that no objective measure clearly indicates "goodness" in teaching.³ The variability of results in the present research may be due to the fact that the effectiveness measures used are largely objective. This also squares with the fact that positive results were found with the more *subjective* student ratings of general overall effectiveness in the classroom and not with objective measures of research and publication. It may be also that there is a need to distinguish between teachers of primarily factual and content-centered disciplines and teachers who are expected to produce more personal changes in their students.

3. Ellena, W. J., Stevenson, M., & Webb, H. V. *Who's a good teacher?* Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administrators, N.E.A., 1961.

Part Three An Interpretation

8. AN OVERVIEW AND NEXT STEPS

What can we conclude from this series of studies and what directions do they suggest for further research? While these studies leave many questions unanswered and can hardly be regarded as definitive, they nevertheless provide additional support for basic concepts in perceptual theory, shed new light on the nature of the helping professions, and point the way to promising hypotheses for further research.

SUPPORT FOR PERCEPTUAL THEORY

The basic premise of perceptual psychology is that behavior is a function of the perceptual field of the behavior at the instant of action. Most research in human behavior has traditionally been carried on from an external point of view. That is to say, understanding of behavior has been sought from the frame of reference of the outside observer. The thesis of perceptual psychology, on the other hand, is that behavior can also be understood (and sometimes more effectively) when examined from the standpoint, not of the outsider, but of the behavior himself. The results of these studies tend to corroborate that position. They do more. Attempts to distinguish the behavior of professional workers in terms of objective criteria like knowledge possessed, or methods used, or behavior exhibited have generally been disappointing in the past. Several of the studies reported here, however, have demonstrated that significant relationships do, indeed, exist between perception and behavior. Even more, they suggest that a perceptual approach to the study of professional workers may provide us with more useful understanding of these persons than has heretofore been possible. Thus, these studies not only support the perceptual hypothesis, but suggest that this approach may be more fruitful in advancing our efforts to understand the helping professions. They seem to place in our hands a new and promising tool for further research.

A major difficulty in perceptual psychology is the problem of measurement. Measurement in more orthodox approaches to psychology can be a pretty straightforward matter of recording observations or counting responses. The study of perception is more

difficult since perceptions lie inside people and are not open to direct observation. Because perception can only be approached (at least, at present) by some form of inference, additional problems of reliability of measurement are posed for the researcher using this frame of reference. For some psychologists these problems have seemed so difficult that they have raised serious questions of whether such procedures can be dignified by the term "research" at all. The question requires an answer. The position of the perceptual psychologist is that techniques of inference can, indeed, provide reliable data if the researcher approaches the problem of measurement with the same discipline, care, and rigor demanded of science in any other field of exploration.

In these studies inferences about the perceptual organization of professional workers have been obtained from a wide variety of original sources including observations, interviews, "critical incidents," responses to problem situations, and stories told by the subject. Inferences were obtained by using the observer himself as an instrument of measurement. Observers also demonstrated in these studies that such inferences could be made with highly acceptable degrees of reliability and that such data could be effectively used for the exploration of an important aspect of human behavior.

THE NATURE OF THE HELPING PROFESSIONS

The Common Origins of the Helping Professions

The original impetus for these studies grew out of a suspicion that, while the various forms of the helping professions differ with respect to their purposes, clientele, and techniques, nevertheless, they are basically alike in the psychology through which they operate. It seemed to us that the crux of the problem of "helping" lay not in some mysterious special technique. Rather the various helping professions seem really to be expressions of a kind of basic "good" human interrelationship. That is to say, these professions appear to represent the concentration and crystallization of the best we know about human interrelationships for the sake of the person or persons to be helped. The helping professions seem to us not different from life experience but selected from human experience. Within the limited sample represented by these studies, this thesis is given some support.

Ideally, the case for this observation would certainly be stronger had our studies investigated identical criteria with identical techniques in each of the professions we examined. Unfortunately, that is hindsight which suggests the need for further research, to be sure, but does us little good now. From the data we do have, however, there is sufficient evidence to suggest that the perceptual organization of persons who are effective helpers, at least for counselors, elementary teachers, Episcopal priests, and student nurses, have a number of common kinds of perceptions. Our original hunches seem to be supported and we are encouraged to continue exploring in these directions.

