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The Relationship of Self-Concept Changes and Performance on a Paired-Associates Learning Task to Communication Skills Training

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THE RELATIONSHIP OF SELF-CONCEPT CHANGES AND PERFORMANCE ON A PAIRED-ASSOCIATES LEARNING TASK TO COMMUNICATION SKILLS TRAINING

By

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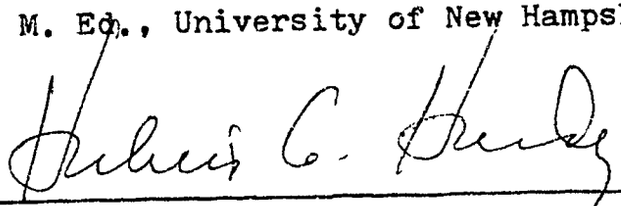

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ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP OF SELF-CONCEPT CHANGE AND PERFORMANCE ON A PAIRED-ASSOCIATES LEARNING TASK TO COMMUNICATION SKILLS TRAINING

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The study examined the relationship of Communication Skills training to attitudes toward the self and to rate of learning.

Sixty fifth-grade subjects from two public school classrooms were tested twice, before and after treatment, on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and a Paired-Associates Learning task. The latter test, administered orally and individually, consisted of ten pictures of common objects. All ten pairs were shown to each subject after which only the first picture of each pair was presented and the subject was asked to recall its picture-associate.

The Piers-Harris scale entitled, "The Way I Feel About Myself," a self report instrument, was administered in group form.

Fifteen subjects from each classroom were randomly assigned to the treatment group. The remaining thirty subjects became the control group.

The subjects in the treatment group were randomly subdivided into six sections of five each (stratified by sex). Each section was arbitrarily assigned one male and one female group leader.

The treatment (Communication Skills training) was given in fifteen forty-minute periods on consecutive school days. It consisted of planned experiential lessons designed to give the subjects opportunities to deal with their concerns in small groups in an environment where a therapeutic relationship could be experienced.

The subjects in the control group remained in their own classrooms during the treatment period and were expected to do their usual class work.

Three null hypotheses were tested: (1) that fifth-grade subjects who have participated in Communication Skills training will not require significantly fewer trials to meet the criterion of mastery in a Paired-Associates Learning task than subjects who were in a Control group, (2) that fifth-grade subjects who have participated in Communication Skills training will not make significantly fewer errors in meeting the criterion of mastery in a Paired-Associates Learning task than subjects who were in a Control group, (3) that fifth-grade subjects who have participated in Communication Skills training will not report significantly higher scores on the Piers-Harris self-concept scale than subjects who were in a Control group.

Hypotheses one and two were accepted. Hypothesis three was rejected at the .001 level of confidence.

It was concluded that increased positive acceptance of self in the fifth-grade subjects was significantly related to Communication Skills training. Control group data affirmed that changes in self-concept did not occur within the environment created by conventional teaching methods. While the differences between groups on the learning task were not significant, they were in the predicted direction, when post-treatment scores were compared to pre-treatment scores. Further research, with a longer treatment period, may show a more significant relationship between Communication Skills training and Paired-Associates Learning.

This thesis has been examined and approved.

Hubert A. Hardy

Thesis advisor, Hubert A. Hardy

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I would like to extend my appreciation to Dr. Hubert A. Hardy for the suggestions he made in the design and final report of the study.

To the students in my class at the University of New Hampshire who gave so freely of their time and of themselves as group leaders in this study, I am especially obligated.

I would like to thank Mr. George Rivers, principal of Garrison Hill School in Dover, New Hampshire, for his interest in promoting research and for the support he gave this project. To Mrs. Barbara Caswell and Mr. Clarence Kean, fifth grade teachers, I owe a special debt for their cooperation.

The cooperation and interest of the children who participated in this research is gratefully acknowledged.

To my family and friends, I am, as ever, grateful for their interest and loving support.

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INTRODUCTION

The affective domain of human development has long been largely ignored in the elementary school classroom. Children often must cope with feelings covertly, peripheral to the classroom experience, or completely outside of it with friends or a counselor or most likely alone. The feelings of a child who fails a test or who is ridiculed by peers are just as potent as those of his father who may lose his job or of his mother who is unable to make friends. The child's feelings should not be ignored in the classroom any more than his father's or mother's when the crisis occurs. John Holt (1964) describes teaching as a process of mutual discovery, interaction, and exploration of the self as well as of other people and subject matter. This kind of teaching requires that the affective side of human development be considered an integral part of all learning. The teacher needs not only to recognize the importance of communication skills but also to teach them daily by her behavior and also by making them explicit through daily lessons. It is also necessary to provide a classroom environment where children and teachers interact in an open and honest way, so children will experience this way of approaching the human problems they encounter (ASCD Yearbook, 1962).

If children have been in a traditional school situation for three or four years, it appears that definite training in communication skills where children are encouraged to talk about their feelings and significant experiences is needed (Moustakas, 1969).

For many young people, the school is second only to the home as a determiner of the self-concept. When a child is valued and respected, he learns to value and respect himself. A child learns who he is from the ways in which he is treated by those who surround him (Combs, 1962).

Two decades ago there were many expectations that the use of group process procedures in the classroom would lead to the education of the whole child. These expectations have not led to extensive, solid work until very recently. Except for an article by Trow and others (1950), the continued work of Thilen (1950, 1954, 1960), and its extensions (Flanders, 1954, 1960) and earlier work at Teachers College, Columbia University (Miel, 1952; Cunningham, 1951), there has been little inquiry into attempts to establish a procedure to incorporate the insights of group process training into regular classroom situations.

Beginnings have been made. Jensen and Parsons (1959) contributed to group process procedures in a review of classroom-relevant studies. Even though there have recently been an impressive number of classroom group behavior studies stimulated by the Co-operative Research Branch (see Office of Education, 1962), we still have no widespread use of models by which to teach elementary school children how to communicate

In the past few years, several projects have been started in which the affective and cognitive aspects of learning have been combined. George Issac Brown, director of the Ford-Esalen Project, developed sample lessons combining affective learning with the traditional public school curriculum. James J. Foley, director of the Human Relations Educational Project of Western New York, has been successful in using inductive learning experiences in the affective domain to improve interpersonal relations. Gerald Weinstein and Mario Fantini, supported by the Ford Foundation, concentrated their explorations in the realm of affect to develop a model for curriculum development that leads toward a more humanistic education. Terry Borton, Harold C. Lyon, Jr., and Carl Rogers are also members of the gradually growing group of people interested in humanistic education.

In the present investigation, the writer is concerned with the exploration of the merits of affective education through the inclusion and evaluation of learning experiences designed to improve interpersonal relationships in fifth grade children.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study was to show that communication skills training could help fifth grade students improve not only their self-concepts but also their learning ability. Certain notions, partly substantiated by research, were used to design this study to provide empirical evidence upon which to base these beliefs. The notions upon which this study is based are:

1. that communication skills should be an integral part of the curriculum of the elementary school;
2. that communication skills can be taught effectively by classroom teachers, parents, and older students who have a minimum amount of training in interpersonal relations and group process skills;
3. that communication skills training can lead tc an increase in positive self-concept;
4. that communication skills training can be effective in increasing learning;
5. that the common concerns which exist among children in regard to their relationships with others can be used to develop lessons that encourage children to deal with themselves and others in such a way that these concerns no longer interfere with the

formation of positive self-concepts and with learning ability.

The present study was designed to substantiate the statements listed above.

HYPOTHESES

The following null hypotheses were tested:

(1) Fifth-grade subjects who have participated in Communication Skills Training will not require significantly fewer trials to meet the criterion of mastery in a Paired-Associates Learning task than subjects who were in a Control group. The statistical significance level was set at $p < .05$.

(2) Fifth-grade subjects who have participated in Communication Skills Training will not make significantly fewer errors in meeting the criterion of mastery in a Paired-Associates Learning task than subjects who were in a Control group. The statistical significance level was set at $p < .05$.

(3) Fifth-grade subjects who have participated in Communication Skills Training will not report significantly higher scores on the Piers-Harris Self-Concept scale than subjects who were in a Control group. The statistical significance level was set at $p < .05$.

CHAPTER I

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The central purpose of this review is to present a theoretical framework bearing on the influence of peer and adult relationships to self-concept and school achievement. A second purpose is to present a theoretical framework bearing on the relationship of communication skills training to self-concept and school achievement.

Outline of Relevant Research

The literature discussed in this chapter was selected for relevance to the following aspects of this study:

1. The development of a strong self-concept seems to depend upon many inter-related factors.
2. Achievement depends, to a large degree, on feelings of self-worth.
3. Relationships with significant others are important in the development of the self-concept.
4. The self-concept can be changed when an individual experiences a therapeutic relationship.
5. The theory, upon which the Communication Skills Training is based, is a blend of several philosophical and theoretical formulations.

The research that is relevant to the central purpose of this review, the influence of significant relationships on the self-concept and school achievement, is described in the following section.

1. Development of a Strong Self-Concept

The development of a strong self-concept seems to depend on many inter-related factors. These factors include: self-value; self-acceptance and acceptance by others; accurate self-perception; congruence between ideal and actual self-concept; achievement; and relationships with significant others.

Self-Value Related to the Development of a Strong Self-Concept

The degree to which an individual is able to value himself determines the degree to which he is able to lead a confident, productive existence.

"All people in our society (with a few pathological exceptions) have a need or desire for a stable, firmly based, usually high evaluation of themselves, for self-respect, or self-esteem, and for the esteem of others." (Maslow, 1954, p. 90). The place of self-value in behavior is supported by data from other sources. "It seems that nowhere and at no time on this once vast globe has man been able to perform effectively unless he had a basic sentiment of self-value. Unless the individual feels worthwhile, life grinds to a halt" (Becker, 1964, p. 113). Becker states that acting for long without self-value creates damaging effects on an

individual's personality. "Satisfaction of the self-esteem need leads to feelings of self-confidence, worth, strength, capability, and adequacy, of being useful and necessary to the world, but thwarting of this need produces feelings of inferiority, of weakness and helplessness" (Maslow, 1954, p. 91). Maslow and Becker both support the idea that everyone needs to feel confident of his value if he is to reach toward a full and rewarding life. Feelings of inadequacy lead one to behave in an inferior manner.

