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Affective Education and the Affective Domain: Implications for Instructional-Design Theories and Models

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AFFECTIVE EDUCATION: WHAT DOES IT MEAN?

In 1976, Bills stated that the definition of affect was so unclear and so unfocused, and measurement of it so difficult, that educators would not be able to adequately deal with it in their classrooms unless or until we came to a better understanding of what it was. In 1986, Martin and Briggs came to much the same conclusion. They listed 21 different terms associated with affect, including self-concept, mental health, group dynamics, personality development, morality, attitudes, values, ego development, feelings, and motivation. In 1990, Beane concurred:

Little progress has been made toward developing a broad and coherent theory or framework that defines the place of affect in the curriculum.... To begin with, there is still disagreement about how to define affect, resulting in a wide variety of opinions about how it should be placed in the curriculum.... Nevertheless, the present disarray in the field demands such an attempt because almost everything we do in schools has to do with affect. (p. 2)

While we will not resolve these issues in this chapter or this book, we will provide a variety of perspectives about affective development and its place in learning and instruction, and we will describe some considerations that instructional devel-

opers and teachers can use as they decide whether or how to include affect in their instruction.

The term "affect" is widely known. Affective education deals broadly with students' experiences in school (Ackerson, 1991/1992) and is generally used to describe programs dealing with personal and social development. The following is a composite sampling of some ways of defining affect in education.

Affective education refers to education for personal-social development, feelings, emotions, morals, ethics; it is often isolated in the curriculum (Ackerson, 1991/1992; Beane, 1990).

Education for affect affirms that education is about becoming human, and therefore education must be about affect; it cannot be otherwise and cannot be separated from other aspects of the curriculum (Beane, 1990).

Affective development as a process refers to individual growth or internal changes to serve the "best" interests of individuals and society, while *affective development as an end-product* addresses the result(s) of that process: a well-adjusted or "affectively developed" person (*Education for Affective Development: A Guidebook on Programmes and Practices*, 1992).

Affective development education refers to a deliberate process of intervention in the development of students; it may include affect as part of particular subject areas (e.g., English or government), may be integrated into the curriculum, or may include separate courses of study for the development of affect as process or end-product.

Affective domain refers to components of affective development focusing on internal changes or processes, or to categories of behavior within affective education as a process or end-product.

WHY CONSIDER AFFECT?

Affect has been considered either overtly or covertly as a part of schooling for decades. It has emerged in many different forms, some more defensible and/or more effective than others, including humanistic education, moral development, student-centered learning, self-actualization, and values education, to name only a few. Affect has also emerged as a response to many different social needs, including racism, drug and alcohol abuse, and teen pregnancy. And it has emerged as a part of varying philosophical and curricular orientations, such as the child vs. the curriculum. Needs and times change, and affect becomes increasingly popular or unpopular.

Lickona states, in chapter 24 of this volume, that the philosophy of logical positivism in the middle of the 20th century eroded support for teaching character education. The same was true of other affective programs, as curriculum emphasis was placed on academic subjects, specifically science and math. In the 1960s, values education reappeared, as did Rogers' (1969) student-centered learning and Kohlberg's (1969) approach to moral development. Although these programs were not at all similar to each other, each refocused attention on what we are calling affective education.

When considering the inclusion of affect in schooling, Beane (1990) suggested that:

the underlying theory appears to be this: When large-scale social problems appear, we may react with legal and legislative action, but in the long haul the best solution is to educate the present generation of young people to "cope" with their own problems and/or to help create a more ethical and moral society. (p. 3)

However, it is important to recognize that academic programs in public schools are only one of the many forums for teaching or learning affective behaviors. For children and adolescents, affective behaviors are addressed directly or indirectly in private and religious schools, summer camps, churches, and community and recreational activities, to name only a few. For adults, affective behaviors can be addressed or taught explicitly in places as diverse as parenting classes, corporate training programs, and volunteer organizations. While our focus in this unit of the book is on public schools, it is incumbent on all of us to remember that affective behaviors can be taught and developed in almost any setting, and at any age level, and that instructional-design theories should provide guidance for the full range of contexts, not just public schools.

When we do focus on teaching affective behaviors in public school settings, there are important issues that have to be considered due to any number of philosophical and social concerns. For example, whether affective objectives are overt or implicit, stated or unstated, planned or unplanned raises issues of what to teach and who is responsible for making those decisions. Likewise, what kinds of methods teachers use and whether those methods are direct or indirect can influence how receptive parents, students, and the community are to teaching in the affective domain. Other important issues that have to do with teaching in the affective domain include:

- affective development often takes a long time,
- indoctrination or brainwashing can be an ethical concern,
- sometimes the absence of behaviors is more important than the presence of behaviors (e.g., to abstain from unsafe or premarital sex),
- classical conditioning, operant conditioning, and persuasive communications may be powerful methods to instill or maintain affective behaviors,
- there may be some confusion about affect as a means for cognitive ends versus as ends in their own right.

All of these are important issues for instructional theories to address.

In spite of these issues, over the past several decades, renewed interest in affective education has grown to unprecedented levels in American public education (Beane, 1990). Why has this happened? The obvious answers lie in the explosion of substance abuse, teen pregnancy, gang violence, runaways, crime, the divorce rate, dropouts, eating disorders, all kinds of abuse, and other similar social problems. Within schools, interpersonal conflicts have increased dramatically, and lack of

discipline (including the categories of fighting, violence, and gang activity) is one of the biggest problems confronting public schools (Johnson & Johnson, 1996).

A less obvious answer, however, is that modern theories of psychology and philosophy recognize more than ever the interrelationships among thoughts and feelings. Purposeful action is based on attention to both affect and cognition. Our emotions are tied to something, they have some referent, and they require reasoned (re)action and resolution (Beane, 1990; Goleman, 1995; Noddings, 1994). In fact, Tennyson and Nielson (1997), reporting the work of Brown, Collins, and Duguid (1989), Harre (1984), and Vygotsky (1978), state that recently certain cognitive psychologists have "discovered" that the affective domain may actually dominate the cognitive. They suggest that this is seen in many constructivist ideas, such as situated cognition. Other educators who also espouse constructivist and postmodern positions are increasingly concerned with more holistic approaches to education. These are sometimes characterized as including a worldview that is less reductionistic, bureaucratic, and hierarchical and more student-centered, humanistic, and democratic (Hlynka, 1997; Lebow, 1997; Miller, 1994)—all markers of the new paradigm discussed in chapter 1.

