

STATEMENT OF PERMISSION TO COPY

In presenting this paper in partial fulfillment of the requirements for an advanced degree at Montana State University, I agree that the Library shall make it freely available for inspection. I further agree that permission for extensive copying of this paper for scholarly purposes may be granted by my major professor, or, in his absence, by the Director of Libraries. It is understood that any copying or publication of this paper for financial gain shall not be allowed without my written permission.

Signature David M. Madison

Date 12/9/78

A STUDY OF DIDACTIC-EXPERIENTIAL TRAINING OF NINTH GRADERS IN
THE USE OF THERAPEUTIC RESPONDING SKILLS

by
DAVID MICHAEL MADISON

A professional paper submitted in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree

of
MASTER OF EDUCATION
with concentration in
Counseling

Approved:

Richard Horvill
Chairperson, Graduate Committee

Robert J. Hubault
Head, Major Department

Henry L. Parsons
Graduate Dean

MONTANA STATE UNIVERSITY
Bozeman, Montana

November, 1978

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract	page iv
Chapter 1 Introduction	page 1
Chapter 2 A Review of Selected Literature	page 5
Chapter 3 Procedures	page 16
Chapter 4 Results and Discussion	page 26
Chapter 5 Summary, Conclusions, and Implications for Further Research	page 30
Appendix	page 33
References Cited	page 43

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of a combined didactic and experiential learning strategy to the training of ninth graders in the use of therapeutic responding skills. The subjects for this study consisted of Social Studies students at Kellogg Junior High School, Kellogg, Idaho. Students were randomly assigned to the researcher's classes, the control group met in the mornings and the experimental group met in the afternoons. Subjects in the experimental group received four sessions of didactic training and six sessions of experiential training. Each session lasted approximately twenty minutes.

Data taken from pretest and posttest scores was used to test the hypothesis that subjects receiving training would improve their scores to a significantly greater level than subjects not receiving training. Data was analyzed by a t-test of change scores. The hypothesis was supported by $<.01$ level of significance.

Since it was determined that students at this age level have the capability to learn effective responding skills, it is recommended that public school systems consider implementing this type of training in their curricula. Secondly, it is recommended that the question of whether the paradigm of personality structure used in Transactional Analysis might be useful in training responding skills be explored. Finally, a follow-up study of subjects exposed to this type of training would be useful. It has been shown that adolescents can identify effective responses, but, the question of whether they will use their newly acquired responding skills remains to be seen.

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

The adolescent period in human development is unique in that it is the first experience people have with adult body images, sex drives, and identity questions. This is also a time when adolescents are gradually growing away from their nuclear families, preferring to devote more of their attention to their peers. Where the family once provided security and guidance, the adolescent's peer group now takes on more of this responsibility. Thus, for adolescents to confront the identity questions of this developmental period, they must acquire the interpersonal skills to relate effectively with their peers.

It is the purpose of this paper to explore the possibility of training adolescent ninth graders in the use of responding skills which have been used effectively for many years in the fields of Counseling and Psychotherapy. If these skills can be learned, it follows then that adolescents can help one another deal with their emotional disturbances in a more effective manner.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to determine if ninth grade students could increase their responding skills through a combination of experiential and didactic training when compared to a control group

which did not receive this training. A multiple response questionnaire based on Gazda's Global Scale for responding (1973) was administered, before and after exposure to training. Subjects for this experiment were taken from two Social Studies classes at Kellogg Junior High School, Kellogg, Idaho, enrolled in the Spring of 1977.

Application to Education Practice

It is hoped that this experiment in training ninth graders to use responding skills will aid teachers in their efforts to help students develop basic communications skills. The primary goal is to formulate a program in which students could study and practice effective responding "that conveys empathy for the feelings and respect for the worth of the listener, ... [which] is particularly supportive and defense reductive" (Gibb, p. 147, 1961). It is hoped that teachers will gain added insight of the usefulness of these responding skills to their students.

General Questions to be Answered

This research sought to answer this question: Can ninth grade students gain the ability to use effective responding skills as defined by Gazda's Global Scale (1973)?

General Procedure

Chapter two of this paper gives the reader a review of selected literature concerned with the adolescent's need to gain the ability to use responding skills and the actual model of didactic-experiential training.

Chapter three of this paper gives a description of the experimental design of this research. This design calls for the use of two groups, an experimental group which received exposure to training and a control group which did not receive training. The two groups were two ninth grade Social Studies classes at Kellogg Junior High School in the Spring of 1977. A questionnaire, made up of multiple choice questions, was administered before and after the training period to both groups. The training took place in a traditional classroom. It consisted of didactic training where an intellectual understanding of responding skills was gained by the students and experiential training where dyads of students gained practice in their use of these skills.

Limitations and Delimitations

This experiment was limited to the study of two ninth grade Social Studies classes at Kellogg Junior High School, Kellogg, Idaho.

A delimitation in this study was the fact that the two groups

were supervised in the same manner: by the teacher who was also the researcher. These groups remained in their classrooms during the twelve class periods. While training was given during this interim to the experimental group, the control group studied the separate and unrelated topic of "Careers in the Economy of the United States."

Definitions of Terms

Responding - The verbal or non-verbal reactions of a listener to a speaker's statements.

