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THE DEVELOPMENT OF A PROJECTIVE TECHNIQUE
FOR ANALYZING THE INTERPERSONAL NEEDS
OF KINDERGARTEN CHILDREN

DISSertation
Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate
School of The Ohio State University

By
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***

The Ohio State University
1971

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PLEASE NOTE:

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Background and Statement of Purpose

Since the opening of the first public school in America, the history of American education has been one of constant attempts to re-structure the curriculum and to re-define teaching. These emphases on change and improvement have increased with the passing years.

The major goals of education have remained essentially the same throughout our history. The broadest interpretation of the goal of education can be stated as the desire for all citizens to achieve complete living in a democratic society. The definitions of this generalized goal have changed and the methodology used to bring this goal into reality has been varied.

Prior to the 1960's, the emphasis in education seemed to have fluctuated between the needs of society and the desired learnings of the disciplines (subject matter). Much of our elementary education laid stress upon the needed socialization processes of young children so that they could become full and useful members of the American society. The emphasis in secondary education was upon the disciplines and the desired learnings necessary for a vocation and productive life in a democracy.
The decade of the 60's saw a new and fresh reconsideration of what school children must learn in the educational system. There was an attempt by both the romantic critics of education and the objective researchers to view curriculum as secondary to the needs of the student. The subject matter and the socialization process became means to an end. That end was the historic goal of public education: the intellectual and emotional maturity of the individual student. Rather than what must children learn, the issue became what can children learn in school.

Most notable of the resulting work in the field of curriculum during the decade of the 60's was the participation of university scholars in the determination of what school children of America were to study. The effort to update the content and methodology of the classroom was widespread, and the cooperation of disciplined scholars and practicing educators was seen as a very positive sign. The new curricula began to be produced and quickly spread throughout the American educational system. Changes were seen in classrooms and the results were proudly accented and widely publicized. The resulting infusion of the "new physics," the "new math," and the "new social studies" into the elementary and secondary classrooms has already altered education in these disciplines. Even the formats of current teacher preparation programs and certification requirements have been changed to meet the requirements of the new curricula.

The production of the "new" curricula has largely been the product of the so-called "new" educational psychologists. The
Spokesman for this movement is Jerome S. Bruner (1960). Reaction of the American educational community to Bruner's theories on the educational needs of the child has been phenomenal. For many educators, Bruner's theories became a panacea for education and an eternally correct answer to criticisms of schools.

Some critics did not find the answers to their complaints about American education in the "new" curricula. The romantic critics declared that the primary reason children fail to develop more than a tiny part of the tremendous capacity for learning, understanding, and creating which they possess when they are born and of which they make full use during the first four years of their lives is because we ignored and buried the emotional aspects of human development beneath curricular subject matter.

The decade of the 60's accepted the legitimacy of emotionality for education and attempted to incorporate emotional needs into the "new" curricula. But the expected success of such an approach has not yet been found.

Charles Silberman (1970) has called the schools repressive places which make education dull and which destroy the imagination of the child. This repression, according to Silberman, is not vicious, but rather mindless, on the part of the teachers. A misunderstanding of exactly what are the emotional needs of both the adults and the students in the schools is the cause of the repressive behavior being exhibited.
The purpose of this study is to design and implement a projective technique that is useful in analyzing the interpersonal needs of kindergarten children in three different school settings. The study concentrates on the design of the projective technique and its administration to kindergarten children. Assuming that the projective technique proves to be useful in analyzing the interpersonal needs of kindergarten children, the resulting data of the use of such a projective technique in three different school settings is analyzed.

Among the questions to which the study will address itself are:

1) Can a series of pictures depicting interpersonal needs be developed as a useful projective technique to analyze the interpersonal needs of kindergarten children?

2) Does the series of pictures as a projective technique work equally well with the children from differing socio-economic levels?

3) Assuming the usefulness of this projective technique, what are the interpersonal need preferences of kindergarten children as influenced by sex and by socio-economic differences?

**Significance of the Study**

One of the most important design parameters for curriculum development is the emotional life of the student. If a projective technique can be developed which is useful in the analysis of the interpersonal needs of the beginning school age child, important data for the development of a school's curriculum would be available to
the researcher. It is equally important to determine if the projective technique which is found useful in one school setting would be equally useful in analyzing the interpersonal needs of kindergarten children in differing school settings.

Once found to be useful, the projective technique could provide the curriculum designer with information as to how the kindergarten child understood and used the emotional dimension of interpersonal relationships in classroom activity. Based on the data gathered through the use of this projective technique, the curriculum designer could implement a program whereby the adult behaviors being trained in the classroom could be founded on these interpersonal needs. Emotional growth and interpersonal needs would become an integral function of the academic classroom and would be incorporated with the cognitive base of educational psychologists.

Limitations of the Study

This study will compare the forced choice selections of the sample children to a series of pictures identified as representing the interpersonal needs of inclusion, control, and affection. These pictures will be validated as representations of interpersonal needs by a panel of experts. The responses of the children should not be generalized to other representations of interpersonal situations. Similarly, this study will employ only pictures selected by a panel of experts as representative of the interpersonal needs and the pictures should not be generalized to other more complex representations of the interpersonal needs of inclusion, control, and affection.
Likewise, the representations of these needs, as reproduced in these pictures, should not be generalized to include other interpersonal needs in addition to, or in substitution of, inclusion, control, and affection.

The sample for this study will be kindergarten students present in the classroom of a Rural-Farm school, an Outer-Urban school, and an Inner-Urban school in the vicinity of the city of Columbus, Ohio. Since all the individuals present in the room will be selected for the interviews, any effects noted in the results should be generalizable to children with similar backgrounds in similar socialization experiences.

The specific socio-economic and mental ability differences within each of the three samples will not be studied. For instance, the investigator has not obtained data relating to individual Intelligence Quotient scores of the children.

Definitions of Terms as Used in This Study

The following terms are defined and/or described to provide an understanding of terminology as it is used in the present investigation. Other terms are defined as they appear in the text.

Interpersonal.--The term refers to relations that occur between people as opposed to relations in which at least one participant is inanimate. It is assumed that, owing to the psychological presence of other people, interpersonal situations lead to behavior in an individual that differs from the behavior of the individual when he is not in the presence of other persons. (Schutz, 1958, p. 14).
**Interpersonal situation.**--A situation involving two or more persons, in which these individuals take account of each other for some purpose or decision. (Schutz, 1958, p. 14).

**Need.**--The condition of an individual, the non-realization of which leads to undesirable consequences. (Schutz, 1958, p. 15).

**Interpersonal Need.**--A need that may be satisfied only through the attainment of a satisfactory relation with other people. (Schutz, 1958, p. 15).

**Interpersonal Need for Inclusion.**--In behavioral terms, the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relation with people with respect to interaction and association. (Schutz, 1958, p. 18).

**Interpersonal Need for Control.**--In behavioral terms, the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relation with people with respect to control and power. (Schutz, 1958, p. 18).

**Interpersonal Need for Affection.**--In behavioral terms, the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relation with people with respect to love and affection. (Schutz, 1958, p. 20).

**Inclusion Behavior.**--Behavior directed toward the satisfaction of the interpersonal need for inclusion. (Schutz, 1958, p. 21).

**Control Behavior.**--Behavior directed toward the satisfaction of the interpersonal need of control. (Schutz, 1958, p. 21).

**Affection Behavior.**--Behavior directed toward the satisfaction of the interpersonal need of affection. (Schutz, 1958, p. 21).
Projective Technique.—A relatively unstructured yet standard situation in which the respondent is asked to respond, but with as few restrictions as possible upon the mode of response. (Murstein, 1963, p. 1).

Kindergarten Children.—Children who are enrolled and attending a regularly scheduled kindergarten class of a state-approved school system.

Assumptions

The researcher will assume that pictures may be used as representations to "stand for" interpersonal relationships in the life of the young child. Specifically, the series of pictures will be used to represent to the young child his own understandings of interpersonal relationships in his life.

The researcher will assume that the task presented is within the capabilities of kindergarten children. Specifically, the researcher will assume that all five-year-old children will have formed sufficient visual skills to interpret the series of pictures and will possess enough motor skills to hear and interpret the instructions of the researcher. The researcher will assume that the children will have vision which is either approximately normal or is corrected to normal standards.

The researcher will assume that the three interpersonal needs of affection, control, and inclusion as outlined by William C. Schutz are a valid design parameter in the creation of a projective technique.
Methodology

**Design.**—The design of this study is of the projective technique type. The projective technique design was selected because: (1) it allows the greatest amount of freedom of expression on the part of the subject, and (2) it allows for the subject to put his own interpretation into the series of pictures.

The design will include a highly structured individual interview with each child. Each subject will be asked to show the researcher which child he would most like to be in a set of three pictures. He will then be shown a second set of three pictures and asked the same question. He will also be asked to rank the six pictures according to his preference, and to verbally respond to the researcher's question of what he prefers in his favorite picture.

**Population.**—The populations for the study will be all the students present on the day of interviewing from three kindergarten classes in the area of Columbus, Ohio. One class will be from an Inner-Urban school, one from an Outer-Urban school, and one from a Rural-Farm school. Various socio-economic factors such as the father's occupation, the economic level of the family, the type of housing, and the size of the family will be recorded in each different school setting.

**Sample.**—The results of interviews with all the children present on the day of the interviewing in each school will be deemed representative of the population of the entire classroom in each of the three different school settings.
Procedure.--The researcher will attempt to gain acceptance and to establish rapport with the entire kindergarten class by participation in their organized activities prior to doing an individual interview.

The individual interviews will consist of showing two different series of three pictures each to the child. One series will be shown at a time. Each series of three will consist of one representation of each of the three interpersonal realms of affection, control, and inclusion. Each representation will consist of a dyad of five-year-old children doing the interpersonal behavior. One child will be expressing the behavior, the other will be wanting the behavior.

The respondent will be asked to show the researcher which child he would most like to be in the three pictures and this response will be recorded by the researcher. The child will be shown the second series of three pictures and asked to make the same response with this series of pictures. Next, the respondent will be asked to rank each of the six pictures, from most favorite, to least favorite and these results will be recorded by the researcher. Lastly, the child will be asked to verbally tell the researcher what he prefers about the particular pictures he chose as most favorite and least favorite. The researcher will also record these responses.

Projective Technique.--The projective technique will consist of an interview centered around two series of colored 4 by 6 inch pictures, drawn to the specifications of the researcher. Each series shall contain six pictures, two representations of three interpersonal
realms, and each series shall be identical in the behavior depicted. The difference between the two series will be in the sex of the children depicted. The series of all boys will be used with a boy respondent and the all-girl series will be used with a girl respondent. Each representation of the interpersonal realm shall contain a dyad of two children, one representing the expressed behavior and one representing the wanted behavior.

The series of six behaviors will be validated by a panel of three professors at The Ohio State University who are familiar with the interpersonal theory of William C. Schutz. Twelve representations of the theory, four pictures of each of the three realms, will be shown to the panel. These twelve representations will be drawn according to the researcher's specifications. The two representations which are selected as most representative of the realm being depicted will be then modified (according to the suggestions of the panel) and used in the series of six pictures to be shown to the respondents.

Analysis of Data.--The projective technique will be evaluated according to such criteria as ease of administration, ease of obtaining verbal and action responses from the kindergarten children, and general usefulness in analyzing the interpersonal needs of kindergarten children.

The individual choices of the subjects will be compared to determine which representation of an interpersonal need was chosen most frequently. Differences in choice, if any, among the sexes of each selected school population, as well as between the school populations chosen, will be recorded and discussed.
The consistency between the choices of need representations and the first two pictures ranked by each subject will be studied. The rankings will be compared between the three school populations to determine if the samples are drawn from similar or the same populations.

Verbal responses of the subjects will be analyzed through such measures as length of response, speed of response, and the use of descriptive words. Length of response will be measured along a continuum running from "little or none" to "use of incomplete sentences" to "use of complete sentences" to "use of complete paragraphs." Speed of response will be measured on a continuum from "slow" to "average" to "speedy" to "very fast." Use of descriptive words will be measured on a continuum from "none" to "few" to "several" to "many."

Verbal responses to such questions from the interviewer as "What do you like about this child?"; "What is this child doing?"; and "What would you do if you were this child?" will be categorized according to the three interpersonal needs of affection, control, and inclusion.

Because the racial mixture of the children represented in the pictures will be on a random selection basis, a verbal response to the question by the interviewer, "Do all these children look like you?" will be recorded and analyzed according to the specific responses made by the subjects.
Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the problem to be investigated. The chapter has included the rationale for the study, the problem statement, the questions to which the study is directed, the significance and the limitations of the investigation.

The next chapter, Chapter Two, is a review of related research. The chapter is divided into different sections which treat categories of research in the use of projective techniques and the testing of interpersonal needs.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH

Introduction

The aim of any instructional system is to ultimately influence the behavior of the learner. Even though the vast body of psychological and sociological knowledge suggests methods which would lead to the control of the behavior of other persons, this control seldom can be accomplished without the involvement of the emotions of the subject. More and more the research in this field of control of others emphasizes the need for the inclusion of emotional factors on the part of the subject. In addition, it is the conviction of many educators that all learners have the right to be a human individual and a distinct personality. As long as this value is held, the instructional system must be viewed as a source of not only cognitive stimuli, but also emotional and psychological stimuli in the environment of the learner. These stimuli can be manipulated and controlled in order to maximize the influence of the instructional system on the learner.

A major portion, then, of any technology of instruction must be the body of knowledge concerned with the operation of cognitive and emotional stimuli in human subjects. Much experimental activity has centered on such considerations. In fact, the majority of research
in educational psychology has been in the fields of cognition and emotional growth ever since educational psychology became an experimental science.

Educators have long sought to interpret and use the data of research psychologists in the schools. If educators are to progress in more effective education of the young, they must make full use of the research from cognitive and emotional studies.

In order to suggest a theory, a discussion of the conclusions of research follows. The work and traditions of a theory of emotional needs will be reviewed first. Second, the summarization of various studies in emotional development and cognitive growth will be presented. A discussion of the theory of perception and the use of projective techniques will be summarized next. Fourth, the contribution of William C. Schutz will be reviewed.

