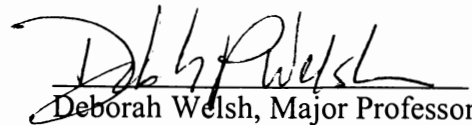
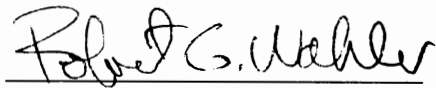


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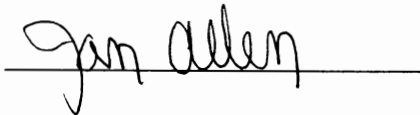
I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Daniel M. Niederjohn entitled "Teaching and Counseling Late-Adolescents: Similar processes, but unique roles." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Psychology.


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**TEACHING AND COUNSELING LATE-ADOLESCENTS:
SIMILAR PROCESSES, BUT UNIQUE ROLES**

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ABSTRACT

The primary objective of this study is to empirically examine the similarities in the initial processes of teaching and counseling. A “Fit” model was proposed such that teachers and counselors make different initial interventions based upon their students’ levels of development. Data were collected at a college university from 62 and 150 students, in the counseling and teaching conditions, respectively. Results revealed that counselors can initially “fit” their clients, whereas the relationship for teaching was unclear. The discussion focuses on implications for counselors and teachers and future research that may address the links between these processes.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The developmental transitions from childhood through adulthood have been viewed as particularly important periods of development in which rapid changes take place (Emde, Wagonfeld, & Harmon, 1982, Magnusson, 1990). One transition that has received relatively sparse coverage is from late adolescence to adulthood (Sharrod, Hagerty, & Featherman, 1993). In particular, the process of leaving home and entering college has not been studied with as much vigor as earlier developmental transitions (O'Connor, Allen, Bell, & Hauser, 1996). This is surprising as this period of development is fraught with important transitions within the family, intimate relationships, and identity development (Waterman and Archer, 1990). The majority of the literature that has focused on this developmental period centers upon the family and peer environments as predicting adjustment and growth within the college environment (Sessa & Hunt, 2000; Kenny, 1986; Beyers, 2000).

Recent examinations of other contexts, particularly teaching and counseling, have shown that individuals outside of the immediate family or peer group can have a significant impact on the promotion of healthy development (Hardie, 1999; Kamii & Clark, 1993; Marshall, Aller, & Aller, 2000; Ironsmith, Eppler, & Harju, 2000; Widseth & Webb, 1992; Biever, McKenzie, Wales-North, & Gonzalez, 1995). The

research also indicates that some teaching and therapeutic methods are more effective than others (Shelton & Cook, 2000; Greenspan, 1997). Those methods that complement or “fit” an adolescent’s developmental level have been shown to be the most effective (Baxter Magolda, 1992; Perry, 1970; Ivey, 1986). Thus, individual adolescents have diverse responses to various methods within therapeutic and educational environments.

The present paper looks directly at the challenge of “fitting” an adolescent’s developmental level in both teaching and therapeutic contexts. Additionally, the processes of teaching and counseling will be compared and contrasted. Theorists have argued that teaching and counseling are parallel processes (Hiebert, Martin, & Marx, 1981), and the present paper will examine the links between the two. This paper will illustrate how theories concerning teaching and counseling can inform one another and once successfully combined, new theories will lead to more effective ways of engaging adolescents within both contexts.

“Fitting” the Individual Adolescent

There is not one developmental scheme that can offer a model that encapsulates all adolescents. In fact, there are a number of variables that help predict the course of events with some certainty, but the prediction is a modest one. Accordingly, research has shown that there is a large amount of variance that is a product of individual differences and experiences that makes each adolescent’s

developmental model unique (Flavell, 1992). This finding poses a problem for any broad-based intervention when dealing with adolescents. Instead of assuming that an intervention will have similar effects with similar aged adolescents, the fact is that each student will perceive it differently based upon their unique developmental level of functioning (Perry, 1970). Within the classroom an activity can be viewed by some students as engaging, while other students may perceive it as chaotic and unintelligible, depending upon each student's developmental level.

Teachers and counselors cannot expect to reach and engage all adolescents with singular interventions. Research has shown that some interventions can be made that will engage the majority of adolescents, and for teachers in large classrooms this presents what appears to be the best scenario (Eccles et al., 1993; Stipek & Byler, 1997). Teachers generally expect that some students are not going to be able, cognitively or emotionally, to fit into the teacher's style of classroom. Essentially, the student is thought of as not having the tools to function optimally within the set classroom. The student either needs to change his/her style of learning or is left behind.

Within therapeutic settings, which are more individually based in nature, there are similar issues. Some theorists propose particular ways of working with late adolescents without making reference to the remarkable individual differences that are inherent (Walberg, 1986). When this occurs, adolescents who fit the model feel understood and make gains, while those who do not fit are left behind. Most often the

explanation for such a mismatch is that the adolescent was not able to adapt to the structure of the therapeutic setting.

Instead of expecting adolescents to fit general developmental models, there should be more of a focus on developing individual models that help inform interventions (Shelton & Cook, 2000). The interventions should fit the adolescent, not vice versa. The teacher and counselor should seek to use a number of different methods in attempting to engage adolescents. This study essentially asks adolescents which types of interventions are engaging, while looking at individual differences within their responses. By using this method, adolescents are able to inform a theory of engagement that takes individual differences into account.

Transitions in Late Adolescents

Late adolescence is a period of development that is full of transitions and expectations (Allen, 1990). The late adolescent is expected to think abstractly, construct an identity, separate from the family, and develop intimate relationships. Different theorists have posed theories that map out normal development, but the timelines of development are generally thought of as a guide. The timing of particular transitions appears to be a function of the developmental scheme and individual differences (Rubin & Coplan, 1998).

Cognitive Development

Most late adolescents move away from concrete thinking and towards a more reflective approach when confronted with problems (Inhelder & Piaget, 1955/1958). They are able to come up with hypotheses about how things work and to test those hypotheses in the world. Their systematic way of thinking is very different from the unorganized way of experimenting at an earlier age. Additionally, late adolescents begin to think more about their own thoughts and actions, essentially evaluating their own internal processes. This abstract cognitive development allows adolescents to organize their world through the process of thinking about and experimenting with their environment.

Identity Development

As adolescents begin to have more organized views of themselves they lay a foundation for constructing an identity (Erikson, 1950/1968). The development of an identity involves such things as defining one's self, one's values, and one's direction in life. The task of developing an identity is nonlinear and, as Erikson (1968) found, there are many different routes towards forming a mature identity. He hypothesized that adolescents are in one of four identity statuses: identity achievement, moratorium, identity disclosure, and identity diffusion. Those adolescents who have explored their alternatives and have clearly formulated values and goals have reached identity achievement. Adolescents who have not yet made definite commitments and who are

in the process of exploration are in what Erikson describes as the status of moratorium. Generally adolescents who have not had the opportunity to explore but have accepted a ready-made identity are described as identity disclosed. And lastly, adolescents who lack direction and may be fearful of exploration are termed identity diffused. Erikson's theory of identity development suggests that most adolescents explore different statuses and are in a partial state of flux.

Separation from the Family

Late adolescence is a time of separation, both physically and emotionally from the family. Even in early adolescence, research has shown that children begin to look to peers for guidance and support whereas they had previously looked to the family. This branching out from the family is viewed, by most cultures, as a necessary and healthy transition. By the time s/he reaches late adolescence, the once dependent child is supposed to be close to self-sufficiency and ready for a physical break from the family.

Relationship Development

As the adolescent begins to break from the family, s/he is also expected to be able to form healthy intimate relationships with those in his/her environment. Friendships become more based upon psychological closeness (Damon, 1988) while romantic relationships become more significant and integral to the self-concept

(Furman & Wehner, 1994; Collins & Stroufe, 2000). Late adolescents tend to look for support outside of the family more often than in early adolescence and childhood. In general, relationships develop outside of the family that are important and influential on development. Relationships are built more slowly and are longer lasting, as well as based more upon trust and intimacy rather than affiliation concept (Furman & Wehner, 1994).

Individual Differences in Development

Very few developmental theorists would argue that predictions could be made about the specific timing of the transitions within all late adolescents. Thus, a teacher could not assume that an 18 year-old student has the cognitive ability to think abstractly. Nor can the counselor expect that every student have the capabilities of forming significant relationships outside of the family. Instead, they would depend upon many different methods of gaining information concerning a number of individual variables to increase their effectiveness in making such a prediction. The research has identified a number of variables that would be of interest: family structure, socioeconomic status, gender, and culture. Even given this information only a modest prediction could be made as to how a late adolescent would respond to particular teaching and counseling methods.