The Importance of Perceptual Organization as a Distinguishing Characteristic

Our early theoretical consideration of these matters led us to the belief that the widespread failure of research efforts to distinguish between effective and ineffective workers in the helping professions was largely due to concentration on symptoms rather than causes. Observed behavior is the end of a process, an expression of it. As such, many diverse behaviors may occur as expressions of a single aspect of individual beliefs or perceptions. Conversely, different perceptual experiences can result in highly similar kinds of behavior. To distinguish clearly between effective and ineffective workers in the helping professions it seemed to us required penetration to the causes of behavior, a hypothesis supported by the observation of other workers that persons are often helped by highly diverse behaviors if the intent of the helper is positive. The accuracy of this reasoning is certainly given support by the findings of these studies. Our studies with elementary teachers, counselors, and Episcopal priests, especially, seem to lend credence to the importance of the perceptual variable in distinguishing between effective and ineffective helpers. The results for our college teachers, when effectiveness is judged by students, at least, also seem to corroborate our hypotheses. The findings of our study with student nurses, however, while not denying our original hypothesis, certainly did not corroborate it.

THE GENERAL FRAME OF REFERENCE OF PROFESSIONAL HELPERS

Three of our studies showing significant differences between effective and ineffective professional workers investigated the frame of reference in which the helper approached his task (Table 11). All these investigated the people-things dichotomy, two examined the internal-external approach dimension, and one further examined the perceptual-facts and the immediate-historical dichotomies as well. In view of the fact that the helping professions are designed to help people, it is not surprising to find that workers

TABLE 11. FRAME OF REFERENCE CATEGORIES SHOWING SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES IN THREE STUDIES

Category	Counselors	Teachers	Priests
People—things	S ^a	S	S
Internal—external	S	S	NM
Perceptual—facts	NM ^b	S	NM
Immediate—historical	NM	S	NM

a. S=Significant difference.
b. NM=not measured.

who tend to be people-oriented are likely to be more effective. The remaining items explored in this category seem to represent a characteristic internal or perceptual approach which effective helpers take toward their students, clients, or parishioners. Such a characteristic frame of reference in the helper would presumably cause him to behave in ways that others would describe as sensitive or empathic, both qualities often described as desirable in counselors, teachers, pastors, and nurses.

THE HELPER'S PERCEPTIONS OF PEOPLE

It is apparent that effective helpers in all four of the professions indicated in Table 12 are characterized by a generally positive view of their subjects and a belief in the capacity of the human organism to save itself. It makes a great deal of difference whether helpers perceive their clients as able or unable. If a counselor, teacher, or priest does not regard his clients as able he can hardly permit them, let them, or trust them to act on their own; to do so would be a violation of responsibility. Apparently, effective helpers

tend to see the persons they work with in essentially positive ways as dependable, friendly, and worthy people. This hardly seems like a startling revelation. Indeed, it sounds like little more than good common sense. It is necessary to remind ourselves, however, that these are not factors which helpers *say* about themselves, but characteristic ways of perceiving inferred from their behavior. Effective behaviors do not simply verbally ascribe to these qualities; they *behave* in terms of them.

TABLE 12. PERCEPTIONS OF OTHERS CATEGORIES SHOWING SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES IN FOUR STUDIES

Category	Counselors	Teachers	Priests	Professors ^a
Able—unable	S ^b	S	S	S
Dependable—undependable	S	S	NM	S
Friendly—unfriendly	S	S	NM	NM
Worthy—unworthy	S	S	NM	S
Internally motivated—not	NM ^c	S	NM	S
Helpful—hindering	NM	S	NM	NM

a. Effectiveness determined from student ratings only.
b. S=Significant difference.
c. NM=Not measured.

THE HELPER'S PERCEPTIONS OF SELF

Two characteristics stand out in an examination of Table 13. In the first place effective helpers appear to see themselves as one with mankind, as sharing a common fate. Poor helpers, on the other

TABLE 13. PERCEPTIONS OF SELF CATEGORIES SHOWING SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES IN FOUR STUDIES

Category	Counselors	Teachers	Priests	Professors ^a
Identified—unidentified	S ^b	S	S	NS ^d
Enough—not enough	S	S	NM	NS
Dependable—undependable	NM ^c	S	NM	NM
Worthy—unworthy	NM	S	NM	NS
Wanted—unwanted	NM	S	NM	S

a. Effectiveness determined from student ratings only.
b. S=Significant difference.
c. NM=Not measured.
d. NS=Not significant.

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hand, have a tendency to see themselves as apart from others, as different from them. If the success of helping professions depends upon relationships established between helpers and helpees, as modern theory would seem to suggest, it is easy to see why this characteristic would distinguish between good helpers and poor ones. It is difficult to establish effective relationships with a helper unwilling to get involved.

A second major characteristic of a good helper seems to be the existence of an essentially positive view of self. Such views of self

TABLE 14. PERCEPTIONS OF PURPOSE CATEGORIES SHOWING SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE IN THREE STUDIES

Category	Counselors	Teachers	Priests
Self revealing—self concealing	S ^a	S	NM
Freeing—controlling	S	S	S
Altruistic—narcissistic	S	NM	NM
Larger—smaller	S	S	NM
Involved—uninvolved	NM ^b	S	S
Process—goals	NM	S	NM

a. S=Significant difference.

b. NM=Not measured.

seem to be characteristic also of self-actualizing personalities as reported in the literature. A positive view of self provides the kind of internal security which makes it possible for persons who possess such views of self to behave with much more assurance, dignity, and straightforwardness. With a firm base of operations to work from such persons can be much more daring and creative in respect to their approach to the world and more able to give of themselves to others as well.

THE HELPER'S PERCEPTIONS OF HIS TASK

Effective helpers apparently tend to see their tasks more as freeing than controlling (Table 14). Such a finding certainly gives much support to the growth philosophy underlying most current counseling approaches and to the student-centered concept of teaching advocated by many modern educators. The concern of effective helpers with larger rather than smaller issues also seems to be consistent with the freeing purpose.

AN OVERVIEW

The self-revealing characteristic found in the effective helpers seems congruent with the identified-unidentified characteristic of self found in Table 14. Many writers have indicated that self-disclosure is closely related to healthy personality and the capacity to enter into intimate human relationships.

METHODS IN THE HELPING PROFESSIONS

In the original formulation of hypotheses for our studies of the helping professions our seminar listed seven continua which we thought might discriminate between effective and ineffective helpers in connection with the methods they used to carry out their tasks. None of these hypotheses has yet been subjected to test. In our earlier experiments this was because the problem was of less interest to us than hypotheses about the helper's frame of reference, perceptions of self and others, or perception of purposes. Later, we postponed further research on this question because changes in our thinking about the question of methods led us in somewhat different directions.

It will be recalled from our earlier discussion that a review of the literature had shown only very disappointing results with respect to distinguishing between effective and ineffective helpers on the basis of the methods which they used. In our early thinking about this matter it seemed to us we might find more clear-cut differences between effective and ineffective helpers if we looked, not at the methods they used per se, but rather, at the ways in which they were perceiving methods. Accordingly, our early seminar listed eleven continua for examination. As a consequence of our later studies, however, we have come to see the problem as follows. If the self as instrument concept of effective operation in the helping professions is valid, then the search for "right" methods is doomed before it begins. Since helpers as persons are unique, the hope of finding a "common uniqueness," by definition, is a hopeless search. It occurred to us then that perhaps the question of methods in the helping professions is not a matter of adopting the "right" method, but a question of the helper discovering the right method for him. That is to say, the crucial question is not "what" method, but the "fit" of the method, its appropriateness to the self of the helper, to his purposes, his subjects, the situation, and so forth. We now believe the important distinction between the good and

poor helper with respect to methods is not a matter of his perceptions of methods, per se, but the *authenticity* of whatever methods he uses. There is already some evidence for this in our findings that good helpers are self-revealing, involved, and identified.