Recent research on the architecture of the brain and how it works reveals that the brain is of two "minds:" the emotional and the rational (Goleman, 1995). Goleman, reporting the research of neuroscientists, states that while these two components of the brain often work in harmony, they are somewhat independent, each operating separately. Based on knowledge of evolution, we now know that the emotional center of the brain was the first to develop and is often the first to "engage" or kick in as we make decisions or face dilemmas. This often happens while the thinking brain is still coming to a decision. What this means for education and educational programs is that students must learn, and therefore be taught, to harness their emotions. This includes learning the difference between feelings and actions and the effects of this difference on behavior. Goleman (1995) calls this "emotional intelligence." He states that emotional intelligence can help students and society deal with the plethora of social problems previously mentioned (e.g., violence, depression, stress) by teaching students to manage their feelings, become more self-aware, improve their social and cognitive skills, and become more empathic.

Gray and LaViolette proposed another brain theory, called emotional/cognitive structures (ECS), that states that emotional nuances are the organizing structures for thought and knowledge (Ferguson, 1982). Sommers (Ferguson, 1982) conducted research that provides some validity to ECS. Regarding learning, Gray and LaViolette suggested that ignoring feelings may actually retard efficiency in learning and that understanding emotions may be the key to fostering more advanced cognitive organization. Similarly, Greenspan (1997) provides powerful evidence that "emotions, not cognitive stimulation, serve as the mind's primary architect" (p. 1). Greenspan's conclusions are based on many thousands of hours of observation and research on both normal and exceptional (e.g., autistic) children. According to Greenspan (1997):

These observations make clear that certain kinds of emotional nurturing propel them to intellectual and emotional health, and that affective experience helps them master a variety of cognitive tasks. According to experiments conducted by Stephen Porges of the University of Maryland and myself, parts of the brain and nervous system that deal with emotional regulation play a crucial role in cognition (Porges, Doussard-Roosevelt, Portales, & Greenspan, in press). (Pp. 9–10)

Emotions therefore not only become the complex mediators of experience but also serve an internal organizing and differentiating role. (p. 113)

Hence, rather than emotional development being separate from but equal in importance to cognitive development, it is an essential foundation for and component of cognitive development. This places it squarely within the traditional mission of public schools.

Another powerful reason for the inclusion of affect in the curriculum revolves around the values for a democratic society. Norton (1994) states:

In the United States, the decade of the 1980s brought vividly to the public awareness the precarious condition of the moral character of our people. The decade witnessed an unparalleled succession of exposures of moral corruption in government, business, finance, the professions, and evangelical religion. This has produced a public outcry for "more integrity" in our nation's leadership and its people, and has led some observers to speak of our "crisis of moral character." (p. 3)

Norton goes on to say that ethics and moral integrity are the cornerstones of education for a moral life. Integration of moral principles and shared values, such as human dignity, freedom, justice, caring, equality, peace, and honesty, into all aspects of American education, from elementary to higher education, is a must. Mere understanding of these important principles and values is not sufficient. Learning implies that individuals will behave in personally and socially responsible ways.

Why consider affect? We are more aware now than ever before of the holistic nature of learning, behavior, and human growth and development, as well as how our thoughts and feelings are interrelated and influence everyday decision making. Additionally, as a society, we place a high value on moral integrity and attention to the needs of others. It is important to us to have citizens who are productive and mentally healthy and honest, who are able to take care of themselves and their families, and who promote the welfare of others. Without attention to affect, schools are shortchanging students and, ultimately, society.

WHAT ARE THE DIMENSIONS OF AFFECTIVE LEARNING?

The answer to this question is important for several reasons. First, knowing what kinds of learning comprise the affective domain helps us to understand what the affective domain is and what it is not. Second, it provides a menu that helps educators to decide what is important to teach. And third, different kinds of affective learning

may require different kinds of methods of instruction for fostering their development, and this is the major focus of instructional theory.

The most widely known and most often used taxonomy of the affective domain was developed by Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia in 1964. Called the "affective taxonomy," it was based on the principle of *internalization*, the process by which an attitude or value becomes increasingly a part of the individual. Internalization is a fundamental concept in understanding the taxonomy because, from a theoretical perspective, the more a value or an attitude is internalized, the more likely that value or attitude is to influence behavior. The taxonomy consists of five major categories (each with subcategories) that reflect the concept of internalization. From least to most internalized, they are: Receiving, Responding, Valuing, Organization, and Characterization by a value or value complex (see Martin & Briggs, 1986, for a complete description of the categories and subcategories). The taxonomy was developed, in part, to help teachers write affective objectives for each of the five major categories as well as the subcategories, and to help them design affective measures. These objectives could be written to reflect the different levels of internalization, and they could be distinguished from cognitive objectives because they emphasized a feeling tone, an emotion, or a degree of acceptance or rejection of some phenomenon.

The five major categories of the taxonomy were intended to be hierarchical (building on each other); however evidence for the hierarchical validity of the taxonomy is sparse and unconvincing (Martin & Briggs, 1986). For curriculum and instructional development, whether or not the taxonomy is hierarchical is very important because, if affective objectives could be shown to build upon each other, then a "spiraling" sequence of affective behaviors could be built into any instructional program or curriculum.

The affective taxonomy has been criticized as being too general, too abstract, overly dependent on cognition, and limited in scope (Martin & Briggs, 1986). In addition, as a taxonomy, no instructional methods were included for fostering the development of the different affective outcomes. Regarding its limited scope, Krathwohl and associates (1964) indicated that they attempted to organize the taxonomy by many different organization schemes, including using affective constructs such as values, attitudes, emotions, and self-development, but they found that those constructs were too poorly defined to use. These definitional problems are still largely unresolved (Beane, 1990; Bills, 1976; Martin & Briggs, 1986).

A number of other affective taxonomies were developed (Brandhorst, 1978; Foshay, 1978; Gephart & Ingle, 1976; Hoepfner, 1972; Nunnally, 1978) and were reviewed by Martin and Briggs (1986). They range in scope from physiological and psychosocial responses to emphasizing self-development as a goal. These taxonomies also include a wide variety of affective constructs, including sentiments, interests, beliefs, emotions, social temperament, and visceral responses. Foshay (1978) described six domains of learning: intellectual, emotional, social, physical, aesthetic, and spiritual. He included two affective constructs, aesthetics and spirituality, that were not included in other taxonomies.

In part based on these taxonomies, Martin and Briggs (1986) developed their own affective taxonomy with self-development as the most inclusive of the affective constructs, and social competence, values, morals and ethics, continuing motivation, interest, attitudes, and emotions and feelings as subcomponents (Martin & Briggs, 1986, p. 448). While their taxonomy was intended to depict outcomes of learning in the affective domain, it was a means to an end. That is, they sought to show how the affective and cognitive domains were interrelated, but could not do so unless the affective domain was better described. Recognizing the definitional problems with affective constructs, they wrote:

Perhaps an *alternate* way to think about the affective categories ... is to identify *goal or outcome categories* that cut across the [constructs]. Potential affective goals or outcomes for education and training might include:

1. Goals related to *positive attitudes toward subject area or disciplines* including aesthetics.
2. Goals related to the development of a *rational basis for attitudes and values*. These would include analytical thought about and decision making in the realm of morals and ethics.
3. Goals related to *affective processes*; those indicative or positive directional movement as perceived by the individual.
4. Goals related to *developing and sustaining interest and motivation* in vocational or avocational pursuits, as well as other areas that are important or are of interest to the learner. (p. 450)

Another conceptual model was developed by The Lethbridge Catholic Schools in Alberta, Canada, in 1989 (Lambert & Himsl, 1993). They undertook a project to identify affective qualities valued as significant outcomes of education. Based on reviews of literature and a survey of educators in Alberta, they devised a conceptual model that included what they refer to as indicators, but what we would call affective constructs (e.g., self-development) or dimensions (e.g., spiritual development) of the affective domain: self-worth, relating to others, world awareness, learning, and spiritual life. They present a conceptual model of interlocking circles that shows the interrelationships among these areas.

The model represents the formation and growth of behaviors that display positive attitudes toward the SELF as they take place through the interrelated experiences of dealing with OTHERS, through a growing awareness of the WORLD, and through the process of LEARNING. The SPIRITUAL LIFE dimension unifies the other four, by identifying a purposiveness in life, its events and activities; it provides the hope that leads the learner on. (Lambert & Himsl, 1993, p. 17)

Last, in a cross-cultural study of 17 countries, *Education for Affective Development* (1992), the authors presented a conceptual model, or "map," of the content domains of affective development education. This model identifies five domains: the intellectual, aesthetic, physical, spiritual, and social. The social domain is further subdivided into two branches: (a) emphasis: the moral, legal, political, and conven-

tional (e.g., manners, etiquette, social protocol) and (b) perspective: the individual, family, school, community, society, nation, and world. The first branch prompts the question: if social, with what emphasis (e.g., moral, political)? The second branch prompts the question: if social, from what perspective (e.g., individual, society)? The authors stated that, while all the domains are not equally valued across the 17 countries studied, nearly all the countries regarded education and intellectual performance as values, stressing one or the other or both. For example, some countries explicitly stated the desire that children should learn to love learning, that is, education itself is a value that should be promoted. Likewise, nearly all the countries valued intellectual performance. "Ideally then, children should associate intellectual aspects of education with positive affect also" (p. 28). The association of positive affect with education and cognitive learning in this cross-cultural study serves as a reminder of the interrelatedness of the domains.

These last two conceptual models of the affective domain place considerably more emphasis on the spiritual domain than do the taxonomies (with the exception of Foshay, 1978), and they are more explicit about a world rather than an individual view. This may be because of their international focus. Also, these models include a focus on either learning as a value or intellectual behaviors as a value, or both, within affective education. To some extent all the conceptual models address the individual and self-development, moral education, attention to social learning, and the development of positive values and attitudes (although these have different referents). Social learning sometimes has an emphasis on the cognitive aspects (e.g., learning skills for relating to others), and sometimes the emphasis is more specifically on understanding one's feelings and emotions and how they influence interpersonal relationships.

ANOTHER CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF THE AFFECTIVE DOMAIN

It is apparent from the above review of taxonomies and conceptual models that the affective domain does not lend itself to neat, clear-cut classifications. It can be viewed many ways from many different perspectives and for many different purposes. Part of the reason for this is that everything is so interconnected, and the same elements are often connected in several different ways. Consequently, there is much merit to being aware of a wide variety of different conceptualizations of the affective domain, to give you a realistic understanding of its complexity and "fuzziness." Toward this end, we offer an additional conceptual model (see Fig. 20.1) that focuses on affective development as both a process that addresses individual growth and internal change and as an end-product that addresses the "affectively well-adjusted" person.

We feel that one of the most important considerations for understanding affective development is what we call the different *dimensions of development*, but each of these dimensions is so complex that we also feel it is important to identify some

of the major *components* of each that are most relevant to instruction. Our model has six dimensions and three major components. The six dimensions are defined in Fig. 20.2 and each one represents a different aspect of affective development. The components are the elements that, when taken together, comprise affective development in each dimension. While there are many components, we have identified three that we believe are especially important, for they represent the interrelatedness of the domains, and we have left a fourth column in the model to remind the reader that there are many more components. The three major components are

DIMENSIONS	COMPONENTS OF INSTRUCTIONAL VALUE			
	Knowledge	Skills	Attitudes	Others?
<i>Emotional Development</i>	Knowing that others experience the same emotions you do, such as joy and anger	Recognizing emotions Controlling one's emotions	I want to be happy. I don't like to be angry.	?
<i>Moral Development</i>	Understanding moral & ethical rules of the culture, such as caring, justice, equality	Moral reasoning skills Problem-solving skills in the realm of morals	I want to be honest. I am in favor of having ethical standards.	?
<i>Social Development</i>	Understanding group dynamics and democratic ideals, such as the role of a facilitator	Social skills, including interpersonal communication skills	I want to interact positively with others. I am opposed to resolving disagreements by fighting.	?
<i>Spiritual Development</i>	Knowledge of religious precepts about the spiritual world, such as the nature of the soul	Skills for getting in touch with your inner self Ability to love others selflessly	I want a spiritual life. I am in favor of prayer to build a relationship with God.	?
<i>Aesthetic Development</i>	Understanding the subjective nature of aesthetics, such as the relationship between one's values and one's judgments	Skills for assessing aesthetic qualities Skills for generating aesthetic creations	I want to surround myself with things of beauty. I appreciate an elegant theory.	?
<i>Motivational Development</i>	Understanding internal and external rewards for sustained activity, such as joy and sense of accomplishment	Skills for developing one's interests, both immediate and life-long	I want a career that I enjoy. I am opposed to hobbies related to guns.	?