This study relies upon developmental theory to inform teaching and counseling practices, but at the same time empirically tests the effectiveness of such

practices on individual late adolescents. It is not assumed that one broad strategy can be used in an attempt to engage all late adolescents. Instead, individual differences are hypothesized to guide the particular interventions. Thus, individual late adolescents bring with them particular learning styles with which they are most comfortable. This study looks to inform the styles that are used by teachers and counselors in an attempt to best engage the late adolescents with whom they work.

Autonomy and Differentiation in Adolescence

One variable that may shed some light on individual differences between adolescence is level of autonomy. Although theorists and researchers have had a difficult time defining what is meant by autonomy (e.g., see Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986; Ryan and Lynch, 1989), there is general agreement that autonomy is a variable that can inform many important processes in late adolescents (Adelson, 1972). This study focuses on individual differences in perceived autonomy and how such differences may impact level of engagement within different teaching and counseling contexts. Before looking at specific hypotheses, a description of theory and research on autonomy is presented.

Autonomy, Broadly Defined

Urgency in establishing a sense of independence from others is a crucial element of the adolescent period (Allen, Aber, & Leadbeater, 1990). Maturity and

social competence is often measured by the ability of the adolescent to act independently. Adolescents begin managing a number of different relationships, with parents and peers, while approaching a more cohesive sense of self (Erikson, 1950/68). The identity that develops is an amalgam of previous and current relationships and a sense of individuality. Researchers have focused on this balancing act of maintaining connectedness and separateness from others as a loose definition of the process of building autonomy (Ryan & Lynch, 1989).

Separation from Others

Much of the research on the development of autonomy focuses on detachment (Freud, 1958) and independence (Douvan & Adelson, 1966) from the family and from peers. It is through this process of “breaking away” that an adolescent can develop a sense of identity, self-reliance, and independent reasoning (Adelson, 1972; Erikson, 1968; Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986.) For example, Blos (1979) described adolescence as a process of individuation similar to toddlerhood. The adolescent is able to gain autonomy by disengaging from infantile object relations and by searching for greater self-reliance and confidence within the self (Greenberger, 1984). Thus, as the infant seeks autonomy through separation from the primary caretaker, the adolescent seeks autonomy through separation from parents and peers in the search for an independent self. The adolescent begins to renegotiate relationships in a more

balanced manner, which leads to a more mature interpersonal stance (Hill & Steinberg, 1976). Through detachment, healthy autonomy is developed.

Connectedness with Others

Autonomy can also be promoted and encouraged through close relationships with parents and peers (Grotevant & Cooper, 1986). A supportive environment that values the expression of negative and positive feelings facilitates feelings of autonomy (Ryan & Lynch, 1989). An adolescent who feels comfortable offering different opinions and ideas within the family will generally feel more competent and self-reliant in other contexts. Connectedness can provide adolescents with support, guidance, acknowledgement, and respect for the development of their own beliefs (Grotevant & Cooper, 1985). The family acts as a “home base” that can be summoned for help, while the adolescent maintains responsibility for most decisions and actions (Kenny, 1986). In this way, the adolescent is able to feel less dependent while maintaining a healthy tie with the family and friends.

Reaching a Balance

One of the many challenges for late adolescents is attempting to balance individuality and connectedness with others (Grotevant & Cooper, 1985; Allen et al., 1996, Allen & Hauser, 1996). Adolescents feel the pull to disengage from the family as an attempt to gain independence and autonomy (Blos, 1979). Additionally, they are

fearful of the loneliness that may ensue following such a departure. This places some adolescents in a potential bind. They can either continue to be dependent upon others or they can break away and take the world on alone.

The optimal outcome for the adolescent is a balance between interdependence and independence. Instead of seeing this transition in black or white terms, some adolescents are able to keep a connection with parents while still feeling essentially independent. Parents act as a base (Bowlby, 1998; Kenny, 1986), or a place to come back to in times of need. Adolescents are able to view their relationship with their parents not as based upon dependence, but rather based upon support and guidance. Essentially, healthy autonomy is encouraged through detachment from the family and a redefinition of the parent-child relationship (Blos, 1979; Freud, 1938).

Family Environment Matching Adolescent Developmental Level

There are vast differences in the way that families are able to grant autonomy to their adolescents. When parents are fixed in their parenting style and do not adapt to their child's developmental level, behavioral and emotional problems emerge (Eccles & Midgerley, 1990). Generally research has shown that parental granting of autonomy to younger adolescents is associated with externalizing symptoms and emotional difficulties (Holmbeck & O'Donnell, 1991; Lamborn & Steinberg, 1993). Within these families, the adolescent is pushed into a premature independence that is seen as frightening and isolating. Thus, the gradual transition into autonomous

functioning within the family is generally thought of as a process that occurs later in adolescence. Parents retain authority over most of the early adolescent's decisions and actions.

Within the late adolescent period of development, some families are not able to grant their adolescents the autonomy that is desired. Late adolescents who seek but are not granted autonomy tend to display internalizing symptoms and emotional detachment from others (Holmbeck & O'Donnell, 1991). They may feel mistrusted and seek to prove their independence through complete detachment from the family.

The ability of the parents to "fit" their adolescents developmental time frame is key in the development of healthy autonomy. Vygotsky (1978) termed the phrase "zone of proximal development" as a reference to the ability of the family, and other cultural influences, to assist a child in developing skills that cannot be met by the child alone. In this way the family acts as scaffolding, adding support and guidance when necessary. Children, Vygotsky suggests, can be assisted in only those tasks that are appropriate to their developmental level. Thus, children can be pushed but only as much as their developmental history will allow them. Parents must be able to gauge their child's abilities and to add the appropriate assistance, in a sense allowing their child's behavior to inform the type of assistance provided.

Projection of Parental Role onto Significant Others

Late adolescents come to college with particular interactional patterns. And these patterns can be cast on to figures in the college environment. In particular, counselors and teachers can evoke a parental kind of transference for late adolescents (Hardie 1999, Shapiro & Esman, 1992). Thus, it is extremely important for counselors and teachers to be aware of the role that they could be filling for those adolescents whom they counsel or teach. Additionally, counselors and teachers should attempt to fit, as much as possible, the adolescent's developmental level. If teachers and counselors are actually able to be helpful, they must be able to engage the adolescents with whom they work with. Once adolescents are engaged within a relationship, possible growth can occur and new ways of thinking and learning can take place. The challenge of meeting students' differing levels of development is examined below.

Autonomy and Heteronomy within the School

Many theorists have proposed a model of education that is based upon helping students become more autonomous (Piaget, 1948/1973; Kamii, 1982; Kamii & Clark, 1993). School, these theorists suggest, should be a place that promotes self-governing, the development of morals, and the formation of an identity. Too often, however, school appears to teach heteronomy (Kamii, 1982). Strict rules are enforced and students are made to abide by principles and procedures that are externally

enforced. Students learn to fit their educational atmosphere and to conform to the rules and regulations.

Other theorists suggest that, particularly with early adolescents, heteronomy is a valuable element of education that is appropriate within early development (Magolda, 1992; Perry, 1970). According to these theorists, in order to meet the individual student's developmental level, the teacher and school must be willing to add structure and conformity when needed. For instance, a student who comes from a chaotic home environment that lacks in structure could benefit from a school that teaches conformity and adherence to rules. The most engaging type of school atmosphere may be one in which the student is given a clear structure which s/he can consider a type of "base." Students may cling to the type of school atmosphere that offers security and certainty.

Depending upon experiences from their past, late adolescents enter the college atmosphere with differing needs (Shelton & Cook, 2000; Chickering, 1977). Although theorists may disagree to what extent students need structure, there is little disagreement that teachers need to fit their style of instruction to the students whom they teach (Shelton & Cook, 2000; Chickering, 1974). The difficulty lies in determining what types of teaching methods are most engaging to individual students. Students who are placed into a classroom that does not meet their developmental needs exhibit a lack of motivation (Eccles & Midgely, 1990), lack of engagement, and increased misconduct (Smetana & Bitz, 1996).

When teachers are able to design their teaching practices with individual differences in mind, students begin to feel as though they matter (Marshall, Aller, & Aller, 2000). Especially within the college setting, which is thought to be a moratorium which promotes experimenting and risking failure (Ironsmith, Eppler, & Harju, 2000), students' who feel understood and considered are much more likely to be motivated learners.