Therapeutic - An adjective describing interaction that is helpful, effective in a positive way, to the growth of relationship.

Semi-structured classroom - A teacher-directed schoolroom environment which contains moveable tables and chairs organized in rows.

Summary

Despite the limitations of this study, it is hoped that students will be able to implement their training in responding to their world outside of the classroom. Furthermore, it is hoped that this study will encourage teachers to implement responding skills training in their classroom in order to help their students deal with problems not only unique to adolescence, but to the day to day interaction between people in general.

Chapter 2

A REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter reviews literature concerned with the ego defenses used by adolescents and a method used to train people in successfully dealing with defensive behaviors. The three topics of this review are: (1) Ego Defenses in Adolescence. This topic concerns defensive behaviors especially relevant to adolescents. (2) Dealing with Defensive Behaviors. This portion explored the importance of perceiving and confronting with defensive behaviors in adolescents. (3) Responding Skills Training. The three sup-topics of this are: (a) Core Conditions. These are aspects of an interpersonal relationship necessary for effective responding. (b) Didactic Training. This is the first part of a training session when the trainer explains and demonstrates the core conditions and the various types of responding skills. (c) Experiential Training. This is the final portion of a training session when the trainer provides the trainees with the opportunities to actually experience using the skills which they have learned.

Ego Defenses in Adolescence

The adolescent's use of ego defenses provides a major impetus for this study. From the moment of birth, a person's family is of primary importance to personality development. But in early adolescence this

changes. With their ability to reason logically, they perceive viewpoints other than their own, and critically analyze parental rules and behaviors. (Beard pp 97-122, 1969). Adolescents come into conflict with their parents and family. "The general sweep of the adolescent current is toward rejection of the standards of their parent's generation and the substitution of new patterns, often poorly defined and thought out, of their own creation." (Chapman, p. 190, 1971) Questioning the constructs of proper behavior established by parents is referred to as "Parent tapes" in Transactional Analysis. (Freed, p. 12, 1976). Adolescents find themselves in what Horney terms a "vacuum." They have a need to lift themselves above others. An "idealized image" of oneself is created to give the adolescent power and significance. (Horney, p.17, 1950) Many believe that this need arises out of the "failure of society to accord dignity and status to the period of adolescence, which encourages young people to create their own world of identity, with their own language, status symbols, and norms for behavior." (Semens and Krantz, p. 19, 1970)

Peer groups are very important during adolescence. Where once parents provided guides, now a peer group must be considered. Group norms affect the adolescent's grades, (Damico p. 123, 1975) clothing, activities, values--their identity. "The need of adolescents--boys and girls alike--is to search for identity. This need grows out of a

loss of security." (Konopka, p. 40, 1966) This security loss is that which was provided earlier by parents and family.

Adolescents are fearful of "not knowing what to say" because they aren't sure of their "status....A person who chronically makes himself uneasy is a faulty interactant....he may just as well be a faulty person." (Goffman, p. 59) Training could provide this "faulty interactant" with the skills necessary to effective interaction. "In effect, we must teach people to be good human beings." (Patterson, p. 154 c. 1974)

Effective interaction is therapeutic. Are adolescents capable of understanding this interaction? Fiedler answers this way: "Non-therapists can describe the ideal therapeutic relationship in the same manner and about as well as therapists. The therapeutic relationship may therefore be but a variation of good interpersonal relationships in general." (Fiedler, p. 245, 1950)

The adolescent's quest for identity leads to closer, more intense interaction with peers. Conversely, interaction with adults becomes at times, more conflicting and restrained. At this point there are more frequent arguments between children and parents. However, their natural aversion to conflict limits this interaction and "reciprocity...is denied through personal limitations...while the child is incapable of extending himself through reciprocal channels,

the adolescent and adult deny reciprocity, and as such, reduce their communicative effectiveness to the level comparable to that of young children." (Cohen, p. 5, 1971)

In their exploration for identity the adolescent is limited by constraints established by their parents. The adolescent's developing ego system learns to protect itself, not only from the assailing wills of parents, but also from other adolescents. "Through its intellectualizing functions, the egosystem is a type of filtering device for selecting stimulus to which the organism will attend. The ego directs certain defensive operations..." (Brammer and Shostrom, 1968, p. 81) These defense mechanisms serve to protect the adolescent's developing identity.

It is a popular belief that the use of defense mechanisms is undesirable. This belief even contends that people who use them are mentally disturbed. This belief is untrue. First defined by Freud, a defense mechanism such as repression, intellectualization, reaction formation, sublimation, denial, projection, and regression are important to healthy individuals coping with anxiety. (Sarson, pp 44-50, 1967) "The emotionally healthy individual is one who does not cope with anxiety by the use of one or just a few of these mechanisms." (Sarson, p. 44) Healthy individuals use a variety in a variety of situations. This flexibility provides more open contact between the

individual's culture and his ego system. "Without a flexible defense system, the personality seems to develop a series of stereotyped and rigid responses or roles to meet specific life demands." (Brammer and Shostrom, p. 80, 1968)