**Studies Related to a Theory of Emotional Needs**

Perhaps the nearest thing to an all-embracing principle which is accepted, in one form or another, in spite of its difficulty to measure, by many social scientists, is the concept of need, drive, or vectorial force. This theory accepts that there is an existing present state of tension, a compelling uneasiness or dissatisfaction, a hypothetical disequilibrium, within the organism as the action-initiating state. This presence of dissatisfaction causes a "push" for the organism to try by trials and discriminations, by intelligence or luck, to attain a goal which will re-establish equilibrium and reduce
the tension and appease the need. Henry Murray (1948, p. 35) sums up this action of reduction of need tension:

The reduction of tension will be attended by a feeling of satisfaction. After one or more experiences of this sort, the object (person, thing), or kind of object, which was dynamically connected with the satisfaction becomes valued (cathected) as a goal-object; the habitual location of the object may also become cathected as the goal-place and the road to it as the pathway. Furthermore, with repetition, unsuccessful patterns of action will tend to be eliminated and successful patterns, including the agencies (things, persons) that were of service, will be conserved. Thus a simple need-integrate (a compound of need, affect, goal, one or more goal-objects, one or more goal-places, and pathways, a variety of action patterns, and, perhaps, one or more agencies) will become established. From then on, either a precept or a mental image of the goal-object, or, in fact, the image of any component of the system may arouse the need and thus initiate activity.

Murray seems to point toward a general formula applicable to a large number of needs: tension \* reduction of tension. Murray defines a need as "a construct (a convenient fiction or hypothetical concept) which stands for a force (the physiochemical nature of which is unknown) in the brain region, a force which organized perception, apperception, intellection, conation, and action in such a way as to transform in a certain direction an existing unsatisfying situation (Murray, 1938, pp. 123-34). A "need," simply defined, is in terms of a situation or condition of an individual the nonrealization of which leads to undesirable consequences.

Abraham H. Maslow has suggested that needs arrange themselves in a hierarchy going from the most elemental and physiological to those which represent the higher development of the individual (Maslow, 1943, pp. 370-96). Maslow would place needs on five levels:

The first level would comprise the basic physiological needs of hunger, sex, and so on. The second level would comprise the needs
of safety, that is, of avoiding external dangers that might result in harm to the individual from the outside. In the third level there is the need for love—that is, to be given love, warmth and affection by another person. On the fourth level is the need for esteem—that is, self-respect, self-esteem, and also the respect and esteem of others. Finally, there is the need for self-realization, of being able to accomplish and achieve—to paint a picture, to secure a position, to occupy a place in one's group. Maslow suggests that these represent a hierarchy of five levels. Gratification of needs on the first or more basic levels frees a person for the higher social needs; for instance, if a person's physical needs and his needs for safety and love are taken care of, he can turn his attention and devote his energies to the more distinctly ego needs and efforts toward self-realization on the higher levels. On the other hand, if these more basic needs are not met, they claim priority, and activities on the higher levels must be temporarily postponed.

Those persons in whom a need has been satisfied are best equipped to deal with deprivations of that need in the future. It is the individual who has grown up in a secure and happy home, not deprived of his basic needs, who is best able to stand such privations in later life, while the individual who has suffered insecurities in childhood is the one who is first to succumb to difficulties and deprivations in later life. This principle was verified over and over during World War II; the emotionally secure individual was the one able to stand the greatest shock of war conditions.
The healthy man is one whose basic needs have been met so that he is principally motivated by his needs to develop and actualize his highest potentialities. The maladjusted and neurotic person, on the other hand, is one who is dominated by his more basic needs. Since his previous insecurities have never made him feel entirely safe with regard to gratification of his more basic needs, he is never quite free to turn his attention to activities of self-realization and achievement.

An understanding of Maslow's hierarchy of needs seems to point toward two different types of needs: those of a biological nature and those which are interpersonal in orientation. An interpersonal need is one that may be satisfied only through the attainment of a satisfactory relation with other people.

William C. Schutz (1958, p. 16) shows that there is a close parallel between biological needs and interpersonal needs in the following respects:

1. A biological need is a requirement to establish and maintain a satisfactory relation between the organism and its physical environment. An interpersonal need is a requirement to establish a satisfactory relation between the individual and his human environment. A biological need is not satisfied by providing unlimited gratification. An organism may take in too much water and drown, as well as too little water and die of thirst. The need is satisfied by establishing an equilibrium between the amount of water inside and outside the organism. The same is true for the "commodities" exchanged between people. An individual's needs may be unfulfilled either by having, for example, too much control over his human environment and hence too much responsibility, or too little control, hence not enough security. He must establish a satisfactory relation with his human environment with respect to control.

2. Nonfulfillment of a biological need leads to physical illness and sometimes death. Nonfulfillment of an interpersonal need leads to mental (or interpersonal) illness and sometimes
death. Unsatisfactory personal relations lead directly to difficulties associated with emotional illness. Death, either through suicide or resulting from the more general loss of motivation for life, results when interpersonal dissatisfaction is prolonged.

3. The organism has characteristic modes, which are temporarily successful, of adapting to lack of complete satisfaction of biological needs. The organism also has characteristic ways, which are temporarily successful, of adapting to nonsatisfaction of interpersonal needs. For the interpersonal situation the terms "conscious" and "unconscious" needs are sometimes used to describe the phenomena at issue.

The distinction between a conscious and an unconscious need finds a parallel in a biological condition such as drug addiction. In drug addiction the immediate (conscious) need is to satisfy the immediate craving and to adjust the body chemistry so that the pain is reduced. The more basic (unconscious) need is to adjust the body chemistry back to the state where the drug is no longer required. The pain or anxiety felt when the organism is in a situation which does not allow for the satisfaction of these two needs is different in each case. In the first there is the immediate deprivation, analogous to an interpersonal situation in which an individual's characteristic psychological adjustment mechanisms (for example, defenses) cannot operate. To illustrate, if denial were the defense used by an individual in the affection area and he were placed in a situation in which close personal relations were called for, he would feel an immediate anxiety caused by the discrepancy between the demands of the situation and his most comfortable behavior pattern. The more basic anxiety or interpersonal imbalance stemming from the general inadequacy of the defense to ward off the need for affection
is analogous to the physical discomfort caused by the discrepancy between the chemical balance produced by the drug addition and the normal chemical balance.

This analogy assumes particular interpersonal needs, parallel to an optimal chemical balance. This assumption is made, although it is difficult to test. Perhaps it parallels the condition in which the psychoanalyst attempts to place his patient. The analyst has a conception of an optimal psychological condition for a given individual toward which the person strives. This condition goes deeper than the reinforcement of the patient's defense mechanisms, which protect him from undesirable impulses. The optimal state is one in which defenses are only minimally required. It is this psychological state that is analogous to the concept of an optimal interpersonal relation.

Beginning in the nursery, the process of the satisfaction of one's interpersonal needs continues throughout life. Among other things, what must be learned are: the power to inhibit, or to moderate, the expression of unacceptable needs; the ability to transfer catexis from a prohibited goal-object to an acceptable substitute; the habitual and automatic use of a large number of approved action patterns (methods, manners, and emotional attitudes); and the ability to adapt to schedules (to do things at the proper time, keep appointments, etc.). It is assumed that, having acquired these abilities, the average person will be capable of establishing satisfactory interpersonal relations within the legal and conventional framework of society. When the child begins to behave in a predictable, expectable manner it is well on the road to being socialized.
Michael Giammatteo, (1969) and others insist that the development of a healthy adult personality depends upon the healthy growth of emotions. This growth of emotions results from the fulfillment of certain needs on an interpersonal level. Emotions are learned and are continuously developed. The fear of emotional confrontation and lack of ability to express feelings is caused by inadequate interpersonal relationships and results in conflict within the individual.

Another source of conflict within the individual in his quest to satisfy his interpersonal needs lies within the compromise between the individual's own impulses and the demands of other interpersonal relationships within society. Human personality is a compromise formation (Murray, 1948). It is a dynamic resultant of the conflict between the individual's own impulses (as given by biology and modified by culture and by specific situations) and the demands, interests, and impulses of other individuals. The compromise is attained in a great variety of ways. An individual may be over-socialized in one sector of his behavior, adequately flexible in others, inadequately socialized in another behavioral area. Conflicts arising from the varying demands upon personality in different roles the individual must play may be solved by compartmentalization--the personality adopts habitual strategies in one area of life that are not carried over to another. Rationalizations are also invoked, many of these being supplied ready-made by the cultural ideology. Conformity may be accompanied by overt release of hostility against the institutions, or the required performance of conventions may be subtly distorted.
"In the effective reactions that attend both the learning of cultural patterns and their transmission to others inhere most fertile sources of culture change." (Murray, 1948, p. 46).

Russell (1956, pp. 140-42) provides a helpful summary of a few features of social development. This summary indicates the important role of the environment in social behavior and concepts, although a number of research workers, such as Shirley (1933) and Gesell (1943), suggest that, especially in young children, there is a more or less natural sequence in social development just as there is in motor or mental development. The summary suggests that the social percepts of the young child are built up largely in his immediate family circle. It is in the area of interpersonal relations that the first years of life may be particularly influential in later development. As the child acquires language he can begin to generalize some of these percepts into concepts, identify himself more with others, and begin to label in a rather crude way some of the traits and social actions, of other children and adults.

Studies Related to a Theory of Emotional Growth and Cognitive Development

An old homily that "we learn best when we care most" is essentially the message of such men as Richard M. Jones when he declares, "A comprehensive theory of instruction should seek to prescribe not only optimal theories of intellectual uncertainty, risk and relevance, but also optimal levels of emotional involvement and personal curiosity." (Jones, 1968, p. 125).
We know from recent research that the cultivation of emotional issues in classrooms, whether by design or in response to the unpredictable (as the romantic critics of education Holt and Kozel stress), can be the means to deepen learning and better further the ends of instructing children in subject matter.

Research combining the interests of the student of both child development and of education would concern itself with the way a child developed in his self-understanding and his understanding of others. (Jersild, 1946). We know that the child from an early age, without being deliberate about it, acquires ideas and attitudes about himself and the world around him. These attitudes and relationships become a part of the pattern of his life. (Jones, Jersild, Piaget).

The experiences a child has with his peers from the age of two or three and on into adolescence not only help him in social aspects of his development, but they also are necessary elements in the process through which he finds himself as an individual in his own right. (Jersild, 1954, p. 231).

Process toward social maturity depends not simply on an ability to go through the motions of taking on more and more difficult and complex social enterprises, but also on the development of appreciation of other persons. To really appreciate other persons, it is necessary to be able to enter into a mutuality and a genuine interaction, "it is necessary for a person to be able to be responsive to others and to their wishes, needs, and intentions." (Jersild, 1954, p. 196).

One feature of awareness of the other person's feelings consists of the ability to interpret the expressions of emotion by others. This awareness gradually develops in the young child as he
experiments and learns to "read" the emotional tone of other people around him. "During the elementary school years, children also become increasingly able to formulate in words the traits and characteristics which they like or dislike." (Jersild, 1954, p. 197).

During the early childhood period, the primary people serving as models for the young child are those in his immediate family--father, mother, and brothers and sisters, including older, younger, and the same age. The post childhood period of life sees a parade of people with the same sex and status relations as the original family. One of the first "significant others" outside of the family is a playmate or a peer. Later, the teacher usually becomes a "significant other" in the life of the child.

Other child psychologists point to childhood needs similar to the definitions given for inclusion, control, and affection. As Jersild (1954, p. 257) states:

In time, through a combination of many factors, one of the strongest motives in a child's life is the desire to be accepted, to belong, and eventually, to achieve some measure of recognition and prestige in his relations with his fellow men. This expresses itself first in a child's desire for security in his relations with his parents. When he moves into a larger world, a similar desire goes with him.

Jersild and others also point up the fact that children at an early age display a desire to receive and an impulse to bestow affection.

Although learning is involved in determining whom and what a child will be fond of, quite as important is the fact that the child has the potentiality for fondness and concern for persons and things. This potentiality is a feature of his original nature. (Jersild, 1954, p. 306).
These same emotional developmental tasks have been developed into theory by Robert J. Havighurst, (1965). Although the terminology differs slightly, the same goals of inclusion, control and affection are seen in the Havighurst developmental tasks of learning a basic attitude of trust, learning a sense of autonomy, and learning initiative.

Only two systematic developmental theories have really devoted sufficient attention to the subject of emotions to qualify: Freud's and Piaget's. Freud coordinates emotional and social growth. The modern spokesman for Freud's theory is Erik Erikson. Jean Piaget coordinates emotional growth with cognitive growth (Piaget, 1967).

In summation, these modern emotional theories could be of significant value in the achievement of the goals of education. Education must see the importance of individual emotional growth or lose contact with the inner emotions of the student.

Relevance, then is the key to availing the instructional process of emotional and imaginal influences . . . . The emotional and imaginative powers of school children reside in their emotion-toned inner lives . . . . So curriculum must be constructed so as to be necessarily isomorphic with the development of these inner lives. (Jones, 1968, p. 208-219).

A generally accepted philosophical explanation of the goal of the educational system in American society seems to be that the educational system should strive to produce citizens who realize their potential as fully as possible. All the abilities to think, to know, to do, and to create should be developed to the utmost (Dewey, 1916; Counts, 1953).
The more specific educational goals include academic achievement, emotional adjustment, social adjustment, and physical health. The role of interpersonal needs and interpersonal relationships affects each of these specific educational goals. Educational values seem to be positively correlated with general orientations toward interpersonal relations of both the student and the teachers.

The old understanding that a child's intelligence was "fixed" at conception made any concern for learning in the early childhood seem a relatively fruitless waste of time (Hunt, 1964). This idea of a "fixed intelligence" is no longer tenable. For example, Bloom (1964, p. 71) proves that varying environments in early childhood can change the intelligence quotient by about twenty points. The conclusions drawn from recent findings are straightforward. The growth of a child's intellect is quite rapid during the first five or six years of his life and the rate and nature of that growth is, in some way, related to the environmental context within which the child lives.

The connection between these findings and the curriculum of the schools seems clear. J. McV. Hunt (1961, p. 357) states that:

... it is the appropriateness of the match between the circumstances that the child encounters as he develops and the nature of his own intellectual organizations at the time of the encounters that appear to determine in very large part his rate of intellectual development.

Curriculum planners must determine what and how different circumstances and happenings have affected a child's intellectual growth by the time he enters school at age five or six. The proper coordination between the intellectual exercises at that time and the new circumstances that
can be provided for him must then be found. "The need for research—research combining the interests of the student of child development and the practical interests of the educator—is especially acute at the kindergarten level, or the age level extending from about 4½ to 6 years." (Jersild, 1946, p. 99).

Studies Related to Perception and Projective Techniques

All knowledge comes from experience of some kind, from interactions with events and objects in the environment. But we cannot experience everything about us all at once, so we select from the total possible field, certain portions for our attention and observation while rejecting other portions. These selected portions become a part of our perceptions and we project some part of these perceptions into everything else we do in the future. To better understand how this complex interaction occurs, a review of theories of perception and the use of projective techniques will be discussed.