FIG. 20.1. A conceptual model for affective development.

knowledge, skills, and attitudes (of which, we assert, attitudes is often the most important):

- *Knowledge*: understandings and information related to a dimension, for example, knowledge of terms, ideas, concepts, rules, and strategies as they apply to oneself and others;
- *Skills*: abilities that are based on aptitudes, relevant knowledge, and practice for competent performance, for example, self-control skills; and
- *Attitudes*: positive, neutral, or negative responses to or evaluations about a referent, usually represented as position (pro or con) and intensity (strong to weak), for example, liking, opposition, willingness, appreciation; attitudes may or may not result in action.

Other is an open-ended category that reflects additional components that comprise affective development, such as readiness, IQ, experience, teacher beliefs about affective education, and culture, to name just a few.

Dimensions of Development

Our selection criteria for including a dimension were twofold: (a) the dimension had to have a strong attitude or feeling component that had the potential to influence behavior, and (b) the behaviors that might be exhibited could be widely applied. The most obvious dimensions are emotional, moral (or ethical), social, and motivational development (see Fig. 20.2 for definitions). Some researchers have suggested that social development is a separate domain (e.g., Romiszowski, 1981), rather than a dimension of affective development. Heinich, Molenda, and Russell

<i>Term</i>	<i>Definition</i>
Emotional Development	Understanding your own and others' feelings and affective evaluations, learning to manage those feelings, and wanting to do so.
Moral Development	Building codes of behavior and rationales for following them, including developing prosocial attitudes, often in relation to caring, justice, equality, etc.
Social Development	Building skills and attitudes for initiating and establishing interactions and maintaining relationships with others, including peers, family, coworkers, and those different from ourselves.
Spiritual Development	Cultivating an awareness and appreciation of one's soul and its connection with others' souls, with God, and with all His Creation.
Aesthetic Development	Acquiring an appreciation for beauty and style, including the ability to recognize and create it; commonly linked to art and music, but also includes the aesthetics of ideas.
Motivational Development	Cultivating interests and the desire to cultivate interests, based on the joy or utility they provide, including both vocational and avocational pursuits

FIG. 20.2. Definitions of the dimensions of affective development.

(1989) refer to it as the interpersonal domain. We include it here as a dimension of affective development because of the strong attitude component involved in so many human relationships.

But what about spiritual and aesthetic development? Are they significantly different from the other dimensions of affective development, and do they belong in the affective domain? Several researchers believe they are and do (Foshay, 1978; Education for Affective Development, 1992), and we largely agree because they meet our criteria. But it is important to point out that we view spiritual development as something distinct from religion. Spiritual development is concerned with increasing one's awareness that the spiritual realm is a plane of existence different from the physical realm, that all people have souls (spirit entities), and that all souls are interrelated, or one, with each other and with God. Spiritual development is tied in with one's ability to love all people and/or to develop conscious awareness of one's soul. Can someone develop spiritually without believing in God or without believing that human beings have souls? According to our definition, they are developing aspects of spirituality but are incomplete. However, exploration of that idea is beyond the scope of this chapter and left to individual readers to consider.

We have, therefore, included six dimensions of affective development in our model, because they meet our criteria and because we believe they are qualitatively different from each other in that they have different referents and focus on different contexts in which feelings and attitudes are expressed. But the six are highly correlated and interdependent, which will become apparent when you read the next four chapters of this book. They are also pervasive in the literature we reviewed, and we believe they capture the "essence or intent" of most descriptions and taxonomies of the affective domain.

Since it might be argued that emotions, as states of feeling, are a component of all the dimensions, we need to clarify why we have included emotional development as a separate dimension. In the emotional development dimension of our model, the focus is on emotions per se. In the other dimensions, the focus is on a feeling state in a particular context, so the same emotion may be applied in a different way for different purposes within each of the other dimensions. For example, understanding empathy as an emotion, experiencing it physiologically, learning its triggers, and valuing it are all parts of emotional development. However, having positive attitudes about empathy toward those who have been persecuted or discriminated against is part of moral development, because the focus is on right and wrong behavior. Similarly, favoring empathy as a way of maintaining positive relationships with others is part of social development, as is the skill of empathizing with others. In the last two examples, an individual may or may not be able to identify or label the feeling as "empathy," and that may or may not be important. What is important is whether the individual experiences positive, negative, or neutral feelings in that context; that is, do they have negative feelings about discrimination or do they feel neutral, or even positive?

But what about the many other concepts in the affective domain literature? Several that were frequently mentioned in the taxonomies and conceptual models we reviewed earlier are empathy, self-worth, and interests. Do they represent dimensions of affective development? In a certain sense, they and many other concepts are indeed in the affective domain and represent areas of possible (even desirable) human development. But are they qualitatively different from the other dimensions? Empathy seems to us to be a component that is an important part of several (perhaps all) of the other dimensions. Self-worth seems to us to be a major component of emotional development, and perhaps a component, or prerequisite, for social development and even for spiritual development. Interests, on the other hand, seem to us to be largely a separate area of affective development and therefore deserving of being considered as another dimension, which we have called motivational development (although it is important to keep in mind the somewhat narrower-than-usual definition of motivation that this represents).

By engaging in a similar analysis of other affective concepts, we have for now limited our list of dimensions to those shown in Figs. 20.1 and 20.2. But it should be kept in mind that other concepts could be viewed as additional dimensions, and each of the dimensions we have listed may have subdimensions as well as components—and certainly other components, for that matter.

Components of the Dimensions

Regarding the components of the dimensions of affective development, several researchers have identified knowledge, skills, and attitudes/values as particularly important (Martin & Briggs, 1986; Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991). For example, emotional development requires the development of certain attitudes and values, certain skills, and certain knowledge (understandings). This is also the case for moral development, and indeed for *all* the dimensions we have listed (see Fig. 20.1 for a brief sample), though the relative importance of each component varies from one dimension to another and within each dimension.

