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ABSTRACT

SELF-CONCEPT AND MENTAL HEALTH
AS A FUNCTION OF ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

By

Charles W. Townsel

PROBLEM: This study was designed to test the hypothesis
that the self-concept and mental health of a fourth grade class
in a public school could be measureably improved by means of an
organized program. The study took approximately sixth months.
Five fourth grade classes in two schools acted as controls. The
groups were tested before and after the experiment.

PROCEDURES. A two-fold approach was used with the experi-
mental group. First, a series of twenty-four stories were
written for class discussion. The discussion pattern follows:
(1) the story characters, their behavior, and the causes of their
behavior were analyzed, (2) others who behaved in similar ways
were discussed, (3) finally, the children's own behavior was
discussed. Discussions were approximately twenty-four weeks.
The second part of the two-fold approach consisted of three indi-
vidual interviews with each child. These were held before the
first group discussions, around the twelfth, and after the last
story discussion. These interviews were not intended to be thera-
peutic; rather, they were planned to be largely informational,
supportive, and evaluative.

Two evaluative procedures were used. First, the groups were tested initially and finally with four measures, the California Test of Personality, essays on "What I Like About Myself" and "What I Dislike About Myself," a modified social distance scale, and a series of three sociograms with friends, play, and work criteria. The results were presented quantitatively in terms of group means which were analyzed for comparative changes. Where appropriate, means were tested for significance of differences with the t test. All groups were given an academic achievement test. Results were similarly treated. This constituted the quantitative part of the evaluation. Secondly, qualitative analyses were made of various data from the experimental group alone. These data were compiled from tape recordings of the story-discussion, students' written responses to each discussion, a record of discussion participation, an analysis of students' written problems and wishes, the three individual interviews, interests and activities questionnaires, and final evaluative questionnaires of students, parents, and teacher.

RESULTS: (1) Quantitatively, the experimental group made small but consistent gains on the personal measures of personality and self-likes and dislikes, as compared with the controls. These gains were generally statistically insignificant.

(2) A slightly significant gain was made on the social distance scale, but the other social measure, the sociogram, showed a lack of positive gain.

(3) The achievement data indicated that the experimental group did not suffer academically despite the time devoted to the study.

(4) Qualitatively, most of the children in the experimental group indicated that they understood themselves and others better in their oral and written comments.

(5) The student, parent, and teacher questionnaires indicated increased positive self-concept which was reflected in the behavior and attitudes of most of the children.

(6) As measured, the experimental class became interested in more things and engaged in a wider variety of activities.

(7) A few children made little progress and communicated some resistance to continued self-concept.

RECOMMENDATIONS: The conclusions and implications appear to indicate that further research of the following types is needed.

(1) A longitudinal study of self-concept and mental health and their relationships to academic achievement.

(2) Further development, evaluation, and refinement of methods and materials for self-concept and mental health.

(3) The teacher's role in the development of self-concept and mental health.

(4) The relationships between self-concept, mental health, and human relations.

SELF-CONCEPT AND MENTAL HEALTH
AS A FUNCTION OF
ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

By

Charles W. Townsel

A THESIS

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DEDICATION

To my wife, Ophelia; my son, Carlos; my daughters, Ava and Iva, whose love and understanding made this realization possible.

To my father and mother, Rev. and Mrs. General T. Townsel whose early sacrifices and love paved the way for this moment.

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Chapter I

THE PROBLEM, DESIGN, AND LIMITATIONS
OF THE STUDY

The stresses of life in our complex society are apparent

everywhere. These vicissitudes have caused many professional

people to begin to take a long hard look at the morbidity rates

of mental illness. There are not enough trained psychologists

and psychiatrists to treat the many who are already mentally

ill. Thus, realistically and logically, the emphasis on sound

mental well-being has shifted increasingly from curative

methods to those hopefully viewed as preventive.[1, 2]

This places the educator in an advantageous, albeit

sometimes distressing position. Most children are required to

attend school by law. What better place to institute programs

designed to guide healthy growth and development? The teacher

is one of the most vital factors in the educative process. Thus,

he, as Jersild has indicated,

> "He is the central figure in countless situations
> which can help the learner to realize and accept him-
> self or which may bring humiliation, shame, rejections,

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[1] Louis Kaplan and Denis Baron, _Mental Hygiene and Life_
(New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952), pp. 8-231

[2] Committee on Preventive Psychiatry, _Promotion of Mental
Health in the Primary and Secondary Schools: An Evaluation
of Four Projects_ (Report No. 18. Topeka: Group for the
Advancement of Psychiatry, 1951), 15 pp.

[3] Arthur T. Jersild, _In Search of Self_ (New York: Teachers
College, Columbia University, 1952), 1. 125

Teachers must, in some way, cope positively with the many feelings children express in the classroom. Teachers must understand children, and themselves, in order to effectively promote healthy development. Various attempts and emphases have been explored which try to aid teachers to promote children's understanding of their own and others' behavior. These attempts will be examined in Chapter II.

There is also an apparent need for greater understanding of the ways in which children develop the warm, accepting, friendly feelings and behavior so necessary to a satisfying life with others.

If an organized program could produce better understanding of oneself then, in the light of present research, it could logically lead to better mental health and positive self-concepts. This is vital in present day society and need not be belabored. The impact upon schools concerned with the relations between the human beings in the school and the corresponding effect upon their mental and emotional well-being and that of the community could be great. These are some of the reasons this study was undertaken.

Statement of the Problem

There exists a close relationship between one's image of himself, his desires and ability to achieve a specific goal, and the achievement of the goal in question. Research reports such as Bledsoe (1962), Brookover (1962), Raph (1966) and many others have demonstrated a positive correlation between self-concept,

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the desire for attainment and the achievement level of students in school. The need for self-concept and healthy mental attitudes in boys and girls resulted in the research undertaken. The problem is therefore stated here as an hypothesis along with related questions. The basic assumptions, definitions of terms, and over-all purpose of the study follow.

Hypothesis. This study was designed to test the major hypothesis that through a series of class discussions and individual interviews, self-concept and self-understanding of fourth grade students in a selected public school could be measurably improved.

However, the most vital single point in question in this study was, to what extent and in what direction, if any, did the children in the experimental group change as a result of the program?

Related to this point are the following questions:

(1) Were there any attitudinal changes?

(2) Did these changes affect their behavior at school and at home?

Assumptions. As the chapter on related research will indicate, we assume that the self-concept and self-understanding are closely related. We also assume that these two constructs are vital to one's mental health. In this connection Jersild and Helfant have indicated that, "Self-acceptance, acceptance by others, and acceptance of others are intimately interwoven from early infancy onward."[4]

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[4]Arthur T. Jersild, Kenneth Helfant and Associates, Education for Self-Understanding (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1963), p. 14

Another assumption of note is that we can measure the above constructs, at least on their periphery, with the selected tests and other devices employed in this study.

Definition of terms. The terms self, self-concept, self-understanding, and mental health are used so frequently in this study as to require their explicit definition.

Self. The self is defined here as the centralized inner core of a human being. It is complex, tends to remain stable, being resistant to rapid change. It is an inner frame of reference around which a being clusters his ideas and feelings about himself, others, and the roles he plays in life. It is quite subjective in nature and is the product of experience with one's own abilities, disabilities, likes, dislikes, and many other factors. It is usually colored considerably by the subjectively perceived impressions of other's actions towards and reactions to self.

Self-concept. Self-concept is "those perceptions, beliefs, feelings, attitudes, and values which the individual views as describing himself: according to Perkins (1958). For this study, it is defined operationally as how the student sees himself as relates to the questions in the instrument "How I Feel About Myself?"

Self-understanding. Self-understanding denotes the degree to which a person can blend his subjective interpretation of his self-concept, and his attitude toward others with the more objective data he perceives about himself. Realistic self-understanding is taken to be basic to mental health.

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In this connection Jersild and Helfant have stated:

In order to help a student understand himself, it is
necessary to give attention both to objective facts and to the
subjective implications of these facts. The more a child knows
terms of objective facts (height, weight, mental ability, how well
he is liked by others, etc.), the better it will be for his
mental health. But whatever the objective fact may be, the
subjective reality of it - the way the person perceives it and
feels about it - is, to him, the most important thing.[5]

Mental health. Mental health is defined here as one's

ability to cope successfully with the persistent problems and

stresses of daily life in such a way as to avoid psychological

demoralization. It also connotes one's ability to retain enough

energy and flexibility to continue to grow, change, and develop

toward maturity.

Purpose of this study. The research undertaken was intended

to aid children in developing self-concepts conducive to self-

understanding and their ability to get along with others in a

group of normal children.

It was then our purpose to examine the efficiency of such an

approach, its methods and techniques, and its evaluation. In order

to accomplish this we attempted to share and clarify with the

children some of the reasons why they and others behave as they do.

Design of the Study

Initial selection and comparisons. The initial comparisons of

the groups were made as to age, sex, number in each group, and in-

telligence. In the light of all available information the experi-

mental group was selected. Following this selection all groups,

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[5]Ibid., 7 f.

experimental and control, took the same or equated forms of
the following tests on a pre-post testing basis:

(1) California Achievement Test Battery. Elementary

(2) California Test of Personality, Intermediate Series.

(3) Classroom Social Distance Scale.

(4) Sociograms.

(5) Open-ended essays.

Experimental conditions. The experimental conditions were
comprised of individual interviews and class discussions.
The individual interviews were held before, during, and after
the twenty-four class story-discussions which were written ex-
pressly for this study by the experimenter. The story-
discussions and interviews were guided by the researcher in such a
way as to promote learning about oneself and one's relations to
others.

Final comparisons. Following the final testing the results
of the experiment were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively.

The quantitative analysis was based on the results of the
above tests in all groups. Three distinct steps were followed.
First, comparative analysis of the groups' test results was under-
taken. Second, changes between the groups were examined for
direction and significance. Third, the changes within the ex-
perimental group were intensively scrutinized.

Additional evaluation was employed on a qualitative basis
within the experimental group. This type of analysis was based
on information and excerpts from the following sources:

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(1) Discussion content.

(2) Discussion participation.

(3) Interviews.

(4) Projective devices.

(5) Student's writings.

(6) Student, teacher, and parent questionnaires.

These findings were treated qualitatively as they did not lend themselves to the methods of statistical analysis employed for the quantitative comparisons. They presented a different picture that was confined to the experimental group.

Limitations of the Study.

Theoretical limitations. Certain theoretical limitations are imposed upon this study. In dealing with a construct or concept as difficult to define and describe as that of the self we become aware of the many drawbacks in the treatment of the abstract. The researcher is limited by the fact that he cannot more than begin to deal with the many ramifications of the self and mental health.

Doubtless many of the facets of mental health and self-concept were not touched upon, much less dealt with intensively. This study is limited to those aspects of self-concept that are apparently important in relation to the student's present level of social and emotional adjustment. No specific attention was drawn to many of the other factors in influencing adjustment in the school and community environment such as religious affiliations, recreational organizations, and the like. Psychosexual development and the understanding of this area of growth were not touched upon. When

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aspects of psychosexual development arose in group discussion or interview, they were not avoided.

Some of these aspects of mental health and self-concept were dealt with rather indirectly at the student's behest in the individual interviews but did not arise much in the class discussions. In this respect the authors of Education for Self-Understanding, state, "The amount of objective information a young person should be given about himself depends on how much he can tolerate, accept, and integrate into a realistic self-picture."[6]

Shane and McSwain have dealt briefly with this kind of theoretical limitation when they discuss evaluation within the child. They comment that the teacher

> ...can only hope that the "private world" of each child's inner being is becoming the kind of world that will bring ... goals ... closer to reality through the lives the children are leading and will lead as mature adults.[7]

They add a remark in regards to the "inability of anyone actually to reach the inner being of the child."[8] Yet, they also advise that this does not proscribe shrewd judgments on the part of the teacher in her attempts to evaluate the school's success in affecting this inner being. This would tend to clarify our theoretical limitations but, at the same time, it poses a

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[6]Ibid., p. 8

[7]Harold G. Shane and E. T. McSwain, Evaluation and the Elementary Curriculum (New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1961), p. 118.

challenge to make planned efforts to "take into account, and if possible give direction to, the child's psychologically 'private world' in which he lives."[9]

Practical limitations. The study was made with a limited sample drawn from a selected public school system described in Chapter III. This constitutes a decided limitation as to the conclusions which might be drawn. We are further limited in this respect by the fact that the sample was comprised of only fourth grade students. Further, some of the students were absent several times and might have affected the results although probably not to a significant extent.

The brief length of time, five months over-all, that the study took place constitutes a limitation. On the other hand, Rosenthal[10] found significant changes in a similar program in much less time.

The experiment, using the subjects in an ordinary public school situation, is limited in the sense that a tightly designed matched-pairs type of comparison was virtually impossible. Group comparison was made instead.

The measures employed to assess changes subject the study to certain limitations. Since we are dealing with a theoretical construct with which little research has been reported on a group basis at this grade level there are no particular instruments or tests

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[9]Ibid., p. 54

[10]Sheldon Rosenthal, "A Fifth Grade Classroom Experiment in Fostering Mental Health," The Journal of Child Psychiatry, 2:302-29, 1952.

which are specifically designed to measure self-concept. Hence, the tests used are in part, assumed to measure broad aspects of self-concept. In this sense the measurement employed might most aptly be called peripheral. An attempt has been made to select the best available devices for this measurement.

The limitations stated above are common to many types of research and research instruments that attempt to deal with human personality. There is no need to avoid this type of research because of these limitations. Rather, there is a definite need to further apply and refine the research methods and tests of this nature in order to better understand and obviate their limitations and to increase our knowledge of human behavior.

Plan of Presentation

The body of this paper has been organized in such a way as to describe the study and present its results.

Chapter II cites the research that is related to the self concept and self-understanding, and discusses the mental health and human relations programs that have contributed most to this study.

In the third chapter the process of selection of the experimental and control group is explained following a description of the community and the school system in which the study took place. The chapter also gives attention to the tests and other measuring devices that were used in the study and examines their respective reliabilities and validities.

Chapter IV details the steps that were followed in the experimental group. An outline of the stories that were written for class discussion is included. Specific purposes of each of the three individual interviews are given.

The next two chapters detail the results of the study. Chapter V presents the comparative analysis of the results of the pre-and post-testing in a quantitative manner. Chapter VI deals exclusively with the additional qualitative analysis of the results within the experimental group.

The final chapter cites the conclusions that are supported by this research and suggests future areas of needed research.

CHAPTER II

RESEARCH RELATED TO THE SELF AND
SELF-UNDERSTANDING AS FACTORS
IN MENTAL HEALTH

As the literature was examined an effort was made to consider

the following main topics for inclusion in the foregoing review of

research:

(1) Definition, development, and differentiation of the self.

(2) Research related to the self-concept.

(3) The role of self-understanding in mental hygiene.

(4) Studies of group approaches designed to aid the

     development of self-understanding and mental health.

The literature of education, psychology, and psychiatry is

liberally sprinkled with references to the self. Self adjustment,

self-appraisal, self-defense, self-involvement, self-enhancement,

self-discipline, self-understanding, self-direction; these and many

others with the word self as a prefix indicate the wide usage of this

term. A word of such use certainly must enjoy a wide understanding.

Yet, upon searching an authoritative source, despite the definitions

of self-activity, self-consciousness, self-confidence, self-control,

and self-correlation that we find in the Dictionary of Education[1] we

cannot, strangely, find a definition of the self. Just what

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[1]C. V. Good, editor, Dictionary of Education (New York:
McGraw Hill Book Co., 1945), pp. 495

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is the self? Is there any generally agreed upon definition? What does the literature hold for the understanding of the concept of self? Further, what is the self like? How does it develop? What research has been done regarding this concept? Answers to these questions were sought.

The Self-Concept Defined

Since Socrates said, "Know thyself," the self has been a subject of conjecture for centuries. Debates concerning the self have interested philosophers and others for some time. William James recognized two concepts regarding the self, the "I" and the "Me."[2] Mead founded his philosophical-scientific social psychology upon the same distinction while greatly elaborating and adding to the social origins of the self. Mead stated, "We cannot realize ourselves except in so far as we can recognize the other in his relationship to us. It is as he takes the attitude of the other that the individual is able to realize himself, as a self."[3]

Jersild. Recently we have seen a reiteration of the self-concept in the literature dealing with the dynamics of human behavior. Jersild has called attention to this construct in a speech to the American Psychological Association and, more recently, in his work dealing with the categorization of three thousand subjects' answers to the questions

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[2]William James, Psychology (New York: Henry Holt and Co.,1907), 478 pp.

[3]George H. Mead, Mind, Self, and Society (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934), p. 194.

"What I Like About Myself," and "What I Dislike About Myself."[4,5]

Jersild has defined the self in a number of ways but the most inclusive definition he has advanced follows:

> When we speak of the self we mean, among other things,
> a system of ideas, attitudes, appraisals, and commitments pertaining to one's own person. The person experiences these as distinctly belonging to him and all
> of them together constitute the person's awareness of
> his individual existence and his conception of who and
> what he is. These attitudes and ideas are, of course,
> influenced by learning. This is an obvious fact.[6]

Jersild further related this definition to the definitions posed by a

number of psychiatrically and psychologically oriented writers. We

see here a confirmation of the social (through learning) origins of the

self. The majority of the definitions found are drawn from wide experi-

ence with human beings, largely in clinical settings. Thus, we might

term them clinical intuitive as there is little evidence that the con-

clusions arrived at have been the result of rigorous research of a

scientific nature.

Sullivan. Notable among these clinical intuitive definitions is

the one expressed by Sullivan, "the self dynamism is built up out of

(the) experience of approbation and disapproval."[7] Bronfenbrenner added

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[4]Arthur T. Jersild, "Self Understanding in Childhood and Adolescence," American Psychologist, 6:122-26, April, 1951.

[5]Arthur T. Jersild, In Search of Self (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952), 146 pp.

[6]Ibid., p. 125.

[7]Harry S. Wullivan, Conceptions of Modern Psychiatry (Washington, D. C.: The William Alanson White Foundation, 1948), p. 9.

to this definition of Sullivan's by saying, "to put it more

succinctly, the self is the organization of perceived empa-

thetic experience."[8] We begin to see that the self is a

rather broad concept in terms of understanding people.

Lewin. Lewin treated the self in some detail but left

a final definition somewhat ambiguous. A series of comments

Lewin made regarding the self that aid in the construction

of this concept follow:

> It would be natural from Gestalt theoretical considerations
> to understand the self in terms of the psychical totality
> perhaps as its structural individuality. As a matter of
> fact, some such notion is basic to the concept of charac-
> ter, for the adequate conception of which one must start,
> not from the presence of certain isolated properties
> (traits), but from the whole of the person. If from this
> beginning one comes to the problem of the psychical dyna-
> mic systems, the attempt will in all probability be made
> to identify the self with the whole of the psychical totality.

> A number of facts, however, drive one in the opposite
> direction to the view that a special region, within the
> psychical totality, must be defined as the self in the
> narrower sense. Not every psychically existent system
> would belong to this central self.

> The self-system would also have in functional respects -
> this is most important - a unique position. Not every
> tense psychical system would stand in communication with
> this self.[9]

For Lewin then, the self was a somewhat limited aspect of

the person's "psychical totality." In relation to the child

Lewin stated:

> For the child, the boundary between the self and the

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[8]Urie Bronfenbrenner, "Toward an Integrated Theory of Personality," (R. Blanke and G. Ramsey, editors, Perception: An Approach to Personality, New York: Ronald Press Co., 1951), p. 250.

[9]Kurt Lewin, A Dynamic Theory of Personality (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1935), pp. 61-2.

environment is less defined than for the adult ...
In other words, the child, to a greater extent than
the adult, is a dynamic unity.[10]

This comment shows the unity of the self and tends to counter-act

the comment above that the self should be defined in a narrower

sense. Lewin's concept then is not too far from other, apparently

broader in scope, definitions. We must consider the fact that

Lewin's structure of personality was a broad one in itself. Building

upon Gestalt theoretical foundations the self deals, even if it is

a "special region," with a total background of the person. There-

fore, it has relations of vital kind with all other aspects of the

field.

Hopkins. Hopkins has also contributed a field theoretical

definition of the self. He stressed the unitary nature of the self.

He defined the self as follows:

> ...the self concept, ... is what the individual considers
> himself to be or what he thinks he really is. It is
> composed of those parts of the phenomenal field which he
> has selected and differentiated as a definite, relatively
> stable, consistent characteristic of himself. His self-
> concept is his inner core or real, true, genuine, and
> intimate self ... This unique self is the center of the
> individual's phenomenal field, which is always organized
> by him around him.[11]

We find that the field theorists hold that the self appears to be

the real or true center of all behavior. As such, we might assume

that to understand another's self-concept and the ways in which it

developed would lead us to better understand, and possibly predict,

his behavior.

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[10]Ibid., p. 106

[11]L. Thomas Hopkins, The Emerging Self in School and Home
(New York: Harper and Brothers, 1954), p. 320.

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Rogers. In recent years much attention has been given to the

self and the aid this concept gives in understanding and interpre-

ting behavior. Rogers has defined the well-adjusted individual

as one able to accept all perceptions, including those about the

self, into his personality organization.

> It would appear that when all of the ways in whÁbhthe
> individual perceives himself - all perceptions of the
> qualities, abilities, impulses, and attitudes of the
> person, and all perceptions of himself in relation to
> others - are accepted into the organized conscious con-
> cept of the self, then this achievement is accompanéed
> by feelings of comfort and freedom from tension which are
> experienced as psychological adjustment.[12]

Rogers also pointed out that his relationship between self-

concept and self-adjustment of the client in counseling

is frequently observed in client-centered therapy and added

that this relationship seems to increase in the client as

the therapy progresses and the subject improves in his adjust-

ment.

Combs and others. Combs, Taylor and Combs, and Snygg

and Combs discussed Roger's definition and adapted it to

their phenomenological interpretation.[13, 14, 15] They dis-

cussed the adequate self in some detail and defined it by saying:

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[12]Carl Rogers, "Some Observations on the Organization of
Personality," American Psychologist, 2:364, September, 1947.

[13]Arthur W. Combs, "Phenomenological Concepts in Non-
Directive Therapy," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 12:
197-208, July, 1948

[14]Charles Taylor and Arthur Combs, "Self-Acceptance and Adjustment,"
Journal of Consulting Psychology, 16:89-91, April, 1952.