Gibson (1966) views perception as an active interrelation between organism and environment in the process of obtaining information. Forgus (1966) defines perception as the superset of information extraction, with learning and thinking as subsets, in man's need to adapt to his environment. Allport (1955), recognizing that perception and cognition are almost inseparably intertwined, defines perception as including the awareness of complex environmental situations as well as of single objects. Russell (1956) views perception as a part of an ever-changing, organizing, mental activity linking preceding sensations and subsequent thinking processes to produce an experience variable.
This variable, the percept, is what is known of an object, quality, or relationship as a result of a sensory experience.

Most of us realize that the world of events and objects about us is not exactly as we perceive it to be. What we experience or perceive is really a construct or interpretation derived from the information available from within and about us. Weintraub and Walker (1966) describe three forms of evidence which make it clear there are differences between what we perceive and the physical world: (1) illusions, demonstrable differences between perception and the facts of physical measurement; (2) apparent differences in perception based on differences in people's characteristics and histories; and (3) differences in perceptions by organisms with differing sensory capacities. Brunswik (1955) goes so far as to say that perceptions are no more than probabilities or inferences we make as we attempt to reconstruct the world from uncertain cues and information. Perception may be regarded as the way in which the individual obtains data from and maintains contact with his environment; perception serves as a guide for his behavior. As we look about and make observations we are simultaneously organizing and interpreting the sensory data.

Perceptual processes begin at birth and develop rapidly thereafter. Modifications in the way the environment is perceived is a learning process. But perceptual modifications also go on in development, making it impossible to study perceptual learning without development. Perceptual learning refers to an increase in the
ability to extract information from the environment. Wohlwill (1960), Epstein (1967), and Gibson (1969) are good sources for a discussion of the principles and experimental studies of perceptual learning and development.

The initial categorization of information or encoding process essentially involves the perception and comprehension of information based on the selection of figure-ground components in the environment. According to Taba (1966), this is an inductive process closely related to concept formation in which the individual differentiates and discriminates between the objects or events before him by abstracting and identifying common properties and then places labels on and categorizes the items into super- and sub-ordinate groups. Concepts are generalizations that may stand for whole classes of objects, qualities, or events.

Concept formation is a classificatory task, but exists through a continuum with the purely perceptual task on the one end and the purely inferential and conceptual on the other. Wohlwill (1962) suggests that a quantitative criterion may be formulated relating perception with conception which regards the relative amount of information which the subject needs from the stimulus field in order to make judgments. Bruner (1962) adds the possibility that individuals, in a reverse action, frequently develop means of altering conceptual categories into categories that may be used with more immediate perceptual cues. The percept-concept continuum suggested by Wohlwill (above) is in agreement here, for there are no real "all or none" distinctions
between perception and conception--there are degrees of specifying rules for classification as well as differences in ways to develop rules.

It is difficult to discuss perception theory without mentioning Piaget's studies. However, his theories lie on the conception end of the perception-conception continuum and are concerned with the application of rules and are therefore not directly related to the present research. Piaget's work on concept formation and the relationship to intellectual development has been reviewed by Flavell (1963), Baldwin (1967), Ginsburg and Opper (1969), and many others. Replications of his studies, as by Elkind (1961) and Lovell (1966), have attested to their general validity. Piaget's findings on developmental "stages" of cognitive growth have relevance for any study involving children's thinking.

Perception has long been a concern of psychology. It was Freud (1894) who first pointed toward the relationship of man's perceptions upon the way he projected himself into the environment. In a paper "On the Defense Neuropsychooses" (Freud, 1896), Freud stated more explicitly that projection is a process of ascribing one's own drives, feelings, and sentiments to other people or to the outside world as a defensive process that permits one to be unaware of these "undesirable" phenomena in oneself.

A careful reading of Freud shows that he did not intend his concept of projection to deal only with the negative aspects of phenomena. He said in Totem and Taboo (1938):

But projection is not specially created for the purpose of defense, it also comes into being where there are no conflicts.
The projection of inner perceptions to the outside is a primitive mechanism which, for instance, also influences our sense-perceptions, so that it normally has the greatest share, in shaping our outer world. Under conditions that have not yet been sufficiently determined even inner perceptions of ideational and emotional processes are projected outwardly, like sense perceptions, and are used to shape the outer world, whereas they ought to remain in the inner world.

And (on page 879):

The thing which we, just like primitive man, project in outer reality, can hardly be anything but the recognition of a state in which a given thing is present to the senses and to consciousness, next to which another state exists in which the thing is latent, but can reappear, that is to say, the co-existence of perception and memory, or, to generalize it, the existence of unconscious psychic processes next to conscious ones.

According to Abt (1950), this thought of Freud's contains everything necessary for a consistent theory of projection and general perception. Freud's main assumption is that memories of percepts influence perception of contemporary stimuli. The interpretation of the major projective techniques are based on such an assumption. These include the Rorschach Test, the Thematic Apperception Test, the Szondi Sentence Completion, and a great number of other procedures. The basic assumption in the use of these tests is that the subject is presented with a number of ambiguous stimuli and is then invited to respond to these stimuli. By such means it is assumed that the subject projects his own needs and press and that these will appear as responses to the ambiguous stimuli. Abt concludes that all present perceptions are influenced by past perception, and that indeed the nature of the perceptions and their interaction with each other constitute the field of the projective psychology of personality.
As defined by Murstein (1963, p. 1), a projective technique implies a relatively unstructured, yet standard situation in which the respondent is asked to respond, but with as few restrictions as possible upon the mode of response. It is a projective technique rather than a projective test because there will be less preoccupation with quantitative enumeration than in a projective test situation.

Precisely who first thought of studying the production of stories in response to pictures is unknown, though interest in imagination and fantasy was widespread in the nineteenth century. The first publication on the Thematic Apperception Test by Morgan and Murray (1935) appeared in the mid-1930's. The test, they said, was based on the well-known fact that an individual confronted with an ambiguous social situation and required to interpret it was likely to reveal his own personality in this process. While interpreting the objective situation the individual was apt to be less defensive, less aware of the scrutiny of the examiner, and consequently more likely to reveal much of his own inner life. At first, subjects were instructed to interpret the action in each picture and to make a plausible guess as to the preceding events and the final outcome. Only through experience was it learned that much more was revealed if the subject was asked to create a dramatic story (Tomkins, 1947).

Three years later, the preliminary Thematic Apperception Test results were integrated with the general theory of personality developed by Murray and the workers at the Harvard Psychological Clinic.
Since 1938 the scope of inquiry has expanded, the pace of research quickened. The TAT has been employed in the study of a wide variety of psychological issues. The TAT has proved a useful instrument in the exploration of such diverse areas as child development (Sanford, 1941), culture and personality (Henry, 1947) and social attitudes and sentiments (Getzels and Jackson, 1962).

Bellak (1950) characterizes the projective point of view, as exemplified in the TAT, by several propositions. He sees the following significant trends in projective psychology:

1. Personality is increasingly viewed as a process rather than as a collection or aggregation of relatively static traits which are utilized by the individual in responding to stimuli.

   The essence of any process, of course, is the fact that it runs a dynamic course in time. For projective psychology the result of viewing personality as process is that the picture which emerges from the application of a group of projective tests in the study of an individual is always qualified by the injunction that the projective behavior made available for analysis can, at best, represent only a cross-section of the total personality process. It becomes only a part of the temporally extended whole which is the personality.

2. The personality studied by means of projective procedures is regarded as a process constantly influenced by the individual's interactions with his physical and social environments, on the one hand, and by the state and intensity of his needs, on the other.

   In this view, personality is the process the individual uses to organize his experiences in terms of a changing world of physical and social reality and to order such reality to his own needs and values.

3. There is an increasing tendency within projective psychology to rely upon field theory as an adequate frame of reference to which to order projective behavioral data.

   Behavior is always studied as a function of person-situation relationships, and the dynamic terms used to describe such relationships are jointly derived from both Gestalt psychology and psychoanalysis. This trend in conceptualization is congruent with the proposition that culture and personality are continuous and must be treated as interdependent variables, and it insists that all projective behavioral data must be
ordered to a currently existing frame of reference the nature of which must also be explored before warranted inferences about the individual may be drawn.

The several projective tests study not so much the culture part of the complex, culture-personality, as they do the highly individual ways in which the person reacts in the psychological field and adheres to or departs from the recurring patterns and practices of the cultural field in which his behavior occurs.

5. There is an increasing interest in the formulation of a picture of the "personality as a whole."

The picture of the "personality as a whole" that can be formulated through the utilization of projective data applies obviously only to a cross-sectional statement of the unity and integration of the personality part-processes at a given time in the life history of the individual studied.

It is clear to all but the overenthusiastic that projective techniques do not aim at a complete formulation of the whole personality, since this is actually well beyond the capacities of clinicians today, but rather that they seek to provide a series of significant descriptive statements about the personality which may prove useful with respect to a particular and often quite restricted purpose.

There seems to be two schools of thought regarding the relative value of the projective techniques in the study of personality. According to Murstein, the objective stimulus prepared by the examiner (that is, the item on a paper and pencil test or a TAT card) is not the stimulus to which the subject responds. "In the formulations which stress response-response or need-response relationships, the stimulus is often merely a 'trigger,' sometimes only an 'excuse,' for evoking prepared reactions that have already been set in motion by the inner stimulation of an impulse" (p. 215). In short, while the traditional psychologist focuses on a stimulus-response relationship, the clinician realizes that he is dealing with a response-response relationship. In this latter type, the response nominally elicited by the projective technique may more properly be said to have been elicited by the response of the individual to earlier stimuli which
aroused certain need-states. The result of this outlook is an indifference to the stimulus properties of projective techniques as topics relatively unworthy of intensive study.

Murray (1951), and other exponents of the value of projective techniques say that:

Whatever peculiar virtue the TAT may have, if any, it will be found to reside, not as some have assumed, in its power to mirror overt behavior or to communicate what the patient knows and is willing to tell, but rather in its capacity to reveal things that the patient is unwilling to tell because he is unconscious of them.

Jersild, and other developmental psychologists tend to agree with Murray and Murstein:

The way in which a child describes, interprets, or tells a story about pictures that he sees may provide a good deal of information about him as a person. In the use of this procedure, it is assumed that what a child sees in a picture or reads into it might reveal something about his own attitudes, desires, his hopes, and his fears. (Jersild, 1954, p. 498).

Disagreeing sharply is the school of thought voiced by Gordon Allport. This school of thought sees little, or no value, in projective techniques over and above normal interview methods. Allport sums up his position by saying:

Normal subjects . . . tell you by the direct method precisely what they tell you by the projective method. They are all of a piece. You may therefore take their motivational statements at their face value, for even if you probe you will not find anything substantially different. (Allport, 1953, p. 110).

The two schools of thought are of equal stature in the academic community today. Whether praised by its exponents or ignored as of little value by its opponents, the projective techniques are an important source of information and testing of individuals.
Review of the Contributions of William C. Schutz

It has long been a popular cliche that "People need people."
But if the knowledge of mankind is to be furthered, we must understand
the essential truth that forms the foundation of this hackneyed theme.
"How do people need people?"

The literature of psychology is full of lists of "interpersonal
variables." One of the more notable contributions to the research of
interpersonal needs is the work by William C. Schutz. In 1958,
Schutz published his study entitled, FIRO: A Three-Dimensional Theory
of Interpersonal Behavior. FIRO theory states that the majority of an
individual's interpersonal behavior is determined by his needs in three
interpersonal realms called inclusion, control, and affection.

INCLUSION BEHAVIOR refers to the association existing between
persons, being excluded or included, belonging, togetherness. In
behavioral terms, this need is defined as "seeking to establish and
maintain a satisfactory relation with people with respect to interaction
and association." (Schutz, 1958, p. 18).

"Satisfactory relation" includes (1) a psychologically comfort­
able relation with people somewhere on a dimension ranging from origi­
nating or initiating interaction with all people to not initiating
interaction with anyone; (2) a psychologically comfortable relation
with people with respect to eliciting behavior from them somewhere on
a dimension ranging from always initiating interaction with the self
to never initiating interaction with the self.
On the level of feelings the need for inclusion is defined as the need to establish and maintain a feeling of mutual interest with other people. This feeling includes (1) being able to take an interest in other people interested in the self to a satisfactory degree.

With regard to the self-concept, the need for inclusion is the need to feel that the self is significant and worthwhile.

Positive inclusion behavior (that behavior denoting an association between people) can be understood in such concepts as "associate," "interact," "mingle," "communicate," "belong," "member," "join," "companion," "friend," "accompany." Negative inclusion behavior (that behavior manifesting a lack of inclusion) would be related to such concepts as "loner," "outsider," "detached," "isolate," "withdrawn," "unrecognized."

The need to be included often manifests itself in actions designed to attract attention and draw another person's interest to oneself. The child who talks out loud in the classroom and deliberately disturbs the rest of the class is often attempting to attract attention to himself and arouse interest in him as a person. Even if he is given negative attention or punishment, he has partially satisfied his need for inclusion.

In adult groups, the people making themselves most prominent are often those who talk the most or tell jokes and humorous stories. Frequently they are not interested in power or control of the group, but only in prominence in the group. The extreme extrovert, the flashy dresser, the "joker," and the loud talker are all examples of inclusion behavior types.
One of the most crucial areas of the dimension inclusion is the need to be a distinct, unique individual. An essential aspect of inclusion is having a specific and individual identity. This identity allows other people to know who you are and to distinguish you from others. In inclusion, each person becomes identifiable from other people, known as a specific individual; having a particular identity. Without this distinctiveness, inclusion is impossible because he cannot truly be attended to or have interest paid to him. (Schutz, 1958, p. 22). The logical extreme of this identification is that the person be understood. "To be understood implies that someone is interested enough in him to find out his particular characteristics." (Schutz, 1958, p. 22).

At the outset of interpersonal relations a common issue is that of commitment, the decision to become involved in a given relation or activity. Usually, in the initial testing of the relation, individuals try to identify themselves to one another to find out which facet of themselves others will be interested in. Frequently a member is silent for a while because he is not sure that people are interested in him. These behaviors, too, are primarily in the inclusion area.

Inclusion has to do with interacting with people, with attention, acknowledgment, being known, prominence, recognition, prestige, status, and fame; with identity, individuality, understanding, interest, commitment, and participation. It is unlike affection in that it does not involve strong emotional attachments to individual persons. It is unlike control in that the preoccupation is with prominence, not dominance. (Schutz, 1967, p. 132).
CONTROL BEHAVIOR refers to the decision-making process among people, and the areas of power, influence, and authority. In behavioral terms, control is defined as "the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relation with people with respect to control and power." (Schutz, 1958, p. 18). "Satisfactory relation: includes (1) a psychologically comfortable relation with people somewhere on a dimension ranging from controlling all the behavior of other people to not controlling any behavior of others and (2) a psychologically comfortable relation with people with respect to eliciting behavior from them somewhere on a dimension ranging from always being controlled by them to never being controlled by them. The need for control varies along a continuum from the desire for total power, authority, and control over others (and therefore over one's own future also), to the need to be totally controlled and have all responsibility removed from oneself.