Defense mechanisms are very similar in concept to the "games" and "scripts" defined in Transactional Analysis. "Script analysts subscribe to the doctrines of Freud in their entirety, and only wish to add something in the light of further experience...Script analysts believe in the unconscious, but then emphasize the conscious when dealing with their patients, for whom orthodox psychoanalysis is more or less unsuitable..." (Berne, pp 399-400, 1972) Berne believed that T A was an extension of orthodox psychoanalysis, more suitable to the general public in a modern age. New terminology to describe behaviors and ego states were developed to accompany this idea. (Corsine, p. 354, 1973) In T A the word "stroke" means what someone else does that causes you to feel. (Freed, p. 10, 1975) "Games are hidden ways of getting strokes. People who play T A games are not aware of playing." (Harris, p. 83, 1967) Just as "defensive behavior develops through blind learning and does not involve conscious choice." (Shaffer and Shofen, pp. 169-170, 1956)

Dealing with Defensive Behaviors

Open and honest interpersonal interaction is hindered by defen-

sive behaviors. "Defensive behavior...engenders defensive listening, and this in turn produces postural, facial, and verbal cues which raise the defense level of the original communicator." (Gibbs, p.141) Thus, it is important for those listening not to become defensive in response. This is very difficult to teach, but it is a vital factor in facilitating "communication that conveys empathy for the feelings and respect for the worth of the listener... [this] is particularly supportive and defense reductive." (Gibbs, p.147)

Adolescents have been trained to perceive and confront mechanisms in which "emphasis [was] placed in explicitly stating interpersonal messages underlying an issue rather than leaving such messages to be deciphered or inferred by the listener." (Hatch and Guernsey, p.104, 1975) These adolescents, in a school setting, were taught to rephrase statements incorporating a defense mechanism into statements expressing their hurt feelings honestly and openly. This can be accomplished much easier when the listener communicates warmth and trust. By doing this, "the defensive layers of the other are gradually relaxed, allowing the other to examine intrapersonal and interpersonal conflicts and self-concept concerns." (Hatch and Guernsey, p.103, 1975) With their feelings free to emerge, the adolescent in this relationship can more realistically seek the answer to the identity question: "Who am I?"

Another way for defensive behavior to be dealt with effectively

is by confrontation or negative feedback. "Through negative feedback persons can be helped to correct their distortions and other maladaptive habits..." (Gazda, p.40, 1973) When this is done cautiously, the defensive behavior is brought to conscious attention necessitating a direct confrontation. "It is important to note that when one gives negative feedback appropriately, he is simply criticizing some aspect of another person's behavior; that is not the same as rejecting him as a total person." (Gazda, p.40, 1975)

Responding Skills Training

Training in effective responding skills was influenced greatly by the work of Carl Rogers and the school of psychotherapy he founded: Client Centered Therapy. As early as 1942, he described two necessary conditions to therapeutic responding as "warmth and responsiveness," (p.87) where the speaker recognizes that he or she is emotionally involved with the speaker; and the "permissiveness in regard to the expression of feelings" (p.88), meaning the communication can be honest and open in this relationship, even to the point of expressing feelings of anger and hostility. These two conditions, later combined with "genuineness" or "congruence" (Rogers, p.97, 1957), are considered the three core conditions necessary to therapeutic or effective responding (Truax and Carkhuff, 1965).

Scales for the rating of these core conditions have been design-

ed by Truax (Truax and Carkhuff, 1967), Carkhuff (1969), and Gazda (1973). Truax defined nine levels of responding; Carkhuff modified this to five levels, while Gazda consolidated responding into just four levels. It was perceived by these writers that all responses in interpersonal communications can be scored at one level or another in terms of the core conditions defined by Rogers.

Didactic Training

Training in responding skill using the teaching methods of lecture, written and oral assignments, and the use of audio-visual aids is didactic training. This type of training is meant to provide the student with an intellectual understanding of the effective responding process. Carkhuff and Truax found "tape recorded samples of psychotherapy rated very high in known elements of effective psychotherapy" to be useful in teaching responding skills. (1965, p. 426) These examples give students specific techniques necessary to the total comprehension of the core conditions and their implementation in communication. Also, tapes give the trainer a good opportunity to demonstrate various types of responding techniques, such as restatement, silence, reflection of feeling, and confrontation.

Higgins, Ivey, and Uhleman (1970) shared with their students the idea that it was important as an effective respondent to be personal, direct, and sharing in interpersonal communication. Along

with sharing the importance of these core conditions, they also acted as classroom models for these listening behaviors. The idea that the trainer is important in this process as a model led Gazda to state that:

"Often when the trainees have experienced a facilitative base, the trainer can best instruct by sharing his understandings of the constructs he uses. In doing so, he also allows the trainees to question and search with him for more and more effective means of helping." (1973, p.55)

So the trainer is important "insofar as he offers a model of a person who is living effectively. Without such a person there is no program." (Carkhuff, p. 201, 1969, emphasis is Carkhuff's).

Experiential Training

The classroom can provide students with an opportunity to gain experience in the use of the responding skills they have learned through didactic training. Barbour defines the combination of didactic and experiential training as "the laboratory approach which assumes that there are three levels of learning, the intellectual... the skills...and the experiential... An ideal learning experience would be one which involved all three levels..." (1974, p.54.)

Truax (Truax and Carkhuff, 1967), Carkhuff (1969), Gazda (1973), Ivey (1974), and Hatch and Guernsey (1975) also recommend this structure.

Experiential training can take place in dyads or in groups of three or more. In any case, helpers can be effective if they are reminded "to communicate a warm and genuine concern and depth of understanding utilizing no special focus for discussion". (Carkhuff and Trux, p. 428, 1965) Ivey agrees with this statement when he states that listener trainees should focus their "attention on single specific counselor behaviors rather than attempting...all the skills of counseling at one time". (p. 173, 1974)

Barbour cautions that "if the class tends to want to practice therapy on its members...the 'medical model' rather than the 'growth model' is being employed...the class may be engaged in something it cannot handle". (p. 55, 1974) Training should not cease because of this, but care should be taken to stay on topics dealing with viewpoints of the communication experience.

A student enhancement program in interpersonal communication was implemented by Hatch and Guernsey in a junior high school. As a training technique, they found "that skill is best acquired when one person remains the speaker and one the responder for a sequence of a dozen or more responses". (p. 103, 1975) In this way, students could receive experience in using several of the different types of effective responses.

Summary

The literature dealing with the training of responding skills indicates a wide use of the experiential-didactic technique. Research reveals that this type of training can be successfully implemented in a classroom setting, not only for the training of future counselors (Carkhuff, 1969), but also for students (Higgins, et. al., 1970) (Ivey, 1974) (Barbour, 1975) and teachers (Gazda, 1973).

Chapter 3

PROCEDURES

The problem of this study was to determine if ninth grade students could develop therapeutic responding skills through a combination of didactic and experiential training in a semi-structured classroom. This chapter will present the reader with the experimental design utilized in this study. The selection of subjects, the instrument of observation, the control of factors jeopardizing validity, and the analysis of data will be discussed in respective order.

Population Description and Sampling Procedure

The population of this study was limited to two of the researcher's ninth grade Social Studies classes at Kellogg Junior High School, Kellogg, Idaho in the Spring of 1977. The two groups or classes consisted of twenty-four and eighteen students. Since Social Studies is a required course and students are randomly assigned to classes by the School Counselors, there was no significant ability differences between the groups. Students with low academic abilities, approximately ten percent of the ninth grade class, were not represented in this study. These students were grouped separately from other Social Studies classes.

Treatment Description

The basic experimental design for this study followed this structure:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} R & O_1 & X & O_2 \\ R & O_1 & X & O_2 \end{array}$$

where R represented random sampling of subjects into two separate groups, O₁ represented the administration of the pretest, X represented exposure to training in responding skills, and O₂ represented the administration of the posttest. This type of experimental design controlled for the contaminating variables of History, Maturation, Testing, Regression, and Selection because of its utilization of a randomized selection process and a control group. (Campbell and Stanley, 1969)

The testing instrument was written by the researcher who had had five years experience in working with ninth graders at Kellogg Junior High. This multiple-response testing instrument was made up of words familiar to the subjects and based on Gazda's Global Scale for responding. (p. 96, 1973) The question of the observation instrument's reliability was controlled further by having an expert in the field of Educational Counseling review the instrument's content of responding levels and appropriate vocabulary.

The subject's regular classroom environment was used. This

included the regular teacher, playing the role of researcher, and the use of an instrument identical in format to tests previously administered in the class. This observation design controlled for the "undesirable interaction of testing and X ..." (Campbell and Stanley, p. 18, 1969, author's emphasis).

The same instrument (see Appendix) was used for both O^1 and O^2 . Care was taken by the researcher to avoid direct reference to the instrument during exposure to training. This test, measuring the subject's level of responding, was administered immediately before and after treatment. Instructions for both the pretest and protest were as follows:

This test will not affect the grade you will receive in this class. This test is meant to help me (the instructor) understand you a little better. Please be honest. Please be serious.

The test was passed out and the experimenter read the test's instructions with the subjects; these instructions were:

The following statements are ones that you might hear from your friends or classmates. Put a check by the response which is most like the way you would reply.

The control group did not receive training in responding skills.

This group studied the unrelated topic of careers.

Treatment procedure for the experimental group was established so that four sessions were dedicated to didactic training and six sessions were set aside for experiential training. Each session lasted for approximately twenty minutes.

In the first session subjects were asked to keep written notes for the next four class periods during the time listening skills were to be studied. After this, subjects were asked to define the word "listening." A discussion followed in which the experimenter guided the subjects into concluding that listening meant more than just hearing what someone says, but also showing to speakers that they are understood. The next question subjects were asked to write down and answer was: "What good things happen to you when you really listen?" These were three of their answers which the experimenter chose to write on the chalkboard:

1. Good listening helps you to understand better. You learn more.
2. It helps you build better friendships.
3. You help people when they have problems.

This discussion concluded the first session.

In the second session, subjects were introduced to the listening skill of paraphrasing. This was defined as "any way which you show

the speakers what their communication means to you." Paraphrasing was illustrated with a story in which the experimenter used the paraphrasing skill in a crisis situation in a classroom. This case involved a student who repeatedly disturbed a class discussion by tapping his pencil on his desk. To ensure privacy, the instructor and the student left the classroom to discuss the problem. Through the teacher's use of paraphrasing, it was discovered that the student was actually upset about his relationship with his parents, and not with his teacher. With this new understanding of the problem the class discussion could then move along.

Following the "pencil tapper" illustration the experimenter modeled the paraphrasing skill. Volunteer subjects were asked these questions: 1) Do you think marijuana should be legalized? 2) Do you think people should have to go to school until they are sixteen? 3) How do you feel about being the center of attention right now? To each response to these questions the experimenter paraphrased either the content of the response or the feelings communicated by the subjects/speakers or both. Subjects were then asked to paraphrase in their notes several statements and actions of the experimenter. Responses were analyzed before moving from one statement to the next. This exercise completed session two.

The third session was devoted entirely to the topic of defenses.

Those studied were: rationalization, compensation, projection, and identification. Following this discussion, subjects were asked to bring to the next session three paragraphs of three different defense mechanisms they had seen between sessions three and four. In addition, subjects were told that a short test on defenses would be given in the next session.

In session four, Gazda's levels of responding were explained. (Gazda, p. 96, 1973) Level One was defined as "irrelevant, hurtful, ignoring" responses. Level Two was defined as responses which were "neutral, lacking warmth, giving cheap advice, disregard for speaker's feelings." Several examples were given for each level. It was noted that Levels One and Two were the most commonly used in interaction and that they were both unproductive in the development of healthy relationships. Levels Three and Four were said to be helpful. Level Three responses show "empathy and respect for the speaker's communication through the use of paraphrasing." Since paraphrasing had been previously studied, only two examples of this level were given. Level Four was defined as responses "containing the conditions of Level Three with the addition of confronting defense mechanisms within the speaker's communication." Several examples of this level of responding were modeled by the experimenter.

The next six sessions were set aside for experiential training

in the use of helpful responding skills. In the first session of this segment of training, subjects were grouped into dyads according to their own choice. (Subjects naturally grouped into these dyads for the remainder of the training program.) The subjects were first asked to pick a number of one or two. Those choosing one were to be speakers first and those choosing two were listeners. Speakers were asked to answer the question: "What do you like most about school?" Listeners were asked to respond on Level One. After this experience, roles were reversed and the same procedure was followed. A similar procedure was followed in giving subjects experience in Levels Two and Three. Level Four was not experienced. Subjects were polled as to which level they felt most understood by their listeners. Level Three received the most votes.

In session six, speaker and listener roles were assigned again. Topics discussed were news stories, favorite classes, and embarrassing moments. Interaction was halted on each topic when the speakers raised their hands signifying that the listener had shown understanding of the speaker's ideas. When all hands had been raised, roles were reversed and a new topic was assigned for discussion. After this activity, subjects were asked to play both speaker and listener roles in this way. The speaker was asked to give his listener his idea on an assigned topic or question. When the listener had para-

phrased the speaker's thought, they were free to give their own ideas on the subject. Subjects were given three minutes to discuss each topic with a short class discussion on helpful listening following each topic assignment.

The first half of session seven was devoted to the same activity done in the latter part of session six; however, more personal topics were assigned for discussion. These topics included problems at home or in school. A short discussion on the importance of respect and confidentiality followed.

In sessions eight, nine, and ten, subjects were given the freedom to discuss whatever topic they chose. The only restriction to their conversations was that the interaction should remain within their own dyads.

Finally, at the end of session ten, the posttest was administered.

Method of Collecting Data

A pretest and posttest was given to the subjects before and after their exposure to training. The procedure for administering these tests was as follows: the researcher explained to the students that the test wouldn't affect their nine weeks or semester grades; only their initials, not their names, were required for identific-

ation; and the directions were at the top of the first page. These directions were read aloud so that any confusion about them could be clarified. This procedure was followed in all four administrations of the test.

Method of Organizing Data

A table depicting t-tests for pretest and posttest gain scores was used to organize data taken from the experiment. This data included the groups' mean scores. This was the only data determined important to experimental analysis.

Statistical Hypotheses

This experiment sought to answer this question: Through the use of a didactic-experiential training system, can ninth grade students gain the ability to use effective responding skills as defined by Gazda's Global Scale (1973) when compared to a control group which will not receive this training?

The hypotheses evolving from this question was:

H_0 --- the null hypothesis. The group receiving training will not improve their scores on the instrument at a significantly greater level than the group not receiving training.

H_1 --- the alternate hypothesis. The group receiving training will improve their scores on the instrument at a significantly greater level than the group not receiving training.

Analysis of Data

These hypotheses were analyzed by computing for each group pretest-posttest gain scores and computing a t between experimental and control groups on these gain scores. Results were deemed significant at the $+.05$ level.

Precautions Taken for Accuracy

All statistical calculations were performed with the use of a calculator and were double-checked.

Summary

The simple procedures outlined above were congruent extensions to the basic question providing impetus for this study. The Pretest-Posttest Control Group Design was easily implemented in a school environment. This design, though comprehensive in its control of contaminating variables in experimentation, provided a simple structure for analysis of the question through the use of t -testing gain scores.

Chapter 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

Subjects in the control and experimental groups were tested before and after treatment. Correlation of pretest scores was computed to determine whether any differences existed between the two groups prior to training. In addition, change scores were computed for all subjects on the basis of pretest and protest data. Raw data is included in Appendix B and C.

Results

Pretreatment Comparisons

The data obtained from the pretreatment questionnaire based on Gazda Global Scale of Responding Levels (Gazda, 1973) was examined by means of a simple t-test for significance. Results of this analysis of difference is presented in Table 1.

A t value of 2.021 was required for significance at the .05 level of significance for a two-tailed test. The pretest analysis indicated that there was no significant difference between the two groups in their responding abilities as measured by the questionnaire. This result substantiated the contention of the reseacher that the randomization process of the student's class selection provided an

equally distributed sample with respect to the criterion measure.

Table 1

RESULTS OF t-TEST ANALYSIS ON THE PRETEST SCORES FOR THE
QUESTIONNAIRE MEASURING RESPONDING LEVELS

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	t	P
Total	35,980	40	899.5	1.6435	
Control Group	16,975	17	998.5294		N.S.
Experimental Group	19,005	23	826.3043		

Analysis of Change Scores

A simple t-test for significance was used to analyze the change scores of the two groups. This analysis was necessary in order to determine differences in the two groups caused by the treatment variable administered to the Experimental group. (E) Results for this test are presented in Table 2.

A t value of 2.021 was required for significance at the .05 level. For two-tailed tests the degree of freedom was 40. Comparison of the change scores between the Control (C) and the Experiment-

al (E) groups indicated significance not only beyond the .05 level, but also the .01 level (where t must equal 2.704). On this basis, the hypothesis (H) that the group receiving training would improve their scores on the instrument at a significantly greater level than the group not receiving training, was supported.

Table 2

RESULTS OF t -TEST ANALYSIS ON THE CHANGE SCORES FOR THE
QUESTIONNAIRE MEASURING RESPONDING LEVELS

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	t	P
Total	3275	40	81.875	3.046	<.01
Control Group	409	17	24.059		
Experimental Group	2866	23	124.609		

Discussion

Results of the t -test analysis of change scores showed that the group receiving training improved their scores on the instrument at a significantly greater level than the group not receiving training.

Thus, the hypothesis of this investigation was supported.

Earlier studies indicated the effectiveness of experiential didactic training for counselors (Carkhuff, 1969), and students (Higgins, et. al., 1970) (Ivey, 1974) (Barbour, 1975).for use in a controlled clinical-type setting. But, the training of early adolescents in the use of therapeutic responding skills in their normal, day to day interaction with their peers is relatively unexplored. This investigation supported the contention that ninth graders can distinguish effective responding skills such as paraphrasing, reflection of feeling, and confrontation of defense mechanisms commonly used by adolescents.

Chapter 5
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS
FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The purpose of this investigation was to study the effectiveness of experiential-didactic training of ninth graders in therapeutic responding skills. The main motivation for this study came from the researcher's perception of ninth graders as persons involved in unusually intense interaction with peers who, like adults, are seeking to establish personal identities through association with the important people in their lives. Therapeutic responding techniques were determined to be logical means by which adolescents could not only benefit their classmates, but also give themselves dimensions of understanding of their own interactions so that they could better protect their own identity developments in these situations.

The data obtained in this study were used to test the hypothesis related to the effectiveness of training early adolescents in effective responding skills. Change scores for each subject were determined by a questionnaire administered before and after treatment. Significance was established beyond the .01 level by a t-test analysis.

Conclusions

The hypothesis that ninth graders receiving training in respond-

ing skills will improve their responding level at a significantly greater level than another group not receiving training was retained.

These are the possible explanations for this finding:

- a) a combination of didactic and experiential training is an effective mode of teaching responding skills.
- b) ninth graders, as Piaget asserts, generally have the ability to perceive points of view other than their own.
- c) the responding skills studied were simple enough to be easily learned by the subjects in the length of time allowed.
- d) the researcher was effective as a teacher and a model of responding skills.
- e) the questionnaire was written in such a manner that subjects could read and associate with the items.
- f) the Experimenter was biased.

Implications For Further Research

Based on the significant results of this study, the following are recommended actions for further research in the area of training adolescents in the responding skills.

First, research should be conducted in the best way this type of training could be implemented in the curriculum of American school

systems. Since this study took place in ninth grade Social Studies classrooms, it does not necessarily mean this is the only place for it. The question of optimal length of exposure to training and who should administer this training should also be explored.

Second, since the practitioners of Transactional Analysis have developed a simple paradigm of personality structure, the question of whether PAC would add to this type of training might also be considered for research.

Third, a follow-up study of subjects exposed to training would be useful. It has been shown that adolescents can identify effective responding levels, but, the question of whether they will use their newly acquired responding skills remains to be seen.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

Test Measuring Responding Level

YOUR INITIALS _____

THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS ARE ONES THAT YOU MIGHT HEAR FROM YOUR FRIENDS OR CLASSMATES. PUT A CHECK BY THE RESPONSE WHICH IS MOST LIKE THE WAY YOU WOULD REPLY.

1. "I'm glad I don't have a slim figure. My plump figure makes me feel more healthy."

_____ I hear you saying that you don't mind being plump but I can't help but think that your figure embarrasses you too.

_____ You say that you don't mind being overweight because it feels better than being slender.

_____ Skinny people look bad to me too.

_____ I think you look OK.

_____ You're proud of your figure.

2. "I hate my parents. All they ever do is give me orders--'do this', 'do that', 'be in at nine tonight or else', 'study your English', 'blah, blah, blah!'"

_____ Oh, I like my parents. They've done a lot for me and it makes

me feel good to obey them.

_____ I don't like taking orders either.

_____ If your parents don't take an interest in you, you'll get spoiled.

_____ It really makes you angry when your parents tell you what to do.

You want to have more freedom than they want to give you.

_____ You really don't like it when your parents take away your freedom.

3. "Let's go into the bathroom and smoke some dope, or are you chicken?"

_____ You really feel like you need that stuff to get you through the day.

_____ I don't like to get high.

_____ It's still illegal in this state to smoke marijuana and until it becomes legal I won't smoke it.

_____ No, I'm not chicken. Let's go do it. But, let's be careful too, I don't want to get caught.

_____ You want to get high and you think that if you don't try for it you'll be a coward.

4. "I had a date last night with _____. I was in rare form. You shoulda seen me. We went all the way."

_____ Wow!. You're really cool!

_____ I don't believe in sex before marriage because my mom says
it's bad and I want to do what's good.

_____ You feel really good about having sex last night with your date.

_____ It's a good feeling knowing that you can get into sex when your
friends can only talk about it. You need to prove yourself
more daring than that.

_____ Tell me all the details.

5. "It really makes me mad when I hear someone talk about someone
else behind their back."

_____ That makes me mad too. I just hate it.

_____ I don't see what's so bad about it.

_____ You mean it really hurts you to hear gossip because you're
afraid that they might talk about you behind your back.

_____ You don't like it when you hear gossip.

_____ You think you're perfect don't you: but you're really not be-
cause I've heard you gossip as much as anybody.

6. "I smile and say 'Hi' to all my friends--even when I'm mad at
them."

_____ I don't. If I'm mad at someone, I let them know right away.

_____ You are friendly with people who have made you angry?

_____ My friends make me angry sometimes too.

_____ I think it's really neat that you can be friendly to people even

when you don't like them.

____ You're saying that it's important for you to say 'Hello' to your friends--even when you don't feel like it.

7. "What's wrong with cheating? Everybody does it."

____ You mean it's OK for you to cheat because everybody does it.

____ I cheat all the time. I think it's part of the game. If the teacher doesn't catch you, then it's OK.

____ I don't think it's right to cheat. When you do that, you're cheating yourself.

____ I don't ever cheat on tests--except when I'm sure I can get away with it.

____ It's OK to cheat because everybody does it, you say, but at the same time I get the idea you don't feel good about it.

8. "Grades aren't the most important thing in the world. I don't care if I get all F's, I'm still the strongest one in my class."

____ You say you don't care what kind of grades you get because you're the strongest, but I see you looking at your feet when you talk about getting F's.

____ You're not the strongest one in our class; I am. If you don't believe me, let's go outside and settle it.

____ I agree with you. It's lots more important to be the way you feel than to work for A's when you don't really feel like it.

_____ I think people who get A's are teacher's pets.

_____ What's most important to you is being the strongest and not getting the best grades.

9. "I'm glad he got the outstanding student award. I sure didn't want it."

_____ I think you deserved the award. After all, you get better grades than him.

_____ I hear you saying that you're happy you didn't get the award because you wanted him to get it.

_____ I'm glad he got the award too.

_____ You did too want that award. You act like you don't, but I can tell that you wanted it.

_____ You say you didn't want it as though it will make up for the hurt you feel because you weren't chosen.

10. "I would rather spend my evenings working on my schoolwork than going out with my friends."

_____ I hear you saying that you would rather spend your time working than being with your friends.

_____ I would rather spend my evenings working on one of my hobbies, like reading novels.

_____ It's hard for you to do things with friends, is that why you would rather spend your evenings doing schoolwork?

_____ I think you're crazy to do schoolwork in the evenings instead of going out with friends.

_____ Sometimes I feel like staying home in the evenings too.

11. "Hey Wierdo! Where'd you get those stupid lookin' shoes?"

_____ Oh I picked these up at Penney's on sale.

_____ You'll see how wierd I am when you find these shoes halfway down your throat.

_____ I picked these shoes up at the same place you got that shirt.

_____ You're feeling pretty small today. Is that why you're trying to cut me down?

_____ You really don't like my shoes.

12. "My parents don't understand me. They think that just because I want to go out a lot I'm getting wild."

_____ You're saying your parents think you're becoming wild and you're afraid they won't trust you in the future.

_____ My parents haven't understood anything about me for a long time.

_____ You feel misunderstood because they think you're getting wild.

_____ I don't care what anybody says; parents think they know it all, but they're just as mixed up as kids.

_____ You're saying that your parents are too strict with you.

13. "I can't go to school with these braces on. Everybody will laugh at me."

____ You're afraid people will put you down because of your braces.

____ You don't look bad in braces.

____ I used to wear braces.

____ I used to wear braces and I went to school. If anybody puts you down, just ignore them and they will stop.

____ You dread the thought of other students putting you down. It's really important to you what they think of your appearance.