Counseling Based Upon Individual Needs

Counselors can also play a significant role in the development of late adolescents. Some theorists consider the counselor as fulfilling the role of the needed peer who promotes freedom of thought and expression, while maintaining a professional distance (Shapiro & Esman, 1992). Additionally, counselors urge adolescents to adopt adult norms while allowing for freedom to make individual choices (Biever, McKenzie, Wales-North, & Ganzales, 1995). As late adolescents struggle with issues of autonomy, the counselor becomes a collaborator in the production of a narrative. Some adolescents will need differing amounts of scaffolding, depending upon their ability to cognitively structure their narrative.

Daniels (1994) uses Piaget's theory of cognitive development in constructing a theory of counseling. The challenge of working with adolescents, he states, is matching counselor style with predominant cognitive developmental level. His theory places importance on environmental structuring with individuals who are at the

sensorimotor level. The purpose is to help the individual get in touch with the “here and now” experience. With these types of individuals the overly structured environment allow for a safe environment that is contained and safe. Other styles that Daniels proposes are: coaching, consulting, and dialectic. As development proceeds, Daniels suggests that the counselor should apply less structure, while more is contained within the individual. Whereas in early development the counselor takes on more of a containing role, within later development that role changes to promoting collaboration and shared exploration.

Other theorists see the counselor’s role differently. Widseth and Webb (1992) view the counselor’s task as aiding in exploration of the inner world. They view the late adolescent as somewhat of a “toddler” to a new world of college. With the help of the counselor, they suggest, the late adolescent is able to explore and build a stable sense of self. Hiebert, Martin, and Marx (1981) view the counselor in a much more active sense. They support a more instructional purpose in counseling. In particular, they emphasize organization and practical skills that are vital in facilitating client learning. Counseling, from their view, is based upon teaching their clients how to teach themselves.

Although there are numerous theories of counseling that differ vastly, most theorists would agree that the counselor must base his/her interventions individual differences (Ivey & Goncalves, 1988; Greenspan, 1997). These theorists emphasize individually based techniques that work with particular clients at particular levels of

development. Several theories suggest that when working with late adolescents the only place to start is with the client rather than theory needs (Lane, Montgomery, & Schmid, 1995). They support the practice of fitting the counselor style with the adolescent's learning preferences and individual. The ultimate goal of this type of treatment is to meet the adolescent on his/her ground and then work jointly to continue with appropriate development (Bott, 1988).

Comparisons and Contrasts of Teaching and Counseling

Both Adler (1969) and Glasser (1984) agree on the following statements:

Therapists are teachers; teachers are therapists. They suggest that the similarities between the two seemingly distinct professions are in what they offer to those with whom they work. The teacher is one who inspires something within his students. The counselor is someone who heals something within his client. But the element that they both share is the opportunity to develop relationships with their students and clients in which they can provide a responsible role model, and thus have a unique impact upon their development.

Although teachers and counselors do have the opportunity to have this type of impression upon those with whom they work, most of the traditional styles of and discourse concerning teaching and counseling has limited their ability to be a role-model (Bratter, Bratter, & Bratter, 1998). Traditionally, teachers have been too strict and authoritarian (Hechinger, 1992). In addition, counselors have been too distant

and seemingly aloof (Greenson, 1967). These two extremes have kept the two fields apart, when there is much common that they share. Below I will discuss a brief history of the two traditions of teaching and counseling, and offer a new way of thinking which unites the two by looking at what they have to offer one another.

A Brief History of the Prominent Styles of Teaching

Teachers have traditionally been seen as controlling, bossy, and keepers of narrow factoids (Bratter, Bratter, & Bratter, 1998). The information is what is important; as students seek to continue their education they need to digest the information that their teachers have to offer. Thus, the teacher uses knowledge of a subject to aid the developmental process of his/her student. A teacher who lectures assigns text, assesses the students' repetition and application of it, and goes on to assign the next assignment (Tharp, 1999). Essentially it is a recurring process of assign-assess, assign-assess. The traditional teacher was thought of as a giver of knowledge, and little more.

Recently, more open classrooms have developed (Stipek et al., 1995), which have been based on Piaget's (1975) vision of the child as an active, motivated learner. In contrast to the more traditional classroom, in an open classroom the teacher assumes a more flexible role, which includes shared decision making and a more student-focused classroom. There seems to be very little agreement in American education as to which style of teaching is more effective (Berk, 2000).

More recent research has suggested that a teacher's style of teaching can have an influence on their students (Freiberg, 1993; Finn & Voekl, 1983; Joseph, 1996). In particular, teachers use of coercive or punitive styles within their classroom is linked to problematic outcomes for adolescents, including rebellion, withdrawal from school, and deviance (Gotfredson & Roberts, 1983). Additionally, the relationship between teacher and student has proven to influence school performance, (Noddings, 1992) healthy psychological adjustment in adolescents (Wentzel, 1997), and problem behaviors both inside and outside of the classroom (Pianta & Nimetz, 1991).

A Brief History of the Prominent Styles of Counseling

The traditional counselor, based primarily upon Freud's ideas, appeared distant, flat, robotic, and even inhuman at times (Bratter, Bratter, & Bratter, 1999). The counselor was expected to be a neutral, benign observer of the patient's neuroses. Counselors were expected to remove themselves from the patient, thereby giving them the opportunity to objectively observe the interaction. Freud (1912) suggested that the counselor ought to "put aside all his feelings" and "The doctor should be opaque to his patients and, like a mirror, should show them nothing but what is shown to him" (p. 115). Sharing of the self, for the counselor, was viewed as therapeutically harmful.

A counselor who became invested in and engaged with a patient was seen as sharing too much of the self in the work. Thus, it was thought that the counselor could

not be objective within the interaction of the counseling process. Some theorists, particularly psychoanalytic, suggested that the counselor be a “blank slate” onto which the patient can project his/her pathology. In this setting, the counselor would watch and be mindful of the projective process. The healing would occur by way of the interpretation of such processes.

Certainly the role of the counselor has changed over the years, but one of the ongoing struggles continues to revolve around the question of how much the counselor ought to have invested in the treatment (Greenson, 1967). Put differently, how “human” should the counselor be, within the therapeutic context? Some theorists (White, 1989) advocate the therapeutic value of appropriate therapist disclosure. They believe that the “mystique” created by the “blank screen” stance can be therapeutically harmful. Thus, they promote less distancing between client and counselor.

Towards more “Human” Counselors and Teachers

The history of teaching and counseling has focused on rigid roles for the two, generally separate, professions. It appears that both teachers and counselors have come up against the similar question of how much of their work should be more “human” and interactive. Although there appears to be no simple answer, these two professions have begun to search for the answer. No longer are counselors and teachers disengaged, authority figures. Current research appears to be focusing on

how the counselor and teacher can both help themselves and those with whom they work become more engaged (Bratter, Bratter, & Bratter, 1999)

Teaching and Counseling, Same Occupation?

If teaching and counseling share similar processes, then perhaps there are overlaps within their fields. For instance the teacher must, at times, play the role of the counselor for the child. It may not be enough for the teacher to simply instruct, but there must be more of an understanding of the child's capability in order to support his/her improvement. Similarly, the counselor, must play the role of the teacher. Some clients will need to be taught new ways of functioning, and be educated concerning their maladaptive behaviors. Are the processes of teaching and counseling ultimately the same? Below I will describe some of the ways in which this question has been answered, by comparing and contrasting teaching and counseling.

Skill Training in Counseling

Some of the early prominent models of counselors proposed a theory in which nondirective relating and simple empathizing were the keys to helping clients learn about themselves and towards more adaptive ways of relating (Rogers, 1951; Truax & Carkhuff, 1967, Christensen, 1976). Some counselors have begun to use what is called a "skills approach" to counseling that is based upon teaching coping skills (Ellis, 1978). Specifically, within the context of this type of counseling, the counselor

instructs the client how to discover for him/herself and to actively dispute negative cognitions. In addition, the counselor teaches the client alternate methods of thinking, emoting, and acting, and then assigns activity homework. Thus, the counselor becomes a teacher, in the traditional sense.

In this type of counseling, the client learns about him/herself through the guidance of the counselor. Thus, by combining the roles of the counselor and the teacher, clients can learn about themselves and act differently. The counselor can be both a teacher and one who can empathize with the client in ways that lead to more adaptive functioning.

Teaching in Behavior Therapy

Counselors can also borrow from educators in helping clients reexamine values, learn interpersonal skills, and develop understandings. Through behavior modification, the focus is upon modifying responses, which is similar to teaching new skills (Christensen, 1976). Counselors offer new ways of responding that are more adaptive and ultimately rewarding. Just as teachers, counselors can teach their students how to think differently and more complexly about the problems that they encounter.