The acquisition of money or political power is a direct method of obtaining control over other people. A more subtle form is exemplified by the use of "influence." This person controls others through the power he has to influence their behavior. Such concepts as "power," "authority," "dominance," "influence," "rule," "superior" connote positive control behavior.

Control, in a negative sense, is also directed toward people who try to control others. Expressions of independence and rebellion mark a lack of willingness to be controlled, while compliance, submission, and taking orders indicate various degrees of willingness to
be controlled by others. These situations manifest a lack of, or negative, control on the part of others. The same person may act differently depending upon whether he is controlling others or being controlled. "Two persons who control others may differ in the degree to which they allow others to control them. The domineering sergeant, for example, may accept orders from his lieutenant with pleasure and gratefulness, while the neighborhood bully may also rebel against his parents." (Schutz, 1967, p. 133).

The need for control manifests itself as the desire for power, authority, and control over others and therefore over one's future. At the other end is the need to be controlled, to have responsibility taken away. Manifestations of the power drive are very clear. A more subtle form is exemplified by the current magazine advertising campaign featuring the "influential." This is a person who controls others through the power he has to influence their behavior.

The acquisition of money or political power is a direct method of obtaining control over other persons. This type of control often involves coercion rather than more subtle methods of influence like persuasion and example. In group behavior, the struggles to achieve high office or to make suggestions that are adopted are manifestations of control behavior. In an argument in a group we may distinguish the inclusion seeker from the control seeker in this way: the one seeking inclusion or prominence wants very much to be one of the participants in the argument, while the control seeker wants to be the winner or, if not the winner, on the same side as the winner. The
prominence seeker would prefer to be the losing participant; the dominance seeker would prefer to be a winning nonparticipant. Both these roles are separate from the affectional desires of the members.

In many gatherings, control behavior is exhibited through the group task. Intellectual superiority, for one thing, often leads to control over others so that strong motivation to achieve is often largely control behavior. Such superiority also demonstrates the real capacity of the individual to be relied on for responsible jobs, a central aspect of control. Further, to do one's job properly, or to rebel against the established authority structure by not doing it, is a splendid outlet for control feelings. Doing a poor job is a way of rebelling against the structure and showing that no one will control you, whereas acquiescence earns rewards from those in charge which satisfies the need to be respected for one's accomplishments.

Thus the favor of control is transmitted by behavior involving influence, leadership, power, coercion, authority, accomplishment, intellectual superiority, high achievement, and independence, as well as dependency (for decision making), rebellion, resistance, and submission. It differs from inclusion behavior in that it does not require prominence. The concept of the "power behind the throne" is an excellent example of a role that would fill a high control need and a low need for inclusion. The "joker" exemplifies the opposite. Control behavior differs from affection behavior in that it has to do with power relations rather than emotional closeness. The frequent difficulties between those who want to "get down to business" and
those who want to get to "know one another" illustrate a situation in which control behavior is more important for some and affection behavior for others.

AFFECTION BEHAVIOR refers to close personal emotional feelings between two people. "Affection is a dyadic relation; it can occur only between pairs of people at any one time, whereas both inclusion and control relations may occur either in dyads or between one person and a group of persons." (Schutz, 1958, p. 23).

The interpersonal need for affection is defined behaviorally as the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relation with others with respect to love and affection. Affection always refers to a two-person (dyadic) relation. "Satisfactory relation" includes (1) a psychologically comfortable relation with others somewhere on a dimension ranging from initiating close, personal relations with everyone to originating close, personal relations with no one; (2) a psychologically comfortable relation with people with respect to eliciting behavior from them on a dimension ranging from always originating close, personal relations toward the self, to never originating close, personal relations toward the self.

At the feeling level the need for affection is defined as the need to establish and maintain a feeling of mutual affection with others. This feeling includes (1) being able to love other people to a satisfactory degree and (2) having others love the self to a satisfactory degree.
The need for affection, defined at the level of the self-concept, is the need to feel that the self is lovable.

This type of formulation stresses the interpersonal nature of these needs. They require that the organism establish a kind of equilibrium, in three different areas, between the self and other people. In order to be anxiety-free, a person must find a comfortable behavioral relation with others with regard to the exchange of interaction, power and love. The need is not wholly satisfied by acting toward others in a particular fashion. A satisfactory balance must be established and maintained.

Some terms that connote a positive affection relation are "love," "like," "emotionally close," "personal," "friendship," "sweetheart." Terms that connote a lack of, or negative affection would necessarily include "hate," "dislike," "emotionally distant," "cool," "enemy."

The need for affection leads to behavior related to becoming emotionally close. An affection relation must be dyadic because it involves strong differentiation between people. Affectional relations can be toward parental figures, peers, or children figures. They are exemplified in friendship relations, dating, and marriage.

To become emotionally close to someone involves, in addition to an emotional attachment, an element of confiding innermost anxieties, wishes, and feelings. A strong positive affectional tie usually is accompanied by a unique relation regarding the degree of sharing of these feelings.
In groups, affection behavior is characterized by overtures of friendship and differentiation between members. One common method for avoiding a close tie with any one member is to be equally friendly to all members. Thus "popularity" may not involve affection at all; it may often be inclusion behavior, whereas "going steady" is usually primarily affection.

A difference between affection behavior, inclusion behavior, and control behavior is illustrated by the different feelings a man has in being turned down by a fraternity, failed in a course by a professor, and rejected by his girl. The fraternity excludes him and tells him, in effect, that they as a group don't have sufficient interest in him. The professor fails him and says, in effect, that he finds him incompetent in his field. His girl rejects him, and tells him, in effect, that she doesn't find him lovable.

"Thus the flavor of affection is embodied in situations of love, emotional closeness, personal confidences, intimacy. Negative affection is characterized by hate, hostility, and emotional rejection." (Schutz, 1958, p. 24).

In order to sharpen the contrast between these three types of interpersonal behavior, distinctions can be noted. "With respect to an interpersonal relation, inclusion is concerned primarily with the formation of the relation, whereas control and affection are concerned with relations already formed. Basically, inclusion is always concerned with whether or not a relation exists. With existant relations, control is the area concerned with who gives orders and makes decisions.
for whom, whereas affection is concerned with how emotionally close or distant the relation becomes. Thus, generally speaking, inclusion is concerned with the problem of in or out, control is concerned with top or bottom, and affection with close or far." (Schutz, 1958, p. 24).

A further differentiation occurs with regard to the number of people involved in the relation. Affection is always a one-to-one relation, inclusion is usually a one-to-many relation, and control may be either a one-one or a one-many relation. An affectional tie is necessarily between two persons, and involves varying degrees of intimacy, warmth, and emotional involvement which cannot be felt toward a unit greater than one person. Inclusion, on the other hand, typically concerns the behavior and feelings of one person toward a group of people. Problems of belonging and membership, so central to the inclusion area, usually refer to a relatively indifferentiated group with which an individual seeks association. His feelings of wanting to belong to the group are qualitatively different from his personal feelings of warmth toward an individual person. Control may refer to a power struggle between two individuals for control over each other, or it may refer to the struggle for domination over a group, as in political power. There is no particular number of interactional participants implied in the control area.

Control differs from the other two areas with respect to the differentiation between the persons involved in the control situation. For inclusion and affection there is a tendency for participants to act similarly in both the behavior they express and the behavior they
want from others; for example, a close, personal individual usually likes others to be close and personal also. This similarity is not so marked in the control area. The person who likes to control may or may not want others to control him. This difference in differentiation among need areas is, however, only a matter of degree. There are many who like to include but do not want to be included, or who are not personal but want others to be that way toward them. But these types are not as frequent as the corresponding types in the control area.

The distinctions between the interpersonal relations of inclusion, control, and affection may be seen in Appendix C.

The three interpersonal needs of inclusion, control, and affection, as outlined by Schutz can each be considered at both the behavior or feeling levels, and in terms of whether the behavior or feeling is expressed or wanted. "Expressed" refers to behavior or feelings an individual initiates toward others, while "wanted" refers to behavior or feelings he wants others to express toward him. These dimensions give rise to twelve basic variables, as presented in Appendix C.

In his work, Schutz has established several postulates to guide his research. One of the most crucial of these postulates for the present study is the Postulate of Relational Continuity. This postulate states:

Postulate of Relational Continuity*

An individual's expressed interpersonal behavior will be similar to the behavior he experienced in his earliest

*(Schutz, 1958).
interpersonal relations, usually with his parents, in the following way:

**Principle of Constancy:** When he perceives his adult position in an interpersonal relationship to be similar to his own position in his parent-child relation, his adult behavior positively covaries with his childhood behavior toward his parents (or significant others).

**Principle of Identification:** When he perceives his adult position in an interpersonal situation to be similar to his parent's position in his parent-child relation, his adult behavior positively covaries with the behavior of his parents (or significant others) toward him when he was a child.

The Postulate of Relational Continuity is based on the assumption that one area where the effect of childhood experience is observable in adult behavior is that of interpersonal behavior. In essence, this assumption is that, like most other human characteristics, what people perceive others to be and the way in which they interact is based on their past experience. People learn to interact just as they learn any other skill.

One must learn how people initiate activity toward the self, how they respond to various activities of the self, how the self feels in response to various behaviors of others, how and why others reward and punish, love, ignore, and so forth. All these activities are complex and vitally important events, and must be learned. After the earliest learning the resultant response of the individual becomes reinforced or nonremembered to various degrees by continued interaction with others. (Schutz, 1958, p. 84).

The Postulate of Relational Continuity means that the interpersonal relation one experienced early in life continues to be the model for interpersonal behavior throughout adult life. The model includes the behavior expressed as a child and the behavior observed in the parent. There are several reasons why this situation serves as a model.
One reason is psychological economy. In the same way that it is easier to use the language one learns in growing up than to change to an unfamiliar and untried language, it is easier to continue to use the same models of interpersonal behavior. Experiencing a new situation requires a learning of unfamiliar situational characteristics and an unlearning of the familiar, giving rise to all the uncertainty attached to unfamiliarity. The individual does not know how new interpersonal behavior will satisfy needs. Trying unfamiliar interpersonal orientations is in many ways a more severe threat than holding on to known, though unsatisfactory, orientations. For example, if an individual comes from a home in which there is low affection interchange, it is very uncomfortable for him to find himself in a situation where there is the opposite expectation--people who take the initiative in expressing affection effusively and expect the same in return. Theoretically, he would be disturbed by the large amount of interchange of affection and would feel incapable of accepting it or reciprocating.

In addition, to adopt different interpersonal behaviors usually involves, to some degree, rejection of those persons, usually the parents, who behave in the rejected ways. Thus, if one desires to change from a conformist, law-abiding, slightly authoritarian mode of relating (control area) to a less conforming, liberalized mode, it is necessary to reject in some form the conformist parent in whom the original behavior was observed. This rejection, because it is usually extremely difficult, acts as a strong deterrent to non-continuity of interpersonal behavior.
If the Postulate of Relational Continuity holds true, the young child should express similar interpersonal behavior as that of an adult since all adult interpersonal behavior is similar to the behavior experienced in a child's earliest interpersonal relations. If the Principle of Constancy holds true, the young child should demonstrate interpersonal behavior which positively covaries with the behavior he would express as an adult in a similar interpersonal situation. The Principle of Identification states that the demonstrated interpersonal behavior of the young child should positively covary with the behavior of his parents (or significant others) toward him.

Chapter Summary

It seems that the cognitive development of the very young child is flexible and active from the time of birth on into adolescence and adulthood. Many of the characteristics of human adulthood connected with cognition occur in early childhood. The child's intelligence is not limited solely by heredity, but is also subject to environmental factors.

The study of the cognitive development of the young child requires the parallel study of the emotional development of the child. The child, from the earliest age, gradually acquires ideas and attitudes about himself and the world around him to help him form his emotional development. "Significant others" in the form of parents and adults, as well as peers, all contribute to the emotional development of the child. In order to enter into situations of
sociability, the young child must appreciate other persons so as to be responsive to them and genuinely interact with them.

Some child psychologists, as well as those researchers who have developed patterns of emotional growth, consider the interpersonal needs of inclusion, control, and affection as necessary in the emotional development of the child. Inclusion is the interpersonal need having to do with interaction and association with other people. Control is the interpersonal need relating to power, influence, and authority. Affection is the interpersonal need having to do with close personal feelings between two people.

The three interpersonal needs of inclusion, control, and affection can be both behavior or feeling in activity and all three may be "expressed" (behavior or feelings an individual initiates toward others) or "wanted" (behavior or feelings an individual wants others to express toward him).

If the Postulate of Relational Continuity can be adopted as operating not only from childhood behavior to adult behavior, but also in reverse, then the basic interpersonal adult needs of inclusion, control, and affection should be evidenced in early childhood.

Psychologists have developed a considerable body of theory which suggests both cognitive and emotional developmental tasks during early childhood. Studies are surely needed which investigate whether the theory holds for the very young age level and, if so, how the interpersonal needs of young children function within certain situations.
Much of the research dealing with the use of projective techniques seems to point toward the general acceptance and usefulness of this method of investigation to determine the interpersonal needs of the young child.

The next chapter, Chapter III, describes the procedures used in this study. The chapter is designed to show both the chronological and logical steps used in conducting the investigation.
CHAPTER III

PROCEDURE

Introduction

The present investigation was designed to create and implement a projective technique that would be useful in analyzing the interpersonal needs of kindergarten children in three different school settings. The study concentrated on the design of the projective technique and its administration to kindergarten children. The subjects were kindergarten children from three different community settings--inner-urban community setting, outer-urban community setting, and rural-farm community setting.

A description of the procedures and considerations made for creating and implementing a projective technique related to the interpersonal needs of kindergarten children, and the classification of children in the sample selected is given in the chapter. The chapter is organized under the following main sections:

1. Pilot Studies
2. The Development of a Projective Technique
3. Selection and Description of Participating Schools
4. Analysis of Data
5. Summary

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Pilot Studies

In order to properly carry out the study, it was necessary for the investigator to consider several problems relating to the following: (1) the feasibility of the use of a picture technique for obtaining the desired data, (2) the selection of the pictures to be used in the technique, (3) the formulation of interview questions, (4) the standardization of an interview procedure, (5) the technical problems of recording the interview and of collecting the data for categorizing the responses, and (6) the acquisition of skill in the interview process and in the recording of the data. To facilitate the solution of these problems, two pilot studies were undertaken. The study was preceded by the first pilot study by eight months and by the second pilot study by one month.