But certainly there are other components of each of the dimensions, beyond knowledge, skills, and attitudes, that often influence ways we can foster affective development, which is the purpose of instructional-design theory. We provided some examples: readiness, IQ, experience, teacher beliefs about affective education, and culture. Our intent in including this category is to make clear that, due to the complexity of the affective domain, our model is not complete, and that other components may be found to be as important to fostering affective development as the three on which we have focused our attention.

Of the three major components in our model, we believe attitudes are the crux of all the affective dimensions of development. An attitude can be defined as a state of readiness or as a learned predisposition to behave in a consistent way. It is made up of cognitive, affective, and behavioral elements (Kamradt & Kamradt, chap. 23 in this volume; Katz & Stotland, 1959; Zimbardo, Ebbeson, & Maslash, 1977). The

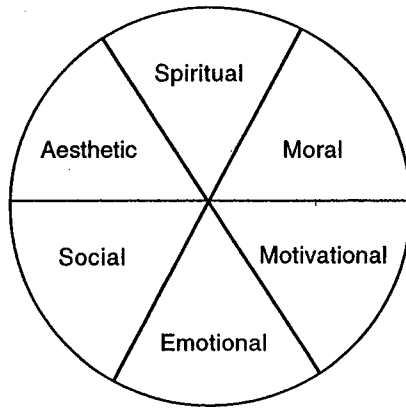
affective element of an attitude is its core and refers to the emotional response to an attitude object, that is, how one feels about it. The *cognitive* element refers to an individual's belief or knowledge about the attitude object. The *behavioral* element refers to the tendency to act on the attitude. (Please note that the cognitive element of an attitude is different from the knowledge component of a dimension of affective development, and the behavioral element of an attitude is different from the skill component of a dimension of affective development. For example, the skill of controlling one's emotions is not the same as the behavioral tendency to act on a favorable attitude toward controlling one's emotions.)

Depending on how the three elements of an attitude are aligned, an attitude can be strong or weak, conscious or unconscious, isolated or highly integrated with other attitudes. The cognitive and affective elements of an attitude are most directly linked to its formation, whereas the behavioral element is most likely to influence an action orientation and is closely linked to the cognitive element. Even though the affective or evaluative/emotional response to the attitude object is thought to be central, attitudes cannot exist without some cognitive element: an object must be at least recognized to be evaluated. (see chap. 23 of this volume or Martin & Briggs, 1986, for a complete discussion of attitude development.) Therefore, each of the attitude components in our model contains cognitive, affective, and behavioral elements (subcomponents), which we have not represented in Fig. 20.1.

We would, again, like to emphasize that the conceptual model shown in Fig. 20.1 is a work in progress and limited to one perspective, and therefore is in great need of being supplemented by other conceptualizations of this complex and fuzzy domain. For example, we also find it helpful to think of affective development as including the internal person and the person as a social being. Although both internal growth and social development have been captured in our dimensions, these two aspects of development are not explicitly portrayed. Furthermore, we find it useful to define "self-development" as a growth process wherein all of the dimensions and their components within the affective domain merge to form a unique individual. We hope that you will find this conceptual model a useful addition to your current conceptualizations for helping you to understand and analyze the remaining chapters in this volume.

AN APPLICATION MODEL FOR AFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT CURRICULA

Conceptual models help us to understand affective development, but this book is concerned with identifying ways of fostering affective development, which in most applications means designing educational programs and courses (curricula). Although conceptual models certainly help, a different kind of knowledge is needed: design theory (see chap. 1). The remaining chapters in this unit present a small sampling of the exciting work that is being done in this area today. Here, we offer an ap-



Dimensions of an Affective Development Curriculum

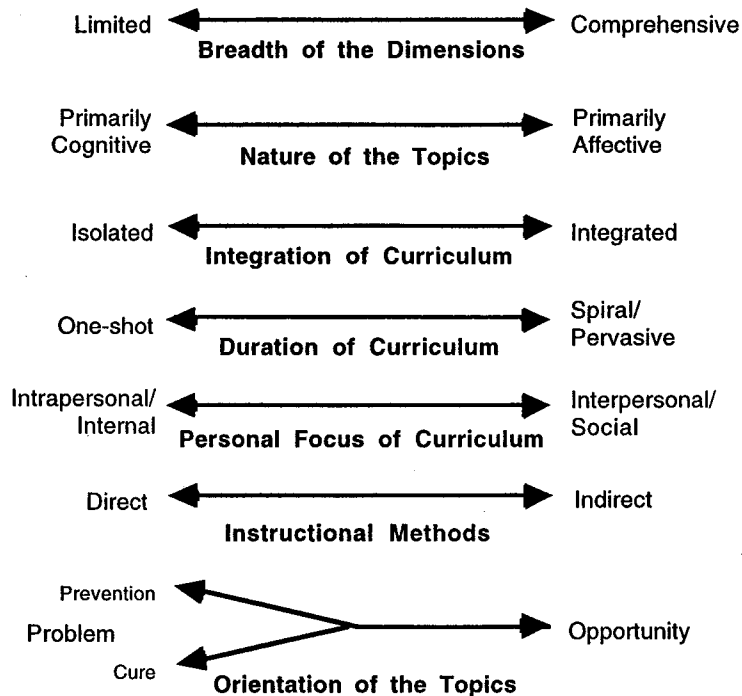


FIG. 20.3. An application model for affective development curricula.

plication model to help you think about some of the design issues that are likely to be important in those design theories (see Fig. 20.3).

Our application model has seven primary design issues for the curriculum: *topics, orientation, breadth, integration, duration, personal focus, and instructional methods for the curriculum*. Each of these is described next, but we hope you will identify additional design issues, for this is certainly not an exhaustive list.