The similarities between the behavioral approach in counseling and teaching have spawned several new ideas concerning teaching. Keller (1968) used the concepts of behavior modification in his approach to improving classroom

instruction. His program identified target behaviors or learning requirements for a course. He then required students to study a small amount of material before demonstrating mastery of the topic. Frequent tests and particular mastery criteria were given to the students so that they had clear objectives. The system was nonpunitive in nature, such that students were not penalized for failing to demonstrate mastery. They simply were told to restudy and try again. In addition, students were expected to go at their own pace, and lectures generally were used primarily for motivation and demonstration. This type of program has been shown to produce higher levels of motivation and engagement within the classroom (Evans and Matthews, 1992).

Therapeutic Teachers

Some new treatment models for emotionally disturbed children integrate theories of teaching and counseling (McCalley, 1989). These types of programs integrate theory, principles, and techniques of traditional therapy and pedagogy. The “Teacher-Therapists” were effective in bringing about positive change for the students. The students exhibited affective growth, personal adjustment, and behavioral change. In addition, the students were better able to communicate their feelings more appropriately and became more adept at recognizing and identifying a wider range of emotions.

Although many theorists suggest that teachers' and counselors' roles are unavoidable and significantly related (Staines, 1967), there is evidence that suggests combining the two can be problematic (Manor & Margalit, 1986). Therapeutic class teachers have expressed confusion as to the extent of their role as either teacher or therapist. Traditional teachers expected to see the changes occur quickly, by testing and evaluation. Traditional counselors felt as though their inability to assess quick change caused school administration to misunderstand their role. Thus, teachers and counselors viewed their roles differently, and within the school there was little consensus as to the appropriate role.

Teaching and Counseling, Different Roles

Although there are similarities between the practices of teaching and counseling, there appears to be significant differences between their perceived roles. Teachers are expected to get quick results through frequent assessment, while counselors are expected to have just as much of an impact, but with less rapid results. Although research supports the idea that teachers and counselors can learn from one another, there are distinctive features to both professions.

Consultation, a Way to Bridge the Gap

Many authors concur that collaborative team strategies can be used to successfully bridge the gap between counseling and teaching (Kemmis and Dunn, 1996; Benson, 1993. Morsink & Lenk, 1992). Collaborative consultation has been used when professionals with diverse expertise, perspectives, and experiences attempt to work together. It has been shown that through consultation, teachers and counselors can work together as equal partners to design a combined approach to intervention (Dunn, 1991; Johnson & Johnson, 1989).

The Similar Processes of Counseling and Teaching

Counseling and teaching share many of the same principles. Tharp (1999) posited five principles that inform both mediums: Joint Activity, Developing a Language of Instruction, Learning about Context, Cognitively Challenging, and Teaching through Dialogue. Although these principles have been primarily thought of in terms of teaching, Tharp suggests that counselors can apply them to their work as well. In addition, he believes that there are many of the ideas concerning teaching are readily transferable to counseling theory and practice. His five principles are briefly discussed below.

Joint Activity

Effective teaching and counseling provide for shared motives, mutual assistance, and mutual respect. As the focus of each participant is on the product, it is expected that a genuine relationship of collaboration can occur. The counselor helps his/her client develop skills for solving problems and regulating emotions by way of a reformulation, much the same way as a teacher delivers text to the student. In both activities, there is a joint process occurring between the participants, which ultimately opens new ways of thinking and relating.

At the same time, the joint collaboration offers both participants unique ways of relating to one another. For example, the counselor prepares a reformulation that is unique to the client's level of functioning. The teacher can make individual assignments to students based upon their level of cognitive development.

Developing a Language of Instruction

In teaching the languages of instruction refer to the primary language and the languages of the subject matter, such as mathematics and science. Connections are made between language, thinking and problem solving. Representations of knowledge are made through language, which are communicated by the student and teacher. In the practice of counseling there are many different languages, which, in one way or another, are taught to the client. In more recent theories of counseling, this language is thought to be more collaborative in nature (Ryle, 1995). The

counselor used the client's language to better understand the experience and to connect with the client.

Although there are particular ways in which counselors and teachers can assess improvement through outcome measures, there appears to be just as much emphasis placed upon the process or the counseling or teaching. For instance, how willing is the client or student to develop a joint language and work collaboratively? In this way, the relationship between counselor and patient, or teacher and student can be one way to gauge the improvement made. Thus, the model of the relationship may offer a good predictor of how well the student or patient will be able to relate in the future, when confronted with a similar problem.

Learning about Context

One of the goals of counseling and teaching is to connect that which is learned within the school or counseling room to the life of the student or client. In school, this suggests that the task of education and cognitive development is connecting abstract, schooled concepts to those of everyday life. In counseling, family and community members must be acknowledged and, at times, included in the treatment. What is learned in the classroom or counseling room is lost if there is no connection to the "real world." Thus, it is a challenge for both counselors and teachers to connect the material to its everyday application.

Cognitively Challenging

It is the goal of both teachers and counselors for higher order cognitive processes to develop. In order for this to happen, teachers and counselors must guide and assist cognitive development by offering a steady challenge in moving upward through the student's or client's zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1986). Just as the student needs skills in computation in order to comprehend complex mathematical issues, patients also need practice in the basic skills of attention, observation, representation, and relaxation (Watson & Tharp, 1996). The counselor and teacher assesses the current level of functioning, and continuously challenges the client and student to think differently and more complexly.

Teaching through Dialogue

Dialogue provides the teacher and counselor an avenue for instruction and conversation. It offers responsive assistance, sensitivity to progress, language development and constant assessment of the cognitive functioning of both students and clients. This more balanced approach to teaching and counseling, compared to the more traditional approaches, includes all participants, is more responsive to the individual, and is balanced in nature (Dalton, 1998; Tharp and Gallimore, 1988).

One example of how this more dialogue-based approach can take form is through Bibliotherapy (Nickerson, 1975). Both teachers and counselors can use this technique. It serves to widen the child's range of experience and to decrease the sense

of isolation through awareness of shared experience. In short, within a non-threatening environment a child can tell a story. Following the story, the counselor or teacher asks the child about feelings and relationships within the story to clarify significant themes. The teacher or counselor then retells the story, introducing healthier adaptations and resolutions of the child's own conflicts. In this way, the child is understood in his/her own language and met at his/her own cognitive level. Teaching does take place in that new, healthier ways of relating are proposed. The child is offered a new way of relating and thinking about the world.

Teaching and Counseling, the Impact on Late Adolescence

Identity exploration is a process that is of extreme importance in late adolescence. This process can be facilitated within the context of relationships with others (Grotevant & Cooper, 1985). In particular, parents play a vital role in helping the adolescent balance independence and connectedness. When late adolescents leave the home for college they are placed in a new world with seemingly little parental influence. But the way in which adolescents relate to their parents is played out in other important relationships.

Both teachers and counselors offer some adolescents a semblance of security in the new college environment. As late adolescents need both a facilitating environment and a secure base off of which to grow (Winnecott, 1965; Bowlby, 1998), they seek figures that can supply their needs. If teachers and counselors are

aware of such needs, they can be better able to suit their style of instruction to the adolescents whom they teach or counsel.

Teachers and counselors are role models for late adolescents (Bratter, Bratter, & Bratter, 1999). They both affect the ways in which late adolescents relate with others and can have a large impact on their future relationship. Thus, teachers and counselors can be very important figures in the development of relationships and the capacity to have meaning interpersonal interactions. The traditional views of teaching and counseling have been limited by the expected impact upon the students and clients. By accepting the role-model status which teachers and counselors are given, they can teach and counsel in more ways that previously thought.

Both counselors and teachers assist adolescents in new ways of thinking. Counselors generally assist their clients in thinking differently about themselves and their relationships. Teachers assist their students in thinking more critically about material and help them conceptualize new ideas. Essentially, both counselors and teachers help adolescents define themselves, their ideas, and their relationships.

The way in which they can have such an impact can vary. Counselors and teachers can use an overly structured format with individuals who cannot tolerate ambiguity, and seek guidance from authority figures. Conversely, they can use approaches that are open-ended and abstract that place more of the emphasis on self-reliance. Either way, the counselor and teacher utilizes some type of technique in an attempt to engage the late adolescents with whom they work.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis I. Depending upon an adolescent's level of perceived autonomy, some interventions within the context of counseling are more effective than others. Interventions that match or "fit" an individual's style will prove to be more engaging. In particular, it is hypothesized that those late adolescents who are more autonomous will be more engaged in an open-ended counseling setting. Those late adolescents who are less autonomous will feel more comfortable and more understood.

Hypothesis II. Depending upon an adolescent's level of perceived autonomy, some interventions within the context of teaching are more effective than others. Interventions that match or "fit" an individual's style will prove to be more engaging. In particular, it is hypothesized that those late adolescents who are more autonomous will be more engaged in an open-ended teaching setting. Those late adolescents who are less autonomous will seek a feel more comfortable and understood in a structured teaching setting.

Hypothesis III. The processes of counseling and teaching are similar in nature. "Fitting" the late adolescents' style will prove to be beneficial in both contexts. Thus, there is a common link between counseling and teaching that should be explored further, and the seemingly separate processes have much to offer one another.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

Participants

All participants (in both the counseling and teaching portions of the study) were students at the University of Tennessee enrolled in an introductory psychology course. A brief description of the study was given to all introductory psychology teachers, which was read in their respective classes. In addition, fliers were posted at a variety of visible locations outside of classrooms and around the psychology department. Students who were interested in participating were instructed to sign up for the study at a posted location. Participants received extra credit in their introductory psychology class for participating in the study.

During the Fall Semester of 2000, sixty-two late-adolescents (thirty-six females [58%] and twenty-six males) completed the counseling portion of the study. The sample was made up of fifty-six White (90%), two African-American (3%), 1 Asian (2%), and 1 Native American (2%) college students. There were twenty-six Freshmen (50%), nineteen Sophomores (31%), eleven Juniors (18%), and six Seniors (10%). The age range of the sample ranged from seventeen to twenty-two ($M = 19.26$, $SD = 1.69$).

During the Spring Semester of 2001, one hundred and fifty late-adolescents (eighty-one females [54%] and sixty-nine males. The sample was made up of one hundred and thirty-two White (88%), eight African American (5%), three Hispanic (2%), and three Asian (2%) college students. There were ninety-three Freshmen (62%), thirty-three Sophomores (22%), sixteen Juniors (11%), and eight Seniors (5%). The age range of the sample ranged from seventeen to twenty-two ($M = 19.14$, $SD = 1.01$).

Setting and Procedure for the Counseling Session

Participants in the interview session were instructed (via the sign up sheet) to come to an interview session that could take up to one hour to complete. Each interview consisted of one participant and the interviewer. Before beginning the interview, participants were asked to fill out questionnaires that consisted of informed consent, demographics, a scale of perceived autonomy, and a scale of relationship support.

Participants were then randomly assigned to either a “structured” or an “unstructured” interview condition. Each condition consisted of a thirty-minute interview with the interviewer. The amount of time, location of the interview, and seating arrangement was held constant between conditions. The interviewer manipulated the level of structure applied to the interview.

Following the interview, participants were asked to complete a questionnaire, which rated their experience of the interview on several different dimensions, including level of comfort, how well they felt connected and understood by the interviewer, and how much the interviewer learned about him/her.

Structured Interview

The interview began with the following statement: “I’d like to spend some time today getting to know a bit about you. I will be asking you questions about your relationships, your interests, and your life in general.” The interviewer then asked specific question covering the following areas: school, relationships, work, extra-curricular activities, and leisure activities (See Appendix for specific structured interview protocol). Participants were instructed to give as little or as much detail as they felt necessary when asking the questions. The interviewer asked clarification questions if needed, but otherwise followed the specific questions. Each interview lasted approximately thirty minutes.

Unstructured Interview

The interviewer began the interview with the comment “I’d like to spend some time today getting to know a bit about you, so where do you think we should begin?” Following that initial statement, the interviewer did not give any type of structure for the interview. Instead, the interviewer used guidelines in facilitating conversation, such as maintaining a “not knowing stance,” supporting further exploration of themes,

mirroring affect, and staying with the content of the participant (Biever, McKenzie, Wales-North, & Gonzalez, 1995).

Setting and Procedures for the Teaching Session

Participants in the teaching session were instructed (via the sign up sheet) to come to one of two teaching sessions that could take up to one hour to complete. Each teaching session consisted of approximately seventy-five students and the teacher. Before beginning the teaching session, participants were asked to fill out questionnaires that consisted of informed consent, demographics, a scale of perceived autonomy, and a scale of relationship support. Participants were assigned to either a “structured” or “unstructured” teaching condition, depending upon which session they had signed up for. Both conditions consisted of a forty-minute lecture covering the basic elements of experimental design, given by an experienced, highly regarded teacher at the university. Concepts covered in both teaching sessions included: types of variables (independent, dependent, confounding, etc.), different types of designs (correlation, longitudinal, time series, etc.), and hypothesis testing.

Following the teaching session, participants were asked to complete a questionnaire, which rated their experience of the lecture on ten different dimensions. These dimensions were: level of comfort, how well the participant felt connected and understood by the teacher, and how much the participant learned during the lecture.

Structured Condition

The instructor initially provided an outline of topics to be covered during the structured lecture. Students were not encouraged to ask questions or actively participate in the lecture. Instead, students were provided with the material in a concise and direct manner. The teacher covered the basic elements of experimental design and gave a number of practical illustrations and current research that used such methods.

Unstructured Condition

The instructor initially provided an outline of topics to be covered during the unstructured lecture. The teacher then told the class that each one of the participants was to come up with a hypothesis that s/he would like to test. The teacher gave examples of possible hypotheses and explained to students what a hypothesis was, but gave no further instruction. Students were then given time (five minutes) to consider different hypotheses and to choose one that was of interest. Following ample time for each student to develop a hypothesis, the teacher asked students to share some of their ideas. Students were then given brief instruction as to how they could test their hypothesis, and the teacher then gave the students time (eight minutes) to consider different methods on their own. The teacher then asked students to share some of their ideas with the class, and finally asked the students to think about the types of results that they expected to find. The students were given time (eight minutes) to

think over their results and were then asked to discuss their ideas. During the discussion, the teacher asked for details from the students and for some of the difficulties that they encountered during the process. Essentially, the teacher acted as a collector and processor of the classes' ideas.

Measures

Information Form. The Information Form was developed specifically for this project. The nine-item questionnaire included common demographic questions such as participants' gender, age, ethnicity, religious affiliation, family structure, work, and school.

Emotional Autonomy Scale (Steinberg and Silverberg, 1986). The measure of emotional autonomy was developed to assess four aspects of emotional autonomy: individuation, deidealization of parents, non-dependence on parents, and perceptions of parents as individuals beyond the parental role. The internal consistency of the 20-item scale is .75. Responses are on a four-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." A sample item, reverse scored, is "When I do something wrong, I depend on my parents to straighten things out for me." Higher scores indicate greater emotional autonomy.

Relationship Support (Lamborn & Steinberg, 1993). The relationship support scale was developed to assess adolescents' confidence that parents are supportive, are available to help when needed, and spend time with them (sample items: "I can count

on him/her to help me out if I have some kind of problem”; “My parents spend time just talking with me”; nine items, $\alpha = .73$).

Counseling Questionnaire. The interview questionnaire was developed for this study to assess the effectiveness of different interviewing styles (sample item: I felt that the interviewer understood me.) It consisted of eight items. One item (The interviewer led the interview) was used as a manipulation check, the eight others made up the “fit” of the interview ($\alpha = .70$, see Table A-1).

Lecture Questionnaire. The lecture questionnaire was developed for this study to assess the effectiveness of different lecturing styles (sample item: I felt comfortable during the lecture). It consisted of ten items. One item was used as manipulation check (The instructor led the discussion), seven others made up the “fit” of the lecture ($\alpha = .69$).

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Preliminary Analyses

Initial correlation analyses were performed between age, grade, emotional autonomy, and relationship support with parents in an attempt to understand the pattern of development throughout this period of college. Using the entire sample (both counseling and teaching groups) it was found that age and grade were not correlated with emotional autonomy, $r(212) = .05$ and $.08$, respectively. Thus, there appears to be no simple linear pattern associated with the development of autonomy.

Relationship support with parents and emotional autonomy were negatively correlated, $r(212) = -.211$, $p < .01$. Those participants who reported higher levels of relationship support with parents also, on average, reported lower levels of emotional autonomy and, conversely, those participants who reported lower levels of relationship support with their parents reported higher levels of emotional autonomy.

Although no clear developmental pattern was associated with emotional autonomy, age and relationship support with parents were nonsignificantly negatively correlated, $r(212) = -.133$, $p < .06$.

Interview Style Matching Autonomy Level

Manipulation Check for the Interview Session

An Independent Samples T-test was used to compare participants' response in the structured versus unstructured condition on the following item: "The interviewer led the discussion." A significant difference was found between the two groups, $t(60) = 9.327$, $p < .001$. Participants in both conditions responded in accordance with the manipulation, such that those in the unstructured group reported much less "leading" by the interviewer than did the structured group.