Self-Acceptance and Acceptance by Others Related to the Development of a Strong Self-Concept

Closely related to self-value is self-acceptance. Self-acceptance and acceptance of others is a circular process with each factor reinforcing the other. Hurlock (1964) identified self-acceptance as an aspect of the self-concept. She saw self-acceptance as self-confidence evidenced by willingness to cope with various life problems. She found that self-acceptance occurred when an individual accepted other people as well as feeling accepted by them. Sheerer (1949) describes the accepting person as an individual who recognizes not only his weaknesses but also the abilities and good qualities that he finds in himself.

An individual's perception of his physical appearance and size and athletic ability seems to influence his self-evaluation. Creelman (1954) found that appearance was an important factor in the self-evaluation of fifth-grade girls. Capple (1961), in a study of 102 fifth-grade boys, suggested

that others' judgements of their skills, especially motor skills, affected the self-concept of these boys. An individual's self-perception depends to a great extent on the way he perceives that significant others evaluate him. Sears (1963) also bears this out in a study of middle-grade girls whose self-reports of physical ability were related positively to teacher's ratings of physical activity. Sears also suggested that this self-concept of physical ability influenced not only social life but also general attitudes toward school. Gordon (1959) reports similar findings in a study that indicated that a child's perception of the way that others regard his physique, physical size and appearance, affects his self-attitude.

The degree to which a person is accepted by others seems to be influenced by his acceptance of himself. Helper (1958) found that boys who showed greater self-acceptance were more popular on sociometric indices. This concept was generalized by Jersild (1952) when he inferred that there is a positive correlation between relationships with other people and knowledge and acceptance of the self.

Accurate Self-Perception Related to the Development of a Strong Self-Concept

The knowledge of the self that Jersild mentions includes the self-insight necessary to make an accurate evaluation of the self. Having accurate self-perceptions contributes to good adjustment. Two studies conducted by Rogers (1948) emphasize the importance of an accurate self-

evaluation. This research, based on case records of delinquent adolescents, showed positive correlations with later adjustments, with self-insight yielding the highest correlations. The factors most related to later adjustment were realistic perceptions of self and environment and self-acceptance.

Ausbubel, Schiff, and Gaser (1952) found in their study of sociempathic ability (perception of own and others' sociometric status) in several grade levels (3-12) a high positive correlation between measures of actual and predicted sociometic status. Most of the accepted children were accurate in their prediction of how they would be rated by their peers. This indicates that accuracy of self-perception may be a necessary condition for acceptance by others.

Congruence Between Ideal and Actual Self-Concept and the Development of a Strong Self-Concept

Another factor affecting the development of a strong self-concept is the amount of congruence between the ideal and the actual self-concepts.

Most children seem to have some notion about who they really are, and about the way they would like to be. The child's self-concept is his honest evaluation of himself, while the ideal-self is the way he'd like others to perceive him. Bigge and Hunt (1962) suggest that many people identify the ideal-self with "conscience". As a child evaluates his behavior against an ideal (which may be what the significant adults in his life say, by words or actions, that he should be), the ideal-self emerges.

Low congruence between the real and ideal-self descriptions almost always results in low self-esteem and poor adjustment (Rogers and Dymond, 1954). This lack of congruence is shown in different ways by different people. Children often try to hide their low self-esteem by showing a facade of imagined superiority and behaving in ways to attract attention to themselves (Bonime, 1954). Or a child may set low goals for himself because of his fear of failure. In setting low goals, he tries to camouflage feelings of inadequacy. He also may stay away from activities which will bring prominence and leadership because of his lack of confidence in his ability (Thompson, Gardner, and DiVesta, 1950).

Feelings of inadequacy are generated by a large discrepancy between what a person believes he can do and what he believes he should do. A person is better able to function nearer his potential when his ideal and actual self-concepts are congruent.

2. Achievement

Achievement depends to a large degree on feelings of self-worth. Combs and Snygg (1959), in their perceptual approach to individual behavior, believe that a child learns what he perceives he is able to learn.

Establishment of a Positive Relationship Between Achievement and Self-Concept

A study in this area (Wormell, 1963) revealed a circular relationship between the perception of self and the

utilization of intellectual ability, one reinforcing the other. Low achievers appeared to be acquiring negative learnings about the self while in the process of failing to reach their academic potentials. Once a child has established a pattern of academic failure in school it is very difficult to change this self-validating experience. After a child has failed, according to Borislow (1961), he has a poor conception of himself as a student regardless of the value he places on scholastic achievement.

Many studies relating achievement and self-concept agree that there is a positive relationship between the two. Generally when an individual's achievement goes up, his self-concept becomes more positive. In intensive case studies of six elementary school children, White (1963) found academic achievement in general harmony with concept of self. Fink (1962) found this relationship to be especially true for boys. Shaw, et. al. (1960), Lowther (1961) and Roth (1959) all found a positive correlation between achievement and self-concept.

Reading is often considered one of the more important subjects taught in the elementary schools. Lamy (1962), Carlton (1963), and Bodwin (1957) found that personal adequacy and adequacy in dealing with various aspects of the child's world were found to be positively related to success in reading.

Achievement, as commonly measured within the public schools, seems to depend to a large extent on the feelings of general adequacy of the individual. Intelligence and

attitudes of significant others in a child's life also contribute to his general functioning.

Relationship of Intelligence to Achievement

Intelligence as a factor in achievement may not be as significant as many educators consider it to be. Harris (1960) reported that an extremely large number of researchers using various tests and various criteria of scholastic achievement have found the correlation of intelligence and achievement in school to be rather low (.40 to .50 range).

Relationship of Significant Adults to Achievement

Perhaps children should have more choice in selecting their teachers. Schumuck and Van Egmond (1965) suggest that congruence between a child's and teacher's attitudes and a child's expressed satisfaction with his teacher are important influences upon academic achievement. It also appears to be important for parents to be positive in their attitudes toward school if they want their daughters to achieve at a high level. Schmuck and Van Egmond found that perception of parents' attitudes toward school seemed to be important to girls.

Self-concept, intelligence, adult and peer attitudes are all factors that influence school achievement. This research suggests that there may be many more variables confounding the relationship between achievement and reported self-concept.

3. Relationships With Significant Others

The single most important influence in the development of the self-concept seems to be interaction with other people. "It is to be expected that the things which an individual sees and believes about himself are, to an extent, determined by what others believe about him. Such a view is clearly in accordance with the writings of Cameron, Cooley, Mead, Newcomb, Rogers, Sullivan, and Snygg and Combs" (Manis, 1955, p. 362). The way that the child perceives that he is regarded by those important to him is significantly and positively correlated with the self-concept (Brookover, et al., 1964). Videbeck (1960) reinforces this viewpoint that the attitudes of others greatly influence an individual's self-perception. Videbeck found that the disapproving reactions of a significant other resulted in a significant decrease in self-regard. Kohn (1961) also concluded that evaluations made by others influence self-evaluations.

Influence of Peer Attitudes on the Self-Concept

Children of certain ages seem to be particularly influenced by the attitudes of their peers. Barclay (1965) suggested that children can be influenced to adopt a particular behavior because of the opinions of their peers. In a study of 226 fifth-grade subjects, parents and classmates each evaluated the subjects. The self-peer relationship and the self-parent were both positive for evaluative

ratings and activity ratings. The finding of Waisman (1962) also indicates the importance of peer attitudes to young adolescents. Waisman concluded that young adolescents reflect the group's attitude toward them in their perceptions of themselves. Relationships with significant others are very important in forming and reinforcing self-attitudes.

4. Modifying The Self-Concept

Research indicates that the self-concept is slow to change but also suggests the possibility of modifying it through certain kinds of relationship with others. A therapeutic relationship seems to be necessary for a person to change attitudes. A therapeutic relationship will be discussed in more detail in a later section.

Influence of a Therapeutic Relationship on the Self-Concept

Studies by Raimy, Rogers, Hartly, and others indicate that the following changes in the self-concept do occur in therapy (where a therapeutic relationship exists): 1) the self becomes more positive; 2) it becomes more congruent with the self-ideal; 3) it becomes more self-consistent (Taylor, 1952). This supports the thesis that changes in self-evaluations do occur when a therapeutic relationship exists.

Influence of a Good Friendship on the Self-Concept

A good friendship is a kind of therapeutic relationship, and "When an individual's friends do not confirm his beliefs,

he will seek to increase confirmation by (a) exerting pressure on them to change their views, (b) correcting his own mistaken impressions, or (c) simultaneously following both of these courses of action" (Manis, 1955, p. 362).

Influence of Group Counseling on the Self-Concept

Group counseling also is characterized by a therapeutic relationship. Chaplan (1957) found that boys (ages 12-15) who participated in group counseling and directed social relations were able to increase the correlation between their self and ideal-selves over a school term.

Influence of Classroom Teacher on the Self-Concept

A classroom teacher can also provide a therapeutic relationship for a student or a group of students. Perkins (1958) found in a study that sixth-grade subjects were able to increase their self-ideal-self congruencies with the help of their classroom teacher who had completed an in-service child study program.

Changes in self-concept do occur in therapy, good friendships, group-counseling, and in the classroom. The element common to all of these situations is a therapeutic relationship. The next section will discuss further the necessity of the existence of a therapeutic relationship in order for significant changes to occur in the structure of the self-concept.

The problem that is presented by the research and the one accepted by the experimenter then is to provide an

environment that will break the cycle of failure and make it possible for each individual in the Treatment group to experience success in interpersonal relationships and as a result, to experience positive changes in self-concept and achievement.

5. Theory Formulation for Communication Skills Training

Since man is: (1) a reactive being who can be conditioned and reconditioned; (2) a being who is in the process of becoming; and (3) a being who develops and changes (his self-concept) in complex inter-relations with others, this researcher has attempted to combine many theories in developing the Communication Skills Training provided for the Treatment group in this study.

Communication Skills Training: A Blend of Many Theories

In order to form a more complete approach, the blending of client-centered counseling; and group process, T-group, and social learning theories with an existential orientation was attempted. These theories all share a common view of human beings (Patterson 1966). An individual is capable of changing; an individual experiences pain or unpleasantness in the presence of conflict; and an individual's behavior is influenced by anticipations, hopes, or expectations.

The Therapeutic Relationship: Its Importance and Definition

Another unifying element is that all the therapies, to different extents, depend on a relationship. Goldstein

(1962, p. 105), in reviewing the literature concerning this subject, stated, "There can no longer be any doubt as to the primary status which must be accorded the therapeutic relationship in the over-all therapeutic transaction."

Thus, this therapeutic relationship is not only very important but very complex, with many various aspects. Patterson (1966, p. 500) describes it in the following way: "It is not simply a cognitive intellectual, impersonal relationship, but an affective, experiential, highly personal relationship. It is not necessarily irrational, but it has nonrational aspects. The nature of man's tie to his fellow man is essentially affective."

The therapeutic relationship is characterized by openness, sincerity, spontaneity, acceptance, caring, and trust. If these characteristics can be experienced by all members of a group, the relationship will be more effective. Within this relationship, an individual is able to experience thoughts and feelings that he might otherwise find too threatening. Patterson (1966) also points out that since most problems involve interpersonal relations, that the therapeutic relationship provides the needed opportunity for an individual to practice effective interpersonal relations. This approach would seem to lead to the generalization of attitudes learned within the process to relationships outside therapy.

The Importance of Genuineness in the Therapeutic Relationship

It appears that a person doesn't necessarily need to be a highly trained therapist in order to provide a therapeutic relationship; the self of the individual and the way in which he behaves are more important than his techniques and what he does (Patterson, 1966). Rogers (1961, p. 269) notes that "some of the recent studies suggest that a warmly human and genuine therapist (individual), interested only in understanding the moment-by-moment feelings of this person who is coming into being in the relationship with him, is the most effective therapist (individual)." Then one of the necessary conditions for a therapeutic relationship is genuineness or self-congruence.

The Importance of Self-Disclosure to the Therapeutic Relationship and Growth

Maintaining privacy of feelings of inadequacy perpetuates for each child the notion that he is unique in experiencing these feelings. For the child to realize that feelings of inadequacy are experienced by everyone at one time or another, to dispel this "delusion of uniqueness", as Harry Stack Sullivan describes this phenomenon, he needs to learn to be open in expressing negative feelings. Jourard (1961) found a highly significant correlation between self-disclosure scores of student nurses and their grades during their junior and senior years. Mower (1964) in his relationship approach, also stresses the therapeutic value of openness and self-disclosure.

The Focus of Communication Skills Training

The Communication Skills Training (provided for the Treatment group in this study) is concerned with immediate experience from a perceiver's point of view. Patterson (1966) summarizes this phenomenological viewpoint in the following way: an individual's behavior is affected by learned perceptions; social interaction forms the self which is directed toward its own fulfillment; and each self is unique as determiner of individual perceptions and behaviors. These three statements, which influenced the development of the Communication Skills Training, are supported by the research cited earlier.

6. Contributions From Each School of Thought

Existential

The existential orientation included a focus on the here and now, with the past and future involved only insofar as they enter into the present experience. An individual fulfills his inner potential by continued participation in a world of things and events and always in encounters or dialogues with others (Patterson, 1966).

Client-Centered

A description of the necessary conditions for a therapeutic relationship to occur (see above) and a philosophical rationale were provided by client-centered therapy. This rationale provides the basic assumptions concerning the nature of man. Each individual is unique, basically rational,

socialized, forward-moving and realistic. Antisocial emotions, like jealousy and hostility, do exist, but they are reactions to the frustrations of more basic impulses like security, love, and belonging. If an individual's basic needs are met, his actions will be positive, forward-moving, and constructive.

An individual posseses the capacity to become aware of his psychological maladjustment and to move toward adjustment when he can experience a therapeutic relationship. This relationship liberates an already existing tendency toward self-actualization. Philosophically an individual has the capacity to guide, regulate, and control himself when he is provided with reasonable conditions for growth.

Social Learning Theory

Rotter's social learning approach emphasizes the importance of the social aspects of learning and behavior, the current experiences of the child in his social reactions with others, and his behavior outside of the therapy group. It is recognized that the goals the individual has may be desirable but that he may need help in developing alternate pathways to reach them. "Inappropriate behaviors indicate a failure to make discriminations among social situations. Insight into others, including their thoughts, feelings, and expectations is as necessary as insight into oneself" (Patterson, 1966, p. 241).

Rotter's theory uses structuring to get an individual to attend and react to major concerns instead of leaving the

situation ambiguous. Structuring was also used for this purpose in the Communication Skills Training.

Group Process and T-Group

Group process was used to help the children "work together to release an emergent quality, called psychological climate, group morale, esprit de corps, or cooperative unity, through which each discovers and develops his inner capacitities, realizes better the nature of his self, releases more of his past experiences, and learns how to create this emergent quality in all life situations" (Hopkins, 1964, p. 92). Some of the goals for group behavior were taken from T-group theory. (Listed below.) The goals toward which the individuals of each group worked were divided into the following four categories: Self-Awareness, Self-Confidence, Awareness of Others, and Social Interaction. At the end of each group session, each child evaluated his participation for the day on scales developed by the children in each group. The scales contained most of the following ideas.

Self-Awareness

1. Participates spontaneously--alternates supporting and building.
2. Shows awareness of the impact of his behavior.

Self-Confidence

1. States feelings openly, honestly, and explicitly in the group.

2. Demonstrates acceptance for the feelings and ideas of others.
3. Willing to try new behaviors.

Awareness of Others

1. Listens to others.
2. Disagrees without deflating status.
3. Asks others to express feelings about procedures or ideas.
4. Adjusts behavior to be thoughtful and benefit others.

Social Interaction

1. Helps to diagnose problems.
2. Involves nonparticipants.
3. Clarifies the point of discussion.
4. Requests information.
5. Summarizes.
6. Tests group committment by testing consensus.
7. Keeps the discussion on the track.
8. Gives helpful feedback.
9. Accepts feedback in a non-defensive manner.
10. Relates own feelings to group activity.
11. Suggests actions, plans, use of resources.

7. Summary

Affective education is not considered to be an integral part of the curriculum in most elementary schools in spite of the fact that research has shown that children need definite training and encouragement in dealing with their problems, especially with those that occur in their relations with others. The growing interest in affective education has not as yet resulted in any wide spread use of models to encourage good interpersonal communication within the elementary schools.

There appears to be a circular relationship between a positive self-concept and good interpersonal relationships. It is difficult to determine which comes first: a strong self-concept or good interpersonal relationships. The most likely hypothesis is that the two factors constantly reinforce each other and that their development is concomitant. The same circular relationship seems to exist between achievement and self-concept.

The large body of research on the self-concept indicates that it is very complex, but capable of being modified in a positive direction. It appears that one of the necessary conditions in the modification of the self-concept is the provision of an environment where a therapeutic relationship can be experienced. The therapeutic relationship is characterized by openness, honesty, unconditional positive regard, caring, spontaneity, trust, genuineness, empathy, and understanding.

The purpose of this study is to determine the effects of Communication Skills Training on the self-concept and learning ability of fifth-grade children. In order to modify the self-concept, it is necessary to help children deal in a personal way with problems of social interaction about which they feel a concern since the self-concept is largely determined through interactions with significant others.

The basic concerns that children experience in social interactions are: "concern about self-image," "concern about disconnectedness," and "concern about control over one's life" (Weinstein and Fantini, 1970, p. 39). These concerns formed the basis for the content of the Communication Skills Lessons given the Treatment group in this study. The process was determined by a blending of client-centered counseling, group process, T-group, and social learning theory with an existential orientation.

CHAPTER II

PROCEDURE OF THE STUDY

1. The Subjects

The subjects were sixty fifth-grade students at the Garrison Hill School in Dover, New Hampshire. The principal assigned the school's only two self-contained fifth grade classes to the study at the request of the writer.

Fifteen subjects from each classroom were randomly assigned to the treatment group. The remaining thirty subjects became the control group.

The subjects in the treatment group were randomly subdivided into six sections of five each (stratified by sex). All the members of three groups were from Room One and all the members of the other three groups were from Room Two.

Each section was arbitrarily assigned one male and one female group leader.

The subjects in the control group remained in their own classrooms during the treatment period and were expected to do regular class work. This may have been disrupted in some cases. In any event, each child received more individual teacher attention than in the usual classroom procedures since only fifteen children, instead of thirty, remained in each classroom during the treatment periods.

The subjects in the Treatment group went to another classroom for the communication skills training.

2. The Test Instruments

Two test instruments were used: (1) the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and (2) a Paired-Associates Learning Task. All subjects took both tests twice: (1) the Experimental group prior to and following communication skills training and (2) the Control group at the same time as the Treatment group but was given no communication skills training between testings. A description of the two instruments follows:

Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale

The Piers-Harris (1964) scale, proven to be a reliable measure of self-evaluation for children, is treated in this study as a set of items descriptive of the phenomenal self. Dr. Ruth Wylie, well known for her work in the field of self-concept measurement (Wylie, 1961), recommended this scale, in a personal letter written to R. J. Farls, (1967, p. 32) as being one of the best of its kind as a self-report instrument for the measurement of the self-concept in children.

This scale describes each subject on the basis of items which he selects as being true or untrue of his usual behavior. The differences between the scores on the pre- and post-tests were used to compare the change in self-concepts in the treatment and control groups. A description of the steps taken by E. H. Piers and D. B. Harris (1964) in

developing this instrument follows.

The first step was to develop the items for the scale. Piers and Harris used Jersild's (1952) collection of children's statements about what they liked or disliked about themselves to develop these items. The items were written as simple declarative statements, e.g., "I am smart." In order to reduce the effects of acquiescence at least half of the items were negative in content, (e.g., "I do many bad things.")

Originally 164 statements were included on an inventory titled "The Way I Feel About Myself". The scale was administered to ninety subjects from the third-, fourth-, and sixth-grade classes in a small school. The items were read aloud as the children circled a "yes" if the items were true for them and a "no" if it were not true for them.

This pilot study demonstrated that the children understood the items. Items that were answered in one direction by fewer than 10% or more than 90% were for the most part dropped. Since the instrument was designed to identify deviant children as well as establish norms, a few of these items were retained.

The scale, which now included 140 items, was administered to children in several different schools representing a cross section of socioeconomic levels. These children were members of four third-grade classes, four sixth-grade classes, and four tenth-grade classes.

Three judges classified the items as reflecting adequate (high) or inadequate (low) self-concept to enable accurate scoring. Ninety-five of the items were classified and scored. The mean for "high" scores based on the 95 items demonstrated that sex was not a significant variable. The third- and tenth-grade classes were found not to be significantly different from each other.

Test-retest reliability was r = .71. It was deemed satisfactory by Piers and Harris since some change might be expected over a four months period.

The present scale constitutes the eighty items that met the two criteria of being answered in the expected direction by half or over half of the group and whether the item significantly discriminated between the thirty highest and thirty lowest scores of the sixth grade sample at the .05 level (Cureton's chi-test) or better.

The following instructions, suggested by Piers and Harris (1969, p. 1) were read prior to the administration of the instrument.

> Here are a set of statements. Some of them are true of you and so you will circle yes. Some are not true of you and so you will circle the no. Answer every question even if some are hard to decide, but do not circle both yes and no. Remember, circle the yes if the statement is generally like you, or circle the no if the statement is generally not like you. There are no right or wrong answers. Only you can tell us how you feel about yourself, so we hope you will mark the way you really feel inside.

Paired-Associates Learning Task

A learning task was used in this study in an attempt to measure the results of communication skills training on learning. A paired-associates task provided a situation that was free from subjective bias on the part of raters. During the past decade research in verbal learning and retention has grown rapidly. The four major types of learning situations used for experimental purposes include: serial, paired-associates, free-recall, and extended serial or contextual. Associative learning was chosen for this study "because it is basic to many other and more complex forms of learning: for example; the association very early in a child's school experience of symbols that go together to make words in learning to read; to association of events in history; the association of concepts in arithmetic, etc." (Hardy, 1966, p. 11).

"The paired-associate task consists of a series of pairs of items in which one item of the pair serves as a stimulus and the second item as a response" (Hall, 1971, p. 8). The learning task used was similar and the administration was the same as used in a study by Hardy (1966). The learning materials consisted of two spiral notebooks each containing twelve five-by-eight pages. Eleven of the pages in each notebook contained outline drawings of common objects. The choice of drawings was made through a random selection from fifty drawings of common objects familiar to fifth grade children. In constructing the list of paired-associates an

attempt was made to make sure that a previously established associative relationship did not exist between any of the pairs used.

In Notebook One two outline drawings appeared on each of the eleven pages. These pairs of pictures included: glass-tree, bike-hat, bed-nail, chair-apple, plate-ax, house-kite, saw-window, bus-cat, gun-boat, car-fish, flower-pencil. The first page (glass-tree) was used for instructional purposes. One blank page appeared between the sample page and the stimulus pages.

The second picture of each stimulus pair appeared on each of the eleven pages of Notebook Two. These were: ____ tree, ____hat, ____nail, ____apple, ____ax, ____kite, ____ window, ____cat, ____boat, ____fish, ____pencil. The first page was again used for instruction and the other ten pages as test pages. One blank page placed between the sample page and test pages was included in this notebook also.

The read or study-test method was used to present the paired-associates learning task since it seemed to more nearly resemble more of the teaching taking place in public schools than the anticipation or prompting methods, two other common methods used in presenting paired-associates. "In the recall method the stimulus and response pair is presented together for a fixed interval of time that constitutes the study trial. The test trial follows and consists of presenting the stimuli, with the individual providing as many of the responses as can be recalled. This

test trial is followed by a second study trial, then a second test trial, etc." (Hall, 1971, p. 879).

The following instructions were given each subject preceding the administration of the learning task:

> Here are a number of pages (the examiner opens Notebook One). Each page has two pictures on it (the examiner shows the subject the sample pair, namely glass-tree, and says:) Look at both pictures on each page carefully. (The examiner then closes Notebook One and opens Notebook Two and shows subject the second picture of the sample page namely, tree, and says:) Then I will show you another set of pages like these. You are to tell me what picture went with this first picture. (The examiner pauses for the answer.) What you are supposed to do is remember which two pictures go together. Now as you see the two pictures together try to remember what two pictures were together.

The ten paired pictures were each shown to the subjects for an interval of three seconds. The second picture of each pair from Notebook Two was then presented at the rate of one every five seconds.

Each response of the subject was recorded on the individual record sheet by the examiner. An individual record was kept for each subject on which was recorded the name and the number of errors and trials which were required to reach the criterion of one complete errorless learning of all ten pairs. Additional trials were given following the same procedure until the subjects were able to make ten correct responses. Ten seconds were given between the trials.

> (Between trials, the examiner says:) Now we shall look at the pictures again. Try to remember what two pictures were together. (If the subject asks about the test, the examiner says:) We shall keep looking at the pairs of pictures until you remember them all.

Each subject was tested individually seated opposite the examiner at a small table.

3. The Treatment: Communication Skills Training

According to the Meadian position (G. H. Mead, 1934), the experimenter assumed that each individual wants to be part of a social system. Failure in becoming a part of a group may be the result of not developing a complete social self. Developing a social self depends upon learning how to successfully take the roles of others in evaluating one's own positions in the social system. Mussen and Conger (1956) are in general agreement with the conception that much of the child's school socialization depends upon his ability to learn the interests, attitudes, and values of his peer group. Upon this depends the acceptance or rejection within his peer group. Thus one of the major objectives of the Communication Skills Training sessions was to help each child improve his interpersonal relationships with his peers and the adults leading the group and thus increase his self-esteem. A summary of the lessons for each Communcation Skills Training session may be found in Appendix A.

Communication Skills

The training began after the administration of the Paired-Associates Learning Task and the Piers-Harris Self-Concept scale on November the fifteenth and ended on December the eighth. The treatment was given in fifteen forty-minute

periods. These periods were consecutive school days except for a break of three days at Thanksgiving. The experimental group, sub-divided into six groups, three groups of five from each of the participating classrooms, met for fifteen sessions. Group meetings were scheduled for the period following the lunchtime recess. Each treatment group was led by a male and a female University of New Hampshire student who was randomly assigned to the groups. The same treatment was given in one room at one time to all thirty subjects in the treatment group. At times this was rather distracting, with thirty children and twelve adults working together in small groups in a standard size classroom which included only hard-surfaced walls, floors, and furniture. The noise level could have been somewhat diminished with the use of rugs, draperies, and soft furniture. The group leaders reported that because of the noise level some of the children found it difficult to concentrate on the activities of their own groups without being distracted by the other groups' behavior. This may have had some effect on difference between the treatment and the control groups.

Leader Training

The training of the leaders consisted of six four-hour workshops to help them acquire perceptual capabilities essential for group thought and action. The training allowed the student leaders to examine interpersonal skills and practice them affectively. The giving and receiving of feedback concerning perceptions of behavior was an integral part

of each meeting. In order to insure consistency of approach, all twelve group leaders participated in training prior to the study and also met for feedback and planning sessions after each group session.

Communications Skills Sessions

The same format that was used for the college students was adapted for the treatment sessions given the fifth grade subjects. The lessons emphasized the development of self and other awareness skills. A developmental sequence of awareness skills, established by Weinstein and Fantini (1970), was helpful in developing the lessons. These include:

1. recognizing and describing own feelings and behavior;
2. understanding how others see and describe their feelings and behavior;
3. comparing own feeling and behavior responses with others;
4. recognizing various responses and their consequences;
5. testing alternative behavior patterns;
6. deciding which behaviorial responses to use.

The treatment is based on the hypothesis that the seeds of motivation are intrinsically contained in affective education. When a teacher encourages a child to deal with his inner concerns, she is validating his experiences and feelings.

In order to affect behavior, it is necessary to help the child deal in a personal way with problems of human conduct about which he feels a concern. Research conducted by social psychologists seems to suggest that there are common concerns shared by many children. Jack R. Gibb (1964) has identified four basic concerns that an individual experiences in social situations: fears about self-adequacy, data concerns, goal concerns, and control concerns. Gerald Weinstein and Mario Fantini (1970, p. 39) concluded from their studies that most concerns of children fall into the following broad classifications: concern about "self-image," concern about "disconnectedness," and concern about "control over one's life." These three concerns appear in a wide variety of sociopsychological theories of needs regardless of the number of needs listed. Maslow (1954) discusses seven needs, Murray (1938) lists twenty-five needs, Potter (1954) includes six needs, and McClelland (1953) develops his theory with the listing of three need areas. The experiential lessons were designed to give the children opportunities to deal with their concerns in the three areas identified by Weinstein and Fantini (1970, p. 39): "self-image," "disconnectedness," and "control over one's life."

The lessons first attempted to develop a sense of connectedness among the members of the groups. Developing a sense of connectedness seems to be a prerequisite for the development of feelings of control and positive self-regard in children (Weinstein and Fantini, 1970).

Lesson Objectives

The verbal communication that took place among the group members originated in the structured exercises designed to help the child:

1. to get in touch with his own feelings and the feelings of others;
2. to recognize that his feelings and behavior responses are sometimes similar to those of others and sometimes different;
3. to recognize how his behavior influences the behavior of others toward him;
4. to enlarge his repertoire of strategies for gaining identity and control.

Subject Rates Himself

Specific individual behavior was encouraged by having each child rate himself on a scale which he helped develop to evaluate his feelings and behavior during each training session. The rating was done in the following areas: Self-Awareness, Self-Confidence, Awareness of Others, and Social Interaction.

Leader Behavior

The leaders attempted to show unconditional positive regard for each child in such a way that the leaders were able to be congruent, spontaneous, and sincere in their behavior. They encouraged the subjects to be open, honest, caring, and trusting by trying to behave in this way themselves. They also tried to encourage good interpersonal

communication by reinforcing it when it occurred through recognition of the behavior in some way.

Group Process

The children were helped to work together to release a psychological climate where each group member could discover and develop his inner capabilities.

4. The Experimenters

In order to control for experimenter bias, two experimenters administered the Paired Associates learning task orally to an equal number of subjects on the pre- and post-administrations. Experimenter I administered the learning task individually to each subject in Class One and Experimenter II to each member of Class Two during the week prior to November 15 when the treatment started. At the completion of the treatment period, the same procedure was followed, with Experimenter I administering the task to Class Two and Experimenter II to Class One. Each experimenter administered the learning task only once to each subject in the study.

The Piers-Harris self-concept scale was administered by the principal investigator to Class One as a group and on the following day to Class Two during the week preceding the treatment. The same procedure was followed during the week following the completion of the treatment. To insure uniformity in administration, all four of the administrations of the Piers-Harris scale were made by one person.

5. Treatment of the Data

The empirical method used to test the hypotheses was that of determining the difference between the Treatment and Control groups by comparing the number of subjects above and below the median on each test. The significance of the difference between the two groups was accomplished by the use of a median test (chi-square).

The following section will establish the initial similarity of the Treatment and Control groups on the criteria of: Learning Task performance, self-concept index, and mental ability. Experimenter effect will also be discussed.

To show that the Treatment and Control groups were initially similar (before Treatment group participated in Communication Skills training), the pre-treatment test scores were statistically tested. The raw data may be found in Appendix B.

Establishment of the Similarity of the Treatment and Control Groups on Paired-Associates Learning Task Prior to Treatment

The following procedures were followed to find out whether there were any significant intergroup differences on the number of trials and the number of errors required for mastery of the Learning task.

(1) The scores, showing the number of trials required for mastery of the pre-treatment administration of the Learning task, of all subjects in the Treatment and Control groups, were used to determine the median.

(2) Using this median, the number of subjects above and below the median for the Treatment and for the Control groups was determined.

(3) A 2x2 contingency matrix was set up, and a chi-square test was made to determine whether the groups differed significantly on the number of trials it took their respective subjects to complete one errorless learning of the Paired-Associates task prior to treatment.

Table 1 summarizes the chi-square analysis performed on the pre-treatment scores (trials) on the Learning task.

TABLE 1. CHI-SQUARE MATRIX, VALUES, AND PROBABILITY LEVEL USING NUMBER OF SUBJECTS ABOVE AND BELOW MEDIAN ON NUMBER OF TRIALS TO MASTERY OF ALL SUBJECTS ON PRE-TREATMENT ADMINISTRATIONS OF LEARNING TASK

	Number Of Subjects			
	Control	Treatment	Chi-Square	p
Above Median	15	15	.067	$>.70$
Below Median	15	15		

The chi-square value obtained was not statistically significant (chi-square=.067; $p > .70$). This indicates that the Treatment and Control groups were not significantly different in performance on the Paired-Associates Learning task, as measured by the number of trials each subject required before reaching mastery of the task.

In order to provide additional confirmation of the similarity of the two groups prior to treatment on the learning task, a chi-square test was undertaken to determine whether the Treatment and Control groups differed significantly on the number of errors each subject made before reaching mastery of the task.

Table 2 summarizes the chi-square analysis performed on the pre-treatment scores (errors) on the learning task.

TABLE 2. CHI-SQUARE MATRIX, VALUES, AND PROBABILITY LEVEL USING NUMBER OF SUBJECTS ABOVE AND BELOW MEDIAN ON NUMBER OF ERRORS TO MASTERY OF ALL SUBJECTS ON PRE-TREATMENT ADMINISTRATION OF LEARNING TASK

	Number Of Subjects			
	Control	Treatment	Chi-Square	p
Above Median	14	16	.067	$> .70$
Below Median	16	14		

Again, the chi-square value obtained was not statistically significant (chi-square=.067; $p > .70$), demonstrating that the Treatment and Control groups were not significantly different as measured by the number of errors made to reach the criterion of mastery on the Paired-Associates learning task.

Establishment of the Similarity of the Treatment and Control Groups on Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale

The same procedures, outlined above, were used to establish the similarity of the Treatment and Control groups on the self-concept indices of the Piers-Harris scale.

Table 3 summarizes the chi-square analysis performed on the indices of the pre-treatment administration of the Piers-Harris scale.

TABLE 3. CHI-SQUARE MATRIX, VALUES, AND PROBABILITY LEVEL USING NUMBER OF SUBJECTS ABOVE AND BELOW MEDIAN ON SELF-CONCEPT INDICES OF ALL SUBJECTS ON PRE-TREATMENT ADMINISTRATION OF PIERS-HARRIS SCALE

	Number of Subjects			
	Control	Treatment	Chi-Square	p
Above Median	19	11	3.267	$> .05$
Below Median	11	19		

The chi-square value obtained was not statistically significant (chi-square=3.267; $p > .05$), indicating that the Treatment and Control groups were not significantly different in performance on the Piers-Harris scale prior to treatment.

Although not statistically significant, there was some tendency for Control group subjects to perform better on the Piers-Harris scale, nineteen subjects from the Control

group but only eleven from the Treatment group scored above the median. To control for this, post-treatment analysis was based on the relative difference between the two indices administered. This is explained more fully in a later section, Difference Scores.

Establishment of the Similarity of the Treatment and Control Groups in Mental Ability

Based on scores from the Otis-Lennon Mental Ability test, administered to forty-six of the sixty subjects, thirteen months prior to the initiation of this study, the median mental ability of the subjects fell in the fifth stanine, using National Age norms. The twenty-five available scores from the Treatment group yielded a median stanine of 5 while the median stanine of the twenty-one available scores from the Control group was 5.5. A t-test was computed to compare the Mental Ability stanines of the Treatment and Control groups. The t value obtained was not statistically significant ($t=1.23627$; $p > .10$). There was no significant difference between the Treatment and Control groups in mental ability as measured by performance on the Otis Lennon test.

Analysis of Possible Experimenter Effect on the Learning Task

An analysis was performed to determine whether an individual's Paired-Associates score for the number of trials needed to meet the criterion of mastery was a function of the examiner who administered the task to the subject. Since both of the examiners administered the task to each subject only

once, the number of trials required by each subject to reach mastery on both the pre- and post-treatment administrations of the learning task (120 scores) was used to determine the median. The same procedures used to determine intergroup similarities were again followed to determine if there were significantly more subjects above or below the median for either examiner.

Table 4 summarizes the chi-square analysis performed on the pre- and post-treatment Learning task scores (trials).

TABLE 4. CHI-SQUARE MATRIX, VALUES, AND PROBABILITY LEVEL USING NUMBER OF SUBJECTS ABOVE AND BELOW MEDIAN ON NUMBER OF TRIALS OF ALL SUBJECTS ON PRE- AND POST-TESTS OF LEARNING TASK BY TWO EXAMINERS

	Number of Subjects			
	Examiner I	Examiner II	Chi-Square	p
Above Median	32	28	.533	$>.30$
Below Median	27	33		

The chi-square obtained was not statistically significant (chi-square=.533, $p > .30$). It was concluded, therefore, that the subject's response (number of trials) to the oral administration of the Learning task was not significantly influenced by either examiner's administration of the task.

As an additional test of experimenter effect, data was analyzed in the same manner to determine whether an individual's

Paired-Associates score for the number of errors made to meet the criterion of mastery was a function of the examiner who administered the task to the subject.

Table 5 summarizes the chi-square analysis performed on the pre- and post-treatment Learning task scores (errors).

TABLE 5. CHI-SQUARE MATRIX, VALUES, AND PROBABILITY LEVEL USING NUMBER OF SUBJECTS ABOVE AND BELOW MEDIAN ON NUMBER OF ERRORS OF ALL SUBJECTS ON PRE- AND POST-TESTS OF LEARNING TASK BY TWO EXAMINERS

	Number of Subjects			
	Examiner I	Examiner II	Chi-Square	p
Above Median	27	33	.533	$>.30$
Below Median	32	28		

The chi-square obtained was not statistically significant (chi-square=.533; $p > .30$). It was, therefore, concluded that the subject's response (number of errors) to the oral administration of the Learning task again was not significantly influenced by either examiner's administration of the task.

All four administrations of the Piers-Harris scale were made in the same manner by the same examiner. Each administration included fifteen subjects from the Treatment group and fifteen subjects from the Control group.

Difference Scores

Difference scores were used for each subject on the Piers-Harris scale for the post-treatment analysis. The

difference scores were computed for each subject by subtracting the pre-test scores from the post-test scores. The signs of the difference scores were positive in the direction of improvement on the post-treatment indices.

Summary

It has been established that the Treatment and Control groups were not significantly different on the following variables: trials and errors on pre-treatment administrations of Learning task, pre-treatment indices of the Piers-Harris scale, and scores on the Otis-Lennon Mental Ability test.

The Hypotheses will be tested by determining the differences between the Treatment and Control groups through a comparison of the number of subjects above and below the median on each test. Chi-square will be used to test the statistical significance of the differences.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Following the procedures outlined in Chapter II the three Hypotheses were tested.

Hypothesis One Stated.-

Fifth-grade subjects who have participated in Communication Skills Training will not require significantly fewer trials to meet the criterion of mastery in a Paired-Associates Learning task than subjects who were in a Control group. This null hypothesis would be rejected if fifth grade subjects participating in Communication Skills Training should improve their performance by requiring significantly fewer trials to meet the criterion of mastery on the Paired-Associates Learning task than those who had not participated in Communication Skills Training experiences.

Establishment of Differences Between the Treatment and Control Groups on the Number of Trials and Errors Required for Mastery of the Post-Treatment Learning Task

A 2x2 contingency matrix was set up and a chi-square test was made to determine whether the Treatment and Control groups differed significantly on the number of trials it took their respective subjects to reach the criterion of mastery

on the Learning Task following Communication Skills training for the Treatment group.

Table 6 summarizes the chi-square analysis performed on the number of trials required by each subject to reach mastery of the Learning task.

TABLE 6. CHI-SQUARE MATRIX, VALUES, AND PROBABILITY LEVEL USING NUMBER OF SUBJECTS ABOVE AND BELOW MEDIAN ON NUMBER OF TRIALS TO MASTERY OF ALL SUBJECTS ON POST-TREATMENT ADMINISTRATIONS OF LEARNING TASK

	Control	Treatment	Chi-Square	p
Above Median	18	12	1.667	$< .20$
Below Median	12	18		

The chi-square value obtained was not statistically significant (chi-square=1.667; $p < .20$). This finding leads to the acceptance of null Hypothesis One.

Hypothesis Two Stated.-

Fifth grade subjects who have participated in Communication Skills Training will not make significantly fewer errors in meeting the criterion of mastery in a Paired-Associates Learning task than subjects who were in a Control group. This null Hypothesis would be rejected if the fifth grade subjects participating in Communication Skills Training groups should significantly improve their performance by making fewer errors in meeting the criterion of mastery of

the Paired-Associates task than those who had not participated in Communication Skills Training.

A 2x2 contingency matrix was set up and a chi-square test was made to determine whether the Treatment and Control groups differed significantly on the number of errors made by their respective subjects in mastering the Learning task following Communication Skills training.

Table 7 summarizes the chi-square analysis performed on the number of errors made by each subject to reach mastery of the learning task.

TABLE 7. CHI-SQUARE MATRIX, VALUES, AND PROBABILITY LEVEL USING NUMBER OF SUBJECTS ABOVE AND BELOW MEDIAN ON NUMBER OF ERRORS TO MASTERY OF ALL SUBJECTS ON POST-TREATMENT ADMINISTRATIONS OF LEARNING TASK

	Number of Subjects			
	Control	Treatment	Chi-Square	p
Above Median	18	12	1.667	$< .20$
Below Median	12	18		

The chi-square value obtained was not statistically significant for number of trials required (chi-square=1.667; $p < .20$). Thus Hypothesis Two was accepted.

Hypothesis Three Stated.-

Fifth grade subjects who have participated in Communication Skills Training will not report significantly more

positive self-concepts than subjects who were in a Control group. This null hypothesis would be rejected if the fifth grade subjects in the Treatment group (participating in the Communication Skills Training) should report significantly more positive self-concepts on the Piers-Harris scale than those in the Control group (not participating in the Communication Skills Training).

Establishment of Differences Between the Treatment and Control Groups on the Piers-Harris Scale Post-Treatment Administrations

To determine whether there was any statistically significant difference between the Treatment and Control groups on the pre- and post-treatment indices of the Piers-Harris scale, a 2x2 matrix was set up (following the procedures outlined in Chapter II) and a chi-square was computed.

Table 8 summarizes the chi-square analysis performed on the difference scores between the pre- and post-treatment indices of the Piers-Harris scale.

TABLE 8. CHI-SQUARE MATRIX, VALUES, AND PROBABILITY LEVEL USING NUMBER OF SUBJECTS ABOVE AND BELOW MEDIAN ON DIFFERENCE SCORES OF ALL SUBJECTS OF PIERS-HARRIS SCALE

	Number of Subjects			
	Control	Treatment	Chi-Square	p
Above Median	5	25	24.067	$< .001$
Below Median	25	5		

The test yielded a value that was statistically significant (chi-square=24.067: $p < .001$). This finding leads to the rejection of null Hypothesis Three.

Summary

The findings of this study did not allow the rejection of the first two null hypotheses. While the differences between the Treatment and Control groups on post-treatment scores were not statistically significant, they were definitely in the predicted direction, as indicated by the greater differences between the Treatment and Control groups found in the post-treatment scores (chi-square=1.667: $p < .20$) than in the pre-treatment scores (chi-square=.067; $p > .70$). Null Hypothesis Three was rejected indicating that Communication Skills Training does have a positive influence on the self-concepts of fifth-grade children.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY

Summary

Communication Skills Training given to the Treatment group in this study provided each child an opportunity to: (1) express his feelings about himself and others, (2) recognize that his feelings and behavior responses are sometimes similar and sometimes different from those of others, and (3) recognize that his behavior influences the behavior of others toward him. It was hypothesized from previous research that the behaviors described above would improve the interpersonal relationships of the subjects who participated in Communication Skills Training and thus increase their positive self-concepts. This notion was supported by the present study inasmuch as the reported self-attitudes of the subjects in the Treatment group were significantly more positive following treatment than the self-attitudes reported by the Control group.

The relationship between positive self-concept and school achievement, indicated by earlier research, was not supported in this study. Although the Treatment group did not require significantly fewer trials and make significantly fewer errors than the Control group on the post-treatment administrations of the learning task, the difference between

the groups was in the predicted direction. The reason that the results were not significant at a higher confidence level may be due to the length of the Treatment period and/or the type of test used to measure learning performance. Since a reorganization of many interrelated attitudes may be necessary to significantly change performance on the learning task, it seems reasonable to the writer that Communication Skills training given over a longer period of time might have a greater effect on the performance of the task. Further research is needed to determine the influence of these two variables.

There are implications in this research for the classroom teacher as well as for the counselor. The proposal of Arthur T. Jersild (1951) and others, that the curriculum in the public schools should contain a planned program to teach children to understand themselves and others from nursery school onward is supported by this study. "Let us recognize (in school practices) that the most important psychological facts in a child's life are his relationship with others and his relationship to himself" (Jersild, 1951, p. 126).

This study indicates that children are capable of facing, understanding, and dealing effectively with their problems if encouraged to do so in a therapeutic relationship. Many of our school practices have helped children evade rather than face the problems that occur in their lives. The school can be an important force in the enhancement of a child's self-concept because of the fact that much of the work with children is carried on in groups with caring adults. The

teachers, this writer has known, do care for their students, but may need help in expressing their feelings in effective ways to maximize and use group process constructively.

This work also supports some of the findings of Smith, Krouse, and Atkins (1961) who found the following implications for classroom procedures:

1. group relations are affected by the relationships between individuals;
2. self-acceptance is a large factor in a child's acceptance by others.

Elementary school counselors can be effective in influencing a larger number of students to reach toward their full potentials by working with classroom teachers in the role of Communication Skills trainers as well as training older students to work with the younger children in the schools. Parents and other community members can also be trained to work in classrooms as leaders for Communication Skills groups. These are some of the many ways that imaginative counselors can use Communication Skills training to help the school staff create an environment that encourages growth in all members of the school community.

SUMMARY

The present study was an investigation into the relationship of Communication Skills Training to rate of learning on a Paired-Associates Learning task and positive changes in self-concept following this training. The use of

the Paired-Associates Learning task in the present work provided a controlled, objectively measured learning situation.

Sixty, fifth grade pupils (two thirty-student self-contained classrooms) participated in the study.

Each classroom was randomly divided into two groups: Treatment and Control. Half of the children in each classroom were in the Treatment group and the other half in the Control group.

The self-concepts of all subjects were measured on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, a questionnaire specifically developed for children. The learning task was also administered to all subjects. The task was a series of ten picture-pairs of common objects. After the paired-pictures were presented to the subjects, only the first picture of each pair was shown, and the subject was asked to recall its picture associate. Additional trials were given until the subject was able to recall all ten pairs without errors.

There were initially no statistically significant differences between the Treatment and Control groups' performances on the pre-treatment administrations of the Paired-Associates task and the Piers-Harris scale. There was also no statistically significant difference between the groups on mental ability. Thus random assignment of the subjects on the Paired-Associates task, Piers-Harris scale, and mental ability test had been effective.

To control for experimenter bias, two experimenters administered the Paired-Associates task orally to an equal number of subjects in the Treatment and Control groups. Neither experimenter administered the task twice to the same child. The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale was administered twice by one experimenter to each class as a group.

After administration of the two tests to all of the subjects, Communication Skills Training was begun for the Treatment group. The subjects were divided into six groups of five students. Each group of five subjects was led by two college students enrolled in an interpersonal communications workshop at the University of New Hampshire. Fifteen, forty minute sessions were provided.

The Communication Skills Training groups were structured according to planned exercises with definite objectives for each session. Summaries of the group sessions may be found in Appendix A.

During the week following the termination of the Communication Skills Training, the Paired-Associates Learning task and the Piers-Harris scale were re-administered to the fifth grade pupils in the Treatment and Control groups.

Three null hypotheses were tested: (1) fifth-grade subjects who have participated in Communication Skills Training will not require significantly fewer <u>trials</u> to meet the criterion of mastery in a Paired-Associates Learning task than subjects who were in a Control group; (2) fifth-grade

subjects who have participated in Communication Skills Training will not make significantly fewer errors in meeting the criterion of mastery in a Paired-Associates Learning task than subjects who were in a Control group; (3) fifth-grade subjects who have participated in Communication Skills Training will not report significantly higher scores on the Piers-Harris Self-Concept scale than subjects who were in a Control group. Hypotheses One and Two were not rejected. Even though the differences between the scores (number of trials and errors) of the Treatment and Control groups on the Paired-Associates Learning task were not statistically significant, the results were in the predicted direction. With a larger sample and with a longer period of treatment, it is the investigator's best guess, that the differences would be found significant. This estimate is based on the performance of the subjects on the Paired-Associates Learning task in this study. More research needs to be done in this area.

Null Hypothesis Three was rejected at a very high level of confidence. It was demonstrated that the fifth-grade subjects in the Treatment group who participated in Communication Skills Training reported more positive self-concepts than those subjects in the Control group who did not participate in Communication Skills Training.

The implications of these findings for educational practice were discussed. It appears that Communication Skills

Training would be more effective in helping fifth grade children achieve healthy self-attitudes than sole reliance on orthodox teaching programs. It was suggested that consideration be given to the formal inclusion of Communication Skills Training as a curriculum area in the elementary school.

APPENDIX A

LESSON ONE

Purpose of the lesson:

To give a rationale for the lessons and to develop the list of skills necessary for communicating well in a group.
To begin the development of group connectedness.
To begin the development of self-awareness.

Rationale for lessons:

For the next three weeks we are going to be working together for forty minutes each day. During this time I hope we will get to know each other really well. We are going to be doing exercises, seeing movies, drawing pictures, and participating in other activities that will help us to learn to work better alone and in groups.

I. Moving Into Other Awareness--Getting to Know Each Other

Stand with the children in a close circle with your shoulders touching and holding hands. Explain that a game will be played to help the members of the groups to get to know each other better. Going around the group, with each member taking a turn, each person will say the name of the person on either side of him. Look right at the person next to you while saying: "This is my friend, (Jim).", and then

turn to the person on your other side and say: "This is my friend, (Sue).".

When everyone has had a turn, sit down in a circle remaining close enough to still be in physical contact with those on each side of you. Close your eyes. When you feel like it, tell what you are feeling from the two people you are sitting nearest.

When everyone has had a chance to talk that wants to do so, open your eyes and introduce another person in the group by telling three or four things about him or her (Brown, 1971, p. 136-137).

II. Developing Skills Lists

What are some of the things that you do in a group that make it easier to work together? (Make a list of the children's suggestions.) I'll make a list of these skills and add some that I think are useful for me. Next time we meet I'll give each of you a list so you can check the skills that you are using in our group meetings each day. (List of skills in Chapter I, p. 23, of this dissertation.)

III. Developing Self-Awareness

Materials needed: crayons, paper for drawing.

We are going to play a game to help get to know more about ourselves. Have the children repeat the chant and exercise several times.

I am rubbing my head.

I am feeling my hair.

I am touching my ears.

I am rubbing my neck. (Brown, 1971, pp. 134-135).

After warming up on this, give them the following directions:

"Now rub your head. Try to find out if you have bumps on your head. Now run your fingers around your ears. Feel for soft parts, hard parts, bumpy parts. Close your eyes. Put your fingertips over your eyes. Feel the eyeball move underneath by moving your eye underneath. What does the skin on top of your eyes feel like? Soft, rough, smooth, bumpy? Now move to your eyelashes. Open and shut your eyes over your finger. Are your eyelashes long or short? Straight or curly?..." (Brown, 1971, p. 135). The rest of the exercise guides the feeling of the nose, the breath, lips, teeth, and chin. It ends by asking the participants to close their eyes and remember the softest part, coldest part, hardest, warmest.

Give the children paper and crayons and ask them to make a picture of the way their faces felt. When they finish, ask them to share them with the group and tell what they discovered about themselves.

IV. Closing

Put both of your hands on the shoulders of each member of the group, looking the person in the eye, say goodbye. Encourage everyone to say goodbye in the same manner.

LESSON TWO

Purpose of the lesson:

To continue the development of the skills stated in Lesson I, emphasizing group connectedness.

Recognizing and describing how you feel about yourself.

Understanding how others feel and describe themselves.

I. Communication Exercise

Choose a partner from your group. Sit back to back and talk to each other without looking at each other. Face each other and communicate just using eyes. Close your eyes and using just your hands have a conversation. (say hello, take a walk, have a fight, resolve the conflict, say goodbye.) Talk about the different ways of communicating and which way seemed the most effective (Lyons, 1971, p. 132).

II. Composite Picture

Divide the group into two parts and, using crayons make a composite picture on a large sheet of paper. The figure will be made from the real characteristics of the members of your group. Give the figure a name.

Share your picture with your group identifying each characteristic of your figure.

Think about what part of your body was chosen to be represented in the drawing. How did you feel about it? (Lyons, 1971, p. 137).

III. Skill Charts

Discuss the skills list that you prepared from the suggestions of the children. Have the children check the skills that they used or learned for the day.

IV. Closing Exercise-Massage Train

Sit in a circle, facing the same direction with hands on the neck of the person in front of you so as to form a train. Give a rub as relaxing as possible. After two minutes reverse the train.

Change massaging in relation to the following words: gently, with more pressure, savagely, teasingly, tenderly (Lyons, 1971, p. 134).

LESSON THREE

Purpose of the lesson:

To understand how others see and describe what is happening to them.

To discuss the issues that relate to the lives of the children as they are dealt with in the film such as jealousy, pride, sharing, working together, trust, friendship, and forgiveness.

Materials: scraps of colored paper, paste, scissors, string, film, A Scrap of Paper and a Piece of String

I. Introduction to Film (About five minutes.)

Have each child choose a scrap of paper and a string that appeals to him. Talk together about which they'd rather be. Have the children leave the strings and papers

in their circles and go into the hall for the showing of the film.

II. Show Film (After film go back to groups.)

III. Discussion of Film

1. How do you see yourself? Are you more like the scrap of paper or the piece of string?
2. Which would you have rather been in the film? Why?
3. If you were a scrap of paper, what shape would you like to be?
4. If you were the string, what shape would you take or what would you like to do?
5. Have you ever felt like the paper did when the string changed shape so many times?
6. How do you think the string felt when the scrap of paper started to brag about all of his uses? Has this ever happened to you?

IV. Creative Activity

Have the children again choose a scrap of paper and a string and ask them to make anything they want out of the paper and string that shows what they can do when they work together.

Have the children show their creations and explain how the string and paper are working together.

V. Closing

Have the children check their skills charts. Massage Train.

LESSON FOUR

Purpose of the lesson:

To help children acknowledge strong points of others.

To help children understand that everyone is different in some ways as well as being the same in some ways.

To encourage group connectedness through trust.

To build the feeling of control.

Materials: one orange for each group member, paper towels, paper bag.

I. Becoming Aware of Your Orange

1. Look at the color. Is it like everyone else's?
2. Look at the shape. Is it big or little?
3. Now look for any special spots on your orange?
4. Make up a story of how your orange got the way it is.
5. Everyone shares story.
6. Now that you know your orange look at someone else's.
7. Put all the oranges in a pile in the middle of the group.

II. Becoming Aware That Everyone is Different

(Well not all oranges are alike.) Are any two alike? (no.)

1. Can you think of other things that may seem alike at first but once you really look you discover all kinds of differences?
2. Who would like to go around the group and say one

special thing about each person that makes him different from everyone else?

3. If they name only physical characteristics, show by example different behavioral characteristics of the members of your group.

III. Developing a Sense of Control--Marionettes

(After you are leader once, ask a child to lead in order to help him develop a sense of control.)

One person controls all the others by telling them where the string is attached and where it is no longer attached.

IV. Sense of Touch

Everyone takes his own orange from the center. Passes the oranges around the circle with closed eyes and sees if he can identify his own orange through touch.

Each child peels his orange on a paper towel and feeds it a section at a time to each of the group members.

V. Closing

Discuss and check skills charts. Massage Train.

LESSON FIVE

Purpose of the lesson:

To develop the imagination in relation to the use of the body.

To help children be more aware of each other.

To build trust among the group members.

I. Physical Warm-ups

> Place your palms together in front of your chest and press as hard as possible. Pretend there is something very heavy in front of you and push it as hard as you can. Walk easily in place. Put some strut in your walk. Increase your speed now and wave your arms as though they were birds' wings; walk faster and flap faster; take off; soar, crash land. (Lyon, 1971, p. 132)

II. Building Trust

A tight circle is formed with one group member in the middle. Every member places two hands on the person in the center to support him as he lets himself fall back and forth as he is gently pushed by the group members. When the leader gives the signal, the person in the center is lifted by all other members and is gently rocked back and forth and then laid gently on the floor. Let each person lie for a moment on the floor and tell how he is feeling at that moment. Give everyone a turn that wants one.

Take your time and discuss exercise when it is completed.

III. Closing

Read entries on individual skills charts aloud and discuss, having each child check his own chart. Massage Train.

LESSON SIX

Purpose of the lesson:

To help the children experience trust and dependence.

To compare ones' feelings and behavior responses with those of others.

To distinguish between one person's perceptions and another's. To help the child depend on other than sight for receiving the world.

I. Falling

Divide the group into pairs. Each two individuals stands looking in the same direction. The one in front spread-eagles his arms and lets himself fall back on the other person who catches him before he hits the floor. Then they trade off.

One student gives another a head roll. One of the pair lies on the floor. The other one clasps his hands under the other's neck, he rolls the other's head around and up and down. Then he relaxes the other's arms by shaking them out and massaging the tense places.

II. Blind Walk

One student wears a blindfold and another takes him on a walk outdoors. No talking is allowed so that they must develop some communications systems other than speech. The leader takes his partner around on interesting side trips to explore objects non-verbally and to experience different sensations, like running, feeling water, grass, trees, etc. The children should not go off the school grounds for this activity. The leaders should go outdoors with them. After ten minutes the other child is blindfolded and led by his partner.

When you come back into the building, take time to discuss the experience with your group.

III. Closing

Discuss and check skills charts.

LESSON SEVEN

Purpose of the lesson:

To learn to work together with everyone participating.

To help the child recognize and describe what is happening to him.

To compare his feelings and behavior responses with those of others.

To encourage the child to use his imagination.

I. Milling Exercise

(This exercise can be done with everyone in the room participating at once. Ask everyone to mill around the room without touching anyone else.)

> Imagine that you are walking in water. Splash around a bit. Get the feel of the water. Now the water is rising to cover your feet. It's up to your knees now. Feel the difference in the way you walk and move. The water has risen to your thighs now and is at your groin. Feel the water with your fingertips. The water continues to slowly rise and is at your chest; now only your head is above water. Feel the space around your head; keep moving. Now the water completely covers your head but you are still able to breathe. The water is beginning to recede now, your head is completely out of the water. Feel your space; you're dripping. The water is at your waist; now at your groin; now at your thighs; now at your knees; now at your ankles; now you are standing in a puddle again. Relax. (Lyon, 1971, p. 134)

II. Creative Play

> Divide your group into two parts. Using your hands, and other parts of your body if you want, make a house. Make a school. Make a car. Make a

> living thing. Talk about it when you finish. How did it feel? Were you able to work well together? What happened when someone didn't want to cooperate? (Brown, 1971, p. 187)

III. Improvisation

One child goes out of the room. The group develops a dramatic situation in which the person out of the room will have a central role. When everyone in the room is involved in the situation, have the child in the hall return to the group, figure out the role he is to play and get involved in this role. (Ex. Everyone in the group can be an animal in the forest and the child in the hall can be a huntsman. Or everyone in the group could be members of an orchestra and the person in the hall could be the orchestra leader.)

IV. Closing

Read the skills list aloud while the children check their own lists. Massage Brain.

LESSON EIGHT

Purpose of the lesson:

To understand how others see and describe what is happening to them.

To compare one's feelings and behavior responses with those of others.

To analyze the varied responses and their consequences.

To have the opportunity to try out new behaviors.

I. Marionettes

Have different children lead the exercises.

II. In the Manner of the Person

> One member of the ...group leaves the room while the others pick a person to be "it". The member who has left is called back in, and it is up to him to identify the person who is "it" by going around the group and asking each member to do things "in the manner of the person" who is "it". (Lyon, 1971, pp. 140-141)

After the person who is "it" is guessed, take time to discuss how he feels about the feedback he has received. Help the owner analyze his behavior and its consequences and work out opportunities to try out alternate behaviors if the person wants to do this.

III. Closing Group

Skills list checking.

Say goodbye by putting both of your hands on each members' shoulders looking the person in the eye and saying goodbye.

LESSON NINE

Purpose of the lesson:

To see how others see and describe another person.

To understand how others see and describe what is happening to them.

To experience being needed by others in achieving a goal.

To learn that not being needed by others in achieving a goal does not necessarily mean being rejected by others.