- **Dimensions of the affective curriculum** refers to which particular kinds of affective development (e.g., spiritual, moral, motivational) the program or course will address. You may use our conceptual model to frame the options, you may choose to use a different conceptual model, or you may choose to modify our model or another model; but some indication of the dimensions of affective development for the curriculum is important to an application model.
- **Breadth of the dimensions** refers to whether the curriculum is *comprehensive*, that is, encompassing multiple dimensions (e.g., moral, social, emotional, etc.), or whether it is *limited*, addressing only one or two dimensions.
- **Nature of the topics** refers to whether the topics are generally thought to be primarily *affective* or *cognitive*. Because the cognitive and affective domains are highly interrelated, almost any topic can be addressed from either domain. However, some topics are more typically thought of as affective and some as cognitive. For example, topics like conflict resolution, character education, and education for moral integrity are typically regarded as highly affective, whereas topics like managing planned change, World War II, geography, and geometry are more likely to be considered cognitive. Other topics that combine both domains (for example, in social studies, literature, and the humanities) might fall more nearly in the middle of the continuum, depending on its emphasis.
- **Integration of the curriculum** refers to how or whether affective topics/programs are integrated into the subject areas of the curriculum. An *isolated* curriculum has no attachment to regular school subjects and hence is taught as separate programs or courses, or it may be attached to one subject, for example, social studies. Furthermore, within the affective curriculum, the dimensions and their topics can be addressed separately (e.g., moral development only) or in any combination (e.g., moral and emotional; social and emotional; cognitive, emotional, and social; etc.) and become attached to a particular subject area or be distinct from it. An *integrated* curriculum is one that is fully combined with the other curricula in a school; the affective program is woven throughout the other curricula.
- **Duration of the curriculum** refers to how often a topic or dimension is taught. In a *one-shot* curriculum, it is taught once and may be used to serve a particular, limited need. In a *spiral* or *pervasive* curriculum, it is on-going throughout the school year and is elaborative (see Reigeluth, chap. 18).

- **Personal focus of the curriculum** refers to whether the course is intended to foster the development of internal (intrapersonal) topics/dimensions or social (interpersonal) ones. *Intrapersonal* topics are ones in which students develop individual cognitive and affective structures and meanings, whereas *interpersonal* topics are ones in which students develop relationships with others and therefore must engage with other people. Clearly, this distinction has important instructional implications. Although this issue can be seen as more of a dichotomy than a continuum, the continuum reflects the proportion of topics that are intra- versus interpersonal.
- **Instructional methods** can be either direct or indirect. *Direct* methods refer to specific activities and strategies that are planned for use during an instructional intervention (e.g., role playing, skill-building exercises, etc.). *Indirect* methods refer to interventions with planned outcomes but that are not necessarily classroom interventions. These might include modeling, changes in the school climate or environment, social supports, and so forth.
- **Orientation of the topics** refers to whether the purpose of addressing the topics is to address a *problem* (e.g., child abuse or teen pregnancy) or an *opportunity* (e.g., developing a hobby or making new friends), and if a problem, whether it is intended to prevent or to cure the problem. Although this design issue can be seen more as a dichotomy than a continuum, the continuum reflects the proportion of topics that are problem oriented versus opportunity oriented.

Courses and programs for affective development can be described and analyzed in reference to all eight design issues. Therefore, instructional theories in the affective domain should address these issues. Next, we identify several sample affective programs not represented in the following chapters, and we briefly describe them on the design issues listed above.

WHAT KINDS OF COURSES AND PROGRAMS EXIST IN AFFECTIVE EDUCATION?

In this section, we include a few examples of affective program that fit some of the parameters we have outlined in our models above. We have classified all the programs as primarily affective ("nature of the topic"), however, this is a judgment call on our part. While it appears that attitudes or values are being developed, the extent to which each program actually focuses on affective behaviors rather than cognitive skills is unclear.

Regarding the category "personal focus of the curriculum," we originally separated the programs into two broad groups: those with an intrapersonal focus and those with an interpersonal focus. Programs with an *intrapersonal/internal focus* are typically those that address self-concept, attitude change, and moral or character development. *Interpersonal/social programs* typically involve teaching prob-

lem-solving and critical thinking skills and often, but not always, include conflict resolution, effective communication skills, and managing emotions. However, you can hardly address one without the other, so intra-/inter-personal *focus* is a matter of degree. In the programs below we have used the intrapersonal label for those programs where individual or internal growth seems to take precedence, and we use interpersonal for programs with an immediate focus on developing social skills.

The *Celebration of Learning program* is based on the goals and objectives of the Lethbridge Catholic School District and those of Alberta Education (Lambert & Himsl, 1993). It focuses on both *intrapersonal behaviors* (e.g., self-worth, self-esteem, well-rounded person, problem-solving, creativity, happy and positive attitude, academic excellence, values) and *interpersonal skills* (communication with others and interpersonal relationships). The program is actually a means for teachers to monitor, observe, record, and report students' positive and negative affective indicators. There are lists of indicators that show signs of affective growth or decay in each target area. For example, positive self-worth indicators (growth) include "shows confidence," "assumes responsibility," and "develops talents." Decay self-worth indicators include "demeans self and gives up," "shirks responsibility," "wastes time and talents." Teachers observe students and affirm positive behaviors, and/or they make plans with students and parents to rectify decay behaviors. It is not mandatory that teachers use the program; it is offered to them. The program is *comprehensive* (breadth of focus) and *integrated* (integration of curriculum); plans may include *direct* or *indirect* "instructional methods," and it is *spiral* (duration) in nature. It addresses both *problems* and *opportunities* (orientation).

Nel Noddings' Moral Education (Norton, 1994) uses the teacher as a positive moral resource in the business of education, which is defined as "peoplemaking." Noddings claims that the primary aim of parents and educators is to enhance and preserve caring. She holds that moral education is both education that is moral and education in morality. Norton (1994) applies the term "affective apprenticeship" or "apprenticeship in caring" to her view of schooling. She outlines a method for apprenticeship in caring that is similar to the steps of cognitive apprenticeship: *modeling* to show the process by which morality may be achieved, *dialogue* in order to externalize the moral thinking of the teacher and students, and *practice*, which includes apprenticeship in the community. She argues that the same teacher should stay with students over a longer period of time and is opposed to grading as an intrusion on the caring relationship. Her program is highly *integrated*, uses some direct but primarily *indirect* instructional methods, including a restructuring of schools to support caring, and is *spiral or pervasive* (duration) in its delivery. The breadth of focus is *limited*, with primary attention being given to moral development.