[15]Donald Snygg and Arthur Combs, Individual Behavior
(New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949), 386 pp.

"A phenomenal self is adequate in the degree to which
it is capable of accepting into its organization any and all
aspects of reality."[16] This is a similar approach to that
of Lecky when he discussed the adequacy of the consistent
self.[17]

Snygg and Combs earlier defined the self in this way:
"The self-concept includes those parts of the phenomenal
field which the individual has differentiated as definite
and fairly stable characteristics of himself."[18] They also
said, "The phenomenal self includes all those parts of the
phenomenal field which the individual experiences as part
or characteristic of himself."[19] There is apparently a
considerable closeness of this description to the theoretical
constructs developed by Lewin.

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[16]Ibid., p. 136.

[17]Prescott Lecky, Self Consistency: A Theory of Personality
(New York: Island Press, 1945), 154 pp.

[18]Snygg and Combs, op. cit., p. 112.

[19]Ibid., p. 38

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Snygg and Combs further elaborated upon the self-concept by

explaining the maintenance of the frame of reference of the staff:

> . . . phenomenal self is the only frame of reference
> which the individual possesses. It is the only self he
> knows. Whether other persons would agree to his self-
> definitions or not, the phenomenal self has the feeling of
> complete reality, to the individual. Wherever he is, what-
> ever he does, the maintenance and enhancement of this self
> is the prime objective of his existence.[20]

The complexity and organization of the self is treated by saying,

"Although the phenomenal self is complex it is by no means dis-

organized. Rather it is a highly organized function which operates

in consistent and predictable fashion."[21] This statement supports

the approach of Lewin and aids in clarifying his concepts. .

Raimy. Raimy has presented a theory of self-concept that well

represents the field theorist's approach and strongly supports the

position taken by Snygg and Combs. Raimy posits the following three

principles:

> 1. The self-concept is a learned perceptual system
>   which functions as an objective in the perceptual field.
> 2. The self-concept not only influences behavior but is
>   itself altered and restructured by behavior and un-
>   satisfied needs.
> 3. It may have little or no relation to external reality.[22]

Raimy's statement that the self may show little or no relation to

external reality poses one of the problems in dealing scientifically

with such a construct. It would be advisable

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[20]Ibid., p. 79.

[21]Ibid., p. 79.

[22]Victor C. Raimy, "Self Reference in Counseling Interviews",
Journal of Consulting Psychology, 12:154, May, June, 1948.

to note here that the consistency and predictability of the
self causes such a problem. We encounter all the disabili-
ties of personality measurement when we deal with the fact -
or theory - that the self is such a vital core of the human
being that it is sometimes difficult to assess it since
people frequently prefer not to confide their innermost feel-
ings to counselors. This has been frequently recognized
and noted specifically by Snygg and Combs and Hopkins.

Differentiation of the Self

As we review the above definitions it becomes apparent
that there is some separation of various aspects of the self.
These distinctions are presented as differentiations of the
self.

Jung. Some differentiation of the self has been
attempted. Jung has distinguished between the self and
the ego:

> The really fundamental subject, the Self, is far
> more comprehensive than the ego, because the former
> essentially the focal point of consciousness.

> The individual Self is a portion, or excerpt or
> representative of something universally present in all
> living creatures, and therefore, a correspondingly
> graduated kind of psychological process, which is born
> anew in every creature.[23]

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[23]C. G. Jung, _Psychological Types or The Psychology
of Individuation_ (New York: Harcourt, Brace, and Co., 1923),
p. 475.

Jung later equated the "something universally present" to instinct (an inborn manner of acting) or archetype. Jung therefore stands in partial opposition to the previously named writers as regards the social nature of the development of self. Jung goes on to say, "the ego is only the subject of my consciousness, while the Self is the subject of my totality: Hence it also includes the unconscious psyche."[24] Thus Jung embraces the ego within the self.

Symonds. Symonds took issue with an all-inclusiveness of either the self or the ego. He stated this differentiation by saying:

> . . . there are two concepts with regard to the self which correspond to the self as subject and as object which need to be kept distinct and which therefore require two different terms. Ego henceforth will be used to refer to that phase of personality which determines adjustments to the outside world in the interest of satisfying inner needs in those situations where choice and decision are involved. Or, to define ego differently, it is an active process for developing and executing a plan of action for attaining satisfaction in response to inner drives. The self, on the other hand, refers to the body and mind and to bodily and mental processes as they are observed and reacted to by the individual.[25]

Symonds later elaborated upon this differentiation when he remarked about the reality of the self and separated the inner core, which he equated to the self-concept of Snygg and Combs, and the outer fringes of the self.

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[24]Ibid., p. 540

[25]Percival M. Symonds, The Ego and the Self (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1951), p. 4.

The self is the most real thing in our experience, and
is the frame of reference with which a person perceives,
conceives, and evaluates the world around him and to-
ward which he reacts . . . the self has a periphery
as well as a core.[26]

Murphy. This differentiation is consistent with the

one offered by Murphy, "the inner world becomes important

. . . a conceptual unity is deduced. The self is a thing

perceived and it is also a thing conceived; in both senses

it is constantly responded to."[27] Murphy related this

dual self to the large part of behavior that constitutes

personality and added that this behavior is self-oriented.

This would relate closely to the self-enhancement tendency

of the self that Snygg and Combs have mentioned.

Cole and Bruce. The self is thus differentiated by

some authors although, theoretically at least, the self is

the core of unity and relative consistency. Cole and Bruce

postulated four selves which they say are involved in every

personality.

First: The real action, the "true behavior of the
          individual.
Second: The self's own, expressed description of
          behavior.
Third: "As others see us," evaluations of our behavior
          by others.
Fourth: The super-ego, the ideal self, which each
          of us carries with him from childhood.[28]

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[26]Ibid., p.70.

[27]Gardner Murphy, Personality: A Biosocial Approach
to Origins and Structure (New York: Harpers and Brothers, 1947),p.479.

[28]L. E. Cole and W. F. Bruce, "Educational Psychology
(New York: World Book Co., 1950), p. 326.

22

We might then conclude on the basis of the evidence presented that there is no essential discrepancy between the self as a unified core and the finer differentiations within the core and its periphery. The differentiations noted are taken as evidence of the complexity in nature of the self.

Hopkins. Hopkins put this rather succinctly when he distinguished between the inner self-concept and the outer sheath of the self. He held that the inner self is the only real, true, self, while the sheath is a kind of protective outer covering which has as its main function the maintenance and protection of the inner self. He went on to describe three levels of differentiation in each unique self, "the fully accepted, the partially accepted, and the rejected."[29] Yet, despite these three levels and the distinction between the inner and outer self, Hopkins still stressed the unity and consistency of the self.

Development of the Self

Implicit in any discussion of the differentiation of self is the fact that this differentiation occurs as the self develops. Some authorities give attention to this development.

Murphy. Murphy explained the development of the self in some detail. His discussion of the origins and develop-

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[29]Hopkins, op. cit., p. 325.

ment of the self was similar to that of Symonds. Jersild also

discussed the development of the self and noted that:

> The self is acquired. It is not ready-made. It develops
> as a person, with his inborn abilities and tendencies and
> all that is inherent in his make-up, meets up with the
> experiences of life . . . influenced strongly . . . by his
> relationships with other people.[30]

Symonds. Symonds took a similar direction in describing the

development of the self and added to our understanding of the im-

portance of the role of perception in this process. He stated:

> Like the ego, the self as a percept is not present at
> birth but begins to develop gradually as perceptive
> powers develop . . . . The self develops as we feel
> ourselves separate and distinct from others, but the
> . . . Perception is an important factor in this process
> of differentiation.[31]

Tryon and Henry. Others have briefly discussed the develop-

ment and organization of the self. Tryon and Henry related the self

development of the child to his methods and techniques of dealing

with his problems and stated that the self concept is important to

consider in working with children.[32]

Review of Definitions, Differentiations, and Development of the Self

The self is a vital complex unity of the human being. This

idea runs through most of the literature reviewed.

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[30]Jersild, In Search of Self, op. cit., p. 16.

[31]Symonds, op. cit., pp. 62-63.

[32]Caroline Tryon and William E. Henry, "How Children Learn
Personal and Social Adjustment," Learning and Instruction, Forty-
ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education,
Part I (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950), pp. 169-171.

Apparently, the self is that part of a person which determines much of his behavior. It is the hard inner core of being which includes all a person conceives and perceives of himself and his relations to others and their relations to him. The self is relatively stable and consistent, tends to resist rapid change, and is rather pervasive in terms of the total personality.

Differentiations have been noted between the self and the ego. The self is generally considered to evolve later than the ego and is a more inclusive construct than the ego. We have reviewed some of the differentiations within the self-system as relates to the ways in which one conceives and perceives of himself and the ways in which one conceives and perceives that others think of himself. These differences make interesting hypothetical constructs but do not apparently indicate that the real self is anything other than a unity, a whole, an inner core of being.

The slight mention of the self in children apparently indicates that this is an area of study which is somewhat lacking even in theoretical considerations. The self in a child develops as a dynamic unity but is not apparently differentiated to the degree that it is in adolescents or adults. As such, it would perhaps be more easily observable in children.

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Research Related to the Self-Concept

With the self defined and differentiated, attention

was directed to the research related to this concept. Each

of these studies illustrated the close relationship of self-

concept and understanding of others.

Brookover, et. al[32] summarized among other things in a

study of the relation of self-concept to achievement in junior

high school subjects that:

1. Self-concept of ability is positively related
   to school achievement in seventh grade when
   measured intelligence is controlled.

2. A student's self-concept of ability in a
   specific school subject may differ from his
   general self-concept of ability.

3. A student's self-concept of ability is positively
   related to the image he perceives that signifi-
   cant others hold of him . . . when parents,
   teachers, and peers are identified as significant
   others.

4. The family socio-economic status is positively related
   to seventh grade students' self-concept of ability....

Sheerer. Sheerer and Stock have demonstrated a correlation

between the attitudes of acceptance and respect for self and the

attitudes of acceptance and respect for others in analyzing units

of self-reference taken during recorded interviews of clients in

a client-centered counseling situation. Both researches tend to confirm

Mead's analysis of the social nature of the self.

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[32]Brookover, Wilbur B., et. al. Self-Concept of Ability and
Achievement. Final Report on Cooperative Research Project No. 1636
entitled Improving Academic Achievement through Students' Self-Concept
Enhancement. Bureau of Educational Research Services, Michigan
State University, East Lansing, 1965.

Sheerer analyzed ten counseling cases who had a total

of fifty-nine interviews. From these interviews 1,366 units

of response relating to the self were derived. These units

of response led Sheerer to conclude the following:

1. It was found that acceptance of and respect for
   self and acceptance of and respect for others can be
   operationally defined and objectively rated with a
   satisfactory degree of reliability.
2. In roughly three-fourths of the units of client
   response in the ten cases the clients are occupied
   with self evaluation while less than one-fifth of
   the units deal with evaluation of others.
3. In general, there is a marked and fairly regular
   increase in the measured acceptance of and respect for
   self from the beginning to the end of the cases. There
   is also a marked but more uneven rise in the acceptance
   of others from the beginning to the end.
4. There is a definite and substantial correlation between
   attitudes of acceptance of and respect for self and
   acceptance of and respect for others.
5. Acceptance of self and acceptance of others is on
   the average, higher in the second half of the counseling
   interviews than in the first.
6. There is a closer correlation between the "Self" and "Others"
   ratings in the second half of the cases than occurs in the
   first half.[33]

In relation to Sheerer's conclusions Symonds remarked that,

"one can be fairly sure that the person who is critical of

others sets a low valuation on himself . . . and . . . the

person who esteems his fellows really thinks well of him-

self."[34]

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[33]E. T. Sheerer, "An Analysis of the Relationship Between
Acceptance of and Respect for Self and Acceptance of and Respect
for Others in Ten Counseling Cases," Journal of Consulting
Psychology, 13:175, June, 1949.

[34]Symonds, op. cit., p. 113.

Stock. Stock, after a similar, though somewhat less compre-
hendsive study than Sheerer's confirmed the previous findings when
she stated:

> The total results of this study indicate that a definite
> relationship exists between the way an individual feels
> about himself and the way he feels about other persons.
> An individual who holds negative feelings toward other
> people in general. As his feelings about himself change
> objective or positiye, feelings about others change in
> similar direction.[35]

In relation to the two studies mentioned above, it is interes-
ting to conjecture upon the possibility of reversing the procedure
in the light of the social nature of the self. If one were to work
within a group or class framework to deliberately build up the self-
concept of a selected child or children might we not then expect that
the relations with others, being then of a more positive nature,
might result in better acceptance of self. It appears that this is
the direction many of the mental hygienists are indicating without
formulating their purpose in the same words.

Phillips. Phillips carried the clinical investigations
mentioned above one step further when he evolved a personality
questionnaire out of the description of self-other attitudes as
reported by Sheerer. Upon testing various small populations and
analyzing the data Phillips made the following tentative conclu-
sions:

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[35]Dorothy Stock, "An Investigation into the Interrelations
Between the Self Concept and Feelings Directed Towards Other
Persons and Groups," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 13:180,
June, 1949.

It is apparent from these results that the self-others
attitudes as measured in terms of an objective, multiple-
choice questionnaire show substantial relationships far
above that expected by chance. The results show also
that the observation of clinicians in regard to self-others
attitudes hold for normal or non-clinical population; these
attitudes are not, therefore, a function of clinical status,
maladjustment, or the like. There appears to be no con-
sistent relationship with age insofar as this study explores
that problem.[36]

Raimy. Raimy, on a slightly different tact, analyzed the

recorded interviews of fourteen counseling cases. There were 111

interviews in all. The cases were classified as to success. Seven

were designated as successful, four as unsuccessful, and three

doubtful. Self-reference remarks of each of the cases were analyzed.

He found that consistent differences were apparent in the change of

self-reference remarks of the clients in successful, as opposed to

un-successful, cases. Raimy concluded by saying, "Changes in self-

approval are indicative of changes taking place in personality

although the observed changes may not be direct measures of the fun-

damental changes themselves."[37] He added that, "The results are

interpreted as being in accord with the hypothesis that successful

counseling involves essentially a change in the client's Self-Concept."[38]

McQuitty. McQuitty has compared the results of a questionnaire

designed to relate personality integration with self-concept after

testing one hundred thirty mental hospital

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[36]E. Lakin Phillips, "Attitudes Towards Self and Others: A Brief
Questionnaire Report", Journal of Consulting Psychology, 15:81,
Feb., 1951.

[37] Raimy, op. cit., p. 161.

[38]Ibid., pp. 152-3.

patients and eighty-four community persons. He concluded

that evidence concerning the relative homogeneity of the

self derived from his research. He stated the following

implications:

> We suggest that the adequate personality is one in
> whom the self is well-integrated, in the sense that
> his successive subjective descriptions of self are
> characteristic of similar categories of people, and
> as a result of this he can readily accept into the
> organized conscious concept of self all his inter-
> pretation of reality, including, of course, percep-
> tions of himself.[39]

McQuitty related his findings to those of Snygg and Combs,

Rogers, and Aidman when he said, "Maximum psychological ad-

justment exists when all of an individual's subjective

opinions of himself are entirely acceptable to him."[40]

Aidman. All of these authors emphasized the finding

that a reorganization of self resulted in behavioral

changes, and that behavioral changes were necessarily out-

comes of changes, in one's concept of self. Aidman has illus-

trated these changes and relationships in his paper dealing

with the analysis of one counseled case.[41]

Brownfain. Brownfain defined the self-concept as a

system of central meanings which an individual has about

himself and his relation to the social environment about him.

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[39]Louis L. McQuitty, "A Measure of Personality Integration
in Relation to the Concept of Self," Journal of Personality, 18:472,
July, 1950.

[40]Ibid., p. 473.

[41]Ted Aidman, "Changes in Self Perception as Related to Changes
in Perception of One's Environment," American Psychologist, 3:286, July, 194

He analyzed the stability of the self-concept of sixty-two
college men and found that those with a more stable self-
concept, as measured, were the better adjusted.[42] Here
again confirmation of the concept of self as being very
closely related to the psychological and social adjustment
of the individual was found.

Conclusions Based Upon Research About Self

It was found that the self is closely related to the
total adjustment of an individual. Experimental evidence
appeared to indicate that as one changes his concept of self
his relations with others show a positive behavioral change
in successful counseling cases. These changes are not gen-
erally apparent in unsuccessful counseling cases. The same
analyses indicated that as one accepts himself more positively
and understands himself better he is more positively accept-
ing and respecting others. Evidence has indicated that this
is not only true of a clinical population, but onr.a limited
scale, true of a general population. The exception was made
when dealing with a mental hospital population.

These research findings tend to indicate that self-
theory, centered around the self-concept, is a useful con-
struct which lends itself to scientific experimentation but
the means and methods of such exploration are in their infancy.

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[42]John J. Brownfain, "Stability of the Self-Concept as
a Dimension of Personality," (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation,
Ann Arbor, University of Michigan, 1951), 143 pp.

The following statements indicate the general con-

clusions derived from the research presented thus far:

(1) The self is apparently the inner core of being.

(2) The self-concept is a determining factor in human

behavior.

(3) The self-concept is apparently expressed through

a child's self-understanding as shown in his

behavior.

(4) The social and emotional aspects of the self and

of one's understanding of one's self appear to be

observable and measureable through a variety of

devices.

(5) Self-understanding and social adjustment appear to

be closely related.

The foregoing research also seems to support the

contention that a group approach to self-understanding, if

effective, might result in positive dynamic changes in

social adjustment.

Self-Concept and Mental Health

Understanding one's self is a learning process. As

the child grows and develops he gains a wide variety of ex-

perience. This experience aids him in the development of

his self-concept and his relationships with others. As he

lives with others and learns from them he clarifies and de-

fines his inner self. Much of his activity is directed to-

ward self-development and self-enchancement, the maintenance,

protection, and expansion of his inner self.

Without this growth -through experience he could not

come to know and understand himself. With it, he comes to

a deeper and wider understanding of his own needs and clari-

fies his values. One authority has remarked, while discussing mental

health and emotional maturity, that the old adage, "Know thyself"

was a luxury to the Greeks but is an absolute necessity to maturity

and stability is our society.

Rosenthal has summarized the need for mental health

in supporting his approach to a human relations program.[43]

Many mental hygienists have stressed the importance of self-

concept as one of the basic needs in order to achieve

mental well-being. The eminent psychiatrist, William Menninger,

in an address entitled Understanding Ourselves delivered at

the 38th Annual Convention of the National Association of

Secondary School Principals, on February 20-24, 1954 in

Milwaukee, Wisconsin, stated that "the only conceivable primary

aim of education should be to prepare the individual for social

living." He added that only a small percentage of our school

systems have crystallized their thinking about mental health as

a primary objective. In his thinking, the school's main object is

to help each individual develop a healthy personality. This would

be accomplished by helping the student understand himself, his

capabilities, abilities, and limitations.

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[43]Sheldon Rosenthal, "A Fifth Grade Classroom Experiment in
Fostering Mental Health," The Journal of Child Psychiatry, 2:302-
329, 1952.

At the same convention, Dr. John A. Schindler commented upon the need for educating the emotions. He stated that the average physician in this country sees twenty-three patients a day, of whom twelve are emotionally disturbed. Schindler felt that this fact must lead us to the concept that emotional stress and emotional stasis are learned. Thus it is, he argued, that the schools should put into their curricula the things that would, "teach people maturity of which the emotional stasis is the direct manifestation." These comments and many others lead us to the realization that the self, self-understanding, and mental health are so closely related as to be almost interdependent.

The development of a healthy self-concept appears to be dependent, to a considerable degree, upon a realistic and meaningful understanding of one's self. . . self-understanding. Self-understanding derives from one's experiences at work, love, play, study; literally, in all situations within which and upon which the individual organism operates. It is colored constantly by one's own interpretation of who and what he is and by one's subjective interpretation of what others think of him.

The efficacy of learning about one's self, at least in part, by the study of others and their reactions to us has been indicated by Rogers. Changes in self-concept are demonstrably related and inextricably interwoven to one's perception of and actions towards others as well as one's perceptions of and reactions to others' behavior toward us. Rogers,

Snygg and Combs, Sheerer, and Stock have illustrated this relationship.

Kelley also pointed out the implications of this relationship when he said,

> The crucial problem of each human organism is to find
> a way by which it can enhance and defend its entity
> without too much exclusion of others. The discovery
> of sufficient defense for entity with a maximum of
> human intercourse is a problem of balance. It is
> probably what is meant by adjustment in its best sense.[44]

Kelley goes on to describe this relationship when he makes

the following statement:

> The only way to modify and improve one's attitude toward
> other people is to give him a chance to have rewarding
> and enhancing experiences with other people. In this
> way he can see that other people are not dangerous, and
> his whole concept of his own self can be changed. As
> he helps others and is helped by them, he can not only
> open up to others, but can gain much-needed self-confi-
> dence. One can grow as long as he lives, but he cannot
> grow unless he is open enough to take in the perceptive
> stuff of growth.[45]

The research relating to the self-concept has been

briefly traced. The interrelationships of self and self-

understanding have been explained. Experimental programs,

multi-purposed, which are intended to contribute to mental

or self-health are presented on the following pages.

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[44]Earl C. Kelley, "Communication and the Open Self,"
ETC., 11:98, Winter, 1954.

[45]Ibid., p. 99.

Mental Hygiene Programs

Some of the major contributions of researchers in
the area of mental health bear upon this study. Bullis,
Ojemann, Helfant, and Rosenthal have each evolved a dis-
tinctive program of work with children which has the ultimate
purpose of positively modifying behavior which, it is hy-
pothesized, will result in mental well-being. This major
purpose or common goal has been cited by the Group for the
Advancement of Psychiatry as, "The improvement in emotional
maturation of the children so that more effective personality
function is possible, thereby, reducing psychiatric and
social morbidity."[46]

Each of the above-named programs has differences in
immediate objectives, methods, materials, and techniques,
but the basic intent and values are similar. We shall review
and discuss these similarities and differences with respect
to the following points:

(1) Identification and purposes of the program.

(2) Formulation of the program, including methods and
materials.

(3) Evaluative methods and results.

(4) Conclusions.

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[46]Committee on Preventive Psychiatry, "Promotion of
Mental Health in the Primary and Secondary Schools: An
Evaluation of Four Projects," Report No. 18 (Topeka: Group
for the Advancement of Psychiatry, January, 1951), p. 12.

The Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry has

critically analyzed four projects of this type including

the Bullis and Ojemann projects. Their conclusions are

cited. Additional contributing research is briefly mentioned.

Bullis Human Relations Classes

Since 1941 Bullis has, under the auspices of the

Delaware State Society for Mental Hygiene, developed and used

the lesson plans described in the three volumes entitled

Human Relations in the Classroom.[47] The program is broad in

perspective and is used in the fifty states of our country

and in foreign countries as well.

Purposes. The following quotation expresses the basic

purpose and underlying theory of the human relations lessons:

> The theory on which these Human Relations Classes are
> operating is that little can be learned about personal
> problems except through personal experience, and that
> ordinary teaching or lecturing or giving advice fall
> far short in providing the kind of insights that come
> out of life encounters with emotional problems. While
> it is impossible to furnish children in the classrooms
> with real life situations to discuss and to learn to
> understand, our efforts and techniques are to endeavor
> to create as nearly as possible these "actual life
> situations."[48]

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[47]H. Edmun d Bullis and Emily E. O'Malley, (co-authors
Volume I), H. Edmund Bullis, (author Volumes II and III)
Human Relations in the Classroom, Courses I-III, (Wilmington:
Delaware State Society for Mental Hygiene, 1947-1953).

[48]Ibid., Course I, P. 12.

Although the statement is broad in scope we notice the comment

above the lack of real life situations in the classroom. The

author takes issue with this and feels that the understanding

teacher can capitalize upon the issues in the behavior of chil-

dren that do occur within the confines of the classroom. The

statement does indicate Bullis' intent to structure the experi-

ences instead of letting them arise incidentally or not at all.

In another source Bullis called attention to the twofold

purpose of the human relations class program:

> First, it is hoped that all ... may come to know more
> about their individual emotional strengths and weak-
> nesses and come to realize the very dynamic part
> emotions play in their lives, to the end that they may
> become more emotionally mature. The second purpose ...
> is to give special consideration to the boys and girls
> who are socially unacceptable to their classmates.[49]

Methods and materials. The three courses of lesson plans have

been written and recommended for use in grades six through nine. The

authors feel that the material can be adapted to grades four through

twelve. Each course consists of thirty lesson plans and six teacher

aids which comprise varied suggestions for conducting the discussions.

The method employed by Bullis is to read the prepared story in

the course. Following the reading, the discussion is led by the

teacher. The problems in the story are designed to express are

brought out and analyzed by the class. A transition is then attempted.

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[49]H. Edmund Bullis, "Brief Communications, One Out of Seven,"
Psychiatry: Journal for the Study of Interpersonal Relations, 16:94,
February, 1953.

The children's own experiences are sought and related to the material and conclusions drawn from the story. It is here that the real value of the story lies. Bullis has remarked:

> Our weekly class starts with the teacher reading
> a stimulus story which features emotional problems.
> The students then are encouraged to discuss freely the
> emotional problems presented in the stimulus story, to
> give their appraisal of the solutions effected in the
> story, to speculate on the motivations lying back of
> the behavior, and then – most important of all – to
> indicate, from their own personal experiences, parallel
> situations to those presented in the stimulus story.
> In this retelling of emotional experiences, often bring-
> ing out into the open problems they have never discussed
> before, a better understanding of their actions often
> results. The students also gain insights by listening
> to their classmates tell freely of how they met certain
> emotional problems.[50]

The Bullis lessons are oriented towards a broad human rela-
tions approach with special emphasis upon the emotional aspects
of life. The introductory course develops the concept of four basic
inner drives: self-preservation, adventure, interest in the opposite
sex, and recognition. Many of the stories are written by Bullis and
are based upon his own experiences and those of his personal friends
and acquaintances. Some of the stories deal with famous people and
some of the lessons are a series of incidents or anecdotes, each
related to a major point. The stories or lessons are sequential in
nature and are organized to build progressively upon previously
presented material.

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[50]Bullis, Course I, op. cit., p. 12.

<u>Evaluation.</u> Little specific information has been located

concerning evaluation of the human relations classes. It is

generally assumed that progress is made. This assumption is

based upon teacher opinion, observations of children's behavior

and some brief case studies.

Bullis, in a letter to the writer of the study stated:

A teacher in Madison used California Tests in checking
several classes. One class had 30 Human Relations les-
sons one week apart. A second class had 30 lessons
daily for 30 consecutive days. A third class did not
have the lessons at all. I felt her study was based
on too few pupils over too short a time. It seemed to
indicate, however, that those who had the Human Relations
Classes throughout the year developed a friendlier atti-
tude towards new pupils than the other two classes.

A Principal in another school took five classes in
his school, using weekly Human Relations Class plans
for a year and five similar classes in another school
not using the lessons.

I have always stated that we cannot prove statistically
the benefit of our Human Relations Classes. We do,
however, hear from both parents and teachers - and
sometimes from boys and girls later on in life - that
they feel they have gained worthwhile insights as a re-
sult of our program. Again we find many instances in
which school administrators tell us that certain teach-
ers utilizing our work seem to gain additional insights
into their own problems and also the problems of the boys
and girls.[51]

Bullis made similar general conclusions in other sources.[52, 53]

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[51]Letter from Col. H. Edmund Bullis, February, 1970

[52]H. Edmund Bullis, "Are We Losing Our Fight for Improved
Mental Health?" <u>Progressive Education</u>, 30:113, February, 1953.

[53]H. Edmund Bullis, "An Educational Program for Development
of the 'Normal' Personality," <u>The American Journal of Psychiatry</u>,
109:376, November, 1952.

Although Bullis cited the use of the class accepta-
bility record in finding that approximately fifteen per cent,
or one out of seven, of the children in each classroom of
students in grades kindergarten through twelve are socially
unacceptable to their classmates or are rejected by their
classmates, he did not state any proof as to whether or not
these children were better accepted following the use of the
human relations lessons.[54] He did comment that:

> It has been found decidedly worth while to take
> advantage of this information so that the overlooked
> child can be reseated among those children he admires.
> By teaming up the rejected child in class projects
> with those he admires, we find that the other boys
> and girls in this small group come to know the over-
> looked child better and frequently show more tolerance
> of him and try to help him.[55]

In regards to total evaluation Bullis has said:

> After twelve years experience with the Delaware
> Human Relations Class program, we cannot prove statis-
> tically that the mental health of the people of our
> state has improved. Unfortunately, we cannot boast
> that the boys and girls exposed to our classes have
> become more emotionally mature than boys and girls in
> other states. But we do know . . . that progress is
> being made.[56]

On the basis of the above information we see that im-
provement in adjustment and skill in human relations and self
concept is judged from a variety of sources of informa-

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[54]H. Edmund Bullis, "A Positive Mental Health Program,"
American Journal of Public Health, 40:115, September, 1960.

[55]Bullis, "Brief Communications . . . ," op. cit.,
p. 96.

[56]Bullis, "Are We Losing Our Fight for Mental Health?"
op. cit., p. 113.

tion, but said information has not been, in these sources, subjected to rigorous scientific analysis.

Conclusions. In commenting upon and evaluating these mental hygiene classes, some of which were observed by the committee, the Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry remarked:

> There was much interest shown by the pupils who appeared to be attentive and enthusiastic....

> The fifteen per cent or so of the class ordinarily excluded. . . and who are characterized as shy children become more socially active.[57]

The group further commented on some of the weaknesses of the classes when it stated:

> They competed for the teacher's attention so that they would be called upon to give answers. Some of the questions were regarded by the teacher as right or wrong, and the student got to know whether he had done well or not . . . . Sometimes answers to questions were not regarded as right or wrong. . . . The moralistic attitude is quite obvious. This is generally considered contrary to an accepted principle that such educational methods should be as free as possible from moralizing.[58]

Contrarily, Bullis has remarked, while citing a comment of a shy boy who was telling how he avoided spanking by lying, that "Again there was no moralizing. The catharsis alone was enough."[59] A discrepancy is noted. Nevertheless, it is one that might be expected when it is understood that many different teachers are using these lessons with varying degrees of skill and understanding. It does point up the extreme

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[57]Committee on Preventive Psychiatry, op. cit., p. 5.

[58]Ibid., p. 5.

[59]Bullis, Course I, OP. CIT., P. %.

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difficulty of any evaluation on a comparative basis when the personality of the teacher functions so vitally in the lessons and the accompanying discussions.

In summary, it appears that the Bullis project is very broad in scope but lacks much scientific evidence as to its results. Some evidence was found that behavioral and attitudinal changes are made and these changes are in a positive direction.

Ojemann Causative Approach

Working within an experimental framework since 1941 at the State University of Iowa, Ojemann and his associates have developed materials for use with children wherein the causative approach to behavior is utilized. This approach leads to an understanding of the behavior of others and of oneself. Stiles has explained this approach by saying:

> Human behavior may be approached in two ways. On the one hand, it may be viewed in its overt form and the form described as it appears. On the other hand, the behavior may be discussed in terms of the factors that produced it - - the motives and other factors that were its immediate and remote ancestors.[60]

Ojemann said, "Adjusting to behavior . . . involves an appreciation of the factors that lie behind that behavior."[61] The causative approach is defined as one which leads to an

[60]Frances S. Stiles, "Developing an Understanding of Behavior at the Elementary School Level," Journal of Educational Research, 43:516, March, 1950.

[61]Ralph H. Ojemann, "An Integrated Plan for Education in Human Relations and Mental Health," Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women, 16:102, March, 1963

analytic dynamic understanding of the causes of human behavior.
This is opposed to the more frequent, and less successful,
surface approach to behavior. In essence, the causal approach
deal s with learning experiences relative to the WHY of people's
behavior rather than an isolated consideration of the results
of their actions.

Purpose. In describing the purpose of this approach
Ojemann stated:

> A . . . fundamentally preventive approach would appear
> to be to help each child as he develops toward adult-
> hood to acquire a foundation in an understanding and
> appreciation of the dynamics of his social environment.[62]

Methods and Materials. Ojemann based his methods
upon the assumption that children can appreciate, learn, and
act according to the basic dynamic concepts of motivation,
multiple causation, and a distribution of values.

Rather than construct a special course, segmented
from the ordinary curriculum and behavior of children, Ojemann
determined to revise all the materials in the areas of study
that deal with people such as the social studies, guidance,
home economics, and the like. This is a decidedly more com-
prehensive approach than that of Bullis. Materials for
grades kindergarten through twelve were prepared.[63]

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[62]Ibid., p. 101.

[63]Ralph Ojemann, "How the Integrated Plan for Education
in Human Relations and Mental Health Developed," (Unpublished
manuscript, State University of Iowa, 1963), pp. 6-7.

The basic method is that of story discussion, similar

to that of Bullis. Each story is introduced by the teacher

and then read under the usual classroom conditions. Dis-

cussion follows.

> The purpose of the discussion was not only to recall the
> incidents in the story but also to bring out the dif-
> ferences in the procedure that arise when one thinks
> of causes as contrasted with predominant attention to
> the overt aspects of the behavior. The discussion was
> also designed to consider what some of the probable effects
> of the two approaches may be.[64]

The materials include stories that have been written

together with suggestions for the teacher as to their use.

Ojemann described these materials as follows:

> Each narrative or dramatic incident describes some
> behavior situation. After the situation has been set
> forth someone begins to make a surface approach to it.
> Then the character rethinks his proposed reaction and
> makes a causal approach. In other words, in various
> ways some of the paths by which the behavior developed
> come out and someone acts in the light of these data.[65]

Additional materials are employed at the varying school

levels. These include dramatic skits, discussion analyses

of room councils, discussion analyses of school councils

and their actions, and social studies units.

Evaluation. In evaluating the studies made by Ojemann

and his associates frequent use of the "t" test in analyz-

ing differences in behavior and attitudes of the children was

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[64]Ojemann, "An Integrated Plan . . . ," op. cit.,
p. 105.

[65]Loc. cit.

found.[66,67] Other evaluative devices were employed including
the citing of case studies of students and their responses
and behavior. The basic criterion for evaluation was whether
or not a student could improve in his ability to demonstrate
an analytical approach to the behavior problems which con-
fronted him for solution.

Stiles designed, presented, and measured a learning
program for 172 children in the intermediate grades. The
measure of change was an analysis and classification of
the reasons for voting in certain ways in school councils. The
analysis was preceded by one-hour discussion periods intro-
duced by three stories. The discussion periods were held
for six consecutive days. The voting was compared by "aver-
aging the ballot scores from four council meetings prior to
and the scores from the four meetings following the learning
program."[68] For all groups the data showed significant gains.
In all these cases, the differences in mean scores, as measured
by the t test, were statistically significant beyond the one
per cent level of confidence. Stiles stated the following
conclusion:

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[66]Mildred I. Morgan and Ralph Ojemann, "The Effect of a Learning
Program Designed to Assist Youth in an Understanding of Behavior
and its Development," Child Development, 13:181-94, September, 1942.

[67]Frances S. Stiles, "A Study of Materials and Programs for
Developing an Understanding of Behavior at the Elementary School Level,"
(Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, State University of Iowa, 1947), 210 pp.

[68]Stiles, "Developing an Understanding of Human Behavior . . .,"
op. cit., p. 521.

> Changes in the child's approach to the behavior and
> in his understanding of that behavior can be made on
> the elementary school level provided appropriate influences
> are brought to bear. If it is desirable to develop in
> children an understanding of the behavior of others and
> the ability to approach behavior in an analytical way,
> a contribution can be made through elementary school
> experiences.[69]

Ojemann, using a somewhat different approach, analyzed

the amount of time devoted to non-cooperative or distractive

activity during twenty presentations made in each of six first

grade classes. He concluded that "the amount of non-coopera-

tive activity while the material was being presented was

very small."[70] In some cases the distractive scores amounted

to less than one per cent of the time of presentation of the

story and discussion. Similar results were obtained in the

second and third grades.

In evaluating the work of Ojemann and his associates

the Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry concluded:

> To date, the studies that have been made indicate that
> there has been improvement in the understanding of
> human behavior. The application of this knowledge has
> resulted in definite changes in attitudes towards self
> and others.[71]

Additional comment was made in regards to "contagion of the

interest of the students and teachers. . . . The teachers

were affected by the students' interests to the point of

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[69] Ibid., p. 523.

[70] Ojemann, "An Integrated Plan . . .," op. cit.,
p. 106.

[71] Committee on Preventive Psychiatry, op. cit.,
p. 10.

noticeable changes in their attitudes and modification of their behavior."[72] This conclusion was supported by the research reported by Wilkinson and Ojemann.[73]

Conclusions. Ojemann's work differs from that of Bullis in the absence of moralizing. A distribution of values is discussed in all contexts rather than the usual surface dichotomous value-judging of behavior as "good or bad." Ojemann's work also comprises a more inclusive content in regards to the curriculum in a given school than that of Bullis.

The causal approach has thus led to materials and methods of presentation and evaluation that have gradually evolved within an experimental framework for a period of years. The following conclusions appear to be supported:

(1) Moralizing appears to be absent in the causal approach.

(2) Materials and methods cover a large curricular area.

(3) Some evidence indicates that children can learn and use the causative approach to human behavior.

(4) Some evidence tends to support the tentative conclusion that as children change and begin to approach behavior dynamically they help themselves in getting along with adults and with other children.

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[72]Loc. cit.

[73]Frances R. Wilkinson and Ralph Ojemann, "The Effect on Pupil Growth of an Increase in Teacher's Understanding of Pupil Behavior," Journal of Experimental Education, 8:143-47, December, 1949.

(5) Some evidence indicates tentatively that as the children begin to appreciate the differences between the surface and dynamic approaches to behavior their relationships to others and to themselves are affected.

(6) Evidence seems to indicate that these relationships that are affected are in the nature of positive changes.

Rye Project for Education in Human
Relations and Mental Health

Helfant, consultant to the Rye, New York, Project for Education in Human Relations and Mental Health, and Hoover, Superintendent of Schools in Rye, New York, have reported certain aspects of this program.

Purpose. Since 1952 the Rye schools have experimented with a human relations and mental hygiene program which has as its purpose the improvement of self understanding and hence, of understanding others. Helfant stated the over-all aim of the program was to "introduce from kindergarten through the twelfth grade a series of experiences designed to lead to increased understanding of self and others."[74] The general purpose was to develop a preventive mental hygiene program.

Methods and materials. The Rye Project borrowed heavily from Ojemann's work. It differed from the previously cited

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[74]Kenneth Helfant, "The Rye Project for Education in Human Relations and Mental Health," (Unpublished manuscript, Rye, New York: Rye Public Schools, n.d.),p.5.

programs to the extent that it involved the consultant in a
closer relationship with the school system and involved more
community participation. The Rye project consisted of the
following areas:

1. Bi-monthly seminars held with teachers and administrative
   personnel of the high school and the two elementary schools.
2. Weekly conférences with the guidance staff of the high school.
3. An experimental series of human relations classes in the
   high school.
4. A parent education program.
5. A consultation service for parents and teachers who
   wish to discuss problems of individual children.[75]

Attention is directed to point three above. A unit in human

relations was taught to approximately one half of the junior

class which met twice a week for two months. The methods

used included films, panel discussions, and class discussions.

Materials on family life, heterosexual relations, and problems

of teen-age driving and drinking were covered.

Guidance classes were also held with eighth graders

once a week for the entire school year. The method was en-

tirely that of group discussion with some student panel dis-

cussion employed. The material deal! with planning one's

social, emotional, and intellectual development as well as

the accompanying problems of the eighth graders.

No evaluation of the high school and eighth grade

classes has been published. Some worth has been assumed as

the program was extended the second year to include human re-

lations units in the fifth, eighth, and twelfth grades.

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[75]Ibid., pp. 3-4.

These units were taught by the consultant. They consisted of twenty hours of work spread over varying periods of time. One half of each class received the instruction which was comprised of story-discussions, readings, dramatizations of problems, films and film-strips, and certain self-evaluative tests. These methods and materials borrowed heavily from Ojemann and Shaftel and Shaftel.[76]

Evaluation. Evaluation of these classes consisted of analysis of pre- and post-tests of instruction. A test of causal thinking devised by Ojemann indicated an increase in causal thinking. Helfant said, "the differences in scores in causal thinking were significant for one pair of classes but not for the other pair."[77]

Sociometric analysis was made resulting in indications that "there was a decrease in the number of isolates in the class exposed to the lessons, and a decrease in social distance as measured by the classroom social distance scale."[78]

Analysis of the differences between the experimental and control groups on the social distance scale were shown to be not quite statistically significant, being at the eight per cent level.

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[76] George Shaftel and Fannie Shaftel, Role Playing the Problem Story (New York: National Conference of Christians and Jews, 1952), 78 pp.

[77] Letter from Dr. Kenneth Helfant, March 14, 1970, 2 pp.

[78] Loc. cit.

<u>Conclusions</u>. In conclusion, it appears that there was little information as to extensive evaluation of the Rye project. The program continues and the full time services of a school psychologist have been added. Some additional evaluation can be gleaned from another source wherein Hoover and Helfant have summarized a series of brief illustrative case studies representing changes in children's behavior towards themselves and others which have resulted in more positive adjustments.[79]

It is therefore concluded that some support of a group approach to the problem of upgrading the level of self-understanding of children is derived from the evidence presented in the Rye Project. The Rye project also used a greater variety of techniques and materials than those used by Bullis.

Rosenthal Mental Health Experiment

Rosenthal has reported a brief five week study intended to foster mental health in a fifth grade classroom using the dictum "know thyself, accept thyself, be thyself," as a guide to the development of his experiment.[80] An experimental group of twenty-six children in Harlem, New York was used. A control group of twenty-four children from the same school was equated as to age, socio-economic status, I. Q., and academic achievement.

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[79]W. Wendell Hoover and Kenneth Helfant, "The Rye Project Works for Better Understanding," (Unpublished manuscript, Rye, New York, Rye Public Schools, n.d.), 6 pp.

[80]Rosenthal, op. cit., p. 302.

Methods and materials. Rosenthal employed a variety
of methods and materials, adapting a number of his stories
and discussion materials from Bullis. Thirteen lessons were
employed, averaging about one-half hour each. The lessons
were offered three times a week over a five week period.
Four of the lessons were patterned after the psychodrama as
defined by Moreno. The inclusive term "educational therapy"
was offered to describe the types of activities used. In
addition to the above, an attempt was made to develop a
"cooperative, democratic attitude in the setting of a per-
missive atmosphere."[81] This included the following aspects:

(1) Encouraging pupils to help each other in their
activities.

(2) Encouraging group projects.

(3) Teacher-pupil planning of the day's work.

(4) Organizing the group democratically, with special
jobs and functions to perform.

(5) Major class decisions were submitted to discussion
and vote.

(6) Classroom movement was largely unrestricted.

(7) Outings and field trips were utilized.

(8) Dramatizations, games, creative art, music, and
square dancing were mutually planned and executed.

Evaluation. Evaluation was based largely upon before
and after tests of both groups with three main criteria,
namely:

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[81]Ibid., p. 309.

(1) California Test of Personality, Elementary Form A

(2) A sociogram

(3) A modified social distance scale listing the ten

children liked best and the ten liked least.

By analysis of the results of the before and after

testing, Rosenthal made some specific conclusions which

follow:

> The experimental and control group both started
> with the same number of mutual choices in April, but
> the experimental group gained 3 mutual choices in May,
> and the control group lost 2 mutual choices in May.

> These facts are consistent in that the experimental
> group manifested positive changes toward friendships,
> and the control group manifested changes toward friend-
> ships. It is also seen that there was more movement
> or changes in the experimental group than in the con-
> trol group . . . and that this was of a positive nature.[82]

Positive growth was observed in the experimental group as

measured by the sociograms.

The modified social distance scale used revealed data that

led Rosenthal to the following conclusions:

> . . . children in the experimental class were more liked
> in May than they were in April, whereas in the control
> class only 3 children improved. One child retrogressed
> in both groups.

> . . . in general those disliked originally in the ex-
> perimental group improved their status, but that very
> little change occurred with those children who were
> originally disliked in the control group.[83]

The results of the California Test of Personality

showed that the experimental group changed in a positive direc-

tion on most of the areas covered by the test. Further

analysis indicated that the control group did not improve in

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[82]Ibid., p. 320.

[83]Ibid., p. 322.

most of the areas and actually retrogressed in three of the
twelve areas as measured by the test.

Using the t test it was found that although the experimental
group gained 5.4 points in total mean raw score and the control
groups showed no total gain or loss in mean score there was no
statistically significant difference between the means.