The first pilot study was performed in a private pre-school situation in the suburbs of Columbus, Ohio. The original intent of the projective technique was to analyze the interpersonal needs of the four-year-old child prior to his enrollment in public school kindergarten. The original pilot study was conducted with twelve students of this four-year-old class, randomly selected by the teacher.

The students were shown a set of three pictures. This set was drawn to the specifications of the investigator by a commercial artist and consisted of three separate 8½ x 11 inch black and white drawings of two young children at play. The pictures each consisted of one dyad of children with the sex of the child randomly selected
by the artist. Each dyad of children depicted one of three interpersonal needs: affection, control, and inclusion.

The initial interview was performed in private and out of the classroom. It was informally structured and was recorded by the use of a tape recorder. Each child was introduced to the investigator and asked by the investigator if he knew what a tape recorder was and how it worked. The investigator attempted to gain rapport with the subject by demonstrating the tape recorder and inviting the child to talk into the recorder and then play back the words of the subject. Once the child was comfortable with the presence of the tape recorder, the investigator asked the child to talk about what he saw in each of the three pictures as they were shown to him individually.

This interview was most informal and the investigator responded with appropriate questions and replies according to the range of discussion initiated by the subject. The investigator tried to narrow his responses to probing questions to determine additional information from the subject and to reinforce comments which would encourage the subject in his verbalization.

This first pilot study allowed the investigator to reach the following conclusions about the feasibility of designing a projective technique to analyze interpersonal needs of young children:

1. Four-year-old children did not seem to possess sufficient skills in verbalization and concept formation to discuss the pictures and respond adequately to the projective technique being used.
2. The use of a tape recorder to record the interview was not helpful. The young child seemed to be much more interested in the machinery than in responding to the investigator's questions. The presence of the recorder provided the subject with a greater stimulus than did the three pictures.

3. The informality of the interview seemed to confuse, rather than to relax the subject.

4. The children seemed frightened and unwilling to respond to the investigator because they did not know him and because they were in new and different surroundings outside of their normal classroom.

5. The size of the pictures seemed to be too large and cumbersome for the young child to handle and with which to work.

6. The use of pictures with children of the opposite sex as the subject seemed to detract from the child's willingness to affiliate himself with that child or to project himself into the picture.

7. The subject matter of the pictures was clear to the subjects and did enable them to identify and respond to the action of the dyad shown in each picture.

In the time between the first pilot study and the second pilot study, the following decisions concerning the investigation were made:

1. The subjects to be interviewed would be five- and six-year-old kindergarten children enrolled in public schools.
2. The investigator would attempt to record each interview and each subject's responses from memory directly following the completion of each interview. This would eliminate the need for the use of a tape recorder during the interview.

3. The interview format was formalized and structured around definite procedures and questions to be asked of the subject.

4. The investigator assumed that the kindergarten child would respond more freely if he felt at ease with the interviewer. The means chosen to establish this rapport between investigator and the subjects was to provide for interaction between the investigator and the child in some nonthreatening situation before the interview. Therefore, it was determined that the investigator would spend a minimum of six clock-hours in each classroom before attempting to collect data from the children. The time was spent in direct contact with the students. The "work-play" period seemed to lend itself most readily to the building of harmonious relations between the children and investigator.

It was also decided that the individual interviews would take place in the same classroom where the rest of the children were involved in other activities.

5. The size of the pictures to be used was reduced to a smaller size so that young children could easily handle and move the pictures.

6. The decision to have duplicate sets of pictures, one with all dyads of one sex and one with all dyads of the other sex
was made. The child would be shown a set of pictures depicting only members of his own sex in the interview.

7. The subject matter was refined and developed through the use of a panel of experts from The Ohio State University. The decision to add color to the set of pictures was made in an attempt to attract and maintain the child's attention more completely during the entire interview.

The second pilot study was administered to twelve children in a suburban kindergarten classroom of Columbus, Ohio, one month prior to the actual study.

A series of six pictures, as validated and refined by the panel of experts from The Ohio State University was used in this pilot study. The interview was structured according to the decisions outlined above and according to the protocol outlined in Appendix B.

The major consideration under investigation in this pilot study was the refinement of the interview technique and the investigation of whether or not the random assignment of race by the artist for the children depicted in the dyads of the colored pictures would affect the response of the subjects.

From the experience the investigator gained during the second pilot study, the following rules emerged which were followed throughout each of the interviews in the study:

1. Conceal the pictures from the view of the respondent until they are to be used by the investigator.
2. Increase respondent verbalization by using a funneling technique when questioning to put a focus on what the child’s intent really is.

3. Pause for sufficient time between questions to allow the respondent time to think about his responses and to express them.

4. Make some comment of encouragement during the course of the interview such as "You have really helped me to understand these pictures."

5. Do not indicate that response time is a factor and let the respondent set the pace for the individual interview.

6. Add a question referring to the similarities and differences of the children pictured in the set of pictures to the interview protocol to determine how the respondents view the racial make-up of the children in the pictures.

No difficulty was encountered by the investigator in the use of probing questions for kindergarten children. By this stage of his life, the child has sufficiently developed his language skills to be able to communicate his reasons for selecting pictures clearly. However, the investigator found that there is a danger of extending the sequence of probing questions to a point where the respondent begins to believe the interviewer either has not been paying careful attention to his responses or that the questions asked call for such obvious responses as to demean him. This was avoided so as not to impair the rapport established between the respondent and the investigator.
The Development of a Projective Technique

The decision to use a projective technique as a means to analyze the interpersonal needs of kindergarten children was based on several factors. Among those factors were the following: (1) objective data was desired, (2) there was need for an interview format which was consistent and repetitive, (3) less skill and experience would be required of the interviewer than in interviewing and interpreting results from a nonstructured and solely verbal interview, (4) there was a desire to provide subjects with stimuli other than those which were verbal in nature, and (5) the colored pictures served as a compromise between using stimuli which were solely verbal and the use of real objects and/or live materials as stimuli during the interview.

In view of the impact of the stimulus on projective responses, it is surprising to note that few psychologists have suggested rules to utilize in the construction of projective techniques.

In his important book on TAT, Henry (1956) suggests several criteria for selecting or constructing thematic pictures. Among these are:

1. The picture must have a potent latent stimulus meaning.
2. Two persons of the same age and sex as the person to be interviewed should be used to depict basic interpersonal relations.
3. The pictures should be sufficiently intense in quality to intrigue the subject and motivate him.
4. The pictures should be appropriate in the situation portrayed to the culture of the group being studied.
Another suggestion by Murray (1943) includes the important consideration that:

5. The pictures should contain at least one example where the central figure is of the same sex and of relatively the same age as the subject.

The interview as a technique for gathering psychological data has been effectively used for a long time. Many of the experts on interviewing note that data secured through the interview technique involve four important limitations relating to the respondent: his experience, his judgment, his accessibility and his willingness to divulge the information, and his ability to express himself clearly. The pilot studies determined that although these limitations exist in interviewing as a technique with kindergarten children, the children were usually willing to divulge the information, they were easily accessible and were able to express themselves clearly.

Because the entire purpose of this study was to analyze the interpersonal needs of kindergarten children in different school settings, the experience of the child and his judgment of this experience was a crucial need for whatever methodology might prove to be appropriate.

Many of the principles for interviewing procedures which guided the investigator came from excellent studies by Cannell and Kahn (1953 and 1968), Maccoby and Maccoby (1954), and Yarrow (1960). The latter is to be especially noted. In addition, the "clinical" method described by Piaget (1969) helped the investigator to get a
feel for working with younger children. Such methodological considerations as standardizing and structuring the interview, formulating questions, sequencing the questions, probing techniques, gaining rapport with the respondent, and recording interview responses had to be considered by the investigator. The studies mentioned above give many generalized suggestions. For the purposes of this report, it may be more appropriate to consider some of the particular problems the investigator encountered and tried to solve relating directly to the study.

The picture-interview projective technique as used by the investigator was for the most part a structured one during which a brief introduction to the task was presented to the respondent, who then performed the task. The use of pictures gave the interview an inherent structure and sequence. Appendix B contains the protocol which describes the interview. Because of the nature of the task, however, a certain amount of flexibility and unstructured protocol was necessary. The interviewer had to display interest in the child's responses, not only to build rapport, but to try to follow the child's lead for additional information. Appendix B contains some of the most frequently used questions in the probing technique. The questions are "neutral" in that they do not serve to direct the child's response in a direction other than his original intent. Because of the openness of the questions, allowing the respondent to answer as he saw fit, in his own terms, it was possible for the investigator to obtain a sufficient understanding of the respondent's intent to be able subsequently
to code the responses accurately. Although the interview was struc-
tured and consistent with each respondent, it was flexible enough to
allow the respondent to project whatever he felt into the stimulus
pictures provided.

The Pictures

The original series of pictures consisted of twelve sets of
dyads, a total of four representations of each of the three inter-
personal needs: affection, control, and inclusion. The pictures
were drawn according to the specifications and fitting the themes of
activity as chosen by the investigator. Guidelines for the definition
of each interpersonal need were derived from the Schutz theory of
interpersonal behavior. Each need was depicted according to the
investigator's understanding of a young child's perceptions and exper-
ience in daily life.

After the series was prepared by an artist, the series of twelve
pictures were shown to a panel of three professors from the College of
Education, The Ohio State University, who were familiar with the inter-
personal need theory of William C. Schutz. Each panel member was
interviewed separately by the investigator. Each panel member was
provided with a set of definitions of affection, control, and inclusion
behavior, as well as a chart containing verbalizations of how each
behavior might be expressed. (See Appendix C for these materials).

The panel members were asked to rank each of the twelve pictures
in the series according to the interpersonal need for affection and his
ranking order was recorded by the investigator. Next, the panel member
was asked to rank all twelve pictures in the series according to his understanding of the need for inclusion and his responses were recorded. Last, the panel member was asked to rank each of the series of twelve pictures according to his understanding of the interpersonal need for control and the ranking was recorded by the investigator.

Since there was such a small number of members on the panel, the content validity for the pictures to be used in the study was established by coordinating the pictures created by the investigator to represent each of the interpersonal needs with the two choices ranked highest by each of the panel members under the category of each interpersonal need. This coordination was accomplished by sight observations of the ranking sheets of each panel member (See Appendix C for copies of each panel member's rankings). No picture was used in the final study unless it had fallen within the top four choices of at least two of the three panel members as representative of the interpersonal need being discussed.

The verbal suggestions of each of the panel members were carefully noted by the investigator and adaptations and refinements of the final series of six pictures (two representations of each of the three interpersonal needs) were made according to these suggestions.

The final form of the projective instrument consisted of six pictures, two color representations of each of the interpersonal needs of affection, control, and inclusion. Each of the colored pictures was bordered in white and had a total white background. These pictures were 4 by 6 inches in size, in a horizontal format, and cemented to
individual 4 x 6 inch matt boards so that they could be handled easily and without damage. For identification purposes necessary for the recording of data, the pictures were numbered on the backs. Each dyad represented one child expressing the need toward another child and one child receiving the need. Therefore, each child was also coded on the back according to number. Each of the six pictures was different in each series. The final form of the pictures had two series: one with all males in the pictures and one depicting all females in the series. Reproductions of the two series of six pictures may be found in Appendix A.

**Selection and Description of Participating Schools**

Three elementary schools, each from a different community setting, were selected to participate in this study. Their selection was based on criteria which, it was assumed, would provide subjects from varying socio-cultural backgrounds. The criteria used to determine the community settings of the school districts from which the participating schools were selected are listed below.*

**Inner-Urban Community Setting.**—A school district which possesses the following characteristics:

1. The school district is located within the boundary limits of a major city of at least 500,000 inhabitants.

2. No boundary of the school district intersects, serves as, or coincides with the boundary limits of the city.

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*The criteria for selection of school settings was adapted by the investigator from a similar criteria used by Donald E. Riechard in his Ph.D. thesis of 1970, The Ohio State University.*
3. The school district serves a population in which a minimum of 10 per cent of the families with children between five and seventeen years of age receive support under the Aid to Families of Dependent Children (AFDC) program.

**Outer-Urban Community Setting**.--A school district which possesses the following characteristics:

1. A minimum of one school district boundary intersects, serves as, or coincides with the boundary limits of a major city of at least 500,000 inhabitants.

2. The school district serves a population in which a maximum of 1 per cent of the families with children between five and seventeen years of age receive support under the AFDC program.

**Rural-Farm Community Setting**.--A school district which possesses the following characteristics:

1. The school district is located outside of the boundary limits of a major city of at least 500,000 inhabitants.

2. No school district boundary intersects, serves as, or coincides with the boundary limits of a major city of at least 500,000 inhabitants.

3. The school district is composed, in part, of real estate on which farming is practiced as a principal occupation.

4. Any town, village, or municipality within the district contains less than 2,500 inhabitants.

One school of the Columbus, Ohio, Public School System satisfied the criteria established for the inner-urban community setting.
and was selected to participate in the study. One school in the Worthington, Ohio, Public School System satisfied the criteria established for the outer-urban community setting and was selected to participate in the study. A consolidated school district located around New Albany, Ohio, met the criteria established for the rural-farm community setting and represented that setting in the investigation.

**Collection of Socio-Cultural Data**

The permanent record sheet of each of the children interviewed was read by the investigator and the socio-cultural information was recorded by the investigator. Such socio-cultural information as father's occupation; mother's occupation; rental or ownership of home; size of immediate family (number of siblings in family); and welfare recipient information was noted.

**Sample Selection**

Students were assigned to kindergarten classes beginning autumn, 1970, by the local personnel in each participating school. A decision to use all members of the class present on the day of interviewing was made by the investigator. The one class selected from each school to serve as the participating class was chosen by the local school personnel. A total of fifty-seven subjects, nineteen from the outer-urban community setting, twenty-one from the inner-urban community setting, and seventeen from the rural-farm community setting, comprised the sample used in this investigation.
Subject-Investigator Interactions

Two phases of the study involved subject-investigator interaction (phase one: rapport building visits; phase two: individual interviewing). Each phase was carried out according to a schedule which cycled visits among the three schools. Such cycling was an attempt at keeping the effects of interaction between the study and the children's rapidly unfolding school experiences as constant as possible among the three groups.

Phase one was initiated during the second week of February, 1971. Six weeks were required to complete the two phases of the study involving interaction with the children.

As has been stated before, six clock-hours in each classroom were spent in rapport building prior to the interview schedule.

The second phase of interaction between the investigator and the children involved the interview and the use of the projective technique to analyze the interpersonal needs of the children. It was administered as a picture-stimulus, structured-interview. Each subject was interviewed individually in a corner of the regular classroom. A ten-minute time period was reserved for each interview.