I. Mirroring

Divide into dyads. One member of the dyad is a person, the other is a mirror and mimics everything the person does. Can be done best in the beginning by standing and using large movements of the body, hands, and arms, and head. ...Switch roles after about three to five minutes. (Brown, 1971, p. 58)

II. Mood Masks

Each group leader should have a paper-bag mask. In each group one of the leaders should have a caption on his mask reading "MAD", and the other one should read "HAPPY". Each mask-wearer has an explanation for his mood as follows: Mad, because the teacher gives me work that is too hard; Happy, because I won a fight with a bigger kid. Tell the children that they are to guess why someone like them would be mad or happy. They can ask the mask wearers any yes or no questions. Take time to pursue any feelings that the children may show at this time. (Weinstein and Fantini, 1970, p. 189)

III. Human Anagrams

Each group has papers with a letter on it for every member of the group. Pin it or tape it on the front of each child. You might use S,N,R,E,I,A,O. Ask the children to form as many words with the letters as they can within a five minute period. The leader records the list of words formed. Play the game twice. The first time ask the children not to talk; the second time they are allowed to talk. Re-arrange the letters for the second game. (Lyon, 1971, p. 215)

Discuss the issue of performing a task and how it feels to be needed or not needed by the group. You may also want to discuss how their roles and behaviors affected the other members of the group.

IV. Closing

Skills charts.

Falling into partners arms. Head massage.

LESSON TEN

Purpose of the lesson:

To understand how others see and describe what is happening to them.

To understand how others see and describe another person.

To provide an opportunity to be creative.

To experience and learn about the relationships or lack of relationships between the items of nature.

I. Mirroring

Continue as started yesterday. If children are getting into it, add facial expressions and smaller movements to agenda for mirroring.

II. Actions and Reactions in Nature

> Each member of the group selects a name representing an item in nature: wind, mountain, sun, snow, ice, sand, river, etc. and is asked to "be" it. The children pair off and work out a skit, pantomime, dance, etc., which will express the relationship between the items they represent. Each pair presents its representation to the group.
>
> Next have the children form groups of three, choose new items and work out new relationships to be presented to the group. The children may want to discuss each presentation. (Lyon, 1971, pp. 210-211)

III. Sharing Secrets

Each child will need a small piece of paper and a pencil. Have each child write out a secret or personal feeling that he has about school or other experience that he would usually find it difficult to talk about. Put the secrets

in a pile and scramble. Then each person selects one paper and reads it aloud and talks about it as if it were his own. He tells how he thinks that the person with that secret might feel.

IV. Closing

Check list and discussion.

Massage Train.

LESSON ELEVEN

Purpose of the lesson:

To show the students that there are different ways of seeing the same situation.

To show the students that one's state of mind or feeling influences one's perception.

I. Mirroring

II. One-Way Glasses

> The leader shows two pairs of sunglasses with different colored lenses. He explains that they are special glasses and that wearing them makes the wearer see everything in a special way. The first pair of glasses are suspicious glasses and make one feel suspicious toward everyone and everything when wearing them. Have one of the group members wear them. Members of the group ask this person questions and the wearer of the suspicious glasses answers in a suspicious way. Then the leader shows the second pair of glasses, which are rose-colored and which make the wearer feel that no matter what anyone says they they really care for him. Have the group ask questions again. (Weinstein and Fantini, 1970, pp. 79-80).

III. Role-Playing Situation

Three students are sitting around a breakfast table playing the mother, father, first child and they are joined by the second child who is wearing suspicious glasses. "Without really involving the second child in their own conversation, various members of the family directed remarks to him. (The second child was instructed to call out "freeze" whenever he wanted to say what he was thinking.)." (Weinstein and Fantini, 1970, p. 80) See example of a role-playing situation in the reference cited.

This same situation may be repeated with the second child wearing rose-colored glasses.

To sum up the lesson have the children help you make a list of different glasses people might wear. Discuss what glasses they think they often wear.

IV. Tug of War

Group divides into halves. Have imaginary tug of war with imaginary rope--try to have them pull together, feel the rope, etc..

V. Closing

Skills list-check together as you read the items aloud.

LESSON TWELVE

Purpose of the lesson:

To help children understand how wearing a particular pair of glasses makes it difficult to see the actual characteristics of another individual.

To help the children understand that wearing one pair almost continually limits their perceptions of themselves and others.

I. Marionettes

II. Behavioral Onewayness

This concept is introduced by the leader "by calling attention to this quality in a number of comic book and television characters who act the same way all the time: brave, good, bad, and so on." (Weinstein and Fantini, 1970, p. 85)

Different characters are discussed and role-played, having the person playing the character wear the glasses that this person typically wears. Discuss what distinguishes between the effects of one pair of glasses and another.

III. Role-Playing Activity II

"In another role-playing activity, a student was sent out of the room 'for talking,' and 'counselors' talked with him." (Weinstein and Fantini, 1970, p. 85) Have children take turns playing the student and a self-righteous counselor and this student and an unself-righteous counselor. See examples of role-playing situations in reference cited p. 86.

IV. Closing

Read aloud skills list as children evaluate their behavior.

Massage Train.

LESSON THIRTEEN

Purpose of the lesson:

To help the children perceive the difficulties in developing new view of other people.

I. Physical Warm-Ups (See Lesson Five.)

II. Role-Playing Activity

Select two children to interview one of the leaders. Unbeknown to the rest of the group one interviewer should wear curious glasses and the other one put-down glasses.

When you finish each exercise, discuss the following questions with your group. "How did each person make me feel? How did I feel about each person? What kind of glasses might each interviewer have been wearing?" (Weinstein and Fantini, 1970, p. 87).

III. Twenty Questions

Everyone in the group participates by wearing curious glasses. One of the leaders role-plays a student. For example it may be a student who is popular and capable out of school but who has difficulty achieving in school. The children may ask any questions that can be answered by yes or no, or short qualifying answers like, sometimes or no more than anyone else. The group tries to find out as much as possible about this person in twenty questions. After the last question the group summarizes what they know about the person, and the leader describes the child she was playing.

IV. Closing

Skills chart.

Hands on shoulders to say good-bye.

LESSON FOURTEEN

Purpose of the lesson:

To encourage the children to discuss their positive feelings about themselves and others.

To give the children an opportunity to behave positively and supportively.

I. Falling (See Lesson Six.)

II. Wearing Strong-Point Glasses

Tell the children that they are going to wear glasses that seem to be very hard to wear for very long even for adults. They are strong-point glasses. Each child is to take a turn telling the rest of the group his strong points, and when he runs out of strong-points the other members of the group might help him find additional strong-points.

Discuss the following questions: "How do you feel about this whole idea" How do you feel when this is going on? Why are these the most difficult glasses to wear? We're often taught to look at the worst in ourselves and others; to be overly critical. When we wear oneway glasses or only a few pairs of glasses--that is, critical or put-down glasses--we see only a piece of the world. The more

different kinds of glasses we are able to wear, the more we are able to see." (Weinstein and Fantini, 1970, p. 93)

III. Planning Session

Plan what activities you will do with the children for the last session. Plan your final evaluation.

IV. Closing

Skills chart.

Massage Train.

LESSON FIFTEEN

Purpose of the lesson:

To evaluate the preceding lessons with the children.
To talk about what each child learned about himself and others.

I. Sharing

Since today is the last meeting, pretend that you are on your way home after school tonight. Think about the things that you may have wanted to say but didn't, whether they were negative or positive. Then share them with the group if you'd like to do so.

II. Group Planned Activities

Do the activities that you and your children planned for today including your final evaluations.

III. Closing

Say good-bye the way your group likes to the best.

APPENDIX B

RAW DATA: TREATMENT GROUP

	PAIRED-ASSOCIATES PRE-TEST		PAIRED-ASSOCIATES POST-TEST		PIERS-HARRIS PRE-TEST	PIERS-HARRIS POST-TEST
SUBJECTS	TRIALS	ERRORS	TRIALS	ERRORS	SCORES	SCORES
1	11	44	4	11	49	59
2	6	27	2	4	55	64
3	3	11	2	2	66	73
4	4	16	2	4	42	52
5	6	31	2	1	43	56
6	6	21	2	4	39	55
7	7	22	2	1	60	70
8	3	8	2	4	69	77
9	7	26	5	20	48	51
10	4	14	2	4	57	61
11	4	18	2	1	64	72
12	5	15	3	3	51	59
13	3	8	1	0	64	73
14	6	23	2	2	49	64
15	8	38	4	9	47	65
16	6	20	3	5	58	73
17	4	14	4	7	43	46
18	3	11	3	14	54	61
19	6	19	4	11	31	42
20	4	14	2	1	49	57
21	4	9	3	5	41	55
22	9	21	4	7	48	57
23	3	9	3	7	61	65
24	5	12	4	10	53	55
25	2	5	2	2	44	51
26	7	25	2	5	25	38
27	9	29	3	7	74	80
28	6	16	1	0	53	64
29	5	19	3	5	33	64
30	5	16	2	1	60	75

RAW DATA: CONTROL GROUP

	PAIRED-ASSOCIATES PRE-TEST		PAIRED-ASSOCIATES POST-TEST		PIERS-HARRIS PRE-TEST	PIERS-HARRIS POST-TEST
SUBJECTS	TRIALS	ERRORS	TRIALS	ERRORS	SCORES	SCORES
31	3	2	3	6	51	55
32	9	18	3	6	45	49
33	5	17	5	16	56	60
34	9	30	2	5	51	55
35	6	23	2	2	52	53
36	5	15	3	5	74	74
37	7	21	4	13	35	38
38	4	16	4	5	66	65
39	6	19	1	0	60	63
40	3	7	2	3	64	60
41	6	21	2	1	60	67
42	4	10	4	17	69	74
43	3	4	2	1	73	74
44	4	9	3	9	57	59
45	5	14	5	10	46	48
46	4	14	3	7	40	44
47	6	19	3	7	58	62
48	7	20	3	8	54	61
49	6	21	2	1	64	75
50	5	13	4	8	59	57
51	7	28	1	0	66	75
52	11	40	3	2	55	66
53	3	7	2	3	48	42
54	8	28	3	6	39	40
55	3	9	2	5	64	62
56	4	18	3	8	76	65
57	3	12	1	2	78	76
58	6	24	3	7	52	54
59	6	30	4	8	50	54
60	4	14	3	4	67	69

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