Grouping according to Autonomy

Participants were grouped according to their scores on the Scale of Emotional Autonomy. A median split was performed to determine the two groups, with thirty-two participants placed in the low autonomy group and thirty participants placed in the high autonomy group.

Interaction between Interviewing Style and Level of Autonomy

A 2 x 2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to examine the degree to which the interviewer style matched the participants' autonomy levels. A full-factorial model was used, which included three independent variables: interviewer style, participants' autonomy level, and the interaction term. The scale of interviewing fit was used as the dependent variable, in assessing the level of match

between the two independent variables. The ANOVA revealed a significant main effect for interviewing style $F(1,62) = 9.24, p < .01$, such that participants generally preferred the structured interview. In addition, a significant interaction effect was found, $F(1,62) = 4.68, p < .04$. An independent samples T-test revealed a significant difference between low autonomous participants' ratings of the fit of the different interviews, $T(30) = 4.03, p < .001$ (See Figure A-2). A comparison of the means indicated that low autonomy participants reported a preference for the highly structured condition. High autonomous participants showed no significant preference for either interview, $T(28) = 1.04, p = .31$. No main effect for autonomy level was found, $F(1,62) = 1.79, p = .19$.

Teaching Style Matching Autonomy Level

Manipulation Check for the Teaching Session

An Independent Samples T-test was used to compare participants' response in the structured versus unstructured condition on the following item: "The instructor led the discussion." A significant difference was found between the two groups, $t(146) = 5.379, p < .001$. Participants in both conditions responded in accordance with the manipulation, such that those in the unstructured group reported much less "leading" by the teacher than did the structured group.

Grouping According to Autonomy

Participants were grouped according to their scores on the Scale of Emotional Autonomy. A median split was performed to determine the two groups, with seventy-three participants placed in the low autonomy group and seventy-seven participants placed in the high autonomy group.

Interaction between Teaching Style and Level of Autonomy

A 2 x 2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to examine the degree to which the teaching style matched the participants' autonomy levels. A full-factorial model was used, which included three independent variables: teaching style, participants' autonomy level, and the interaction term. The scale of teaching fit was used as the dependent variable, in assessing the level of match between the two independent variables. The ANOVA revealed no significant main effect for lecturing style $F(1,150) = .535, p = .47$, or level of autonomy $F(1,150) = 1.54, p = .22$. In addition, no significant interaction effect was found, $F(1,150) = 0.45, p < .50$ (See Figure A-2).

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the processes of counseling and teaching. It was hypothesized that if a counselor knew a client's level of autonomy, s/he would be able to develop an initial interview that would essentially "fit" the client. Similarly, it was hypothesized that if a teacher knew a student's level of autonomy, s/he would be able to develop an initial teaching format that would "fit" the student. In addition, it was hypothesized that these two processes would mirror each other, and that counselors and teachers would have much to offer each other when attempting to "fit" those with whom they work. Essentially, it was hypothesized that the model of fitting students and clients would bridge the two seemingly separate processes. The results supported the first hypothesis, but did not support the other two hypotheses.

This is one of the first studies that empirically and systematically looks at the similarities in processes between teaching and counseling. These findings should be taken as exploratory and they should be used to guide future research. This study offers significant contributions to our understanding of the processes of teaching and counseling. Few other studies have attempted to address the ability of the teacher or

counselor to use their knowledge in attempting to fit their style to the style of those with whom they work.

In general, this study suggests that the processes of teaching and counseling may be similar, but unique processes. The results support the idea that certain clients come in with particular patterns of relating and that a counselor can use his/her knowledge of these patterns to fit the client in an initial interview. The results did not support the hypothesis that the same process occurs in the first lecture of a teaching context. Instead, no clear relationship between teaching style and student characteristics emerged.

Fitting the Client

These findings provide empirical evidence of an interaction between the client's level of autonomy and the counselor's style. In accordance with previous research and theory (Daniels, 1994; Ivey & Goncalves, 1988; Greenspan, 1997), this study supports the idea that the counselor can base his/her interventions upon the late adolescent's developmental level. In particular, it was found that low autonomous individuals prefer a more structured interview than an unstructured interview. In addition, the results showed no significant difference within high autonomous individuals. This difference between low and high autonomous groups may indicate that high autonomous individuals are more flexible in their ability to adjust to

different settings. Conversely, low autonomous individuals may be more rigid, which limits them in that they may be much more suited for the highly structured interview.

The implications of these findings are considerable. In particular, these results suggest that counselors can use knowledge of an individual's level of autonomy to shape their initial interaction with a client. If the proper fit occurs, it may be more likely that a working alliance will develop quickly, which would increase retention rates and possibly speed up the counseling process. In an era of time-limited counseling, this study implies that there may be ways for a counselor to objectively fit a client. Especially with low autonomous individuals, it may be essential for the counselor to provide some sort of structure in order for the client to feel comfortable and connected. This finding implies that an overly unstructured format may not be beneficial when first meeting with some clients. Thus, instead of simply having one way in which the counselor can "be" with clients, these findings suggest that the counselor needs to be more flexible in his/her approach, at least initially.

Many therapists value a more unstructured format when seeing clients on a long-term basis (Greenson, 1967). The findings of this study suggest that "fitting" the client initially in the counseling process may lead to a better working relationship and level of comfort for the client. These findings do not suggest that a structured format should be used throughout the therapy process.

In addition, this exploratory study suggests that at least two different modes of counseling can be effective for different clients. Considering the limitations of this

study, it can be hypothesized that there are many more ways in which counselors can fit their clients. This study was very focused and limited in scope. Given the wide range of literature and developmental models, future research should focus on different aspects of this process of fitting. This study looked at a small piece in the puzzle of fitting clients. Specifically, counselors ought to have a wide range of techniques for initially fitting their clients, and future research ought to empirically test some of these techniques. In the real world counselors must fit along the spectrum between structured and unstructured, and this room in between ought to be explored.

Fitting the Student

These findings do not support a similar model for teaching. Previous research and theory (Marshall, Aller, & Aller, 2000; Ironsmith, Eppler, & Harju, 2000) focused on the ability of the teacher to “fit” his/her students. This study does not support this model of teaching. Instead, no clear relationship emerged between the teacher’s style and the student’s level of autonomy. Independent of autonomy level, students appeared to fit equally with the two different styles of teaching. Taken at face value, these findings might suggest that teaching style has little to do with how students perceive the classroom experience. Previous research (Shelton & Cook, 2000; Chickering, 1977) refutes that idea, thus we are left to explain how to account for the lack of findings in these teaching conditions.

One explanation may be that within the context of teaching students can become “lost” in the crowd. Within the classroom students can choose how much they would like to participate and pay attention. Some students, irrelevant of autonomy level, will choose to disconnect from the situation. Thus, in a large classroom students can choose to disengage from the experience, which may have little to do with the teacher’s style of teaching. Perhaps in smaller classroom in which the teacher and the student know one another, the interaction may occur. This study was not able to empirically study that question. Future research should address classroom size as a variable within the process of teaching, as it has vast implications, especially in large introductory college classes. Perhaps the lack of one-on-one opportunities for classroom instruction makes it difficult for any sort of interaction to take place between students and teachers.

Another explanation may focus on the dependent variable that this study has termed the “fit.” Perhaps in teaching we ought to be focused more on the learning process. Thus, dependent variable such as grade and amount learned may be better predictors of the “fit” between the student and teacher. In order to answer those, and many other similar questions, the long-term processes of teaching and learning would need to be assessed, which was beyond the scope of this study.

Finally, the lecture intervention may not have been powerful or sensitive enough to detect significant differences between the two conditions. In normal classrooms most students are interested and engaged because they are interested in the

topic or they want to do well in the class. In this study, it is believed that students did not have that type of motivation, which may account for the lack of significant findings.

The assessment of good teaching is not clearly defined, which may be one of the problems inherent in doing research on the process of teaching. If the teacher is interested in a student learning material, then perhaps one technique is more appropriate for some students. If, on the other hand, the goal of teaching is to get students to question their beliefs and possibly learn something about themselves, different approaches may be called upon. Again, this study was not able to answer these questions. Future research will need to be more focused on specific dependent measures of learning and “fit.”

Similar Processes in Counseling and Teaching?