A set of three pictures, each containing a dyad of children of the same sex as the respondent and each dyad representing the expression and desiring of one of the interpersonal needs of affection, control, and inclusion was presented to each respondent. As the set of three pictures was presented to him, he was asked to respond nonverbally to the question, "Which of these children would you like to be?" The
nonverbal response was made by pointing to a specific child in one of the pictures.

The original set of three pictures was removed from the presence of the respondent and he was presented a second set of three pictures depicting the same three interpersonal needs in different circumstances. He was asked to respond nonverbally to the same question.

Third, the child was shown both sets of pictures at once and asked to nonverbally rank the pictures from his most favorite to the least favorite by handing each picture to the interviewer in order.

The subject was then asked to verbalize why he had made his particular selections. The verbalization of the respondent was expanded through the use of probing questions asked by the investigator. Nonverbal responses were scored during the interview. Immediately after each interview, the investigator recorded the verbalization of the respondent.

**Analysis of the Data**

Interviews were held during the month of March, 1971, on an individual basis with each of the respondents during school hours and on school premises. A version of a technique used by Piaget known as the "clinical" method was used during the interview, with attention paid to (1) creating and maintaining rapport with each child, (2) using neutral funneling questions for probing, and (3) maintaining a similar picture-interview structure through for each child.
The literature reviewed indicated that the chief principle of value in setting up a recording system for a projective technique was to keep it as simple as possible. This was the attempt of the investigator. The scoring sheet used for each interview may be found in Appendix B.

The number of the pictured child that was selected by the respondent in the first set of three pictures, as well as the number of the pictured child in the second series of three pictures, was recorded by the investigator. The ranked order of the combined set of six pictures was then recorded by the investigator. Length of verbal response for each respondent was noted on a continuum running from "little or none" to the use of "complete stories." The speed of response from each subject was noted on a continuum running from "slow" to "very fast." Use of descriptive words by the respondent was recorded on a continuum from "none" to "many."

The verbalization and answers to the probing questions of the investigator were recorded immediately after each interview and rated as to the appropriateness of the verbal comment to the particular interpersonal need being depicted in the picture stimulus. Appendix B includes a list of the probing questions used by the investigator during the protocol of each interview.

For analysis, the frequencies of responses were converted into per cents and analyzed according to the mode of responses. The frequency of selection of each behavior was converted into per cents, cast into 3 x 9 contingency tables and Chi Square analysis performed.
Chapter Summary

This chapter has described the procedures used in the study. The chapter was designed to show the chronological and logical steps followed in conducting the investigation. The first pilot study was conducted with four-year-old children and revealed important implications for future investigations. The second pilot study was conducted with five-year-old kindergarten children to develop an interview protocol. This pilot study yielded important conclusions for setting up the final interview protocol used in the investigation.

The development of a projective technique was carried out in consultation with three Ohio State University professors familiar with the work of William C. Schutz and with developmental theory of the young child. Eventually the twelve pictures used in the investigation were validated by these three experts.

School settings typical of an Inner-Urban, an Outer-Urban, and a Rural-Farm community were chosen in and around the city of Columbus, Ohio, and methods for analysis of the collected data were chosen.

The next chapter, Chapter IV, presents and discusses the results of the investigation.
CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

The present investigation was designed to create and to implement a projective technique that would be useful in analyzing the interpersonal needs of kindergarten children in three different school settings. The study concentrated on the design of the projective technique and its administration to kindergarten children. The subjects were kindergarten children from three different community settings—inner-urban community setting, outer-urban community setting, and rural-farm community setting.

Among the questions to which the study addressed itself were:

1. Can a series of pictures depicting interpersonal needs be developed as a useful projective technique to analyze the interpersonal needs of kindergarten children?

2. Does the series of pictures as a projective technique work equally well with children from differing socio-economic settings?

3. Assuming the usefulness of this projective technique, what are the interpersonal need preferences of kindergarten children as influenced by sex and socio-economic differences?

An analysis of the data collected during the present investigation is given in this chapter. The chapter is organized under the three main questions to which the study addressed itself.
I. Can a series of pictures depicting interpersonal needs be developed as a useful projective technique to analyze the interpersonal needs of kindergarten children?

In an attempt to validate the series of six pictures depicting dyads of children as a useful projective technique, the investigator used three kinds of criteria for determining student response. The three criteria for analyzing satisfactory student response were: length of the respondent's verbal comments; the speed with which the respondent answered the investigator; and the use of descriptive words by the respondent in his verbal answers to the pictures.

Table 1 depicts the variations of verbal response for all students. The responses ranged from the use of little or no verbal communication to the use of complete stories. The "little or no" response category records one-word or non-verbal responses. The "incomplete sentences" category records the use of phrases and subjects without predicates. The "complete sentence" category refers to the use of sentences having both subjects and predicates in the verbal response. The "complete stories" category records the verbal responses which were greater than three complete sentences in length and in which all the sentences were related to a main theme.

Table 1 illustrates that slightly over one-half of the population investigated responded to the projective technique in complete sentences or complete stories. Twenty-seven per cent of the fifty-seven children who responded to the projective technique failed to offer more than little or no verbal response.
### TABLE 1

VARIATIONS IN VERBAL RESPONSE FOR ALL STUDENTS*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Little or No Sentences</th>
<th>Incomplete Sentences</th>
<th>Complete Sentences</th>
<th>Complete Stories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The numbers in the above table are per cent figures.

Table 2 shows the speed of verbal response for all students. Students responded verbally to a question asked by the investigator in a span of time ranging from over one minute to five or fewer seconds. The "slow" category records all students who either failed to respond verbally or who took longer than one minute after the question of the investigator to offer a verbal response. The "average" category includes the span of time from twenty seconds to one minute in length. The "speedy" category records all verbal responses made within less than twenty seconds after the investigator's question and the "very fast" category includes the responses began in fewer than five seconds after the question was asked.

### TABLE 2

SPEED OF VERBAL RESPONSE FOR ALL STUDENTS*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Slow</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Speedy</th>
<th>Very Fast</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The numbers in the above table are per cent figures.
One-half of the total population investigated responded to the projective technique with a speedy or very fast verbal response. Only 9 per cent of the population responded in an average length of time. The children were either speedy or very fast, or they were slow in verbal expression. The mode of the population fell in the speedy category (39%).

Table 3 records the number of descriptive words by all students. A descriptive word is an adjective or adverb which clarifies or enhances the main theme of the student's verbal response. Examples of descriptive words would include: happy, sad, ugly, brave, loving, strong, weak, powerful. A later discussion in this chapter will use some of the actual descriptive words used by the students. The "none" category records the verbal response which is void of all descriptive words. The "few" category includes responses containing from one to three descriptive words. The "several" category records the use of three to five descriptive words and the "many" category includes all verbal responses containing more than five descriptive words.

**TABLE 3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>USE OF DESCRIPTIVE WORDS BY ALL STUDENTS*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The numbers in the above table are per cent figures.*
Table 3 illustrates that 16.2 per cent of the children responding to the projective technique used no descriptive words in their verbal responses. A few descriptive words were used by 26.8 per cent of the fifty-seven children interviewed. Over one-half (57%) of the total sample used several or many descriptive words in their verbal responses to the projective technique.

II. Does the series of pictures as a projective technique work equally well with children from differing socio-economic settings?

In order to facilitate comparisons among the data, all tables in this section provide per cent figures. These per cent figures are based on the total of subjects in each socio-economic grouping and/or on the subdivision of those groupings by sex. Thus, the highest per cent figure in any group or subgroup is the most frequently occurring category, or the mode.

Table 4 depicts the length of verbal responses according to sex and socio-economic settings. The sexes of each grouping are recorded separately and the three groupings of inner-urban, outer-urban, and rural-farm are viewed individually.

Although the mode of the male respondents in the inner-urban situation fell within the "little or none" response, the mode for the female respondents in the same situation falls within the "complete sentences" category. When the inner-urban children are viewed as a total entity, the mode (38.4%) again falls within the "complete sentences" category.
Table 4 shows that the mode for male respondents in the outer-urban situation (40%) was in the category of "complete sentences." The female respondents in this socio-economic situation were evenly distributed among the three categories of "little or none," "incomplete sentences," and "complete sentences." Again, as in the inner-urban situation, when the group is viewed as a total in this outer-urban situation, the mode (37%) falls within the category of "complete sentences." It is interesting to note that the majority of girls in this category in the inner-urban situation caused the total mode to fall in the "complete sentence" category, while it was the higher percentage of boys in the outer-urban situation that enabled the total mode to fall in this same category in the outer-urban situation.
The greatest majority of respondents in any one category fell within the "complete sentence" category of the rural-farm male respondents. It appears that either the males of the rural-farm situation made total sentence responses or offered little or no response to the projective technique. The females of the rural-farm situation were fairly evenly distributed among all four of the categories in the continuum.

**TABLE 5**

PER CENT OF VERBAL RESPONSES CATEGORIZED BY SPEED, SEX, AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC SETTING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Slow</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Speedy</th>
<th>Very Fast</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inner-urban:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>males:</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>females:</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both:</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>43.6</td>
<td>23.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Outer-urban:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>males:</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td>60</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>females:</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both:</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rural-Farm:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>males:</td>
<td>33.5</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>33.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>females:</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both:</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When analyzing speed of verbal responses (Table 5), the speed of the inner-urban male respondents was evenly distributed between the two extremes of the continuum (27% with slow responses and 27% with very fast responses). The mode for inner-urban male respondents fell within the "speedy" category. The females in the inner-urban situation showed
a strong mode in the "speedy" category. In fact, 70 per cent of the female respondents reacted to the projective technique with above average speed.

Due to the larger clustering of female respondents in the "speedy" category, the mode for the total sample of inner-urban children fell within the "speedy" category of the continuum. It is interesting to note that the total sample again paralleled the male respondents' reaction with an equal distribution between the two poles of the continuum.

In the outer-urban sample, the male respondents showed a large clustering in the "speedy" category. Seventy per cent of the male sample was above average in speed of verbal response. The female respondents were slower in responding to the projective technique. In fact, 55 per cent of the females fell within the "slow" category. While the mode for female outer-urban children was clearly in the "slow" category, the next largest cluster was in the "speedy" category (34%).

When both male and female respondents of the outer-urban situation were combined, the pattern followed the tendency of the females with the mode clustering occurring within the "speedy" category (47%) and an almost equal clustering occurring in the "slow" category (42%).

The rural-farm sample of male respondents was quite small (six children) and this may account for the polar distribution with equal clustering in the "slow" and "very fast" categories. There is no obvious mode in the male rural-farm sample. The female respondents were clearly clustered in the "slow" category (46%). This clustering
accounted for the same modal emphasis in the combined samples of male and female respondents. With both children in the rural-farm sample, the mode again fell within the "slow" category.

TABLE 6
PER CENT OF CHILDREN RESPONDING WITH DESCRIPTIVE WORDS
ACCORDING TO SEX AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC SETTING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>None</th>
<th>Few</th>
<th>Several</th>
<th>Many</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inner-urban:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>males:</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>females:</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both:</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outer-urban:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>males:</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>females:</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both:</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural-farm:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>males:</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>females:</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The male respondents in the inner-urban situation showed an almost equal distribution among the first three categories of the continuum in Table 6. No male respondent used "many" descriptive words in his verbal response to the projective technique. The female respondents in this sample showed a clustering in the middle two ranges of the continuum with equal, but small numbers at the two poles. The mode for the female sample occurred in the "few" category.

With the two sexes combined in the inner-urban situation, the largest clustering was in the "few" category (48% of the total sample of this socio-economic group).
One-half of the male respondents of the outer-urban situation used several words of description in their verbal responses. In fact, 70 per cent of the male sample used more than a few descriptive words in their verbal response. The mode of the female sample in the outer-urban situation also fell within the "several" category (56%). A slightly higher per cent of females than males in this socio-economic situation used either "several" or "many" descriptors in their verbal response.

When the two sexes in the outer-urban socio-economic situation are combined, over one-half of the sample used "several" descriptive words in their response. Two-thirds of the total sample fell in the upper two categories of the continuum.

In the rural-farm male sample, the mode for the respondents occurred in the "several" category. The total sample occurred within two middle categories of the continuum, with no students at either of the poles. The female sample of the rural-farm situation also clustered in the "several" category (63%), with over seventy per cent of the female sample occurring in the upper half of the continuum.

When the two sexes of the rural-farm situation are combined, the clustering falls within the "several" category, with almost two-thirds of the total sample represented in this category.

III. Assuming the usefulness of this projective technique, what are the interpersonal need preferences of kindergarten children as influenced by sex and socio-economic differences?
Table 7 summarizes the need preferences expressed by the three socio-economic groupings from the first set of pictures shown to them.

**TABLE 7**

SUMMARY OF NEED PREFERENCES FROM FIRST SET OF PICTURES
ACCORDING TO SEX AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC SITUATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Control Expressed</th>
<th>Control Wanted</th>
<th>Affection Expressed</th>
<th>Affection Wanted</th>
<th>Inclusion Expressed</th>
<th>Inclusion Wanted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inner-Urban</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>males</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>females</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Outer-Urban</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>males</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>females</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>26.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rural-Farm</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>males</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>34</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>females</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8 summarizes the need preferences expressed from the second set of pictures shown to each of the three socio-economic groupings.

It is suggested that the reader refer back to these summary tables as he studies the presentation and analysis of specific data from each of the groupings.
TABLE 8
SUMMARY OF NEED PREFERENCES FROM SECOND SET OF PICTURES
ACCORDING TO SEX AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC SITUATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Control</th>
<th></th>
<th>Affection</th>
<th></th>
<th>Inclusion</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expressed</td>
<td>Wanted</td>
<td>Expressed</td>
<td>Wanted</td>
<td>Expressed</td>
<td>Wanted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inner-Urban</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>males</td>
<td>36.5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>36.5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>36.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>females</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>28.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outer-Urban</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>males</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>females</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>26.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural-Farm</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>males</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>females</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In an attempt to answer the third question raised in the study, the following null hypothesis was projected:

There is no difference among the three socio-economic groups as to their selection of interpersonal behavior preferences.

To test this hypothesis, the frequencies from Tables 7 and 8 were separated according to sex, cast into 3 x 9 contingency tables and Chi Square analysis performed.