Conclusions. Rosenthal concluded that the general hypothesis
of the paper was supported. The general mental health of the
subjects improved as measured by the criteria. Also, the improve-
ment was in all probability due to the experiences that went on in
the classroom. Rosenthal added the following conclusions:

(1) There was a dynamic movement about the area of friend-
ships and this movement was of a positive nature.
(2) Children who were originally disliked by the group
on the whole improved their status, and there was a
general coalescence of liking for each other.
(3) Major improvements were manifest in the areas of
Sense of Personal Freedom, Social Standards, Social
Skills, and School or Occupational Relations. There
was improvement in Self-adjustment as measured by the
California Test of Personality.
(4) Disturbed children did not improve as much as other
children and a few of them retrogressed.
(5) All three of the instruments employed seem to be
affected by the same phenomena and were consistent
with each other.[84]

In this study support is found for the hypothesis that
positive results can be obtained through a planned program designed
to foster mental health, understanding of one's self, and under-
standing of others. Further, some of the changes were measureable
and the three measures seemed to be consistent in what they were
measuring. Each of these conclusions must remain tentative due to

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[84]Ibid., p. 326

the small number of classes, the extreme brevity of the experiment, and the type of population from which the subjects were drawn.

Nevertheless, the study sets a pattern for further investigation that is needed.

Conclusions Derived from the
Mental Hygiene Programs

The foregoing studies aid in establishing some tentative conclusions which can be used in considering the design and methods of the research of this study.

Other approaches can be found in the literature, each with some merit, and deserving recognition. They have not been used here as the studies selected bear more directly upon the problem at hand.

The studies examined in the latter part of this chapter tend to establish the development of this study and tend to support the following general conclusions:

(1) Each study defines goals which are associated with understanding of one's self and of others.

(2) Each of these goals is a part of a broad mental health point of view.

(3) Each study uses techniques based upon mental health principles that may be applied to large groups of children, especially within the school framework.

(4) Each study has actually taken place in a school setting.

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(5) Some evidence tends to indicate that children can improve their level of self-understanding and understanding of others through a group program.

(6) Some evidence seems to indicate that certain behavioral and attitudinal changes are observable and measureable.

(7) Some evidence tends to show that certain of these measures seem to be consistent in what they are measuring.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has been devoted to the exploration of the theoretical formulations of the self that a variety of authorities have presented. Most appeared to hold that the self is a dynamic, but consistent, unity, the inner core of being of a person.

The development and differentiation of the self was then described. It was seen that the self has social roots and develops as the person lives with others. The self apparently develops its strength as it becomes differentiated through social life.

The evidence presented in the earlier part of the chapter supports the contention that understanding, acceptance of, and respect for one's self is closely related to one's acceptance of and respect for others.

The degree to which a person can have knowledge and understanding of his self indicates what is meant by self-

concept and self-understanding. A positive self-concept apparently must be realistic in order to be healthy. It is the way in which the self is comprehended and realized that apparently makes a real difference in one's behavior.

The logic of a mental health approach to education becomes apparent if we view the process of self-development and self-understanding as the core of growth towards maturity.

Therefore, in the latter part of this chapter, attention was directed to various mental health programs in schools. These programs were analyzed in some detail. The purposes, methods and materials used, and results of evaluation were presented. The conclusions derived from the foregoing research tend to clarify and support this study.

CHAPTER III

DESCRIPTION, SELECTION, AND PLAN
OF EVALUATION OF THE EXPERIMENTAL
AND CONTROL GROUPS

In this chapter the experimental and control groups
are described. The process of initial selection of the ex-
perimental group is explained. The initial comparisons of
the groups are presented. A detailed explanation of the
plan and procedures for evaluating the study is made.

The Community

The study was conducted in the fourth grades at the
McNair School, Westwood Community Schools, Dearborn-Heights -
Inkster, Michigan.

Dearborn-Heights - Inkster, Michigan are suburban communities
of approximately thirty thousand people. They are completely resi-
dential, barring local services. There are relatively few apart-
ments and other rental units in these cities. The majority of the
residents own their own homes. The community has been called
a middle class area by those who have lived and worked there for a
prolonged period.

The School System

The Westwood Community Schools have been a relatively
unstable system for some time. The instability of the system
can be attributed to many causes. Major among these causes,
as reported to the writer, looms the racial problems peculiar
to the social institutions of this country. This issue is
reflexed in the make-up of the school board and consequently,
issues that should be resolved in the interest of boys and
girls in the school district are politically motivated. - The
District has had seven superintendents in the last eleven years.

In spite of these problems, the system has made an attempt
to remain educationally in the 20th century, - thanks to Federal
and State programs. Peculiar to their efforts have been the
constant striving toward the child-development approach to educa-
tion, flexible grouping, self-contained classrooms, the varied
use of educational materials, a counselor program, an active
parent-teacher association,and required parent-teacher conference.

The system has five elementary schools. McNair School
housed the student population for this study along with the Mokersky
School. The fourth graders at McNair School and Mokersky School
are drawn from adjacent school boundaries.

The Grade Selected

The fourth grades were selected as the subjects for this study
for the following reasons:

(1) All the students were located in the same attendance area.

(2) Control groups were readily available.

(3) The fourth grades had a narrower range of ages.

(4) The self-contained fourth grade classes involved fewer problems of scheduling activities and tests than in the seventh or eighth grades which are semi-departmentalized.

(5) There was similarity of schedule school calendar, and curricular program among the fourth grade classes.

(6) Research of the nature of this study, is apparently needed at this age and grade level.

(7) The researcher's interest in this age level.

Upon consideration of the above factors with the writer's committee, and with the school administration, the fourth grades were selected. Considering the above, a broad homogeneity of the groups was apparent.

Process of Selection of the Experimental Group

No specific criterion relating to the data for this study was used as an absolute in selecting the experimental group. Each group, as the forthcoming data indicates, was much like the others.

Upon receipt of the approval of the building principals, the researcher was directed to selected the experimental group under the advisement of the school principals and the guidance director.

All six groups were considered. It was assumed that each teacher would be willing to participate. Test data on intelligence and achievement of each group were consulted and the size of the groups,

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of the groups, number of male and female students, and other data were collected and considered.

For a number of reasons some of the groups were eliminated from consideration for the experimental group. For example, two of the fourth grade teachers were beginning teachers and, although interested, it was felt that the additional burdens of the study might be better avoided.

The experimental group was finally selected with the approval of all staff concerned. The teacher signified her willingness to cooperate and was found to be extremely interested in the study.

No discussion of the specifics of the experiment was undertaken with the teachers of the control groups. This was avoided in order to negate the possibility that the results might be unconsciously contaged by unusual energies of another teacher in the same direction. A letter was prepared to acquaint the teachers with the study in quite general terms. The teacher of the experimental group was informed in some detail as to the purposes, design, and procedures of the study.

Approval of the parents was a vital consideration. After consultation with the school principal, the school administration, and the teacher of the experimental group, an explanatory letter was mailed to each child's parents for signed approval.[1] These letters were also couched in general terms. All parents responded

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[1]See Appendix A.

with the requested signed approval. Additional letters were mailed

to each of the control groups' parents to acquaint them with the

fact that the study was about to ensue.[2] No specific details were

contained in the letters. This correspondence was considered

necessary because of the parents' active interest in their schools.

A few parents called the school administration for further informa-

tion which was accorded them in generalities.

Initial Comparisons of Experimental and Control Groups

The following statements show some of the similarities and

dissimilarities between the experimental and control groups on a

comparative basis.

For this study, one group was selected as the experimental, or

E group.[3] The remaining five fourth grade classes were controls.

They were designated as the C1, C2, C3, C4, and C5 groups.

Prior to the initiation of the study certain comparisons were

made to assit in the selection of the E group. Table I indicated

the sex distribution and total number of students in each of the

groups.

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[2]For example, it is not at all unusual to expect and receive
a ninety per cent attendance of both parents at room functions.

[3]Herein, and throughout the body of this study, the experi-
mental and control groups will be designated by the numbers and letters
assigned above.

TABLE I

SEX DISTRIBUTION AND TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN EACH GROUP

Group	No. of Boys	No of Girls	Total
E	14	13	27
C 1	16	11	27
C 2	15	11	26
C 3	15	12	27
C 4	15	10	25
C 5	13	12	25
Totals	88	69	157

A close similarity in number and sex distribution can be observed from this table. There were decidedly more boys than girls.

In some of the groups children entered or left the school during the course of the study. This factor is a common one in any public school and could not be controlled. In no instance did this amount to more than two transfers or new enrollees in any group. The data of the children who were not essentially present, barring normal absences, were not used in this study and are not included in the listings of the tables.

Table II shows the comparisons of the groups with respect to their chronological ages at the time the study commenced. It also indicates the mean mental ages and derived intelligence quotients as established by the school's regular testing program.

TABLE II

MEAN CHRONOLOGICAL AGES, MENTAL AGES, AND INTELLIGENCE

QUOTIENTS OF EACH GROUP

Group	Mean C. A.			Mean M. A.			Mean I.Q.
E	9 Yrs.	6.9	Mo.	11 Yrs.	3.4	Mo.	106.89
C 1	9	7.3		11	2.3		104.37
C 2	9	4.0		11	5.0		99.12
C 3	9	3.4		11	1.2		104.05
C 4	9	4.2		11	1.2		103.80
C 5	9	2.4		11	1.2		105.38

The California Test of Mental Maturity, Elementary was administered in October of the school year. The figures in Table II have been calculated as of January of the same school year, just prior to the study's commencement. The figures presented illustrate the basic similarity of the groups in respect to the qualities of academic aptitude that the test measures. The E group was the highest of the fourth grades.

In order to ascertain the significance of these figures an analysis of the significance of the differences between means of the E and C groups was undertaken. The t test of significance was used. The results of this statistical analysis are presented in Table III.

TABLE III

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEAN
INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS

Groups	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5
t	.69	2.18	.70	.73	.40
Significance Level	--*	3%	--	--	--

The above figures indicate that there was no significant difference between the E group and the C groups in respect to the measure of academic aptitude with the exception of the difference noted between the E group and C2 group. This difference is significant at the 3 per cent level of confidence. Essential similarity was therefore readily apparent. Generally,

*Here, and throughout the tables of significance presented, the -- indicates no significance.

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it was then assumed that the majority of the groups were as academically apt as the E group. That is to say, they were equally as liable to profit from instructional experiences as far as the measure of academic aptitude indicated.

In another sense, it was assumed that, if significant changes between the groups occurred that were associated with the experimental conditions or factors, they would not be due to a significantly higher academic aptitude on the part of the experimental group.

In the case of the C2 group where the measured intelligence was significantly lower than that of the E group, the evidence would appear to refute the assumption stated above; namely, that the E group was not more academically apt. The difference here is at the three per cent level of confidence. This does not indicate whether the difference that exists is a true difference. It merely indicates that the difference was not too likely to have been due to chance, (P = .03). Although this is not highly significant, it does deserve note and constitutes a limitation of which the reader must remain aware when analyzing the results of the data more closely related to the study. Because of the closeness of association between academic aptitude and academic achievement we might logically expect the apparent difference to most closely influence the results of the achievement testing as opposed to the results of the more personal and social measures employed.

The foregoing statements and figures give a description of the E and C groups. In the latter part of this chapter

attention is directed to the plan and procedures for evaluation of the experiment.

The Plan of Evaluation

The major purpose of the evaluation used was to assess any changes between the groups, as well as changes within the experimental group. The evaluation was divided into two parts.

The first part was the measurement of each of the groups before and after the story-discussions and interviews were held with the E group. This part of the evaluation resulted in the data for quantitative comparisons between the groups. The quantitative comparisons are presented in Chapter V.

The second part of the evaluative procedures was an analysis of the changes within the E group alone. The data for this evaluation were somewhat more subjective in nature. Therefore, the findings are presented in Chapter VI designated as qualitative results.

Procedures and Materials Used for
Making Quantitative Comparisons

Each group was tested before and after the experiment with measures of achievement, personality, social relationships, social distance, and personal likes and dislikes of oneself. Equated or identical forms of each test were used.

Each of the tests used for comparisons of the groups has certain limitations. An attempt to reduce the effect of

these limitations to a degree was made in the following
manner:

(1) Each test was carefully selected and related research
analyzed.

(2) Each test was rigorously administered and scored
according to standardized directions where available.

(3) Each result was carefully assessed and cautiously
appraised in relation to the experiment and its
hypothesis.

Test selection. The tests which were used to make the
quantitative analyses of changes within the groups were se-
lected on the following bases:

(1) Tests of established usage.

(2) Tests of reasonable reliability, objectivity, and
validity.

(3) Tests which, with the exception of the achievement
battery, appeared to measure aspects of self-under-
standing.

(4) Tests which, when scored, obtained results that lent
themselves to the statistical procedures selected for
this study.

The tests used on a pre- and post-testing basis were
the California Test of Personality, the California Achievement
Test, the Social Distance Scale, Sociograms, and two open-ended
essay questions, "What I Like About Myself" and "What I Dislike
About Myself."

A search of the literature revealed no specific test for self-understanding which satisfied the aforementioned criteria. The above-named tests were chosen with the realization that they probably were essentially peripheral measurements rather than measures of the real self as defined in Chapter II. Yet, the research already conducted with these tests seemed to support the contention that the variety and totality of them might enable one to assess dynamic changes within groups which would be related to self-understanding of intermediate grade children, and afford an adequate assessment of this self-understanding. Thus the tests were selected.

The California Test of Personality. Form AA of the California Test of Personality, 1963 Revision, Elementary Series was used for pre-testing and Form BB of the same test was used for post-testing.

The California Test of Personality is "designed to provide teachers . . .with significant evidences of the personal and social status of individuals and groups."[6] It gives evidence of the ways in which students think, feel and act in regards to a variety of situations which are liable to affect them closely as group members or individuals. The test is divided into two parts which result in scores on personal adjustment and social adjustment respectively. All one hundred eighty items were used in arriving at a total adjustment score. Raw scores were utilized when working

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[6]California Test Bureau Catalog, 1964 (Los Angeles: California Test Bureau, 1964), p. 34.

with the California Test of Personality as the norms given in the manual were percentile norms and the range of raw scores within each percentile given was considered inadequate for use in this experiment.

The manual for the test gives reliability coefficients for both forms as .97. The authors also commented that the means and standard deviations of both forms were identical and that relia-bility data apply equally.

The validity of any paper and pencil personality inventory has long been a question for debate. The manual for this test cited the many purposes anduses for the test, thus giving rise to the statement that there may be several validities depending on each purpose. Since self-understanding is apparently associated with total personality adjustment, and since the test purports to measure total personality adjustment, it was therefore assumed to be valid for this study.

Research by Rosenthal, Taylor and Combs and Cunningham tend to support this assumption of reasonable validity.[7,8,9]

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[7] Sheldon Rosental, "A Fifth Grade Classroom Experiment in Fostering Mental Health," The Journal of Child Psychiatry, 2:30-29, 1962.

[8] Charles Taylor and Arthur Combs, "Self-Acceptance and Adjust-ment," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 16:89-91, April, 1962.

[9] Ruth Cunningham and Associates, Understanding Group Behavior of Boys and Girls (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1961), 462 pp.

Each of these investigators has used the test with positive results which, combined with other data, aided in assessing group adjustment and individual adjustment. The publisher of the test cited some ninety studies interpreted as supporting the assumption of validity.[10]

The social distance scale. The scale used in this study was an adaptation of the one cited by cunningham.[11] The social distance scale is an attempt to measure the standing of a child in a group of his peers. It is also used to achieve a group measure of social relationships. Cunningham has defined the scale as an attempt to "measure inter-group attitudes."[12] The scale allows each child to react to each other child in the group on a five-point scale ranging from a description of the other child as a "best friend" to one characterizing him as a person we'd "rather not have to work with at all."

The social distance scale was scored on a cumulative point basis, five points for the "highest" rating, and one point for the "lowest." Comparisons were then made on these raw scores. The resulting group social distance scores indicated the degree of acceptance or rejection of the children by their peers.

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[10] California Test of Personality Summary of Investigations, Number One (Los Angeles: California Test Bureau, 1958), 24 pp.

[11] Cunningham, op. cit., 462 pp.

[12] Ibid., p. 171.

As to the reliability and validity, there is little specific information in the literature. Cunningham found that the group social distance scores correlated with sociograms to a little significant degree, rho being plus .48. She added: "We found little significant correlation of acceptance with factors such as chronological age, intelligence quotient, or socio-economic status. However, correlations of acceptance with factors stated as important by boys and girls were statistically significant."[13] Some of these factors are descriptive of a child with whom we can have fun, who has other friends, who is easily liked, and seems to come from a good home.

It would then appear that the qualities that are tapped by such a test have at least a degree of surface reliability and validity since they are positively related to the kinds of behavior that are frequently deemed desirable by children.

Since the social distance scale offered a wider range of responses and shadings than the more "black-and-white" picture of social relationships obtained from the sociograms, and since it has had value in similar types of research it was deemed of sufficient worth to be used in this study.

The sociograms. Sociograms have been used as descriptive measures of social relationships within groups for some time. Jennings described sociometry as a "means of presenting

[13]Ibid., p. 203.

simply and graphically the entire structure of relations exist-

ing at a given time among members of a given group."[14]   She

added that the chief significance of a sociogram resided in its

comprehensive revelation of the group structure.   Olson has de-

fined sociometry as "the measurement of social forces."[15]

In this study the sociograms were administered by ask-

ing each child to respond to three criteria with three choices

each.   The criteria used were friendships, play preferences,

and work preferences.   Thus an additional measure besides

the group social distance scale was employed to appraise the

standings of the individuals within their respective groups.

In quantitatively assessing the results of the socio-

grams, the number of isolates and number of leaders were the

only criteria used.

The number of choices necessary to qualify as a leader

was taken as fifteen, while one or no choices were taken to

indicate an isolate.   Taba has pointed out what constitutes

reasonableness of a sociometric distribution.[16]   In assessing

the proportion of unchosen and highly chosen people on one

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[14]Helen H. Jennings, Sociometry in Group Relations
(Washington, D. D.: American Council on Education, 1961,
p. 11.

[15]Willard C. Olson, "Human Relations in the Classroom,"
Journal of the National Education Association, 36:
641, December, 1957.

[16]Hilda Taba, et. al., Diagnosing Human Relations
Needs (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education,
1961), 155 pp.

criterion in a class of twenty-five, she remarked, "When
more than one fifth of the class has five or more choices
and a few have more than eight, then there is an unreason-
able focusing on a few people and correspondingly more
students with only one or no choices."[17] Previously Taba
indicated that if twelve per cent of a class received no
choices and twenty per cent received five or more choices,
that, "This is a reasonable distribution."[18]

For this experiment no choices or one choice denoted
an isolate and this should then comprise approximately fif-
teen per cent of the total choices in order to be a reason-
able distribution. Fifteen or more choices denoted a leader.
Therefore a reasonable distribution of leaders should com-
prise approximately twenty per cent of the total.

A further consideration, or rather a limitation, en-
tered into the evaluative use of the scores on the sociograms.
Jahoda demonstrated the used of statistics peculiar to socio-
metric measurement. He utilized various mathematical con-
cepts but drew a sharp line between the value of sociometric
measurement within a group as opposed to its small value in
comparing groups statistically. In this respect Jahoda stated
that changes within or between groups, "must be represented by
a sufficiently large number of measurements," so that signifi-
cance or variance tests can be used . . . and, "as yet no

[17]Ibid., p. 83.

[18]Loc. cit.

methods of securing such masses of data are available."[19]

As to the reliability of the sociogram, the literature seemed to indicate that there is a reasonable degree of reliability if a variety of choices are made and a series of sociograms are taken.[20, 21] The usage in this study would appear to assure a degree of reliability.

Validity of the sociogram poses a different question. Perhaps the most representative statement regarding the validity problem has been made by Jahoda when he said, "the most typical conclusion is that the amount of rapport or nearness to a true life situation achieved by a sociometric questionnaire is directly associated with the questionnaire's validity."[22] In this sense, the validity of the sociograms used in this study might logically be questioned since the researcher was not in a position to establish a high degree of rapport with any of the C groups and, despite the true life situations used as criteria for choices, the groups taking the questionnaires probably realized that there would be no follow-through in applying the results of the test. Nevertheless, despite these limitations, the data were used. There appears to be

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[19]M. Jahoda, M. Deutsch, and S. W. Cook, Research Methods in Social Relations, Part Two; Selected Techniques (New York: Dryden Press, 1951), p. 581.

[20]Ibid.

[21]Taba, op. cit.

[22]Jahoda, op. cit., p. 570.

no objection to the gathering of scientific information even if the instruments used are in their infancy. We must therefore assume sufficient validity for this experiment.

The essays. The essay questions chosen were patterned after those employed by Jersild and reported in his volume In Search of Self.[23] The responses were purely subjective and were treated with this limitation in mind.

The number of responses to both questions were separately totaled and averaged for each group. The quantitative analysis was confined to a comparison of the changes in the number of responses and the direction of said changes.

Reliability and validity here, as with the sociogram, appeared to depend upon the truth and honesty of the student responding. This, in turn, appeared to be somewhat dependent upon the rapport between the examiner and the class. No guarantee of such a rapport can be made, it can only be assumed. As in Jersild's exploratory study, the results obtained by use of these open-ended questions can, at best, be used in combination with other data and treated with the caution such subjective data required.

The California Achievement Test. In order to assess the academic achievement of the groups the California Achievement Test Elementary Battery was used. Form AA was utilized for pre-testing and Form BB for post-testing.

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[23]Arthur T. Jersild, In Search of Self (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952), 146 pp.

The purpose including a basic skills battery was to see whether or not the E group would make comparable gains in achievement despite the loss of time from curricular instruction which the study engendered. It was not used to measure aspect of self-understanding as the above tests were. Its inclusion was felt desirable because, if the study bore fruitful results, the inclusion of similar programs in public schools today must answer the question of whether or not such an addition would cause children to advance more slowly in that important area of elementary education, the basic skills.

The manual for this test cited a total test reliability of .97.[24] The same source stated that all forms of the test battery possess a high degree of validity. The norms are based on testing over one hundred thousand pupils and the raw scores can be converted to grade placement figures. Grade placement scores were used in the presentation of results.

Test scoring. Each of the tests used were scored by the researcher and re-scored by a trained teacher. All statistical computations were double-checked.