Contrary to previous research and theory (Hibert, Martin, & Marx, 1981; Tharp, 1999) the findings of this study do not support the hypotheses that similar processes occur in initial teaching and counseling interactions. Instead, the proposed model was found for counseling, but not teaching. The lack of significant findings for teaching does not confirm the hypothesis that teaching and counseling are parallel processes. Further research must be done to alleviate some of the previously mentioned problems with the teaching condition. Some inherent differences between

teaching and counseling are discussed below, which should be addressed in future research.

Counseling is generally an experience between two individuals, whereas teaching generally occurs within a context of up to two hundred students in the college setting. The smaller context of a counseling session may magnify the relationship, whereas the larger context of a classroom may significantly decrease the ability for a relationship to develop. Thus, perhaps counseling represents an extremely magnified view of the teaching process. Further research should attempt to examine the similarities between these processes.

In addition, different theorists tend to focus on different aspects of good counseling (Greenson, 1967; Christensen, 1976, Ellis, 1978) and teaching (Bratter, Bratter, & Bratter, 1998). In attempting to assess the “fit” in counseling and teaching, perhaps the fit is quite different for the two. In counseling, the client may understand the fit to mean how much they were understood, how much they were able to express, or how much insight they gained. Within the classroom, the student may understand the fit to mean how much they learned, how they were able to think differently and more complexly, and the grade that they received. There are inherent differences in what is viewed as the most important end result in teaching and counseling, and future research ought to attempt to address many of these differing aspects.

Limitations of the Study

As mentioned above, this study was exploratory in nature. In particular, the dependent variable of “fit” was created for this study, and in future research a more systematic approach ought to be developed to assess this idea of “fit.” Additionally, this study did not address the long-term processes of teaching and counseling. Whereas an initial fit in both contexts may be experienced as promoting growth and knowledge, and essential for a working relationship, this may not hold true for the long-term processes. For example, in a counseling setting, growth may occur in a relationship with a counselor that is unlike any prior relationship. Thus, a low autonomous client may initially feel comfortable and “fit” by a structured counselor, but growth may only occur once the client can become more autonomous, which means the counselor may need to become slowly less structured. Similarly, in teaching, the student who seeks knowledge from an overly structured teacher may benefit more from a less structured teacher who makes the student think for him/herself. This study was not able to look directly at the long-term processes of teaching and counseling which may provide clearer clues to the similarities and differences between the two.

Future Research

There are many avenues to explore within the broad scope of “fitting” young adults in both counseling and teaching contexts. In particular, focused empirical

investigations ought to be done to examine the effect of classroom size on the “fit” of the teaching environment. Classrooms of differing sizes, especially ones containing fewer students, might offer evidence to support more similarities between teaching and counseling. Additionally, research investigating the long-term processes of both teaching and therapy need to be explored. Some of the ways in which the “fit” may change over a longer period of time might additionally offer new parallels between the two processes.

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APPENDICES

Table A-1. Summary of Scale Used for Counseling Session

Question	Mean	Std Dev	Cases	
IQ1	2.4677	1.0357	62.0	
IQ2	1.6129	0.6365	62.0	
IQ3	2.8871	0.7914	62.0	
IQ4	1.7016	0.7865	62.0	
IQ5	3.6129	0.5234	62.0	
IQ6	1.7258	0.5774	62.0	
IQ7	2.2097	0.7274	62.0	
IQ8	2.6774	0.9543	62.0	
N of Cases =	62.0			
Statistics for Scale	Mean 18.8952	Variance 4.9601	Std Dev 2.2271	Variables 8

Table A-2. Summary of Scale Used for Teaching Session

Question	Mean	Std Dev	Cases	
LQ1	1.4527	0.5986	148.0	
LQ2	2.3311	0.7504	148.0	
LQ3	1.6419	0.6599	148.0	
LQ4	2.9122	0.7184	148.0	
LQ5	1.8716	0.6928	148.0	
LQ6	2.5405	0.8113	148.0	
LQ7	3.4595	0.7226	148.0	
LQ8	3.2568	0.7480	148.0	
LQ9	2.0676	0.7529	148.0	
LQ10	3.1216	0.7086	148.0	
N of Cases =	148.0			
Statistics for Scale	Mean 24.6554	Variance 7.0845	Std Dev 2.6617	Variables 10

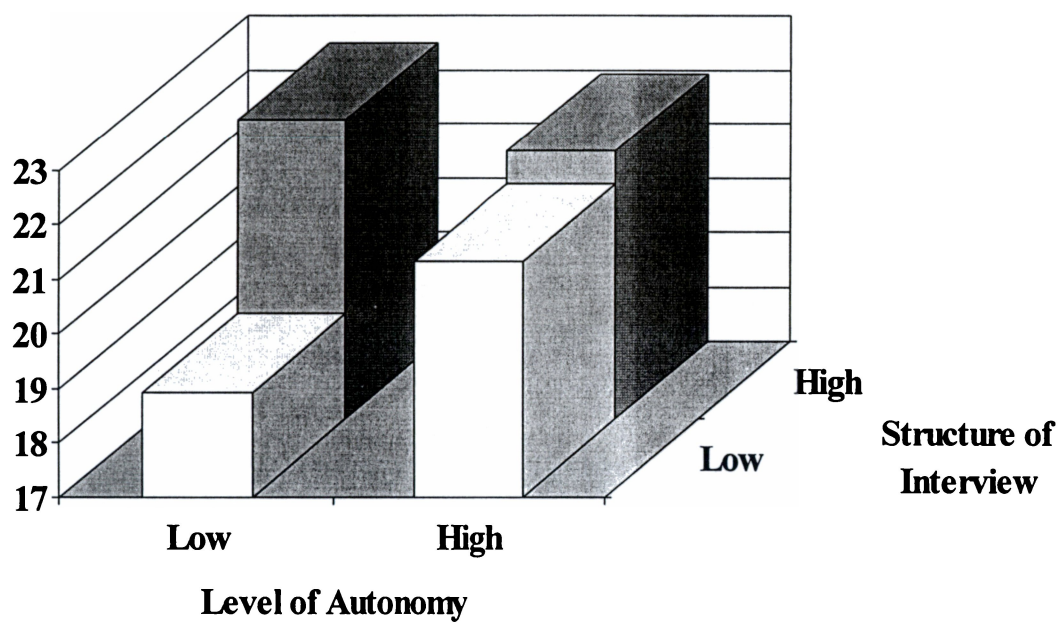


Figure A-1. "Fit" in the Counseling Room

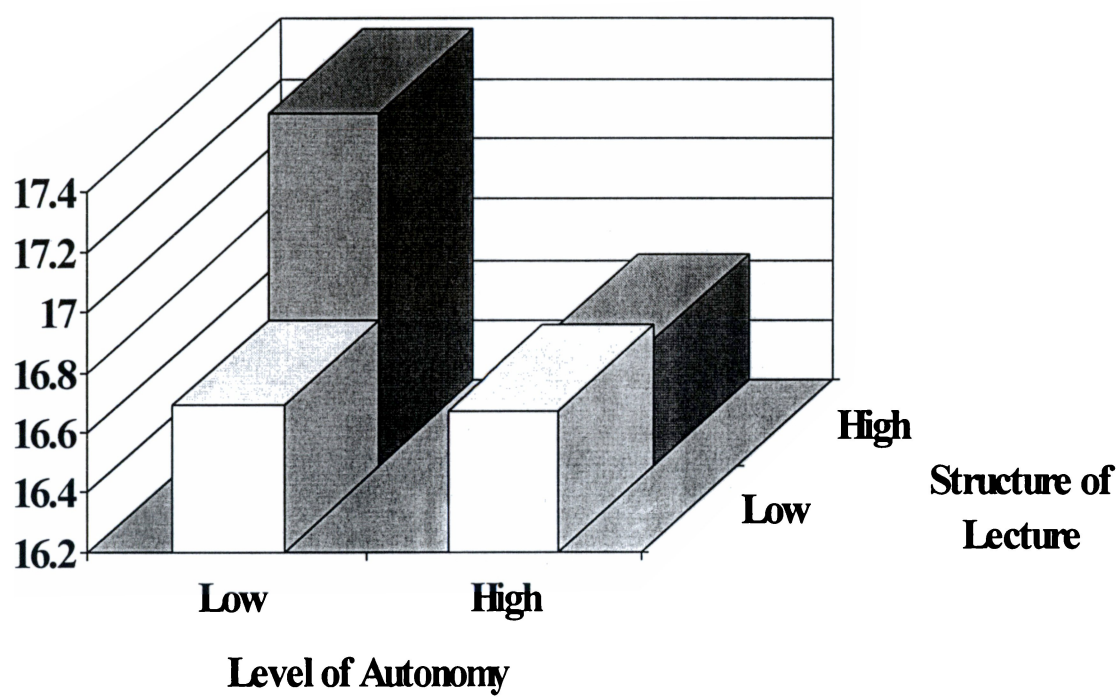


Figure A-2. "Fit" in the Teaching Session

**Interventions Based Upon Level of Development:
Parallel processes in teaching and counseling.**

ID# _____

Informed Consent Form

You are invited to participate in a research study. The purpose of this study is to examine how students learn and interact in different contexts.