Affective Self-Esteem: Lesson Plans for Affective Education (Kreffit, 1993) is based on the notion that unacceptable social behaviors require the "alteration of the biochemistry of emotion" (p. iv). The goal of the program is to help students understand the nature of emotions and constructively manage them. The program includes a set of lesson plans that strongly encourages an interdisciplinary approach

that can be either *integrated* into the curriculum or *segregated* in health science, biology, science, social studies, or language arts. The first four lesson plans contain the fundamentals, and it is advised that they be taught first. After that, separate units can be taught on guilt, fear, grief, and anger in any order, but may require adaptations if done out of order. The "breadth of focus" is *somewhat limited*, with emphasis on emotional development, although social and cognitive development are certainly included. The program is intended to *spiral* (duration) through the curriculum, and the "instructional methods" are mostly *direct*. It is aimed at prevention and cure (orientation).

Faith, Family, and Friends: Catholic Elementary School Guidance Program (Campbell, 1993). This program includes 18 topics ranging from understanding self and others to Christian education. Hence, it is very much involved with *intrapersonal* growth and development. However, a large part of the curriculum includes *interpersonal skills*, including stress management, moral decision making, substance abuse, communication, and conflict resolution. Specific competencies are provided under the categories of attitudes, skills, and concepts. It is *comprehensive* (breadth of focus), it is an *integrated* curriculum, it uses primarily *direct* methods of instruction, and the duration is *spiral*. Depending on the specific competencies under consideration, the program could be seen as providing a problem orientation (prevention and/or cure) or an opportunity for growth.

Conflict Resolution in Middle School: A Curriculum and Teaching Guide (Kreidler, 1994), enables teachers to help "middle school students become effective at handling conflict nonviolently and to use what they know about interpersonal conflict resolution to understand conflict in the larger world" (p. 1). Twenty conflict resolution skill lessons are provided, plus a thematic unit on diversity and conflict that describes how conflict is rooted in diversity. The curriculum is based on a model called the "peaceable classroom," a caring community that emphasizes cooperation, communication, affective education, appreciation of diversity, and conflict resolution. The focus of the program is on *social skills*; the breadth of focus is *somewhat limited*, dealing primarily with social development (interpersonal conflict), but it includes some cognitive, moral (a caring community), and emotional development as well. The curriculum is intended to be *integrated*, and the duration is *spiral* or *pervasive*, as the concepts are intended to be infused and reinforced in every aspect of a standard middle school curriculum. Its emphasis is on *direct* instructional methods, primarily cooperatively structured activities and class discussions. It is oriented toward *prevention* and *cure*.

Decision Skills Curriculum (Wills, reported in Botvin & Wills, 1985) is an intervention approach to preventing substance abuse based on combating the psychosocial stress factors that may predispose students to abuse substances such as alcohol and drugs. While there are hundreds of drug and substance programs available to educators, we report this one because it is based on the assumption that deterring substance abuse can be accomplished by changing coping skills and reducing stress. In this program attitudes and values are addressed directly, as are neg-

ative emotions that may lead to substance abuse. The program consists of eight modules taught over a two-week period and is taught by trained health educators with assistance from classroom teachers. The first module is a values-clarification exercise about the use of leisure time. Other modules included are: decision making, social influence, assertiveness, stress management, and the health consequences of smoking. The program is *one-shot* (duration), *isolated* (integration), and uses primarily *direct* instructional methods.

Additional Programs

There are literally hundreds, perhaps thousands, of programs that address the affective domain or components of affective education (see Goleman, 1995, and Strein, 1988, for some of them). There is no way we can describe even a small portion of them. However, we include next some descriptions of a few additional programs (or in one case a prescription for a program) to give you some idea of the range of programs that are available.

Multicultural Thematic Instruction (Fitzgerald, 1995) is a framework for designing affective instruction to meet the needs of middle-level students, many of whom are defined as "at risk." The role of identity development and self-concept are emphasized. A chart is provided linking middle school objectives, the framework for unit teaching, and learner needs.

Developing and Understanding Self and Others (DUSO) (Dinkmeyer, 1970); (Human Development Training Institute, reported in Strein, 1988) is one of 23 programs that Strein includes in a critical review of affective programs (the results will be presented in the next section). The program focuses on the development of self-concept and has an instrument, DUSO Affectivity Device, to measure self-concept.

The Character Development prescription of Etzioni (1993; 1994; also reported in Goleman, 1995). Etzioni is a social theorist who believes that character is the foundation of democratic societies and that emotional intelligence is the foundation for character development. "Schools, notes Etzioni, have a central role in cultivating character by inculcating self-discipline and empathy, which in turn enable true commitment to civic and moral values" (Goleman, 1995, pp. 285-286). Children need to learn about values and to practice them.

The PATHS Project (Greenberg & Kusché, 1993; also reported in Goleman, 1995) was designed to help boys who were prone to violence and crime identify and deal with their emotions. The curriculum has 50 lessons on different emotions (from basic emotions like anger to more complicated ones such as jealousy), and the lessons include how to recognize and monitor the emotions of self and others. The lessons are presented to all children in a class, not just those students who are prone to violence. PATHS stands for Parents and Teachers Helping Students.

Resolving Conflict Creatively (Lantieri, Patti, & Edelman, 1996; also reported in Goleman, 1995) is a prevention-based emotional literacy program that focuses on a

specific problem: violence. Although originally intended to focus on how to settle schoolyard arguments that can escalate, Lantieri sees the program as having a much wider mission that includes conflict resolution through means other than passivity or aggression. Much of the program involves teaching students emotional basics.

Yale-New Haven Social Competence Promotion Program (Caplan et al., 1992; also reported in Goleman, 1995) is a social competence curriculum designed for students in the inner-city schools of New Haven, CT. There is a series of courses that cover problems such as emotional development, sex education, drug education, violence, and conflict resolution.

A *Mentorship Model for Students At-Risk* (Sapone, 1989) describes a teacher-education program that encourages university/school partnerships in the identification of at-risk students and the development of strategies and interventions to influence the self-esteem of those students. A mentoring model is suggested that can help students achieve personal worth and competence, and dignity in school and in life.

Values-Based Teaching Skills (Hall, Kalven, Rosen, & Taylor, 1995). This is a book that is designed to help teachers clarify their own values. In learning about their own values, they learn how to promote value development in their students. Specific objectives and exercises are included.