Statistical treatment of test data. The t test for the significance of differences between means was considered the most plausible type of statistical treatment for much of the data.[25]

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[24] Ernest W. Tiegs and Willis W. Clark, California Achievement Test Manual (Los Angeles: California Test Bureau).

[25] Quinn McNemar, Psychological Statistics (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1949), p. 224.

Means were computed for each of the following tests before and after the study: the California Test of Personality, the social distance scale, and the California Achievement Test. These means were subjected to the t test on both the pre- and post-test data. Levels of significance were obtained. Additional comparisons were made of the amount and direction of change in means. This method of statistical analysis was assumed to be adequate for this study since the major concern was comparing groups, rather than individuals.

The sociometric and essay data did not permit such quantitative treatment due to the lack of standardization of scoring and norms for these tests. Therefore, comparisons were made numerically as described above.

The procedure and materials for making quantitative comparisons of the E and C groups have been presented. Information regarding the second part of the evaluation plan, the qualitative analyses, follows.

Procedures and Materials Used
for Qualitative Analyses

Many additional data were gathered during the course of the experiment. Most of these findings were obtained solely from the E group. These data were perhaps more subjective in nature and, in many instances, were not permitting of quantitative treatment. Thus they were included as qualitative, or subjective, results.

The pattern or method followed was to take the material that illustrated the point in hand and excerpt it in order to include it in the text of Chapter VI. The remainder of this section details the kinds of material or data used.

Participation analysis. The teacher of the E group or, in her absence, one of the students in the E group, kept a running account of the people who participated in each day's discussion. Results of this participation record are included in the qualitative analysis. They are confined to the E group.

Discussion analysis. Each discussion was tape-recorded. The actual verbatim accounts of the student's comments furnished materials for inclusion in Chapter VI.

Student's writings. At the end of each lesson the student was given a piece of theme paper and asked to write what he thought he had learned in that day's discussion. These papers contained information which aided the researcher to direct the study and the discussions more intelligently. Occasionally, the class wrote additional comments upon these papers, and some are included in the presentation of the student's writings.

Student's interests and activities. An analysis of the interests and activities of the students was made on the basis of their responses to the Interests and Activities supplement to the California Test of Personality.

Problems the children wanted to work upon. During the
course of the lessons the E group was asked to write on the
topic, "The Problems I Need to Work on Most and What I Think
I Should Do About Them." Many of these comments revealed the
ways in which the children conceived of themselves. Some of
the statements are used as qualitative materials.

Three Wishes. Each of the E group students wrote his
three wishes. A summary of these wishes, which reflected a
degree of self-understanding, appears in Chapter VI.

Interviews. No attempt was made to quantify the re-
sults of the interviews. Since they were largely of the
information-seeking type there was no attempt to achieve or
record any therapeutic effects of the interviews. Information
derived from the interviews, which was pertinent to the
problems of each child, and contributed to a knowledge of the
students' level of self-understanding, is cited in the chapter
on qualitative analysis.

Evaluative questionnaires. Three types of evaluative
questionnaires were utilized to appraise the results of the
program with the E group.[26]   Parents, students, and the E
group teacher respectively filled out these questionnaires.
The results are presented in Chapter VI.

Student questionnaires. After the final lesson, which was
largely a review of what had been covered in previous lessons,
the students were asked to respond to a series of questions
which were designed to elicit their reactions to the

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[26]See Appendix C.

lessons as a whole and to some of the specific experiences which they had undergone. An attempt was made to have the child analyze whatever behavioral or attitudinal changes that might have occurred.

Parent questionnaire. The parents were mailed a questionnaire which was to be filled out separately or together by one or both parents. This was deemed necessary since some of the parents, particularly those fathers who traveled much, did not feel that they could intelligently assess any behavioral or attitudinal changes on the part of their children because of lack of frequent or sustained contact with them over the experimental period.

Incidental to this questionnaire and the role of the parents in this study, two opportunities for contact with the researcher were afforded each parent of children in the E group. This was effected for purposes of school-home relations and was planned and carried out in such a way as to avoid affecting the results of the study. These contacts were, first, the parent-go to-school night where the reseacher briefly explained and described the broad general purposes of the study, and second, the parents were invited to confer with the researcher about their own children after the study was completed and all the testing was done. The fact that at least one of every child's parents attended the go-to-school night and better than two-thirds of the parents availed themselves of the opportunity to confer with the researcher after the study ceased is indicative of the parents' interest in their children and the schools in the community where this study took place.

<u>Teacher questionnaire</u>. Finally, the evaluative plan

was completed with the inclusion of the E group teacher's

personal evaluation of the effects of the study. Her com-

ments are also included in the section of this study dealing

with the qualitative results since her responses were of a

subjective nature with no effort made to compare her reactions

with those of the teachers of the C groups.

Summary

This chapter explained in some detail the population

selected for this experiment. The community and the school

system were described. The process of selection of the grade

level and of the experimental group was indicated.

Initial data were analyzed prior to the beginning of

the study. Number and sex of students, chronological ages,

mental ages, and intelligence quotients of the E and C groups

were presented. These initial comparisons seemed to indicate

a close similarity of the groups. The only exception was in

the case of one C group's measured academic aptitude which

was below that of the E group to a significant degree.

The latter part of this chapter dealt with the twofold

plan of evaluation. The procedures and materials used in

making the quantitative comparisons were described. The

selection, use, scoring, reliability, and validity of each

test were presented in detail. A description of the statis-

tical procedures used followed.

The second part of the plan of evaluation was qualitative. The procedures and materials for making the qualitative analyses were presented.

The following chapter presents the story-discussions and interviews which took place within the E group.

CHAPTER IV

METHODS AND PROCEDURES USED WITH THE

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

A two-fold approach was used in this experiment in the
attempt to aid children to understand themselves better. First,
the group discussion method was utilized for a series of class
story-discussions. Second, individual interviews were conducted
with each child in the E group. Most studies of this kind have
utilized the group discussion method primarily with little
opportunity for individual consultation.

This chapter details the two-fold approach mentioned above.
An outline of the stories and a summary of each story is inclu-
ded. Each of the three interviews is described.

The Group Discussion Method Employed

in the Experiment

Part of the experimental conditions employed was the group
discussions. Twenty-four lessons were held with the E group.
These lessons were largely patterned after the stories written to
stimulate learning through discussion. The lessons took an average
of forty minutes each. They were conducted approximately three
times a week for a period of sixteen weeks.

Purpose of group discussion. The purpose of the group

discussion procedure was to offer the opportunity for communi-

cating experiences. It was hoped that the contributions of

one child might then assist the learning of the others. The

sharing of ideas, reactions to stimuli, experiences has long

been known to be an efficient method of learning in school

situations. Therefore, it was necessary for group discussion

in order to have any effect upon the total group.

Group discussion technique. During the discussion which

the researcher led, a definite attempt was made to practice the

following discussion techniques:

(1) All of the children participated in the discussion.

(2) Each child's contribution was accepted and valued in

every way possible.

(3) A moralistic value-judging tone was avoided as much as

possible.

(4) Special praise was accorded to children who were

generally hesitant to participate.

(5) Humor was cultivated in the group interaction.

(6) The children were especially encouraged to contribute

experiences of their own.

The researcher made definite efforts to keep in mind the above

techniques. He also made a decided attempt to avoid reacting

negatively, critically, or unacceptingly to the children's contri-

butions.

Although the above deals with rather abstract techniques, it was felt that they were quite vital in the procedure and were of primary concern in setting an atmosphere of acceptance, warmth, and friendliness. It was felt that this was the kind of atmosphere which might be most cathartic. A permissive environment was deliberately cultivated in the desire for relaxed, non-threatening participating of the students.

Pattern of each discussion. While a permissive environment was sought in every way possible, it was felt by the researcher, the principal, and the E group teacher that a planned organization of discussion should be established with the children. Therefore, the following aspects of this organization were evolved and actively carried out:

(1) Children remained in their normal seating arrangement for the discussions.

(2) The classroom teacher was in the room the majority of the time the discussions took place.

(3) Children were asked to indicate their desire to participate by raising their hand.

(4) Upon being recognized, the children were asked to stand while making their comments.

There were some specific reasons for this pattern for discussion. It was felt that general attention to another's contributions would be enhanced if the student stood while he spoke. Furthermore, a greater degree of order was accomplished which enable the researcher to record all of the discussions.

The formal recognition of each discussant by naming him served the purpose of identifying the child and his response on the tape recording.

During the discussions there were times when the children became excited over the discussion and did not follow the foregoing procedures. Nevertheless, the tape recordings captured this excitement and it constituted a valued part of the proceedings.

The introductory session. Prior to the inception of the actual testing, the researcher was introduced to the children and the following points were briefly explained:

(1) The letter to the E group parents was read to the class.

(2) A brief explanation of the work with the class followed.

(3) The point was made that the lessons and discussions would be mainly concerned with the students themselves, their relations with others, and why people do things the way they do.

(4) An explanation was given of the stories, the procedure for discussions, the time involved, and the tape recordings.

(5) The individual interviews and the testing program were mentioned.

Questions from the students were briefly answered. Following this session the pre-testing and then the initial interviews were begun.

Formulation and Outline of the Stories

The needs formulation. The stories were written to cover
many of the basic needs of people and to explain some of the
behavior of human beings. The needs formulation in the mental
hygiene and psychology literature were appraised. With this in-
formation as a background, a simple statement of the needs of man
was formulated. The needs formulation statements follow:

(1) Preserve yourself.

(2) Learn and know about yourself.

(3) Accept, like, and be yourself.

(4) Like others and help them to like you.

This statement of needs was detailed and expanded with the
class during the discussions. It also served the researcher as a
basic frame of reference throughout the discussions and the story
writing.

Outline of the Stories. The stories were written by the re-
searcher with the assistance of material developed by Bullis, Bullis
and O'Malley, Rosenthal, Ojemann, Shacter, and others. The ideas for
the stories came from many sources but the ones mentioned above and
documented in Chapter II were particularly helpful. As the discus-
sion progressed, an increasing effort was made to write the stories
particularly for the individuals in the E. group.

The first three stories were intended to illustrate the likenesses and differences between individuals. The next six stories dealt with the emotions and needs of human beings. The needs formulation was introduced in this set of stories. They also dealt with the arousal of emotions and the varied effects of emotions on the child upon the body.

The following four stories were written to draw the students' attention to the problems of the relationships between people, the satisfaction of the fourth need, to like others and help them to like us.

The final ten stories were designed to stimulate the students' awareness of their own and others' behavior and its many causes. These stories illustrate three ways of handling problems, the direct, the indirect, and the avoidance of a problem. The last six stories illustrated some of the ways people behave in order to solve their problems and satisfy their needs. Actually, they were written to acquaint the students with some of the basic mental or defense mechanisms but the terminology used was simplified and brought to the level of understanding of the class.

The final lesson did not have a story to introduce the discussion. It was in the nature of a review and an overview of the other stories. Written evaluations occupied much of the last period.

The preceding outline covers the broader aspects and
intent of the story material. The next section summarizes
each of the stories in order to acquaint the reader with
their content and the actual titles used with the class when
the stories were presented.

Resume of Each of the Stories for

Group Discussion

Lesson <u>one</u>. The story was introduced by a discussion of some

of the ways in which people differ physically. The title of the

story for the day was "People Are All Different." The story told

of an event on a skating rink where a boy was injured and various

people did different things in order to assist the boy. The dis-

cussion centered around these different ways of behaving. Each

child was asked to write and then give orally the reactions he

would have had in the same situation. The following generalizations

were drawn out: (1) People are all different; (2) each person

might behave differently even when the same thing occurs; and (3)

each person might feel differently about what had occurred or about

what he had done.

Lesson <u>two</u>. Story two was entitled "Should We Be the Same

or Different?" The story was about a young girl who moved from

Canada to a new home in the United States. It detailed some of her

problems in gaining status in her new school. The discussion was

planned to center around the problems of being different from others

and how a person can become a part of the group. Slang, clothing,

and fads were part of the discussion. The generalization made was

that there are times when we like to be different and there are other

times when it is important to us to be like others.

Lesson <u>three</u>. This story concerned three college students who

had a misunderstanding over the status of some of the

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other students on campus. The story was designed to illustrate some of the conflicting reactions people have when faced with a situation that each viewed differently due to their own personal motives. The class was asked to identify some of the personality characteristics of the three central characters. The same characters were used separately for the ensuing three stories. Two of the characters in the story became upset over a news story that the third had written. The class was asked to tell of times when they became upset over something someone else had done. The generalization was drawn that all of us have different feelings. This generalization led to a point which was brought out in order to establish continuity for the next three stories, namely, that the ways in which we behave now might have an effect upon us later.

Lesson four. This story was called "The Story of Bob and How He Grew Up." The story was planned to give the early life history of this well-liked college student who had been a very sickly child. It was designed to illustrate the basic needs that we all have.

Lesson five. "The Story of Jim" was the title of this story. Jim was a favorite of his mothers and was over-protected much of his early life. The story was used to stimulate discussion of how Jim satisfied his needs and how other people satisfy their needs. The generalization drawn was that our early behavior has an influence upon our behavior in later life.

Lesson six. "The Story of Russell" was the last of the series on our basic needs. Russ was perhaps the best-adjusted of the three characters in lesson three. He was a member of a family where he had a great deal of responsibility. He developed the ability to look at himself critically but with humor. He learned to get along with others fairly well as a child and this led him to a better adjustment in early adulthood. This story was planned to aid each child to assess how well he was satisfying his basic needs. The students were asked to write on this topic at the end of the discussion.

Lesson seven. There was no specific story written for lesson seven. Each of the previous stories was reviewed and generalizations drawn from them that helped to explain how "Different Feelings Come From Our Basic Needs." As the characters in the previous stories were reviewed, a child's feelings about his efforts to satisfy his needs were drawn out. It was planned that lesson seven would afford the opportunity to introduce the ideas of normalcy of many different feelings, some pleasant and some unpleasant. The class was asked to list pleasant and unpleasant feelings they had in response to their attempts to satisfy their needs.

Near the end of the discussion the concepts of goal-seeking, blocks to satisfaction, and resulting conflicts were introduced. Illustrations of these concepts were drawn from previous stories and from the experiences of the students.

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Lesson eight. "How Our Emotions Are Aroused" was the title
of the story for lesson eight. Dolores, the main character, had
been in a car accident as a child. Because of this experience,
she was very disturbed whenever she rode in a car. Despite her
fears, she courageously pulled an elderly lady from the path of
a speeding car. The story was used to illustrate how our emotions
can lead to different types of behavior. The ways in which our
emotions are aroused were discussed and listed on the board. The
role of the various physical senses was discussed and a differen-
tiation between a sensation and an emotion was made. Some of the
stronger emotions that might be aroused were illustrated.

Lesson nine. This lesson was comprised of a series of three
short stories, each of which was designed to illustrate some of the
effects of emotions upon us. The lesson was entitled "How Our
Emotions Affect Our Bodies." The stories dealt with minor conflicts
of three girls, one in a ball game, one at home disagreeing with a
parental decision about clothes, and one at school where an emotion
and its corresponding effect upon the body were shown. The behavior
of the three girls was analyzed and the effects of their strong emo-
tions upon their bodies were drawn from the class and listed on the
board. The discussion was then channeled into a consideration of
times when the effects of strong emotions were very helpful, as in
stress situations, and times when these effects "get in our way" in
varying degrees.

Lesson ten. This story was entitled "A Way We Fool Ourselves." It was the story of a boy who didn't want to go to a party for fear of doing something embarrassing and therefore became ill in order to avoid the situation. It was used to illustrate the effects of emotion upon both our bodies and minds and the corresponding resultant behavior that might, as in this case, become a habit. The students were led to discuss the various ways of escaping unpleasant or feared events that they had experienced. The factor of multiple causation was stressed and a variety of effects of escaping by feeling ill were elicited.

Lesson eleven. Lesson eleven story entitled "Friends" concerned two girls, Marie and Rose. They were fast friends, but Rose was quite popular, while Marie's only friend was Rose. Rose moved and Marie was left without a friend. The story was written to enable the class to discuss the various ways of making and keeping friends and to consider the feelings that are aroused when someone loses a close friend.

Lesson twelve. Lesson twelve was centered around a discussion of the story of Marie and was called "Liking Others." It pictured an event in Marie's life. She rejected the assistance of another girl and a teacher when they attempted to help her become a part of the group after the loss of Rose. Thus, the story was related to the previous lesson. The class was led to identify some of the efforts they might make in helping others to like themselves. Various personal experiences were asked for which had to do with events when

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when others helped us. The generalization arrived at wat that opportunities to help others feel liked and wanted might be sought.

Lesson thirteen. Lesson thirteen carried further the discussion of the girl Rose mentioned in story eleven. Rose moved to a new community and did a number of things to help herself become a part of the group. She was not too well received at first and sat down and planned with her mother specific things that she might do to help others to like her. This led the class to consider various ways in which they overcame feelings similar to Rose's shyness in a new group. Other areas suggestive of improvement were mentioned and the class ended by writing a list of "Things I'd Like To Improve About Myself" accompanied by suggestions for accomplishing these ends.

Lesson fourteen. This story was called, "Ways of Handling Our Problems." It was planned to follow up the preceding three stories. It dealt with a basketball team that lost a close game and showed the various players' reactions to the loss. One blamed the referee, the indirect attack. One threatened to quit the team, the avoidance method. One suggested that the fellows had better practice and improve more and then maybe they'd win the close games, the direct facing of the problem. The class then discussed the various general ways of handling this and similar problems in their own experience.

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Lesson fifteen. This story was titled "How Others Have Improved Themselves." It acquainted the children with the lives of some famous people and the way they handled their problems by a rather direct attack. The problems were confined to the physical disability type and the famous people used to illustrate the overcoming of personal handicaps were Wilma Rudolph, Mary McLeod Bethune, and Alex Templeton. The class mentioned several more people who had overcome severe physical handicaps. The generalization was made that the problems listed in the previous lessons might not be so insurmountable if we worked at them.

Lesson sixteen. "John Makes the Baseball Team" was the story for this lesson. It illustrated the efforts of a young boy to make the fourth grade baseball team. He finally made the substitute team and got to play in one game. This was the biggest day of his life. The class was led to discuss the efforts he made in attacking his problem directly. Different kinds of similar efforts were solicited.

Lesson seventeen. "Bessie's Temper" was the title of the story for lesson seventeen. Bessie had difficulty doing a long division problem and had a slight temper tantrum. Later she exhibited the same behavior when her sister changed the television channel she was watching. The class discussed the methods Bessie employed for handling her problems. Other general kinds of indirect ways of handling problems were mentioned by the students.

Lesson eighteen. This story entitled "Copying Others" was concerned with depicting the psychological defense mechanism of identification. A series of events in the life of a boy from infancy through childhood were portrayed. These events showed the various people he liked and respected to the point of emulating them in many ways.

Lesson nineteen. "Making Excuses" was the title of the story designed to show the mechanisms of rationalization and projection at work. Janet failed a test and proceeded. to blame a number of factors for her failure. She then expanded her reasons and began to blame her brother for interrupting her study prior to the test. After class, Janet explained to her friends that the teacher really had it in for her and that was why she failed. The class was asked to analyze Janet's behavior. Similar incidents utilizing the same mechanisms were brought out.

Lesson twenty. Ronny and Bobby were identical twins. The story, "The Twins Grow Up." showed how both tried to excell at playing the violin but went into dramatics for his real success. The different indirect ways these two boys coped with the same problem were discussed. The mechanisms of substitution and compensation were the real subject for this lesson. The class discussed many ways of substituting one goal for another. A continuum of values surrounding the use of these mechanisms was developed.

Lesson twenty-one. "Dreams" was the title of these two brief
stories. Jane was unable to go to the party so she spent her time
at home dreaming about how wonderful it would be to be a princess
and have all kinds of big parties. John was doing his science
when he noticed a flock of ducks flying north. He forgot his
science and began to daydream of going up north during the coming
summer vacation. The lesson was confined to the topic of day-
dreams. The facts that most people daydream to varying degrees
and that daydreams may serve a definite purpose were brought out.
The children were led to discuss their own daydreams.

Lesson twenty-two. The story of LeRoy who had a poor report
card to take home and delayed going home or telling his parents
about the card comprised the story for lesson twenty-two. It was
entitled, "Being Anxious." The class was stimulated to discuss
many aspects of fear and anxiety. Real and imagined fears and
anxieties were brought out.The fact that LeRoy's parents were
angry when he came home late for supper interested the class. The
discussion led to the relating of many events when parents became
fearful or anxious for their children. The generalization was
made that parents might become angry when they are anxious or
fearful for their children's safety.

Lesson twenty-three. Lesson twenty-three was begun with a
story entitled, "Going Backwards." The story was a series of
two events. A boy failed to become elected to a school job he

wanted. He went home crying to his mother. A girl was chosen on the weakest baseball team during the gym period and proceeded to sulk, complain, and only half-tried when it was her turn to field a ball or bat. The mechanism of regression was inherent in these incidents. The class was asked to point out times when they had handled a problem of theirs by "going backwards."

Lesson twenty-four. Lesson twenty-four was a discussion review period. After the discussion, the students were asked to respond to the final student questionnaire.

The group discussion lessons occupied the majority of the time the author spent with the experimental group. A description of the second part of the experimental approach follows in the presentation of the individual interviews.

The Individual Interviews

The second experimental conditions in this study was individual interviewing. The students in the E group were privately interviewed on three occasions. The interviews took place with each child before, during and after the series of class story-discussions.

These conferences took place in the favorable surroundings of the private office of the music counselor. The interviews averaged one-half hour in length. Comfortable chairs, a desk, good light and ventilation, and an almost total lack of interruption characterized the surroundings.

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General purpose of the interviews. The interview situa-
tion was primarily designed to offer the opportunity to consult
with the researcher in regards to any questions of a general or
private nature springing from the stories. Thus, it was the in-
tent of the researcher to give each child the chance to relate
personal reactions to the discussions as well as any problems
which the discussions might have pin-pointed.

It was also hoped that further information in regards to
each child's self-understanding might be elicited in the inter-
views. The degree of and reality of self-understanding might
then be better understood.

Secondary purposes entered into the planning of the three
interviews. These are detailed in the discussion that follows.

The counseling philosophy underlying the conduct of these
interviews might best be characterized or described as eclectic.[2,3]
Many of the aspects of directive information-seeking interviews
were present.