Tables 9 and 10 present the results of this analysis for the male students in the three socio-economic groupings. The three community settings are inner-urban, outer-urban, and rural-farm; the settings are referred to in the tables below as I-U, O-U, and R-F, respectively.
TABLE 9
EXPECTED AND OBSERVED FREQUENCIES OF RESPONSE FOR
MALES FROM FIRST SET OF PICTURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Control</th>
<th></th>
<th>Affection</th>
<th></th>
<th>Inclusion</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expressed</td>
<td>Wanted</td>
<td>Expressed</td>
<td>Wanted</td>
<td>Expressed</td>
<td>Wanted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I-U</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O-U</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-F</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ x^2 = 91.944, \text{ with } 10 \text{ d.f., is significant at .001} \]

TABLE 10
EXPECTED AND OBSERVED FREQUENCIES OF RESPONSE FOR
MALES FROM SECOND SET OF PICTURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Control</th>
<th></th>
<th>Affection</th>
<th></th>
<th>Inclusion</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expressed</td>
<td>Wanted</td>
<td>Expressed</td>
<td>Wanted</td>
<td>Expressed</td>
<td>Wanted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I-U</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>30.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O-U</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>30.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-F</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>30.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Because there were no responses in the category, the category "affection wanted" was dropped from the analysis.

\[ x^2 = 86.046, \text{ with } 8 \text{ d.f., is significant at .001} \]
The null hypothesis for male respondents was rejected \((p = .001)\) and therefore, one may infer that there are indeed differences among the three socio-economic groupings as follows:

**Control:**

**Expressed:**

1. The outer-urban males expressed the greatest number of responses to the expression of control in the first set of pictures.

2. The greatest number of responses to the expression of control in the second set of pictures was from the inner-urban males.

**Wanted:**

1. In the first series of pictures, the only responses in the wanting of control were from the inner-urban males.

2. An almost equal number of responses to this category occurred in the second set of pictures from both the outer-urban and rural-farm males, with no responses from the outer-urban sampling.

**Affection:**

**Expressed:**

1. A fairly high number of responses occurred from all three socio-economic groupings in this category with rural-farm males making the greatest number of responses in the first set of pictures.
2. In the second series of pictures, there were no responses to the expression of affection from the rural-farm group, with an almost equal per cent from the other two socio-economic groupings.

Wanted:
1. No outer-urban males responded to the wanting of affection in the first set of pictures. The greatest per cent of responses were from the inner-urban males.
2. In the second series of pictures, none of the three socio-economic groupings chose the wanting of affection.

Inclusion:

Expressed:
1. No responses occurred within the expression of inclusion category from the outer-urban or rural-farm males in the first set of pictures.
2. The second set of pictures showed the highest frequency of response to this category among the rural-farm males.

Wanted:
1. In the first set of pictures, an almost equally high per cent of the outer-urban and rural-farm males chose the wanting of inclusion.
2. The outer-urban males had the highest per cent of response to this category in the second set of pictures. The rural-farm males had the lowest per cent of responses in this category.
Tables 11 and 12 present an analysis of the female responses to the two series of pictures.

### TABLE 11

**EXPECTED AND OBSERVED FREQUENCIES OF RESPONSES FOR FEMALES FROM FIRST SET OF PICTURES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Affection</th>
<th>Inclusion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expressed</td>
<td>Wanted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I-U</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O-U</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-F</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[x^2 = 146.885, \text{ with 10 d.f., is significant at .001}\]

### TABLE 12

**EXPECTED AND OBSERVED FREQUENCIES OF RESPONSES FOR FEMALES FROM SECOND SET OF PICTURES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Affection</th>
<th>Inclusion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expressed</td>
<td>Wanted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I-U</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O-U</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-F</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[x^2 = 140.926, \text{ with 10 d.f., is significant at .001}\]
The null hypothesis that there is no difference among female respondents in three differing socio-economic groupings was rejected ($p = .001$) and therefore one may infer that there are indeed differences among the three socio-economic groupings as follows:

**Control:**

**Expressed:**
1. Rural-farm female respondents had the highest per cent of responses in the expression of control in the first set of pictures.
2. In the second series of pictures, there were no rural-farm respondents in this category and inner-urban females had the most responses.

**Wanted:**
1. There were no respondents in this category from inner-urban or rural-farm samplings in the first set of pictures.
2. There were no respondents again from the inner-urban sampling in the wanting of affection category in the second set of pictures. The rural-farm females had the highest per cent of responses in the second set of pictures.

**Affection:**

**Expressed:**
1. The largest number of responses were from the inner-urban grouping, with no responses from the outer-urban grouping in the first set of pictures.
2. In the second set of pictures, there was the highest per cent of responses in the outer-urban grouping, with no responses from the rural-farm females.

Wanted:

1. The highest number of responses occurred within the rural-farm grouping in the wanting of affection in the first set of pictures. There were no responses in this category from the outer-urban females.

2. In the second set of pictures, the outer-urban females scored the highest per cent of responses in the wanting of action.

Inclusion:

Expressed:

1. Outer-urban females had the highest per cent of responses in this category in the first series of pictures.

2. The per cents from each of the three socio-economic groupings were almost equal in the expression of inclusion in the second set of pictures.

Wanted:

1. There were no responses in this category in the first set of pictures from the rural-farm grouping. The highest per cent of responses in this grouping was from the outer-urban females.

2. Again in the second set of pictures, there were no responses from the rural-farm females in this category.
The highest per cent of responses in the wanting of inclusion category was from the inner-urban females.

The responses from the total number (both male and female) from each socio-economic grouping are presented in Tables 13 and 14.

**TABLE 13**

EXPECTED AND OBSERVED FREQUENCIES OF RESPONSES FOR TOTAL GROUP FROM FIRST SET OF PICTURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Affection</th>
<th>Inclusion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expressed</td>
<td>Wanted</td>
<td>Expressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I-U</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>30.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O-U</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-F</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ x^2 = 60.253, \text{ with } 10 \text{ d.f.}, \text{ is significant at .001} \]

**TABLE 14**

EXPECTED AND OBSERVED FREQUENCIES OF RESPONSES FOR TOTAL GROUP FROM SECOND SET OF PICTURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Affection</th>
<th>Inclusion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expressed</td>
<td>Wanted</td>
<td>Expressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I-U</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O-U</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-F</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ x^2 = 90.096, \text{ with } 10 \text{ d.f.}, \text{ is significant at .001} \]
The null hypothesis was rejected (p = .001) and therefore one may infer that there are indeed differences among the three socio-economic groupings as follows:

**Control:**

**Expressed:**

1. The outer-urban grouping had the highest per cent of responses in the expression of control in the first set of pictures.
2. In the second set of pictures, the expression of control was chosen by the inner-urban grouping most frequently.

**Wanted:**

1. In the first set of pictures, the wanting of control category was avoided entirely by the rural-farm grouping. The highest per cent occurred among the outer-urban grouping.
2. In the second set of pictures, the wanting of control was chosen most frequently by the rural-farm children.

**Affection:**

**Expressed:**

1. The inner-urban students selected the expression of affection more often than the other two socio-economic groupings in the first set of pictures.
2. In the second set of pictures, the rural-farm respondents failed to select the expression of affection at all. The highest per cent of responses within this category came from the outer-urban children.
Wanted:
1. Outer-urban children did not respond once to the wanting of affection, while rural-farm respondents selected this category the greatest number of times in the first set of pictures.
2. In the second set of pictures, the wanting of affection was chosen most often by the outer-urban respondents.

Inclusion:

Expressed:
1. In the first set of pictures, the rural-farm respondents selected the expression of inclusion most often.
2. In the second set of pictures, this category was selected by rural-farm children most often again.

Wanted:
1. Outer-urban children selected wanting inclusion most often in the first set of pictures.
2. In the second set of pictures, the wanting of inclusion was selected most by the inner-urban children.

The Chi Squares suggest that the responses do differ according to socio-economic situation. This statement can be made for males, females, or for the total group on both sets of pictures. Further, in making this statement, the significance levels indicate that the chances of being in error (falsely rejecting the null hypothesis of no difference among the groupings) are less than 1 in 1,000, statistically.
It should be noted that the two sets of pictures do not compare favorably in correlation of responses. This may mean that the two sets are measuring something different; that the first set is conditioning the response for the second set of pictures; or that some variable is conditioning both of the responses to the two sets of pictures that was not controlled in this study.

In an effort to determine if the respondents were aware of the varying racial features of the children depicted in the pictures, the investigator asked the respondents if the children in the pictures looked like them. Table 15 shows the per cent of respondents answering yes to this question.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 15</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PER CENT OF AFFIRMATIVE RESPONSES TO QUESTION</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;DO THESE CHILDREN LOOK LIKE YOU?&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inner-Urban Situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outer-Urban Situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural-Farm Situation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each of the three different samples had a minority of respondents who answered yes to the question, "Do these children look like you?" The negative response to the question required that the investigator ask the child for a reason as to why he said no. Table 16 shows the various categories given as reasons for a negative response.
TABLE 16
PER CENT OF SAMPLES BASING NEGATIVE RESPONSE ON VARYING OBSERVATIONS OF PICTURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Hair Color</th>
<th>Length of Hair</th>
<th>Clothing</th>
<th>Glasses</th>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inner-Urban</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>males</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>females</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outer-Urban</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>males</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>females</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural-Farm</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>males</td>
<td>36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>females</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In all three socio-economic situations, the greatest number of children responding negatively to the question, based their response on an observation about the hair of the children depicted in the pictures and not about the racial features of the children. None of the Rural-Farm respondents based their response on racial features. The Outer-Urban respondents noticed the racial features more than the other two socio-economic situations.

Related Analysis of Data

The investigator sought to determine why a respondent has chosen a particular interpersonal behavior through the verbal responses offered by the respondent when the investigator asked probing questions.

Sometimes the reason for the selection and ranking of a particular picture of an interpersonal behavior was not because of which
behavior was being depicted, but rather because of an object identification on the part of the respondent. In some cases, it was the object present in the picture which attracted the respondent's attention, rather than the interpersonal activity being depicted. Examples of such object identification are:

--"They are sharing a library book."
--"He is reading a book to his friend."
--"They are reading a book."
--"I like that desk."
--"She has a doll to play with."
--"She is playing with a doll."
--"She has a new doll."
--"The other girl does not have a doll."
--"He has a truck."
--"I like to play with trucks."
--"She is sitting in her chair."
--"I have my own chair and no one else can sit in it."

In other cases, the verbal comments of child reinforced for the investigator that the child had understood and recognized the interpersonal theme of the picture he had chosen. Examples of verbal comments which exemplified an understanding of the theme of affection interpersonal behavior are:

--"The girls like each other."
--"The girls are touching each other because they are friends."
--"He is reaching out to the other boy."
--"The boys are hugging because they are good friends."
--"He is putting his arm around the shoulder of his friend."
--"They smile because they are friends."
--"The girl is helping the other girl because she is a friend."
--"The girls are happy because they are friends."
--"The girls like each other very much."
--"The girls touch each other because they like each other."

Examples of verbal comments offered by the respondents which demonstrate an understanding of the theme of control are:

--"They have to be good in school."
--"You must fold your hands in school."
--"You must sit up straight and tall in school."
"He is on top because he is winning."
"He is stronger than the other boy."
"He is mean to the other boy."
"He is a strong wrestler."
"She is bigger and won't give the chair back to the other girl."
"She is mean to the other girl."
"She is stronger than the other girl."
"She is bossing the other girl."

Included among the verbal statements from the respondents which demonstrated an understanding of the theme of inclusion in the interpersonal relationships are:

"Come, play with me."
"He is asking the other boy to come play."
"She is inviting her to come play."
"They are playing with dolls together."
"They have a truck to play together with."
"They are friends and so play together."
"He is sharing with a friend."
"She is giving it to her friend."
"They are being a friend."
"You always shake hands when you meet a person."
"They are meeting each other."

Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented and analyzed the data gathered in the investigation. The chapter was organized along the three questions asked in the investigation. Both numerical and verbal responses were presented and analyzed.

Each of the three socio-economic groupings was analyzed as to their speed of response, length of response, and use of descriptive words in the projective technique.

The frequencies of responses in each of the categories of interpersonal behaviors was cast into $6 \times 3$ contingency tables and Chi Square analysis applied.
Related analysis of data included the verbal comments gathered from the student interviews.

The next chapter, Chapter V, is a summary of the study. This chapter includes the inferences, implications, and recommendations for further research derived from the present investigation.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

Introduction

The present investigation was designed to create and implement a projective technique that would be useful in analyzing the interpersonal needs of kindergarten children in three different school settings. The William C. Schutz theory of interpersonal needs was the theoretical basis for the development of the technique. The study concentrated on the design of the projective technique and its administration to kindergarten children. The subjects were kindergarten children from three different community settings—inner-urban community setting, outer-urban community setting, and rural-farm community setting.

The study was designed in an attempt to answer the following three questions:

1) Can a series of pictures depicting interpersonal needs be developed as a useful projective technique to analyze the interpersonal needs of kindergarten children?

2) Does the series of pictures as a projective technique work equally well with children from differing socio-economic settings?

3) Assuming the usefulness of this projective technique, what are the interpersonal need preferences of kindergarten children, as influenced by sex and socio-economic differences?
Two pilot studies were conducted to determine the feasibility of various facets of the investigation.

The first pilot study eliminated the use of four-year-old children from the study because of their lack of language skills and ability to discuss concepts. The first pilot study also demonstrated that a tape recording of the interview was more of a distraction than a real aid in recording the interview. The formality of the structured interview as successful and the pictures drawn to the investigator's specifications by an artist seemed to work well.

The second pilot study was run to formalize an interview protocol and to test the value of the use of probing questions with kindergarten children. The funneling technique when questioning a child was successful. The use of comments of encouragement to the child during the interview and the use of "rapport-building sessions" prior to actually interviewing individual students were techniques adopted by the investigator from this second pilot study.

The series of pictures had been adapted and reduced in size and number from the first pilot study. The final series used in the investigation consisted of twelve pictures depicting dyads of children involved in satisfying three interpersonal needs: affection, control, and inclusion. The interviewer used only six of the pictures, two depicting each of the three needs, with each of the sexes of the children interviewed. The set of pictures used with each child contained dyads of children of the same sex as the respondent. The fact that the dyads should be of the same sex as the respondent was a finding of the first pilot study.
From the foregoing procedures and analysis of data, the following inferences and implications are developed:

Inferences

I. The beginning stages of a projective technique to analyze the interpersonal needs of kindergarten children have been developed. From the first pilot study, the use of dyads of children in pictures as a projective technique for allowing respondents to identify and respond to various interpersonal need behaviors was successful.

The investigator was able to develop a rapport with the children and the children seemed eager to relate to the investigator. The use of probing questions was successful for focusing the child's verbal response and for adding clarity to his reasons for selecting certain pictures.

A. The majority of the population tested (52%) responded verbally to the projective technique with the use of complete sentences or complete stories.

B. An even greater number of children responded to the pictures with a speedy or very fast verbal expression. The children understood the task and, in most cases, responded verbally to the investigator's questions within twenty seconds.