Participation in this study involves two sessions, each around an hour in length. The first session will consist of filling out questionnaires and an interview between you and a trained interviewer. The second session will consist of participating in a lecture and filling out more questionnaires. The questionnaires will ask about general personal information and will give you an opportunity to assess the interview and teaching sessions.

Participation in this study is not expected to cause any discomfort, however, you may choose to stop at any time without penalty. In addition, you may choose not to complete portions of the study if you feel uncomfortable with them. We hope, however that you will find it interesting and fun to participate in this study.

Your answers to questionnaires will be kept in strict confidence. Furthermore, these materials will be maintained anonymously, such that your questionnaires will be identified by ID number only and not by name. Your name will **not** be used in any report about this project, nor will specific answers be shared with anyone else. Data from this study may be used in further studies by our research team and will be stored for three years past the completion of the study at a UT location.

We encourage you to ask questions any time during your involvement. You may also address questions to the Primary Investigator, Daniel Niederjohn, at 974-2161.

We appreciate your participation in the project and hope that you will find the experience to be interesting and informative.

I have read the above statement of the nature and purpose of the research study and agree to participate.

Signature of Participant Date

Print Name

Signature of Witness Date

Information Form

ID# _____

1. Gender (Circle one): Male Female

2. Age: _____

3. Ethnic Background:

☐ African American☐ Native American☐ White☐ Asian☐ Hispanic☐ Other

4. Highest Grade Completed

☐ 12th☐ 2 years of college☐ 1 year of college☐ 3 years of college

5. Are you currently employed?

☐ Yes, full time (40 hours or more per week)☐ Yes, part time (less than 40 hours a week)☐ No

6. With whom do you live? (Check all that apply):

☐ Parents (biological, step, or foster)☐ Male Friend(s)☐ Brothers/sisters☐ Female Friend(s)☐ Other adult relatives☐ Boyfriend or girlfriend☐ Non-related adults☐ Live alone

7. What is your parents marital status?

☐ Married to each other☐ Never married to each other☐ Separated from each other☐ Deceased☐ Divorced from each other

8. Religious Affiliation

☐ Protestant☐ Muslim☐ Catholic☐ Other (please specify) _____☐ Jewish☐ None

9. Within your family are you the...

☐ Only child☐ Youngest child☐ Oldest child☐ Other (please specify) _____

Emotional Autonomy Scale

ID# _____

		Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree
1.	My parents and I agree on everything.	1	2	3	4
2.	I go to my parents for help before trying to solve a problem myself.	1	2	3	4
3.	I have often wondered how my parents act when I'm not around.	1	2	3	4
4.	Even when my parents and I disagree, my parents are always right.	1	2	3	4
5.	It's better for kids to go to their best friend than to their parents for advice on some things.	1	2	3	4
6.	When I've done something wrong, I depend on my parents to straighten things out for me.	1	2	3	4
7.	There are some things about me that my parents don't know.	1	2	3	4
8.	My parents act differently when they are with their own parents from the way they do at home.	1	2	3	4
9.	My parents know everything there is to know about me.	1	2	3	4
10.	I might be surprised to see how my parents act at a party.	1	2	3	4
11.	I try to have the same opinions as my parents.	1	2	3	4
12.	When they are at work, my parents act pretty much the same way they do when they are at home.	1	2	3	4
13.	If I was having a problem with one of my friends, I would discuss it with my mother or father before deciding what to do about it.	1	2	3	4
14.	My parents would be surprised to know what I'm like when I'm not with them.	1	2	3	4
15.	When I become a parent, I'm going to treat my children in exactly the same way that my parents have treated me.	1	2	3	4

- | | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|
| 16. | My parents probably talk about different things when I am around from what they talk about when I'm not. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 17. | There are things that I will do differently from my mother and father when I become a parent. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 18. | My parents hardly ever make mistakes. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 19. | I wish my parents would understand who I really am. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 20. | My parents act pretty much the same way when they are with their friends as they do when they are at home with me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Relationship Support Scale

ID# _____

- | | | | | |
|----|--|------------------|--------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. | When you get a good grade in school, do your parents or guardians praise you? | Never | Sometimes | Usually |
| 2. | When you get a poor grade in school, do your parents respond by encouraging you to do better? | Never | Sometimes | Usually |
| 3. | In my family, we check in and out with each other when someone leaves or comes home. | Almost every day | A few times a week | A few times a month
Almost Never |
| 4. | When you get a poor grade in school, do your parents or guardian offer to help you? | Never | Sometimes | Usually |
| 5. | I can count on my parents to help me out if I have some kind of problem. | Usually true | | Usually false |
| 6. | My parents help me with my schoolwork if there is something I don't understand. | Usually true | | Usually false |
| 7. | My parents spend time just talking with me. | Almost every day | A few times a week | A few times a month
Almost Never |
| 8. | My family does something fun together. | Almost every day | A few times a week | A few times a month
Almost Never |
| 9. | I find it pretty easy to talk openly with my parents. I can depend on them and I like it when they depend on me. They are just about as involved in my life as I wish. | Agree | | Disagree |

Lecture Questionnaire

ID# _____

		Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree
1.	The instructor led the discussion.	1	2	3	4
2.	I learned a lot from the lecture.	1	2	3	4
3.	I felt comfortable during the lecture.	1	2	3	4
4.	I wish the instructor had allowed some of the students to take more of an active role in the lecture.	1	2	3	4
5.	I wish the lecture had been more structured.	1	2	3	4
6.	The students and the instructor worked together to develop the lecture.	1	2	3	4
7.	I did not feel like the instructor cared about what we thought.	1	2	3	4
8.	The instructor should have taken a more active role in the lecture.	1	2	3	4
9.	I found the lecture interesting.	1	2	3	4
10.	I wish the lecture had been more structured.	1	2	3	4

Interview Questionnaire

ID# _____

		Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree
1.	The interviewer led the discussion.	1	2	3	4
2.	I felt that the interviewer understood me.	1	2	3	4
3.	I have obtained some new understanding about myself from the interview.	1	2	3	4
4.	I felt comfortable with the interviewer.	1	2	3	4
5.	I felt comfortable with the interviewer.	1	2	3	4
6.	The interviewer learned a lot about me.	1	2	3	4
7.	I felt like the interviewer and I worked together.	1	2	3	4
8.	I wish the interviewer would have taken a more active role in the interview.	1	2	3	4

Structured Interview Protocol

The interview will begin with the following statement: “I’d like to spend some time today getting to know a bit about you. I will be asking you questions about your relationships, your interests, and your life in general.”

The interviewer will then begin by asking the following questions over a thirty-minute period.

Academic Related Questions

1. What year are you at the University?
2. What is your major or your planned major?
3. Which classes do you enjoy most?
4. What might you do when you finish college?

Relationship Related Questions

1. Where did you grow up?
2. Do you have any siblings?
3. Are your parents married?
4. Are most of your friends from home or did you meet them here at the University?
5. What types of activities do you do with your friends?
6. Are you currently dating anyone?

Work Related Questions

1. Do you work full- or part-time?
2. What type of work?

Extra-Curricular Activities Questions

1. Are you involved in any clubs on campus?
2. Do you take part in any sporting teams?

Leisure Activities Questions

1. What do you do in your leisure time?
2. How much time do you typically have for leisure activities?

VITA

Daniel Niederjohn was born in Portsmouth, Virginia on December 6, 1974. He attended schools in Lima, Ohio and Newark, California, where he graduated from Newark Memorial High School in June, 1993. He entered Dartmouth College during September of 1993 where in June, 1997 he received the Bachelor of Arts in Psychology with a minor in Education. After painting houses for the summer, he entered the doctoral program in Clinical Psychology at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville in August of 1997.

While at UTK, he received a Master of Arts in Psychology in May of 1999 based on his research in the area of adolescence. As a graduate student, he also taught undergraduate psychology courses, worked at the University of Tennessee Psychological Clinic, and worked at Peninsula Village, a long-term residential treatment program for adolescents. Upon completion of his course requirements, he will complete a year of internship at the Emory University School of Medicine in Atlanta, Georgia. His research interests include teaching and therapy with adolescents and developmentally based interventions.

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