____ You have to be strong. It's more important to have straight teeth than a lot of people realize. You can do it.

APPENDIX B

Experimental Group Raw Scores (N=24)

S	E_{x1}	$(E_{x1})^2$	E_{x2}	Gain Score	$(E_{x2} - E_{x1})^2$
KSD	36	1296	43	7	49
TRA	25	625	45	20	400
VKR	27	729	31	4	16
BMA	27	729	40	13	169
MSS	26	676	41	15	225
CMH	27	729	32	5	25
LMG	25	625	27	2	4
KAR	22	484	28	6	36
DLM	37	1369	41	4	16
VLW	26	676	31	5	25
RLC	25	625	47	22	484
MRH	33	1089	30	-3	9
SBM	22	484	27	5	25
TWP	32	1024	32	0	0
TMR	24	576	43	19	361
RDK	22	484	29	7	49
JEC	24	576	27	3	9
KLJ	28	784	27	-1	1
WLM	36	1296	34	-2	4
TGT	30	900	41	11	121
MGS	30	900	46	16	256
MLW	23	529	34	19	361
CMM	30	900	40	10	100
GMC	30	900	41	11	121
Total	667	19005			

APPENDIX C

Control Group Raw Scores (N=18)

S	C_{X1}	$(C_{X1})^2$	C_{X2}	Gain Score	$(C_{X2}-C_{X1})^2$
JER	27	729	24	-3	9
ST	22	484	27	5	25
TJR	36	1296	36	0	0
SAP	19	361	22	3	9
TMW	30	900	23	-7	49
SMM	25	625	29	4	16
DKK	42	1764	41	-1	1
TKW	29	841	30	1	1
PAM	28	784	24	-4	16
CAB	33	1089	27	-6	36
DE	29	841	31	2	4
MUM	31	961	26	-5	25
CCC	30	900	33	3	9
DEA	30	900	32	2	4
VE	32	1024	32	0	0
LAW	32	1024	32	0	0
ASM	34	1156	28	-6	36
DGG	36	1296	23	-13	169
Total	545	16975			

REFERENCES CITED

- Barbour, A. and Goldberg, A.A. Interpersonal communication: teaching strategies and resources. Urbana, Ill., ERIC Clearinghouse in Reading and Communication Skills, 1974. (Reproduction Service No. ED 097 745)
- Beard, Ruth M. An Outline of Piaget's Developmental Psychology for Students and Teachers. New York: Basic Books Inc., 1969.
- Berne, Eric. What You Say After You Say Hello. New York: Grove Press, 1972
- Brammer, Lawrence M. and Everett L. Shostrom. Therapeutic Psychology. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc, 1968.
- Campbell, Donald T. and Julian C. Stanley. Experimental and Quasi Experimental Designs for Research. Chicago: Rand McNally, Inc., 1969.
- Carkhuff, R.R. and Truax, C.B. Lay mental health counseling. Journal of Consulting Psychology. 1965, 29, 422-432.
- Carkhuff, R.R. Helping and Human Relations. (2 Vols.) New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1969.
- Chapman, A.H. Games Children Play. New York: Berkley Publishing Corporation, 1972.
- Colen, Stewart. Communication patterns in children and adolescents. Urbana, Ill., ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, 1971. (Reproduction Service No. ED 058942)
- Corsine, Raymond, ed. Current Psychotherapies. Itasca, Ill.: F.E. Peacock Publishers, Inc., 1975.
- Damico, Sandra B. The effects of clique membership upon academic achievement. Adolescence. 1975, 10 (37), 120-124.
- Fiedler, F.E. The concept of an ideal therapeutic relationship. Journal of Consulting Psychology. 1950, 14, 239-245.
- Freed, Alvyn M. T.A. for Teens. Sacramento: Jalmar Press Inc., 1976

- Gazda, G.M. Human Relations Development. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1973.
- Gibb, J.R. Defensive Communication. Journal of Communication. 1961, 2, 141-148.
- Goffman, Erving. Alienation from interaction. Human Relations. 1957, 10, 47-60.
- Harris, Thomas A. I'm OK - You're OK. New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1969.
- Hatch, E.J. and Guernsey, B. A pupil relationship enhancement program. Personnel and Guidance Journal. 1975, 54, (2), 103-105.
- Higgins, W., Ivey, A., and Uhlemann, M. Media therapy: a programmed approach to behavioral change. Journal of Counseling Psychology. 1970, 17, 20-26.
- Horney, Karen. Neurosis and Human Growth. New York: W.W. Norton and Co., 1950.
- Ivey, A.E. Microcounseling and media therapy: state of the art. Counselor Education & Supervision. 1974, 13, (3), 172-183.
- Konopka, Gisela. The Adolescent Girl in Conflict. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1966.
- Patterson, C.H. Relationship Counseling and Psychotherapy. New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1966.
- Rogers, C.R. Counseling and Psychotherapy. Cambridge, Mass.: Riverside Press, 1942.
- Sarson, Irwin. Personality: An Objective Approach. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966.
- Semens, James P. and Kermit E. Krantz, eds. The Adolescent Experience. New York: The MacMillan Co., 1970.
- Shaffer, L.F. and J.J. Shoben, Jr. The Psychology of Adjustment. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1952.

Truax, C.B. and Carkhuff, R.R. Toward Effective Counseling and Psychotherapy: Training and Practice. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1967.