We suspect a major problem of poor helpers is the fact that their methods are unauthentic, that is, they tend to be put on, contrived. As such they can only be utilized so long as the helper keeps his mind on them. That, of course, is likely to be disastrous on two counts. In the first place it separates him from his client or student, and the message conveyed is likely to be that he is not "with it," is not really interested, or is a phony. Second, it is almost never possible to maintain attention to the "right" method for very long. As a consequence the poor helper relapses frequently to what he believes or his previous experience has taught him, and so the method he is trying to use fails because of the tenuous, interrupted character of his use of it.

We are about persuaded the question of the helper's perceptions concerning methods are of minor significance. Helpers will find the methods to carry on their tasks effectively if perceptions of self, others, purposes, and the general frame of reference are congruent with that of effective helpers. The validity of this position, of course, remains to be investigated. It is our hope that others will join us in exploring whether or not authenticity is truly the key question with respect to methods.

HOW MANY PERCEPTUAL FACTORS?

In our studies of the perceptual organization of effective helpers we have so far demonstrated that at least twenty-one perceptual characteristics distinguish between good and poor helpers. In our original seminar we listed forty-three hypotheses for exploration. There seems to be no doubt that still others could be added to this list. There is an important question to be answered, however, concerning the number of truly significant variables involved in this matter. All of us engaged in these researches have the very strong feeling that there may, in fact, be comparatively few perceptual criteria related to effective and ineffective operations in the helping professions. In choosing hypotheses from our original list for investigation it became quite clear to us that some of these were duplications. They also seemed to vary considerably in terms of

fundamental importance. Even among some of the perceptual characteristics we investigated in the studies reported here, it is apparent from simple observation that items overlap. In addition, in the factor analysis of children's perceptions carried out by Combs and Soper,¹ forty-seven of the forty-nine categories under investigation were reduced to one global factor which these authors called "a feeling of general adequacy." In order to determine the number of truly discreet perceptual characteristics involved in the discrimination of effective and ineffective helpers, we believe a factor analysis study of this matter is called for. Unfortunately, such a study would require a most expensive design and to this point we have not been able to find either the time or finances required to properly carry out such a project. Perhaps, some day, we, or someone else, may.

Ever since the various forms of the helping professions came into being the problem of discriminating between effective and ineffective workers has been a knotty one. We believe these investigations have opened some new avenues for understanding of the matter with broad implications for practical application. To this point we have been primarily interested in exploring these questions for their possible implications in the training of effective persons in the helping professions. This has already borne fruit in suggesting new approaches to the professional education of teachers based upon a perceptual approach to the problem.² Benton,³ Gooding,⁴ and Dickman⁵ have touched slightly on the implications of their studies for the training of priests, teachers, and nurses. These are matters deserving much more speculation, experiment, and application.

To this point our researches have been primarily concerned with

1. Combs, A. W., & Soper, D. W. *The relationship of child perceptions to achievement and behavior in the early school years*. Cooperative Research Project No. 814, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida, 1963.

2. Combs, A. W. *The professional education of teachers*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1965.

3. Benton, J. A. Perceptual characteristics of Episcopal pastors. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Florida, 1964.

4. Gooding, C. T. An observational analysis of the perceptual organization of effective teachers. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Florida, 1964.

5. Dickman, J. F. The perceptual organization of person-oriented versus task-oriented student nurses. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Florida, 1967.

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exploring the perceptual organization of helpers in order to shed light on theoretical questions and to suggest areas of innovation for training more effective helpers in teaching, counseling, nursing, and pastoral care. The measurement techniques we have employed in these studies are at this stage still far less refined than we could wish. In time they will improve and new ones develop as well. If further studies continue the favorable trends we have seen so far, it is likely these measurement techniques may also contribute important new approaches to the selection and evaluation of effective helpers.

It is apparent that the studies reported here are little more than pilot studies. Like any research worthy of the name they raise far more questions than they have settled. For those of us involved in these investigations they have been exciting and stimulating explorations in what seem to us to be fruitful new directions.

We believe these studies represent but a small and tentative beginning of research into a most promising new approach to understanding the helping professions. What started as a series of hunches in 1957 has now become a conviction that we are on or close to the right track. If these concepts are not the truth, then we are encouraged by our studies to believe they are very like it. It is our earnest hope that this presentation may encourage others to join us on this path to further discovery.

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