How Effective are these Programs? The Research Evidence

The research evidence concerning the success of affective education programs is mixed, although there are some data to suggest that problem-solving or social skill programs are generally more successful than programs that focus on intrapersonal or internal behaviors. In fact, Goleman (1995) reports very positive results (selected results are provided) for the following programs: *The PATHS Project* (Greenberg & Kusché, 1993) showed improved social and cognitive skills and improved classroom behavior; *Seattle Social Development Project* (Hawkins) showed more positive attachments to family and school and less drug-use initiation, less delinquency, and better scores; *Yale-New Haven Social Competence Promotion Program* (Caplan et al., 1992), showed improved problem-solving skills, better impulse control, and better coping skills; *Resolving Conflict Creatively* (Lantieri, Patti, & Edelman, 1996), showed less violence in class, a more caring atmosphere, and more empathy; *The Improving Social-Awareness-Social Problem Solving Project* (Elias) showed higher self-esteem, more prosocial behavior, and better self-control, social awareness, and social decision-making in and out of the classroom.

Other researchers, however, are more cautious in their endorsement of affective education programs. Strein (1988) compared 23 studies that evaluated the effectiveness of classroom-based, elementary school, affective education programs dating from 1970. He evaluated each study on methodological rigor, program type, grade level, program length, and the leader's profession. He states:

The lack of positive significant findings in the more carefully designed studies provides little support for the effectiveness of affective education programs in promoting changes on either behavioral or affective measures, especially for programs with an internal focus [e.g., self-concept]. Studies of social-cognitive problem solving programs produced promising results, but require further evidence of effectiveness. (p. 288)

Of the problem-solving programs, he states that these programs were weak in two outcomes: generalizing to real-life situations and maintenance of the behaviors over time. Longer programs did show increased treatment effects, but there were only three programs in this category.

In an extensive review of conflict resolution and peer mediation programs (ones with an interpersonal/social focus) in elementary and secondary schools, Johnson and Johnson (1996) reported that there has been an explosion of these types of programs since 1994 with no real evidence to support their use. While their findings have to be tempered due to the numerous problems with the individual research studies they report, their findings suggest that the programs do seem to be effective in teaching students integrative negotiation and mediation procedures. "After training, students tend to use these conflict strategies, and constructive outcomes tend to result" (p. 498).

It is difficult to make generalizations about the effectiveness of affective education programs based on these limited studies. However, the isolated data do seem to indicate that interpersonal programs are more likely to have long-term positive results than do programs that focus on intrapersonal (internal) changes, and that longer programs are more successful than shorter ones. This may provide some very limited support for the need to integrate affective programs into or across the curriculum and to have spiral rather than one-shot programs. Most importantly, the research and evaluation results show that there is promise, but that we still have a long way to go to develop powerful instructional-design theories and programs in the affective domain.

DECISION-MAKING FOR THE INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGNER AND TEACHER

The models we have developed, the sample programs provided, and the research results can help the teacher or instructional designer to design effective instructional plans that include affective goals. This can be accomplished within any unit or instructional sequence regardless of such issues as: (a) whether the subject matter is primarily cognitive or affective, (b) whether the topic is isolated or can be integrated into the curriculum, and (c) whether the instruction is one-shot or spiraling through the curriculum. Of course, whole affective courses and programs can be developed, too; it just takes a little more time and effort. As a summary, consider the following:

- The affective domain may be equally, if not more, important than the cognitive domain in promoting student learning, and the domain has overlapping dimensions of development that promote growth. These include emotional, moral, aesthetic, social, spiritual, and motivational development.
- Cognitive skills are an important part of the domain and must be addressed. For example, reason and intellectual knowledge come into play as students learn about themselves, make moral and value-laden decisions, learn how anger and emotion occur (e.g., triggers), identify cognitive referents of attitudes, and develop the skills for effective communication or conflict resolution. In addition, the simple love of learning or the enjoyment of subject matter has been stated as a worthy affective educational goal.
- The application model provided in Fig. 20.3 can be used as a guideline for issues to consider when thinking about program goals and methods, and the conceptual model in Fig. 20.1 can be used to help determine which dimensions should be addressed to accomplish those goals.
- Affective programs that are integrated into the curriculum, and are pervasive rather than one-shot, are reported to have longer lasting effects.
- There is some evidence to suggest that affective programs that focus on social-cognitive problem solving (e.g., interpersonal skills) tend to be more effective than programs that focus on intrapersonal (internal) growth, provided that the programs are long enough to be effective.
- The teacher and the instructional designer may need to acquire additional knowledge about and skills related to education in the affective domain. Both may need an expanded knowledge base about the affective domain, for example, what it is, more information about specific dimensions, what instructional strategies and methods are successful, how or whether to evaluate students in affective behaviors, and which evaluation techniques could be

TABLE 20.1
Instructional Methods

<i>Direct Instructional Methods</i>	<i>Indirect Instructional Methods</i>
Skill building	Moral apprenticeship
Discussion groups	Modeling
Keeping a journal	Mentoring
Role plays/simulations	Parental involvement
Activity sheets	Unstructured "learning environments"
Multimedia applications	Relaxation techniques, including mood music
Bulletin boards	Visualization
Providing examples and nonexamples	Altering the school climate/environment
Gaining new knowledge (reading, media)	
Lectures/telling	
Overt practice, e.g., community service	
Direct rewards	

- used. In addition, teachers and designers may need new cognitive skills that will enable them to integrate affective programs into existing units, courses, or programs, or new skills in how to design complete new programs. Finally, teachers and designers may need to develop new attitudes about teaching in the affective domain and their own affective development.
- Both direct and indirect instructional methods have been used successfully. Table 20.1 lists several methods in each category.

WHY CONSIDER AFFECT?

At the beginning of this chapter we asked the question, "why consider affect?" To answer that question, we provided definitions of the affective domain, perspectives about affective education, and the definitions of several dimensions of the affective domain. We provided rationales for including the affective domain in instruction. We presented taxonomies and models, existing instructional programs, instructional methods and strategies, and research evidence. In pondering the question "why consider affect?" we became even more convinced that the affective domain is vitally important in all aspects of learning and that affective programs can have at least some positive influence on the lives of students of all ages as they grow and develop. We believe there are compelling reasons for including affective development in all types of learning environments. These include instructional sequences or programs for young students and older students, in corporate training, medical education, graduate education, and community education programs, to name a few. However, real impact on the lives of students will have maximum effect only when there is a concerted effort by educators and other stakeholders to infuse affective learning into all types of courses, programs, and curricula. Therefore, two questions remain: "Do you believe instruction in the affective domain can have a positive effect on students? If yes, what will you do about it?"

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