C. The projective technique allowed the respondents to clarify their decisions and choices adequately. Fifty-seven per cent of the total population used more than three descriptive words in their verbal expression to the investigator.
II. The series of pictures as a projective technique works equally well with children from differing socio-economic settings.

A. Although the exact per cents vary in each of the three socio-economic settings examined, the mode of response for each sample occurred within the complete sentence category.

B. The speed of the greatest number of both Inner-Urban and Outer-Urban respondents occurred within twenty seconds after the investigator asked the questions.

The mode for Rural-Farm respondents occurred within the slow category, but this particular fact may be distorted because of the smaller sample of Rural-Farm youngsters tested. It is too inconclusive to generalize.

C. The mode for the use of descriptive words for the Outer-Urban and Rural-Farm samples occurs within the three to five word usage.

III. The interpersonal preferences identified in the projective technique varied according to sex and socio-economic differences.

A. There is significant difference, at alpha equals .001, among the responses of the total subjects in the three socio-economic groupings investigated in this study. Therefore, the null hypothesis of no differences among the groupings is rejected.

B. There are also significant differences, at alpha equals .001, among the responses of the male subjects in the three socio-economic groupings investigated in this study.
It is important to note here that the investigator noticed a much more highly competitive climate present in the Outer-Urban setting than was present in either the Inner-Urban or the Rural-Farm classroom. The students of the Outer-Urban setting were seeking approval from the adults present in the room, and especially from the teacher. The students seemed to understand the classroom as competitive and saw other students as their competitors, rather than as their colleagues. The boys in the room seemed even more competitive than the female classmates. This behavior of the males is understood in their choice of interpersonal preferences as the expression of control and the wanting of inclusion.

C. There are also significant differences, at alpha equals .001, among the responses of the female respondents in the three socio-economic groupings investigated in this study.

IV. The difference of race among the children depicted in the series of pictures did not inhibit the usefulness of the projective technique.

A. The respondents' perceptions of difference among the children in the pictures related chiefly to hair color and length of hair, not to race.

B. Although all three school settings had at least one member of a non-white race present in the classroom, the Outer-Urban respondents were the most observant of the three different socio-economic settings tested of the racial features of children depicted in the series of pictures.
Implications

The implications presented below are derived from this study and subject to its limitations. Many of the implications, however, seem applicable to other aspects of the study of early childhood, as well.

Projective Techniques

The projective technique developed in pilot testing and used in this study was adequate to the demands placed on it. Similar testing techniques are recommended for similar studies. The general format of a picture-stimulus, structured-interview worked well. The nonverbal responses of pointing and of handing the pictures to the investigator provided active and physical involvement on the part of the subjects. This involvement seemed to be an important factor in maintaining respondents' interest and in encouraging their verbal responses during the interview. Additional studies should be done to determine children's reactions when allowed to handle and manipulate real objects, such as dolls, during the projective technique situation.

"Rapport-building-visits" prior to actual interviewing, are strongly recommended as a desirable technique in studies dealing with young children. The initial apprehensiveness of the subjects in this study would have made interviewing a difficult and nonproductive task during the first school visits. Their anxieties diminished quickly, however, as the investigator participated in classroom activities. Recording of nonverbal responses during the interview caused little or no distraction for the respondent. The use of a tape recorder, for
this age of young child, was found to be most distracting, however. The children were much more focused in their task and more "talkative" when the tape recorder was not used in the interview.

The nonverbal responses of this projective technique were dependent on the subjects' understanding of verbal instructions provided by the interviewer and the nonverbal cues available in the pictures shown him. To obtain a true nonverbal response, evaluation devices and methods need to be developed which do not rely on a verbal stimulus.

**Projective Techniques with Young Children**

The use of projective techniques serves a different purpose with young children, than the techniques do when used with adults.

The purpose of projective techniques in interviewing adults is to allow the adult to discuss themes which he consciously, or subconsciously, does not desire to discuss. The projective technique usually features ambiguous materials which allow the adult to project his own feelings, understanding and themes onto the ambiguous stimulus. Through the use of projective techniques, the interviewer is able to deal with themes which the adult would be normally unwilling or unable to verbalize if he were simply asked to discuss these themes. For example, the Thematic Apperception Test, and other projective techniques, are designed to compare an adult's own perceptions and referents which he normally will not openly discuss.

In working with young children, as this study did, it was found that the purpose of a projective technique was quite different
from that of its use with adults. The projective technique with young children serves to focus and concretize the thinking of the young child. The technique is an object to be attended to by the young child which directs his verbalization along the direction the interviewer wishes to pursue.

The young child is perfectly willing and able to talk about the specific purpose contained within the projective technique. The language skills of a young child are weaker than those of an adult, however, and while the adult would be able to comprehend total verbal instructions from the interviewer and would be able to communicate verbally his understanding of the expressed purpose, the young child needs an artifact, an object, to serve as a vehicle for his comprehension and communication of the desired purpose. The projective technique used in this study served such a purpose when it was used with young children.

The stimulus need by young children can be in many differing forms. The projective technique could include pictures, drawings, real objects, dolls, or games. If the stimulus is appropriate and clear enough to the young child, the interviewer will have no trouble in understanding the child's communication about the desired theme. In fact, contrary to the use of projective materials with adults, the projective materials used with young children should be clear, straightforward communications of the desired theme, rather than ambiguous materials.
Teaching Interpersonal Behavior

The most direct and outstanding implication to be derived from the results of this study is that curriculum planners and kindergarten teachers must accept and act on the premise that children come to them initially with a wide range of understanding of interpersonal behaviors. This acceptance and action is especially important for the kindergarten level because it is there that the child normally begins his long career in formal education.

The children interviewed in this study were eager to discuss their interpersonal need preferences and this eagerness should be recognized by the kindergarten teachers and curriculum builders so that opportunities for such discussion are present in the curriculum.

Children learn the concepts of interpersonal behavior and this phase of socialization should be taken seriously by kindergarten teachers and curriculum builders, if children of the future are to grow up with a clear understanding of the various interpersonal behavior needs and how these behaviors might be expressed in a socially acceptable way.

Recommendations for Further Research

The results of this study show that appropriate projective techniques can be developed to allow a young child to discuss his interpersonal need preferences. The results are inconclusive, however, and further study of the area of interpersonal needs of this particular age level child are needed. The projective technique was most helpful and successful for this particular study. However, not all further research in the area of interpersonal needs of the young child would necessarily have to use the projective technique.
The results of the use of a structured interview, of "rapport-building-visits," and of probing questions to focus the responses of the young child are suggested elements of any further research.

Three specific recommendations are made if further research should use a projective technique similar to the one developed in this study.

1. Pictures depicting various interpersonal needs should contain only persons and no animals or objects to distract the child. Pictures 2, 5, and 6 (See Appendix A) seemed to distract the children with the presence of objects in the depictions. The interviewer believes that often the respondent chose these particular pictures, or rejected these pictures, on the basis of his feelings about the objects included in the pictures and not on the basis of the interpersonal need being depicted.

2. All of the pictures used in this study depicted children in relationship to each other. It is the conclusion of the interviewer from observing the kindergarten children in the classrooms that the children seek out and respond to interpersonal need preferences with adults, as well as with children. Any further research should include depictions of adults and children involved in interpersonal behaviors, as well as children only.

3. If the same two series of pictures are used again with children, the order of presentation of the pictures should be reversed in an attempt to see if this ordering of pictures would affect the outcome of the study.
Chapter Summary

This chapter has summarized the present investigation. It was inferred from the study that the three questions to which the study directed itself were answered affirmatively.

Implications derived from the study suggest that the design of the picture-stimulus, structured-interview worked well. A distinction in the use of projective techniques with young children, as compared to those used with adults, was noted. Results from the study also suggested that the kindergarten teachers and curriculum-builders must be aware of interpersonal needs as a part of structured content in the classroom.

Recommendations for further research included the need for more research in the area of interpersonal needs, as well as three specific suggestions for the design of a projective technique to achieve this purpose.
APPENDICES
APPENDIX A

SET OF PICTURES SHOWN TO MALE RESPONDENTS

Set A

Expressed and Wanted Control Behaviors
Expressed and Wanted Affection Behaviors

Expressed and Wanted Inclusion Behaviors
Expressed and Wanted Control Behaviors
Expressed and Wanted Inclusion Behaviors

Expressed and Wanted Affection Behaviors
SET OF PICTURES SHOWN TO FEMALE RESPONDENTS

Set A

Expressed and Wanted Control Behaviors
Expressed and Wanted Affection Behaviors

Expressed and Wanted Inclusion Behaviors
Set B

Expressed and Wanted Control Behaviors
Expressed and Wanted Inclusion Behaviors

Expressed and Wanted Affection Behaviors
APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

"Hi, My name is Paul. What is yours? Fine, (child's name) , I have two sets of pictures I would like to show you. I'm sure you will enjoy doing this. I will be taking some notes about your ideas because I want to be able to remember what we will be saying. Do you understand?"

Three pictures depicting two children of the same sex as the respondent in each picture are laid out in a row in front of the respondent in the sequence recorded on the pictures in Appendix A. Interviewer says to the respondent, "Here we have pictures of six different children, one (he points to each child's picture as he counts), two, three, four, five, and six. Right? I would like you to point to the one child that you would like to be, if you could be one of these children." Respondent points and the interviewer records the number of the child to which the respondent pointed. "Fine, (child's name), now here is a second set of children." Interviewer picks up the first set of pictures and places a second set of three in front of the respondent in the sequence of Appendix A. "I would like you to point to which child you would like to be out of these six children." Respondent points and the interviewer records the number.

"Now, (child's name), I am going to show you all six pictures and ask you to hand me whichever picture you like the best"
out of all six. OK?" Investigator returns the first set of three pictures to the desk in front of the respondent and the respondent hands the investigator his first choice, his second choice and his third, until all the pictures have been handed to the investigator. If necessary, the investigator may encourage the child with phrases such as, "That's good. Now which one do you like?" The investigator records the numbers of the ranking of the respondent.

The investigator selects the picture containing the child which the respondent chose from the first set of three and places it in front of the respondent. "(child's name), you said you liked this child best. Why would you like to be this child?" The interviewer uses probing questions to determine why the child selected that picture and does the same procedure with the respondent's choice from the second set of three pictures.

The interviewer ends with the final question, "Do all these children look like you?" as he places all six pictures in front of the respondent. He then asks, "Why?" or "Why not?" and after the subject responds, he thanks the subject and dismisses him from the table.
Typical Probing Questions

1. "What is this child doing in this picture?"
2. "What do you suppose he is saying to the other child?"
3. "What is the other child doing in the picture?"
4. "What do you like about this child?"
5. "What do you like about what this child is doing?"
6. "What would you do, if you were this child?"
7. "What would you say, if you were this child?"
8. "I don't understand what you mean. Can you explain it to me?"
9. "Can you tell me more about that?"
10. "What do you mean by ____________?" (Asking for a definition).
11. "How are these children alike or the same as you?"
12. "How are these children different from you?"
Scoring Sheet for Interviews

School_______________________________________________

Child's Name__________________________________________

Sex__________________Race______________________1 - 6:________
6 - 12:__________________________

Rank_________________________________________First________
1. __________________________________________________
2. __________________________________________________
3. __________________________________________________
4. __________________________________________________
5. __________________________________________________
6. ___________________________________________

Length of Response ___________________________________

Use of Descriptive Words______________________________

Empathy with Characters______________________________

Self Reference_______________________________________

Aggressiveness of Action________________________________

Speed of Response____________________________________

What do you like about this picture?________________________

What is this child doing?_________________________________

What would you do if you were this child?____________________

Are these children like you?_______________________________
APPENDIX C

VALIDATION OF SERIES OF PICTURES

Each of the three professors asked to judge the original set of pictures depicting various interpersonal needs was provided the following definitions of interpersonal needs and behaviors, according to the William C. Schutz theory.

Interpersonal Need for Inclusion.--In behavioral terms, the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relation with people with respect to interaction and association. (Schutz, 1958, p. 18).

Interpersonal Need for Control.--In behavioral terms, the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relation with people with respect to control and power. (Schutz, 1958, p. 18).

Interpersonal Need for Affection.--In behavioral terms, the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relation with people with respect to love and affection. (Schutz, 1958, p. 20).

Inclusion Behavior.--Behavior directed toward the satisfaction of the interpersonal need for inclusion. (Schutz, 1958, p. 21).

Control Behavior.--Behavior directed toward the satisfaction of interpersonal need of control. (Schutz, 1958, p. 21).

Affection Behavior.--Behavior directed toward the satisfaction of the interpersonal need of affection. (Schutz, 1958, p. 21).

Each professor was also provided the chart found on the following page.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables of the FIRO Theory*</th>
<th>Behavior</th>
<th>Feelings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Expressed inclusion</strong></td>
<td>I make efforts to include other people in my activities and to get them to include me in theirs. I try to belong, to join social groups, to be with people as much as possible.</td>
<td>Other people are important to me. I have a high regard for people as people, and am very much interested in them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Wanted inclusion</strong></td>
<td>I want other people to include me in their activities and to invite me to belong, even if I do not make an effort to be included.</td>
<td>I want others to have a high regard for me as a person. I want them to consider me important and interesting just because I am who I am, regardless of my particular abilities and characteristics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Expressed control</strong></td>
<td>I try to exert control and influence over others. I take charge of things and tell other people what to do.</td>
<td>I see other people as strong and competent. I trust and rely on their abilities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Wanted control</strong></td>
<td>I want others to control and influence me. I want other people to tell me what to do.</td>
<td>I want other people to feel that I'm strong, competent, influential person, and to trust and respect my capabilities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Expressed affection</strong></td>
<td>I make efforts to become close to people. I express friendly and affectionate feelings, and try to be personal and intimate.</td>
<td>I feel people are likable or lovable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Wanted affection</strong></td>
<td>I want others to express friendly and affectionate feelings toward me, and to try to become close to me.</td>
<td>I want people to feel that I'm a likeable or lovable person who is very warm and affectionate.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*(Schutz, 1961, p. 9).*
The three judges ranked the series of 12 pictures according to each of the three interpersonal needs as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Judge 1:</th>
<th>Affection</th>
<th>Inclusion</th>
<th>Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>9</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It was decided that the two pictures depicting the interpersonal need which ranked within the top four positions of each of the judge's rankings would be used in the investigation. The circled numbers represent the two pictures adapted for the study from each of the three interpersonal need behaviors.
Judge 2:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affection</th>
<th>Inclusion</th>
<th>Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
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<td>8</td>
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<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
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<tr>
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<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Judge 3:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affection</th>
<th>Inclusion</th>
<th>Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
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<td>9</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>11</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
BIBLIOGRAPHY
SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY