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[2]Shirley A. Hamrin, "An Eclectic Approach to Counseling,"
S. Hamrin and F. Endicott, editors, Counselors at Work a Prac-
tical Consideration of Counseling Problems (Evanston: School of
Education, Northwestern University, 1967), pp. 127-142.

[3]Arthur H. Ryden, "An Appraisal of Student-Parent-Counselor
Participation in Counseling in a Secondary School Guidance Pro-
gram," (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Northwestern University,
1961), p. 122.

The first interview. The first interview followed the intro-
ductory session with the class. It was designed to help the student
express any questions he had about the study and to answer these
questions wherever possible. It was the purpose of the interview to
offer a permissive situation wherein the student could communicate
any misgivings or misunderstandings in regard to the study, thereby
alleviating any tension that might have pre-existed or been induced.
Much of this initial interview was designed to be ego-supporting so
that the child would not be threatened and thereby restricted in his
approach to the story-discussions. It further aided the researcher
and each child to establish a degree of rapport and to understand
and know each other better.

The second interview. This interview took place during the
middle of the series of story-discussions. It followed the second
sociogram and was designed in part to elicit from each child the
reasons for his sociometric choices.

Like the initial interview, each child was encouraged to
question what had taken place so far. An attempt was made to dis-
cuss and, where possible, to answer these questions.

Problems of a personal nature had been listed by each student
under the title, "What I'd Like to Improve About Myself." These
problems were discussed and the accompanying suggestions of each
child as to steps he might take to solve the problem in question
were mutually analyzed.

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This interview might be described as a sociometric interview in part, and secondarily, a personal problem informational and planning interview.

The final interview. The third interview took place after the story-discussions were completed. It was designed to again afford the child the privacy of the counseling situation to express himself in any way he saw fit regarding the story-discussions. Questions were encouraged and clarified through discussion.

This interview was also planned to aid the student to evaluate any growth and change as a result of the study. The student's final written evaluation was discussed with him. The whole experiment and the student's experiences and reactions were analyzed.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented a description of the experimental conditions which took place within the E group. The general method of story-discussion was explained . The researcher's group discussion techniques were listed and interpreted. The outline of the lessons written for this study and the needs formulation evolved were discussed. The stories used in the study were summarized.

The general purpose of the three interviews and the specific procedures used in the interviews were presented.

CHAPTER V

QUANTITATIVE COMPARISONS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL

AND CONTROL GROUPS

This chapter compares the groups quantitatively on the basis of the results of group testing. The E and C groups were tested with a variety of tests each of which, with the exception of the achievement battery, were selected on the assumption that it measured some aspect of self-understanding. All the tests were administered both before and after the experiment took place with the E group. The same or equated forms of each test were utilized.

Two of the tests were personal in nature. That is, each child responded only for himself. These were the California Test of Personality and the essay questions. The other two tests were primarily social. On the social distance scale and sociograms each child responded to others in his class.

The remaining test was not used to reflect any aspect of self-understanding. The achievement battery was administered to assess academic growth during the experimental period.

The data are grouped according to the tests used for clarity in reading. The results in each case are presented in tables. Each table is introduced, described, analyzed and the conclusions drawn are cited with the supportant evidence.

Following these presentations, the conclusions are synthesized and summarized.

Comparisons on the California
Test of Personality

The California Test of Personality was administered in order to obtain an average adjustment score for each group. The raw score data were used since the percentile rankings in the publisher's manual were thought to be inadequate for the method of statistical analysis employed.

Presentation of the personality test data. The data represented in two tables. The first of these, Table IV, indicates the means of each group on the pre- and post-testing with the California Test of Personality. These means were compared and the resulting gains or losses in each group's mean raw scores are given. In addition, the total raw score point gains or losses are shown for each group.

Table IV shows that the E group made the highest average point gain over the experimental period. This gain was found to be 2.70. Four of the C groups dropped in average score. These losses ranged from .05 to 5.89. One C group, C3, gained .50 in mean score. The table indicates that the E group made the greatest positive gain in average raw score.

TABLE IV

MEANS, DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEANS, AND TOTAL POINT GAIN OR LOSS IN RAW SCORES ON THE CALIFORNIA TEST OF PERSONALITY

Group	N	Pre-Test Means	Post-Test Means	Difference
E	27	119.50	122.20	+2.70
C1	25	119.50	118.52	-1.08
C2	26	121.09	115.30	-5.89
C3	26	116.61	117.11	+0.50
C4	24	124.13	124.08	-0.05
C5	25	118.80	117.44	-1.36

Stated differently, the E group gain 73 points in total raw score while four of the five C groups lost points. The only C group that gained, group C3, showed an increase of only 13 points while the E group's gain was considerably greater.

In still another comparison, the mean raw score of the E group was lower than that of three of the C groups on the first test, and below only one of these on the second test.

Interpretation of the personality test data. These data seem to indicate that the total adjustment of the E group as measured by the California Test of Personality increased over the experimental period.

Therefore, the data presented seem to support the contention that within the E group some change or changes occurred. These changes are apparently of a positive nature.

Significance of the personality test data. In order to ascertain the significance of the changes that are represented by the data, they were subject to statistical analysis.

Table V presents the t scores which resulted from statistical analysis of the significance of the difference between the means of the E and C groups respectively on the pre-test (t_1) and post-test (t_2) scores.

TABLE V

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEANS OF
THE E GROUP AND EACH C GROUP ON THE
CALIFORNIA TEST OF PERSONALITY

Group	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5
t_1 significance	0.03 --	0.43 --	0.72 --	1.27 --	0.17 --
t_2 significance	0.84 --	1.25 --	0.00 --	0.49 --	1.98 --

The results of the t tests show that none of the mean scores of the C groups were significantly different from the means of the E group on either the pre- or post-test. This does not prove that no difference existed.

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Further analysis of the data in Table V indicates that some change occurred as represented by the change in $\underline{t}$ scores. Groups C1 and C2 were above the E group on the first test and below on the second. C3 and C5 scores were below the E group on both tests and the $\underline{t}$ score for C5 reflects the degree of this change. Change in C3 is not as apparent as this group gained positively, though not to the degree that the E group did.

Group C4, which scored the highest on both tests, was not as far above the E group on the second test, as it was on the first, the $\underline{t}$ score changing from 1.27 to 0.49.

These data appear to support the generalization arrived at perviously, namely that the greatest positive changes occurred in the group E.

Conclusions based on personality test results. The figures in the above tables appear to support the following conclusions:

(1) The change in means was greatest in the E group.

(2) This change was of a positive nature.

(3) This change was apparent whether the comparison was made with a C group which scored above or below the E group on either test.

(4) In no case were there any statistically significant differences between the means of the E and C groups.

These results would appear to corroborate the findings of Rosenthal in the study described in detail in Chapter II of this

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text.[1] Further, the research of Taylor and Combs, if valid, would

support the contention that the California Test of Personality

does measure the total adjustment of a group of children in rela-

tion to their degree of self-acceptance.[2] Taylor and Combs found

that those children who were best adjusted, as measured by the test,

could accept a greater number of damaging statements about themselves.

Assuming that this is so for the groups at hand, we might then con-

clude that the children in the E group began to understand themselves

better since self-understanding is, in part, comprised of the con-

scious acknowledgment of one's own weaknesses as well as his strengths

and this acknowledgment appears to be implicit in the responses to the

California Test of Personality Test items.

Comparisons on the Open-ended Essay Questions

The open-ended essay questions "What I like about myself is . .

.?" and "What I dislike about myself is . . .?" were administered

to all the groups in order to assess the student's negative and

positive personal feelings toward and about themselves.

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[1]Sheldon Rosenthal, "A Fifth Grade Classroom Experiment in Fostering Mental Health," The Journal of Child Psychiatry, 2:302-29, 1962.

[2]Charles Taylor and Arthur Combs, "Self-Acceptance and Adjustment," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 16:89-91, April, 1962.

The responses to these questions were totaled and averaged for each group resulting in a mean number of responses to each question.

Presentation of the essay data. The mean number of responses to each of these questions on the before (M_1) and after (M_2) administrations are presented in Table VI. The resulting gains or losses in mean scores are calculated and are presented in the same table.

TABLE VI

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEANS OF THE NUMBER OF
RESPONSES TO OPEN-ENDED ESSAY QUESTIONS

	Like			Dislike		
Group	M_1	M_2	Gain	M_1	M_2	Gain
E	4.2	4.9	+0.7	3.4	2.7	-0.7
C1	3.9	1.8	-2.1	2.4	2.5	+0.1
C2	7.8	8.5	+0.7	4.3	6.0	+1.7
C3	3.4	4.0	+0.6	2.1	2.2	+0.1
C4	5.7	4.3	-1.4	3.0	4.3	+1.3
C5	4.5	4.8	+0.3	3.7	3.4	-0.3

Table VI shows that the E group was one of four groups that gained in the number of responses to the "Like" question. It was one of two groups that lowered their number of responses to the "Dislike" question.

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The E group made a gain of 0.7 responses per pupil on the "Like" criterion. This was the highest gain, along with that of C2. C3 closely followed with a gain of 0.6 in mean number of responses. Two of the groups, C1 and C4 lost 2.1 and 1.4 in their mean scores respectively.

On the "Dislike" question, four groups made greater response to the criterion on the final test, C2 showing an increase of 1.7, C4 of 1.3 and C1 and C3 of 0.1. Group C5 was the only group besides the E group that reduced its mean number of responses to the "Dislike" criterion showing a loss of 0.3 as compared to the E group reduction of 0.7.

Interpretation of the essay data. These data show that the E group with the exception of C^2 made the highest gain in positive responses to the "Like" question and the greatest reduction of responses to the "Dislike" question. This would seem to corroborate the findings of the California Test of Personality in that the E group students apparently came to like more things about themselves and dislike less things about themselves during the course of the study. The California Test of Personality indicated slightly better adjustment within the E group after the study.

The veracity of this statement depends upon acceptance of the assumption that a reduction in the number of things disliked about oneself reflects greater acceptance of oneself and hence, better positive adjustment.

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Significance of the essay data. It can be noted from the table that the respective gains and losses on each of the questions are of consistently small quantity. This leads us to caution in the interpretation of these data. Apparently changes occurred. However, the pattern of small consistent changes found in the analysis of the California Test of Personality data is again noticeable in analyzing the essay responses. No test of significance of these changes was made due to the lack of large differences in the mean number of responses.

Conclusions based upon the essay data. The figures presented in foregoing table tend to suggest the following conclusions:

(1) Most of the groups gained slightly in the mean responses to both questions.

(2) The E group showed a greater gain in liking for one C group.

(3) The E group showed the greatest reduction in disliking things about themselves of all the groups.

(4) The E group responses to both questions were consistent.

(5) The significance of the changes in means is questionable due to the size of the differences.

These conclusions appear to verify the California Test of Personality findings presented previously. Apparently the slightly better adjustment of the individuals in the E group after the experiment was reflected on both the California Test of Personality and the open-ended essay questions. The E group pupils appeared to like more things about themselves and dislike less about them-

selves after the story-discussions and interviews than before.

Specifically, the E group students increased their liking for the following aspects of themselves:

(1) Social attitudes and relations with others increased by eleven positive responses.

(2) Recreation and hobbies were mentioned seven times more.

(3) Personality and character traits were mentioned five times more.

(4) Clothing and grooming increased five responses.

(5) Better home and family relationships were mentioned three times.

On the other hand, the E group pupils reduced their dislike of themselves on the following aspects:

(1) Fourteen less responses mentioned physical characteristics.

(2) The category entitled "Just me, myself" went down five responses.

(3) Dislike of some aspect of school went down two responses.

These specific gains and reductions tended to reflect a growing awareness of and respect for themselves among the students in the E group. It was interesting to note that the greatest increase on the "Like" question was in response to the individual's liking for and relationships with other. The greatest reduction on the "Dislike" question was on physical characteristics.

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Apparently more children came to appreciate and enjoy their relations with others, and at the same time, became more understanding and accepting of their own physical characteristics.

Comparisons on the Sociograms

Both the California Test of Personality and the essays reflected changes in self-understanding. These changes were derived from measures to which each child responded in a way which tended to be exclusive of others. In order to measure more closely the other aspects of self-understanding, namely, the child's relations to others and their acceptance of him, a modified social distance scale and three sociograms were utilized on the pre- and post-test basis.

Three sociograms were administered to each child in each group. Three responses were requested to each of three criteria: friends, play, and work at school. Due to the difficulties of statistically comparing groups with sociometric measurements which were pointed out in Chapter II, a method of numerical analysis was employed. This method has certain limitations but appeared to be the most applicable, and useful method of sociometric analysis for purposes of this study.

Presentation of the sociometric data. The sociometric data are presented in two tables, Table VII and Table VIII. The first of these indicates the number and percentage of isolates in each group on the before and after sociograms. An isolate was taken as one who received one or no choices on the

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two sociograms. In addition, a <u>Group Integration</u> figure is presented in Table VII. This figure was calculated from the formula presented by Jahoda.[3] <u>I</u>, <u>Group Integration</u>, equals one divided by the number of isolates in the group. Thus, the higher the <u>I</u> the better the group's integration. Table VII also includes the differences between the <u>I</u> scores on both sets of sociograms.

TABLE VII

NUMBER OF ISOLATES, PERCENTAGE OF ISOLATES,
GROUP INTEGRATION, AND DIFFERENCES IN
INTEGRATION ON THE SOCIOGRAMS

		First Sociograms			Final Sociograms			
		ISOLATES			ISOLATES			Differences
Group	N	No.	%	I	No.	%	I	in I
E	27	4	14.0	.25	5	18.5	.20	-0.05
C1	27	5	18.5	.20	4	14.0	.25	+0.05
C2	26	4	15.0	.25	1	4.0	1.00	+0.75
C3	27	3	11.0	.33	3	11.0	.33	0.00
C4	25	3	12.0	.33	3	12.0	.33	0.00
C5	25	1	4.0	1.00	1	4.0	1.00	0.00

This table indicates that no group had less than one or more than five isolates at either time of measurement. The E group was the only group that increased its number of isolates over the experimental period.

[3]M. Jahoda, M. Deutsch, and S. W. Cook, <u>Research Methods in Social Relations, Part Two: Selected Techniques</u> (New York: Dryden Press, 1961), p. 573.

The E group had the lowest I score and the highest percentage of isolates at the conclusion of the study. Group C5 had only one isolate on both sets of tests with a resulting low percentage of isolates and the highest I scores. C2 showed a loss of three isolates with a final I score equal to that of C5. This constituted the most significant gain of all the groups.

Interpretation of the sociometric data on isolates. These data generally satisfy the criteria for a reasonable distribution of approximately fifteen per cent of isolates in both sets of sociograms and C2 on the final set, has a percentage of isolates which varies from eleven per cent to eighteen per cent, all near the fifteen per cent figure.

The data seem to suggest that no great changes took place in the number of isolates during the course of the study with the exception being C2. The E group did not show any positive change in group integration but rather, it was the only group that decreased in integration.

Significance of the data on isolates. If reliability and validity of the data are assumed, then the conclusions based on the data must be of some significance. The only group that made significant progress in integration was C2. The remaining groups showed little or no change, three of them remaining identical on both sets of tests. The negative change of .05 in I within the E group and the positive .05 within the C1 group are such small changes as to be of questionable significance. No statistical treatment of

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the data's significance was attempted.

Presentation of the sociometric data on leaders. Because
of the one-sided view derived from a sociometric analysis con-
fined to a study of isolates only, Table VIII was prepared to
indicate the number, percentage, and changes in number and per-
centage of leaders in each group. The criterion for a leader
was taken as fifteen or more choices on the three sociograms.
Table VIII shows that the number of leaders in each group varied
from one to seven. This resulted in varying percentages of
stars which ranged from four to twenty-six percent. The E group
gained one leader with a resulting final percentage of sixteen
on the final set of sociograms. Of the remaining four groups,
three lost two leaders each and one, group C2, remained the
same with four leaders on each set of tests.

TABLE VIII

NUMBER OF LEADERS, PERCENTAGE OF LEADERS, AND DIFFERENCES
IN NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF LEADERS ON THE SOCIOGRAMS

		First Sociograms		Final Sociograms			
		LEADERS		LEADERS		Gain	Differences
Group	N	No.	%	No.	%	or	in
						Loss	%
E	27	6	22	7	26	+1	+4.0
C1	27	7	26	5	18.5	-2	-7.5
C2	26	4	15	4	15	0	0
C3	27	7	26	5	18.5	-2	-7.5
C4	25	1	4	4	16	+3	+12
C5	25	6	25	4	16	-2	-9.0

Interpretation of the sociometric data on leaders. These data

seem to indicate that there was no great change in the number of

leaders in the group. The E group gained on leader and C4 gained

three. The remaining groups remained the same or lost leaders.

Nevertheless, the number of leaders in each group on the final three

sociograms is close to the criterion of twenty per cent leaders de-

scribed in Chapter IV. All groups were within six percentage points

of this criterion.

Conclusions based upon sociometric measurement.

Quantitative comparison of the sociometric data described and

presented above appears to lead to the following conclusions:

(1) No group showed a consistent decrease in isolates coupled

with an increase in leaders.

(2) All groups with the exception of the C5 isolates showed

reasonable sociometric distribution. C5 had an un-

usually low number of isolates.

(3) No consistent pattern of change within the E group was

discernible with the method of analysis employed.

(4) The E group gained one isolate and one leader resulting

in the highest percentage of both isolates and leaders.

(5) This change within the E group was of such slight quan-

tity as to be of questionable significance.

The above conclusions are apparently of questionable signifi-

cance. The difficulties of utilizing sociometric data for com-

parative analysis between groups has been pointed out in Chapter III.

Any conclusions which might be drawn would necessarily be contingent

upon the assumption that the methods of analysis employed were adequate.

The sociometric analysis of the E group in comparison with the

C groups might lead to two lines of thought. First, if there was a

dynamic change in self-understanding within the E group, but it was not

reflected in the self-other type of sociometric choice employed. In

other words, if change occurred, the sociograms did not measure such

change.

Second, it is possible that there was little or no change in the

groups and hence no great alteration in the sociometric choices and

the resulting numbers of isolates and leaders.

Consequently, if we accept the sociogram as an instrument that

measures aspects of self-understanding, then the hypothesis

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that change occurred to a significant degree must be rejected on the basis of the results. Conversely, the hypothesis need not be rejected if either the sociograms were invalid for the purpose of measuring self-understanding, or the methods of analysis were inadequate.

Comparisons on the Social Distance Scale

Because of the difficulties of comparative sociometric analysis a modified social distance scale was also employed to afford a different and more variable picture of the students' relations with and acceptance of others.

The social distance scale was administered with the instruction that each child should check each of the other children in the class in the appropriate column which was felt to be most descriptive of that person. The responses were scored from a highest rating of five to the lowest rating of one. Each response to a given student was then added. An average of all students' total scores was computed resulting in the mean social distance for the group. The higher the score the better the rating of the student or the group.

Presentation of the social distance data. The social distance data are presented in two tables. The first of these, Table IX, indicates the mean social distance scores on the pre- and post-tests along with the differences between these means.

TABLE IX

TOTAL SCORES ON THE
SOCIAL DISTANCE SCALES

Group	N	M_1	M_2	Gain or Loss
E	27	67.37	75.37	+ 8.00
C1	27	82.74	80.93	- 1.81
C2	26	70.35	77.77	+ 7.42
C3	27	80.37	89.74	+ 9.37
C4	25	77.64	78.00	+ 0.36
C5	25	55.80	74.44	+18.64

Five of the six groups made gains during the duration of this study. Of these gains, the E group was greater than those of two groups and smaller than those of the other two. The remaining group, C1, reduced its score from 82.74 to 80.93 for a loss of 1.81 points.

The gain of group C5 is questionably. A clarification of the administration of the social distance scale to this group is in order. A majority of the children in all groups did not respond on the test to all the other children in the room despite the instruction to do so. This was true of C5 on the first test. During the administration of the second test the teacher reminded the class of this instruction. It was felt that this non-standardized reinforcement of the directions to the class tended to alter the normal responses of the students. A number of the children were observed going back and checking each child which

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they had not originally checked. For this reason, the author

cautions the use of the final results for C5. They may well be

of questionable validity. The great mean gain on social distance

of this group then became more understandable. The results are

presented in their entirety but their use for comparison with the

E group should be disregarded.

Interpretation of the social distance data. The E group

showed a gain of 8.00 points in mean social distance. Groups C2

and C5 made greater gains. The remaining three groups made les-

ser gains or lost points. The E group did not change its relative

position as a group. It was ranked fifth in average score on the

first test, and, despite its gain, it remained fifth in rank on the

second test. Because of the size of the gain the E group came

closer to three of the four groups above it on the second test than

it had been on the first.

Significance of the social distance data. Since the E group

came closer to three groups that had higher scores initially the

data were analyzed for the significance of differences between the

means on both the before and after tests. The t test of signifi-

cance was used. These t scores and the appropriate levels of

significance are presented in Table X in order to clarify the data

in Table IX.

The results of the t tests show that the E group was behind

the C1, C3, and C4 groups on the initial test to a significant de-

gree. On the final test the E group was significantly behind only

the C3 group. Since all of these four groups had higher mean scores on both tests the decrease in significance of differences between the means would seem to indicate that the E group improved in its mean score in a significant manner.

TABLE X

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEANS ON
THE SOCIAL DISTANCE SCALE

Group	E	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5
t_1		3.46	0.70	3.06	2.40	2.23
Significance		1%	--	1%	2%	5%
t_2		1.26	0.53	3.09	0.61	0.20
Significance		--	--	1%	--	--

Specific comparisons which lead to this apparently significant change follow:

(1) E gained much on C1, decreasing the significance of differences between the mean scores of the two groups from the 1% level of confidence to no significance.

(2) E gained slightly on C2, the t score change from 0.70 to 0.53 indicating even less difference on the final test.

(3) E and C3 showed little change in relative position, E gained 8.00 points in mean score and C3 gaining 9.37 points. Thus C3 made a slightly higher gain than E which is barely

reflected by the t score change from 3.06 to 3.09.

C3 remained significantly above E on both tests.

(4) E gained on C4 which was significantly higher at the 2% level of confidence on the first test, and not significantly higher on the second. The t score changed from 2.40 to 0.61

Conclusions based upon social distance date. The preceding quantitative comparisons of the social distance test results suggest the following conclusions:

(1) Small changes apparently occurred in all groups.

(2) The change in the E group was of a positive nature.

(3) The E group gain brought the group closer to the other groups during the course of the study. This decrease in the gap between the respective means appear to be significant.

(4) The E group gain may indicate that the pupils tended to respond more positively to more of their classmates after the study than before.

The social distance data give a more detailed picture of the relationships between students than do the sociometric data. The slight positive change in the E group noticeable in the California Test of Personality and essay data and lacking in the sociometric figures was repeated in the social distance results. The hypothesis of positive change appears to be supported by the results of all the tests with the exception of the sociogram.

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Comparisons on the California Achievement Test

The only purpose in administering the achievement test battery was to see whether or not the E group might suffer academically during the period of this research. Since the time necessary for the study was taken from the regular instructional periods of the E group alone, a comparison of the achievement of all groups was made.

Presentation of the achievement test data. In order to present the achievement test data Table XI was prepared. This table gives the mean grade placement achievement scores for each group before and after the research. The resulting gains in achievement were also presented.

TABLE XI

MEANS AND GAINS IN MEANS ON THE CALIFORNIA
ACHIEVEMENT TEST BATTERY

Group	N	M_1	M_2	Gain
E	26	4.75	5.38	+.63
C1	27	4.70	5.08	+.38
C2	25	4.71	5.36	+.65
C3	27	4.58	6.06	+.48
C4	25	5.08	6.57	+.49
C5	25	4.53	5.96	+.43

Interpretation of the achievement test data. The above

figures indicate that all groups made small gains in achieve-

ment during the period of this study. The E group gain of .63

in grade placement score was greater than the gains of all

other groups with the exception of C2 which made a gain of

.65.

Significance of gains in achievement. In order to clarify

the grade placement gains presented in Table XI and test them

for significance of differences between means the t tests for

statistical significance were used. The resulting t scores and

their significance are presented in Table XII.

TABLE XII

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN
MEANS ON ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

Group	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5
t_1	0.02	0.18	0.69	1.39	1.00
Significance	--	--	--	--	--
t_2	1.05	0.08	1.25	0.31	1.76
Significance	--	--	--	--	10%

Analysis of these t scores indicates that there were no

significant differences between the mean achievement grade place-

ment scores of the E group as compared with the C groups either

before or after the experiment. E was higher than C5 on the

final test but the t score was only significant at the

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10% level of confidence which is not discriminating enough for our purposes.

Conclusions based upon the achievement test data. The following conclusions appear to be supported by the analysis of the achievement test results:

(1) All groups gained in achievement.

(2) The E and C2 groups gained slightly more than the other groups.

(3) These gains were not significantly greater than the gains in the other groups.

(4) There were no significant differences between the mean achievement grade placement scores of the E group and the respective C groups before or after the experiment.

The above data would lead to the rejection of any hypothesis that the E group suffered academically as a result of spending the time necessary for the experiment. Rather, the E group apparently made good academic gains despite the loss of time from the instructional program.

Chapter Summary

The quantitative results of the before and after testing have been presented, interpreted, and their significance stated in this chapter. The conclusions which the results of each test appear to support were specified.

In summarizing and synthesizing the data and the conclusions drawn from the data, the following generalizations are made:

(1) The E group made small but consistent gains on the _personal_ measures of personality and self-likes and dislikes. These gains were, in most cases, statistically insignificant.

(2) The E group made a similar type of small gain on one of the _social_ measures, the social distance scale. This gain was not noticeable in the sociometric data. This may be due to the inadequacy of the sociograms as a test of self-understanding, inadequacy of the methods of analysis, or lack of change within the group. The evidence of the other measures appears to support the conclusion that positive change did occur despite the inconclusivemenss of the sociometric results.

With these two generalizations in mind attention is directed to the basic hypotheses of the study.

Did the study result in the improvement of self-understanding? Apparently those aspects of self-understanding which are measured by the tests used demonstrated small consistent positive growth over the period of this study. To a slight degree the evidence substantiates the basic hypothesis. A caution is interjected to avoid misinterpretation; these positive gains were generally lacking in statistical significance. A positive pattern was discernible within the E group as compared with the C groups but this positive growth was

very slight.

In regards to the question of academic improvement over the period of this study, the hypothesis that the E group would suffer due to loss of instructional time is refuted by the grade placement data.

The quantitative analysis being completed, the qualitative analysis of the study and its results follows in Chapter VI.

CHAPTER VI

QUALITATIVE ANALYSES OF THE STUDY

Many of the nuances of behavior and the results of any educative experience are difficult to quantify in a valid manner. Some of the experiences which took place within the E group are of this kind. Therefore, they are treated qualitatively in the presentation of the results of this study.

In a sense, they constitute what might be termed subjective data, as opposed to the more objective data presented quantitatively in the previous chapter.

This chapter is divided into twelve sections. In a number of these sections many of the direct remarks of students and parents are quoted. The sections are arranged in the following order:

(1) The students' oral and written responses to the story-discussions.

(2) The record of student participation is presented, and conclusions are drawn from the results.

(3) An analysis of the students' desired self-improvement.

(4) The students' three wishes are analyzed.

(5) The initial individual interviews.

(6) The second individual interviews presented in the sixth section were primarily sociometric interviews. The results of these are given.

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(7) The third individual interviews were primarily evalu-

ative.

(8) The changes in the students' interests and activities.

(9) The students' final questionnaires.

(10) The results of theparent questionnaires and analyzes of

these results.

(11) The E group's teacher was asked to answer certain

questions about her reactions to the study and her

observations of the students. Her responses are in-

cluded.

Students' Oral and Written Responses

to the Story-Discussions

Following the reading of each story, the class was led to

discuss the story, the characters in each story, and why they

might have behaved as they did. Gradually, the discussion was

led into a considertion of other people the students knew

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who behaved in a similar way. Finally, the discussion center-
ed around an analysis of times when the students themselves
behaved in a like manner. This was the pattern of each dis-
cussion.

Excerpts of these discussions are presented in this
section in order to illustrate the insight and understanding
of the students in the E group as the study progressed. Some
of the excerpts presented were drawn from the tape-recordings
of each discussion. Some of the excerpts were taken from the
students' written reactions to each story-discussion. These
reactions were written at the end of each lesson under the
title, "What I think I have learned today."

Criteria for selection of the excerpts. There were

criteria for the selection of the following excerpts.
Well over two thousand oral and written remarks were con-
sidered and evaluated. The few presented were selected on
the following bases:

(1) The excerpt was interpreted to be illustrative of
    self-understanding on the part of the student.

(2) The excerpt was interpreted to be illustrative of
    understanding of others.

(3) The comments used were representative of the whole
    class rather than just a few of the more articulate
    children.

With these criteria in mind the excerpts were chosen.

Excerpts of students' oral and written responses. The
following excerpts from each of the lessons are presented in

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chronological order. Lesson twenty-four is not included as it was

not a discussion lesson.

1. Lesson one. Most of the comments in response to this story

centered around the treatment of the boy who fell on the ice. The

feelings of the other people around him were mentioned. The respon-

ses of the class did not reflect too much in the way of self-

understanding. Since it was the first story, the pattern of pro-

cedure for the discussions needed occasional clarification. The

following comments were made:

T[1]- One of the things we talked about was the feelings . . . the
emotions that everyone had about the accident.[2]

T - I think his father would be awfully worried because I read
the book of Highpockets and his father was worried when he
was hit by a pitch.

W[3]- I think I've learned the different ways, different people
think about the same thing. I also learned different ways
of using first aid. I think I learned a lot.

Some of the additional written comments raised points of concern

which had not been discussed following the story. Some of these

follow:

W - People are different in race, color of their skin, and creed.
W - What would the guy who pushed John feel like?
W - That you should not disobey rules, it might hurt you but
it might hurt your friend.
W - I think that John and his friends shouldn't have broken the
rule by playing "ice tag" or other games.

---

[1]A T is used throughout this section prior to each quotation
taken from a tape-recording.

[2]All excerpts are quoted directly. Thus they include certain
grammatical and spelling errors. Direct responses of the class are
set in parentheses where they clarify the students' reactions, e.g.
(laughter). Ellipses are used to indicate pauses.

[3]A W is used throughout this section prior to each quotation taken
from a student's written statement.

The last comment was made by a child who frequently commented upon whether some behavior under the discussion was "right or wrong". She appeared to be quite concerned with dichotomous values throughout the study.

2. **Lesson two.** Unfortunately, the tape recorder broke down during this lesson and the discussion was not recorded. An incident was recalled and set down in the following manner since it illustrates the response of the class to one girl who was projecting a type of behavior which she herself frequently utilized:

_____was talking about how she'd like to be different from others. She said she wouldn't like to like people who were poor sports and gossipy behind others' backs. At this the class choroused, "Ohhhh:" All turned to look at her. She grinned and blushed.[4]

The remainder of the comments from lesson two were drawn from the writings.

W - I have learned that people like to be the same in some ways and different in others. Sometimes there are fads and everyone wants to have one of whatever the fad is about. You should be nice to new children in the room or other rooms and help them to make friends. And don't tease them if they wear different clothes.

W - Inside of my self I know what I learned but I can't put it down on paper.

W - I think it's fun to be like others sometimes and sometimes not so fun.

W - To like other people and to not be scared at all things. To be liked by other children. To not ware the same thing all the time. To not ware the same thing as others.

The last comments were made by a child who, according to the sociograms and social distance scales, was perhaps the most regected child in the room. The comments mirror the child's

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[4]In order to avoid the use of names of the children, their siblings, etc., the _____is used to indicate the omission of a name.

needs for approval and recognition by others. At the same time they indicate a degree of self-awareness.

3. **Lesson three.** This story evoked a great deal of response, particularly to the question about times when people get angry and take it out on others.

> T - Well . . . one of the characters was pretty nervous and one was pretty jumpy and jumpiness doesn't make people like you. (laughter)
>
> T - Well, several times . . . my older brother _____ doesn't like me so much and, uh, we fight, and, uh, (laughter) and not that I like him but, uh, when he fights he beats me so many times I just go blow off at my oldest brother or at my mom, not at my dad. Then lots of times I go out and try to do something to _____'s bike but it doesn't work. (laughter)
>
> T - Well, sometimes I drop my pencil and I could just kill myself every time that I drop my pencil . . . and everytime I do just anything I always drop my pencil, and oh, I could just kill myself. (Much laughter as the class turned to look at the teacher.)
>
> T - Well, lots of times I fight with my little brother and well, he's well, oh, he's pretty little and so you have to watch out so everytime I beat up on him well, I have to let him beat up on me only he gets real mad and he's just a wild tiget and so I get mad at the maid and she doesn't say a word and I get so mad and say "Shut Up!" but she doesn't way a word and I sure get mad.
>
> W - Like _____ said her maid didn't mind when she takes things out on her and _____ said that his maid would stay quiet and _____ would keep telling her to shut up. I think that people like that are good to have around because they know that you didn't mean anything when you take things out on them.
>
> W - I've learned that some people don't think before they act. Some people get mad very easily over things that other people don't seem to mind at all. If they do, they keep it inside. I'v learned that many people get mad and do something wrong, they take it out on others.
>
> W - I learned that a lot of other people besides me get so mad at things and then they jump somebody else for it.

4. **Lesson four.** Our basic needs. This discussion centered around the basic needs of people and how well these needs are satisfied.

T - Well, I know a guy that could have been, could have
    liked himself better. He didn't have to hide him-
    self away like a hermit. He could make friends if
    he wanted to . . . if he wasn't alone all the time.
T - If you don't complain of aches and pains all the
    time people like you better.
T - Well, I have learned to try and NOT fight back cause
    then the other person may stop fighting and, uh (laugh-
    ter) . . . well, it really works sometimes.
T - I learned about our needs, about other people and
    even a little about myself.
W - I think you have to be nice and not try to be boss.
    To make friends I have seen people join clubs and
    agree to things they really don't believe in.
W - I just forget about your bad health and make friends,
    and you will make more friends. Not to feel so sorry
    for yourself.

The last remark was written by a child who had a number of phys-

ical and emotional difficulties and was being studied by the

school psychologist during the experiment. The child was

largely socially isolated in the class and in the community.

5. Lesson five. The discussion dealt with how Jim

and others satisfy their basic needs.

T - Well, I knew this guy at school that wasn't very
    sure of himself and he used to plan out every move
    at school so he wouldn't make any mistakes. . .
    and, uh, so he could be good in the teacher's eyes.
T - Yeh, some boys sorta need friends . . . but what
    they do keeps them from making friends.
T - I think maybe you could like yourself but not really
    know all about yourself or understand yourself . . .
    I don't always understand myself! (much laughter)
W - People need to depend on someone but if they do too
    much then they can't depend on themselfs.
W - Kids our own age don't seem to realize that the kinds
    who are very (too) popular for there own good won't
    be so popular later.
W - Some people may be grown up but they may still be ba-
    bies at heart. Others, when they get older act like
    themselves and do not try to hide there own faults.

6. Lesson six. The discussion for this lesson center-

ed around how well the characters in the previous stories were

satisfying their basic needs. The written responses were in

answer to the question of how well the students were satisfying their needs. Since many of these statements were insightful the majority of them have been included here.

> T - I learned that I think it's OK to dislike yourself
> sometimes like if you mess around or, uh, if you,
> uh, hurt somebody you, uh, sure don't like yourself
> then.
>
> T - Sometimes I feel like killing myself . . . like if
> you ride your bike into a person you feel like
> killing yourself.
>
> T - Well, it seems to me that it's wrong . . . that
> people shouldn't like themselves all the time be-
> cause then . . . it helps if you realize that no
> one is perfect and that some things are wrong and
> then you can help to improve the things you don't
> like about yourself.
>
> T - I know a boy and he's uh, uh, well, he, uh, doesn't
> get along with anybody, and, uh, and, I know he's
> always starting fights and everything, and, uh,
> he's, he thinks he's so tough. Yet he isn't tough
> at all and, uh, and he's, uh, he's one guy that I
> don't like to play around with and, uh, he's not
> going to have many friends in life. I know! And,
> uh, well HE thinks he's satisfying his needs OK
> but nobody else does . . . he's conceited like we
> said . . . and he really feels inferior inside.
>
> W - What I learned today is how Russ had pretty good
> self-control and about me, some things I never
> new about me.
>
> W - I seem to want to make friends but some how I do
> not. I need to work on it the most.
>
> W - I don't like myself and I don't do a very good job
> of making others like me. Those are the worst but
> I stink at the others too.

This child had a consistently low evaluation of herself throughout the study but, at the same time, was one of the most popular children in the room on all the social measures of relationships.

7. **Lesson seven.** Different feelings coming from our basic needs. No story was written for this lesson. The discussion centered around different emotions and feelings that are healthy and unhealthy.

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T - Bob grew a strong emotion of prejudice or hatred . . .
    even of himself and his sickness.

T - (Another girl added the following remark immediately
    after the one above.) He probably felt self con-
    scious . . . like me . . . (laughter).

T - I think that sympathy is a very healthy emotion . . .
    in some cases I think it might be the ideal emotion.

W - I never knew there were so many different emotions,
    in good or bad ways. I never thought that you could
    have a hateful emotion, like being angry, and have
    it still be good. I really find the talks very
    interesting.

W - Some emotions can be healthy, or unhealthy, or both
    . . . like pride.

8. **Lesson eight.** How our emotions are aroused. The
discussion brought out the role of the various senses in
stimulating emotional responses and feelings. In the written
responses, the students were asked to tell of a time when
they had strong emotions aroused. Some of their reactions
are excerpted.

T - If you see a person and decide if you like him or if
    you don't like him and if you decide that you don't
    like him then you have a feeling about him when you
    see him again.

T - Well, lots of times when my brother hits me that
    gets me into an emotion (laughter).

W - I learned how and what arouses our emotions and how
    one person with a certain emotion may react in two
    or three different ways depending upon the situation.

W - An emotion of anger I have practically every Thursday
    because I can't play around after school because of
    my piano lesson and I know it's for my own good. I
    have a sadness whenever I move away. When I moved
    from _____ to _____ I was especially sad.

W - I don't know why this aroused me but it did a lot.
    In _____ grade we were in the shop and the teacher
    told everyone to line up and when we lined up some-
    one started to talk to me and _____ thought I was
    talking and came over and pulled my hair and I got
    scared stiff. And I learned that you can't tell
    what a thing is until you see it.

9. **Lesson nine.** How our emotions affect our bodies.

The discussion brought out a number of times when the children

had been emotional about things and the emotions had accompanying

effects which they described.

T - Well, uh, lots of times, uh, when you are running away from
    a person . . . let's say, well, my brother. Sometimes when
    he gets mad at me I have to, a, a, run, and he's faster than
    me when he wants to be and, uh, all the time I can usually
    outrun him when he's not mad at me, and just wants something
    or something like that. If he is mad at me then he can catch
    me . . . . I get scared.
T - Well we were playing football and so, uh, everytime ___ ·was
    getting through and one time he kicked me in the face and I,
    uh, uh, got so mad that the next time I ran him on his can.
T - I'm not inclined to play good baseball (laughter) but one
    time I got excited and a little mad and hit the ball over the
    right fielder's head.
W - I went to the dentist when I was about six and I was screaming,
    and ever since then I have been terribly afraid of dentists.
    I was scared until about 6 months ago. The feeling I had
    inside of me when my cavadee and willed was so scared and tense
    I nearly busted.
W - When my latest sister came home I rushed over to the bed and
    mother picked her up and gave to me. I tinkgled! My knees
    almost clacked together.

10. Lesson ten. A way we fool ourselves. This discussion

seemed to be very exciting to the class. Many of the comments were

about times they fooled themselves and some of the students began to

tell of many times they attempted to fool their parents or their

teachers.

T - I don't know how to explain it but, uh, it's hard to do
    things when something happens like it sometimes does . . .
    you kind of make it happen to yourself.
T - You can only make yourself get certain things, I mean you
    uh, can only get special kinds of sickness when you want to.
    I mean you can't get chicken pox or something like that you
    know, I mean stuff that's not a real sickness.
T - Well, this is just plain old ordinary psychomatics, that's
    all we're talking about here. Like you think you're sick and
    you're uh, you just imagine all of it . . . let's say you
    don't want to do something and, uh, you want to be sick in-
    stead and so the next day you are sick . . . you imagine
    yourself in to it. (laughter)

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T - I got real scared once cause my reports were due on Friday and I stayed up late and uh, the next day I got real scared and woke up with a stomach ache . . . and when the stomach ache was gone I got a headache and after that I didn't have to go to school and had until Monday to finish the report.

T - This is not just fooling yourself . . . it's, uh, hurting yourself too because your best friend isn't missing the work and the teacher isn't missing the work but only you are jurting yourself and missing the work.

T - Well, maybe a month from now if there's a test or something coming up and this person might not feel well about it but he refers to, back to this discussion and figures maybe he's just fooling himself so he comes.

T - Well, last year I went to school one day and I didn't feel well and I couldn't move my neck around and there was a report due that afternoon and I had to go home because I couldn't give it . . . I mean I had to go home and that's why I couldn't give it.

W - I learned that we can fool ourselves, and I never knew it was possable. I guess I'v fooled myself before.

W - I have learned today different ways to get sick and fool ourselves. (This was the same lad who made the comment about "plain old ordinary spychosomatics" above).

W - Today I think I learned how to better understand my feelings (sickness the way we talked about it today) and what to do when if finally I understand myself (if I ever do).

11. Lesson eleven. Friends. The discussion was about

how to make friends and what to do if a friend moves away.

T - It was the same case when _____ moved. I sorta had all my eggs in one basket with _____ and I sorta sulked around the house, and, I mean not knowing which way to turn at first.

T - It seems like you try to make friends subconsciously . . . I . . . I . . . I think . . . not to make friends so unconsciously but when you try and make them you don't think though what you're trying to do but if you . . . you . . . uh . . . can't seem to sort of remember about it and . . . uh . . . it seems funny the way you did it.

T - A pal is, well, uh, they like you and they go around with you and they don't try to run you. They . . . they'd rather like to be with you.

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T - Everybody's talking about when other people moved away but I'm inclined to agree with _____, that it might be much more lonely when you move away yourself because then you don't know anybody.

W - One of my best friends died in the third grade and I was so shocked when I heared ahout it. When Mom asked me what was wrong I said I'll never make friends again. After a while I did, and got over it, but it still makes me sad.

W - I learned that if a person moves into the neighborhood it helps if you are friendly. I know from experience that people can make you feel wanted.

12. **Lesson twelve.** Liking others. The children discussed helping others who weren't too well liked and times when they were helped by others.

T - I know, I suppose that most people just have one best friend and after awhile they just snap out of it if the friend moves away. I did.

T - A couple of years ago we had a boy and, uh, he wasn't very well liked by anybody and we had fights and things like that (laughter, the boy was referring to another child in the room and all apparently knew it) and I'd go over and, uh, we'd play together after dinner sometimes and sometimes we'd play in the afternoon too.

T - I think I'm talking about the same kind of thing that _____ is and, uh, well, uh, this guy was kinda well, squirrley . . . and, uh, he'd play soccer and kick everybody and uh, hurt them and you know some of us tried to stop him and he wasn't liked by others and now he's well, he's changed . . . the kicking isn't going on anymore. (While these two comments were being made the boy in point blushed, fidgeted, bit his nails, and grinned at the other boys while they grinned at him.)

T - Well, one time, not so long ago either, a friend of mine and me, I, uh, got good-hearted and decided we'd be nice to a girl and so she got . . . and so, uh, we even made dates with her whether we wanted to or not, and so, uh, we got, then she got pretty nice.

T - (This comment was made by the boy described in the comments above.) When we first moved here, I was only in kindergarten then but it seemed that just about the whole room detested me . . . I think they do it to just about every new kid and one kid, he, I forgot his name, he moved out of town and, well, he was the only one, the only one who the first couple of weeks who really made me feel good and all and I remember I was just miserable those first couple of weeks.

T - Well, uh, last year I wasn't popular at all. It was
because I was twice as fat as I am now and, I'm still
pretty fat (laughter) and, well, uh, this year I lost
some weight and I started to get more popular and
some of the kids want me now because I lost some
weight and when you feel the kids are with you you
feel that you're not gone and that you really belong.

W - Today I think I learned how to better understand
people's feelings and how to better help them under-
stand themselves. One instant when I helped someone
was there was this one kid who was a real simp, and
myself and some other kids tried to help him get
into the group. It worked.

W - P.S. I also learned today that I really could get
up and speak up more in the class. It's not so hard
when you try it.

13. **Lesson thirteen.** Helping others to like us.

Being shy with other people was the point in the discussion

that most of the students dwelt upon.

T - I remember when I was in a different grade and the
teacher wasn't very nice anyway, and I was shy and
my brother gave me something nice and it made me
feel good.

T - When I came into this room I wasn't sure I'd know
anybody and I did and I hung around with _____ for
a few days and, uh, to get to know my way around
and I just felt sorta scared and I didn't know my
way around or anything . . . but she helped me.

W - I think i've learned what to do if i"m new in a
school. When I first came here last year I was
put in _____'s room and if he even looked at me I
was awful lucky. I felt as if I was a piece of
dirt under a mountain of lava. Now it's different
here.

W - I think the idea of making a list of things to do to
overcome being shy like the girl in the story is a
good one. I may use it myself some time. I thought
it was very interesting and I learned a lot from it.

W - I learned ways to improve myself because I am shy
. . . just like Rose.

14. **Lesson fourteen.** How others have improved them-

selves. In this lesson the three general ways of handling

a problem were brought out.

T - In a ball game if you quit because you are losing that's a chicken attack on the problem.

T- I remember last year we had high-jumping or broad-jumping and every time somebody missed I remember they would say they had a sore leg or they tripped or something, (laughter), me too!

T - Well, uh, when I don't do my work, or if other kids don't, they do some of the things we have pointed out . . . they, uh, stay out of school, or make excuses (laughter) and they say they forgot it.

W - When I was in fourth, and this boy was in fifth, the room would be snowballing and he was a sissy and would start crying and run away if we ganged up on him. (which we did) I guess it wasn't so nice and I think I see now where it would of been better to help him.

15. **Lesson** **fifteen**. How others have improved themselves and overcome handicaps. Famous people with disabilities were subjects for this lesson and the class added comments about others that had disabilities and overcame them.

T - Even if you try real hard to overcome a handicap you have to be dependent on someone else too.

T - I think it is so wonderful when some people overcome their handicaps. It makes me feel kind of good when I see or hear about someone with a great handicap overcomes it . . . like the ones we've talked about.

W - Today I think I learned plenty but don't know exactly how to put it down on paper.

16. **Lesson** **sixteen**. A direct attack on a problem. The children discussed facing problems directly.

T - We used to have a track meet at camp and the first year I was there I really goofed up, but good, you know, I was real lousy, and this year I really stuck at it and I came in pretty good . . .maybe third sometimes and it still wasn't _real_ good but it sure was a lot better than the first year, and, uh, I felt good.

T - Another thing here . . . when you keep at something . . . . time! . . . and you get better . . . because you're bigger . . . better . . . .because you grow.

W - The small things you can take care of and that seem to be the most important at the time are taken care of by nature. But as you grow, the things that seem important might change their place in life and aren't so important anymore.

17. **Lesson seventeen.** In this discussion the various things that set off temper tantrums were discussed.

    T — Sometimes I just turn around and slap my sister when she does things and, uh, I do it without thinking about it . . . I guess I should . . . think about it I mean . . . I'm afraid that's not a very good way of handling the problem . . . I just don't think.

    T — I think that sometimes people have that certain feeling, like underneath crying, and, uh, they don't feel real good about it except that they get tough and take it out on other people . . . I feel that way sometimes.

    T — Lately I'm getting so when my brother tries to slap me sometimes I simply turn my back and go on with what I've been doing and, uh, he gets so mad and disgusted after calling me a couple of names that he goes on to complain to mother that i'm ignoring him and I am!

    T — About my brother and I, I think now we should share things more and then maybe we wouldn't scrap so much.

    W — I learned that Bessie (and me) get made and lose our tempers. One difference is that she does things by force and I don't. Talking things over to settle problems is the best way.

18. **Lesson eighteen.** An indirect method of attacking a problem. The tape recorder was faulty during this lesson, hence all of the discussion comments were lost. The excerpts were taken from the writings.

    W — I've learned that hero worship can be bad. I used to copy someone and imatated her and she wasn't so nice.

    W — If you copy someone you shouldn't copy him for too long because then you're not really yourself. But if you mimic somebody else that's pretty good then it might be good.

    W — I think you can copy big wheels in good ways and bad ways, and sometimes in between.

    W — Some people aren't themselves really directly but copy someone with a personality theyed like to have and in that way they still are in some way being themselves.

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19. **Lesson nineteen.** Making excuses. The discussion centered around the ways in which people avoid problems by making excuses about them. The students added many remarks about the times they made excuses about things.

> T - It's easier to feel a pin in your own arm than to blame the failure on someone else . . . so it works better . . . to fool yourself I mean.
>
> T - Well, uh, uh, uh, I, uh, sometimes Mommy makes me do the dishes and I don't like to do them and uh, uh, so I makeup with the excuse that I'm sick and I used to get away with it but now she knows that excuse and, uh, so I never get to do it and I <u>really</u> make myself sick . . . like I get a headache, which I always do! Then I don't have to do it.
>
> T - Well, I get nervous before a big test and maybe the girl in the story got nervous before the geography test and maybe that's why she didn't do well . . . she'd get nervous from wondering if she'd do well on the test . . . like I do.
>
> W - It was fun to see ways that people can or do make excuses. I know that almost everyone tries to make excuses.
>
> W - I think sometimes we make to many excuses or go to far. P.S. I didn't talk to much today because yesterday my cat died. P.P.S. This is not a made up excuse. I'm just sad.

20. **Lesson twenty.** The twins grow up. The mechanisms of substitution and replacement were illustrated in the stories and the discussion centered around substitutions the children made when they couldn't get what they wanted.

> T - I don't think it makes you feel too important when you're the best in something because then you feel that you've mastered it sort of . . . and get sort of a, sort of a, you feel sort of superior.
>
> T - Well, uh, this one's about myself. About three years ago I wanted to take drum lessons and my parents wanted me to take the trumpet and I had to but they didn't have a trumpet so I took trombone and then later I took the trumpet and played them both. I wasn't very good, and then I started to fool around with the drums and I play them now and I'm not <u>too</u> good but still I'm pretty good.

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W - I am not to good at sports. I used to try very hard
and still do. But I'm not quite good enough for my
own needs. I always was good at art and I take art
class. My teacher said I was best in the class and
that kind of made up for my sports.

21. **Lesson** **twenty-one**. Daydreaming. In this lesson
the children discussed some daydreams they had, and talked
about the values or lack of values of daydreaming. In their
written statements they included their favorite daydream.

T - I think that sometimes when you daydream you have a
problem and, uh, daydreaming is a way of working the
problem out, and, uh, it's just another way of
figuring out what to do . . . so most of the time
or some of the time it's a direct approach.
T - I got in the middle of my dream and boinggg . . . I
dreamt I was in a canoe and, uh, we didn't know
there was a leak and, uh, we went out in the lake
and then I stopped it and I couldn't think about
what happened after that. And I also dreamt that
I took an airplane trip and as we flew we, uh, the
wings fell off the plane and, uh, (much laughter,
another child made the following statement)
T - All she has is destructive dreams!
T - I think, uh, it could be, uh, daydreaming could be
healthy when you are looking forward to something
like I was looking forward to camp in my daydreams.
You see, there's two things, it could be healthy
and unhealth . . . like if you do it all the time.
W - My favorite daydream is to dream my cat is still
alive she's been dead three weeks and I have not
gotten over it.

Seven of the children in the class wrote that they daydream
most while they are in school.

22. **Lesson** **twenty-two.** Being anxious. The discussion
centered around a consideration of the various people and
events that created anxiety in the children.

T - A couple of years ago, uh, I used to, uh, whatever
I did I never did, uh, I never'd get it right, and
I'd get scared when my dad would come home because
I wouldn't know what to expect and uh, uh, well, uh,
sometimes I'd be supposed to rake the leaves out of
the bushes and I'd forget . . . and, uh, I guess I

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didn't _really_ forget, and, uh, you don't have to be anxious about a lot of things you think you should be.

T - Well, uh, parents usually worry terribly and, uh, uh, and it seems to me that the older people get the more worried they become, like worried all the time.

W - I find that if you are anxious about something un- pleasent it usually turns out to be not as bad as you thought it would be.

W - I learned some of the ways other people (and I) be anxious.

W - It seems like I have learned more about _adults_ in this one and maybe there are some things we could do not to make them blow their tops'

23. _Lesson twenty-three._ Going backwards. The dis- cussion centered around the behavior of people when they are unable to satisfy their needs in one way so they regress in- to infantile behavior.

T - I knew this little girl and, uh, sort of a spoiled girl, and she wanted the rest of the girls to play a game with her, and, uh, she was happy and then we all decided to play this other game and she didn't want to, and, uh, so she started crying and, uh, finally she just went home. Kind of a temper tan- trum and crying, I guess she was really going backwards.

W - I remember earlier, any little thing that I didn't like, I got real mad at, and I took it out on every- body. But I think now I can control myself better.

W - I learned that many people (me!) act childish and occasionally people have tantrums.

W - This morning I had kind of like a tantrum about my new dress. The plete wouldn't fold over the way I thought it should. I got mad at mom. She said if I acted like that now, I'd never be able to face a big problem when I grow up. I think she's right. It's like we talked about in some of the other stories.

W - Before I used to be captain in baseball and when I thought somebody was doing something wrong I would ball them out and put somebody else in there position. I'd yell at them and now I don't to it so much any- more.

W - Like in the story, I remember yesterday is baseball, _____ was on the other team and he was called safe and I got real mad. I really went backwards. Most of the time when you want something bad you'll do almost anything to get what you want.

The foregoing excerpts of the children's responses to the
stories are, of necessity, brief. They are representative of
many other remarks on the part of the students that were
pertinent to the study at hand. Every child in the experimental
group is represented in the excerpts.

Many comments made during the discussions and in the
writings were not, in the writer's judgment, closely associated
with the project at hand. That is to say, there were not
apparently closely associated with self-understanding and under-
standing of others. It may be argued that any comment made might
well be associated with the stimulus to that response. Thus, a
query as to some topic that was threatening to the self of a given
child might have evoked a response that overtly had little or no
connection with the topic. Yet, the very fact of avoidance may
have indicated much about the child's self and his understanding
of himself. Almost any, if not all responses of the students would,
on this basis, bear upon the problem. One would not deny the value
of an intensive analysis of a child's responses for an individual
case study. Yet, due to the necessities of brevity and conciseness,
and the group approach utilized in the story-discussions, such an
analysis of each child's total responses was not made. The over-all
group analyses were assumed to suffice for purposes of this study.

Conclusions related to the students' oral and written respon-
ses. Some very tentative conclusions were drawn. These conclusions
appeared to be supported by the responses of the children, some of
which are presented above.

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(1) Some children made comments which appeared to mirror insight and understanding of themselves.

(2) Some comments apparently indicated the youngsters' growing awareness and understanding of the causes of their own behavior.

(3) Some comments apparently reflected a growing understanding of and respect for others.

(4) Some comments were made which seemed to indicate a developing concern for and comprehension of the multiple causes of others' behavior.

(5) The stories used appeared to evoke responses that were quite personal for some children and overtly less personal for others.

(6) The discussions that stimulated the most active and interesting responses were those which touched upon home and family relationships in general, and sibling relationships in particular.

(7) There was no apparent group pattern of increasing self-understanding as the study progressed.

(8) There was an apparent pattern of increasing self-understanding and understanding of others on the part of a few of the children.

(9) A few children established a pattern of rote repetition of the story-discussions in their writings, but the same children were decidedly more spontaneous in their oral contributions. While talking, they did not appear to be quite as concerned with what they felt to be the

"rightness" of their response as they were on their writings.

(10) About six of the children made consistent written and oral contributions which might be termed self-diagnostic. That is, in a number of different instances, a child who felt inferior would describe the behavior of a character in a story as that of a person who felt inferior. A shy child would repeatedly tell and write of someone else who was shy. These patterns were consistent even when the remainder of the class made entirely different interpretations of the behavior of the character or person discussed.

The foregoing excerpts and the conclusions drawn are admittedly quite subjective. Yet, considered in their entirety, they appear to support the basic hypothesis for this study. The children's responses to the story-discussions are therefore interpreted as evidence that many of the children became more understanding of themselves and others during the period of the study.

Another aspect of the story-discussions may serve to clarify the evaluation of the study. Attention is therefore directed to the following analysis of the number of responses the children made during the group discussions.

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Record of Student Participation

in the Discussions

In order to further evaluate the participation of each
child in the group discussions, a record of discussion con-
tributions was kept. Each comment by each child was noted.
The tabulation was generally done by the E group teacher. The
results of this record are not entirely accurate since the
teacher was called out of the room on occasion. Despite this
inaccuracy, the results are presented as a general index of
the amount of student participation.

There was an average number of twenty-three students
present for each discussion. There was an average of 34.30
student responses to each discussion.

According to the record kept, an average of eighteen
pupils participated in each discussion. Percentage-wise,
this was 78.3 per cent of the average number of students
present. A decided majority participated in each discussion.

Some children participated more than others. The aver-
age number of responses per child in the total discussions
was 34.3. Two children participated infrequently. Three
children participated quite frequently. The range of total
responses per child ran from four to fifty-three on the record
kept. Actually these figures were higher but not all responses
were recorded.

These figures seem to show that the efforts directed towards wide participation were reasonably successful. Some conclusions are drawn:

(1) A majority of the children participated frequently in the discussions.

(2) The efforts made to encourage wide participation were apparently generally successful.

(3) The few children who participated most did not dominate the discussions.

(4) The few who participated least at the beginning did not, despite encouragement, increase their amount of participation to any significant degree..

(5) Some stories stimulated more discussion than others but no pattern of increasing response was established as the study progressed.

(6) In the researcher's judgment, all but two of the children demonstrated much interest in the story-discussion by frequently participating. The two mentioned showed interest but did not make frequent contributions.

The responses of the children presented in the previous sections, and the interpretation and number of these responses do not, of course, communicate all the experiences the class had. Nevertheless, they are representative of these experiences and of the children's reactions to the various story-discussions.

Students' Desired Self-Improvements

Additional insight on the part of the pupils was re-
flected by their listing of the "The Things I Would Like To Im-
prove about Myself." These statements were placed in a number of
different categories. The statements of the children assisted
the writer in writing some of the stories in such a way as to
stimulate response to story characters who had similar concerns.
These responses were listed at the end of the thirteenth lesson
which was entitled, "Helping Others to Like Us."

This attempt at classification is presented in outline form.
The number of responses in each category is noted. Some of the
exact written statements of the children are included in each
classification.

I. Temper, self-control. Fifteen listings fell in
    this category. Some of the responses follow:
    "I've got a big temper," "I always get mad over
    lots of things," "I want to keep myself from getting
    into messes."

II. Social needs, shyness, show-off. Ten comments were
    made that fell in this category. Some of them were:
    "Getting more friends," "Shyness," "Stop making wise
    remarks," "Making friends," "Wiseing off."

III. Nervous symptoms. Five students wrote of a desire to
eliminate what were classified as nervous symptoms.
"Stop biting my nails," "Stop wrinkling my nose," "I
get anxious and can't wait for things," "My mind runs
away with my words, I guess you'd call it stuttering or
something," etc.

IV. Physical appearance and characteristics. Four remarks
were placed in this category. "self-conscious (about my
height)," "Too small," "My bad eye sight," "Lose weight,"

V. Social behavior. Four children mentioned excessive talk-
ing. "I talk too much," "Not talk in school so much,"
"Talking out of turn," etc.

VI. School work. Four mentioned aspects of their work at
school. "Improve the appearance of my papers," "Avoid
careless mistakes," etc.

VII. Neatness. Two statements. "Keep my room neat," "Neat-
ness."

VIII. Speed. Two mentions. "Speed up," "I'm tarty too much."

IX. No idea of things to improve. Two children could state
nothing they could improve about themselves. "No idea,"
"I know there's a million things but I can't think of any
right now."

Two additional remarks were unclassified. Altogether there were fifty
responses to this question making an average of two responses per child.
(Two children were absent.) The number of responses ranged from one

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to five for each child. Ten children wrote one comment each, thirteen made two or three statements, and the remaining two made four and five written remarks respectively.

Conclusions related to the students' desired self-improvements. Some conclusions may be made on the basis of the foregoing classification of students' desired self-improvements. These conclusions follow:

(1) A preponderance of the responses were concerned with relationships with others.

(2) A number of children were concerned with aspects of their physical appearance and personal characteristics.

(3) There was a wide variety of specific things children wished to improve about themselves.

(4) Only two children listed no problems for improvement. This would seem to indicate a lack of self-understanding. The other students apparently had a degree of awareness of their problems. Thus a majority appeared to understand themselves well enough to be aware of and write about their concerns.

Students' Three Wishes

Another type of information was gathered from the E group. The responses to the question, "What would you wish for if you had three wishes?" were classified in a manner similar to the above desired self-improvement responses.

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The class was asked to list their wishes just after the commencement of the study. This was done to assist the writer in learning more about each child in the E group. The children's responses were classified according to a variety of headings and are presented in outline form. Since there was some difference between the responses of the boys and girls they were separately tabulated. The number of responses and some samples are given in the following outline:

I. Material possessions. Boys named twelve possessions desired and girls named thirteen. Some follow: "A drum," "Get a new TV set," "I wish I had a new bike," "To have a horse," "Z watch."

II. Broad societal values. Boys listed ten while girls listed three. Examples are: "Wish for peace in the world," "No Communist," "No diseases," "That there would never be another war," "I would wish that everybody had enough to eat, etc. in the whole world."

III. Immediate social values. Boys listed two and the girls three. Samples are "That Grandma was well," "Long life for my family."

Iv. Travel. Boys four, girls three. Listed were the following: "Go to California," "To go to the moon and that's the truth!" "I'd like to live out west on a ranch."

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V. School. Boys two, girls four. "I wisher to stad

home from school," "That I wouldn't talk so much

in school," "I would do better work."

VI. Personal attributes and deficiencies. Boys one,

girls eight. "Don't suck my thumb," "To be very

popular," "To be a quick thinker."

VII. Acquisitive desires. Boys one, girls four. "More

wishes, more wishes, more wishes," "Two wishes

every day," "Any time I want to make a wish I

can make the wish and have it come true."

One child made only one wish. The remaining children made

three. Two wishes were unclassified.

Conclusions based upon responses to the three wishes.

The responses outlined above helped the writer learn a little

more about the children in the E group. In general, their

wishes appeared to be rather typical of the normal responses

of pre- and early adolescents. Taken collectively, the re-

sponses lead to some conclusions which were not particularly

significant for purposes of this study.

(1) There was an apparent difference in the pattern of

boys' responses when compared to the girls' responses.

(2) The boys were apparently more concerned with broad

societal values and the mechanical material posses-

sions.

(3) The girls were apparently more concerned with personal

attributes and deficiencies, school work, having more

wishes, and material possessions such as animals.

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(4) Some of the responses by both sexes were quite indicative

of the concerns of the children that would reflect their

awareness of themselves personally and socially. Such

comments as the one on thumb-sucking, the desire to be

popular, the wish to be not so fat, to be nice to everyone,

etc., would indicate a degree of self-awareness, and per-

haps self-understanding.

The next three sections are devoted to the second part of the

two-fold approach employed in this experiment, namely, the in-

dividual interviews.

Intial Individual Interviews

In the previous chapters the purpose of the individual inter-

views were presented. A description of the physical surroundings

has been made earlier. Each child was interviewed three times, once

before the class discussions commenced, once during the middle of the

discussions, and finally following the last lesson.

The interviews were not planned to be therapeutic in nature.

Primarily, they were utilized to establish rapport, gather informa-

tion, and afford each child the opportunity for private consultation.

The three interviews are analyzed in this section and the conclusions

derived are presented.

The major concern in the first interview was to establish rapport

and to release any tension or anxiety regarding the study. The re-

searcher used the first "Like" and"Dislike"

essay responses to stimulate conversation. Immediately fol-
lowing each interview the pertinent responses of the children
were recorded and a brief summary of the problems each student
mentioned was written.

These problems, coupled with pertinent observations by the
writer, were classified under seven headings; relations with
siblings, relations with others, nervous symptoms, personal
habits and characteristics, negative self-concept, unclassified,
and no problems apparent or verbalized.

A total of forty-four problems were noted by the writer.
Thirty-five of these were mentioned by the children and nine
were observed by the writer. The nine observed were classified
under the heading nervous symptoms. They included extreme nail-
biting, thumb-sucking, excessive fidgeting, and the like. These
nervous symptoms, both verbalized and observed, were present in
eleven of the children. This was a total of forty-one per cent
of the E group.

Both the classifications of relationships with siblings, and
relationships with others, contained verbalized concerns on the
part of the students. Thirty per cent of the E group mentioned
problems in their relationships with siblings and fifteen per cent
mentioned concern over their relationships with others. Totally,
forty-five per cent of the class evidenced concern about their
relationships with brothers, sisters, friends, parents, and others.

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Personal habits and characteristics such as messy habits, size, weight, height, and tomboyishness were brought out by thirty per cent of the students.

Twenty-six per cent of the class indicated that they had no particular problems at the time.

Five children stressed the many things they disliked about themselves. This was nineteen per cent of the group. These things were classified under the heading of negative self-concept.

The classification of verbalized and observed problems on the part of the E group leads to some tentative conclusions.

Conclusions based upon the findings of the initial interviews. These conclusions are presented with a note of caution. They are based, in part, upon subjective judgment of the writer and should be considered as such.

(1) Some of the children had more than one problem which they discussed.

(2) Rapport was not too difficult to establish except in three cases.

(3) There was decided concern over sibling relationships.

(4) Generally, there was an apparent inability or resistance to communicate the thinking on the part of the students in regards to the possible causes for the behavior which concerned them.

(5) There was a preponderance of observed and discussed nervous symptoms.

(6) About a third of the class demonstrated concern over

their physical characteristics and personal habits.

This would appear to denote a definite degree of self-

awareness.

In addition to the above conclusions, a few other reactions

of the writer to the initial interviews deserve mention.

Perhaps the high percentage of nervous symptoms denoted a

definite anxiety over the study. Many of children wanted to

discuss what might happen to them during the course of the

study. Many wanted to know why the study was being conducted.

After appropriate information was given, the students, in

general, seemed more relaxed. The purpose of the interview was,

in part, to establish rapport and alleviate anxiety. The objec-

tive was apparently achieved in a number of instances. The

number of nervous symptoms observed in the later interviews was

not as great.

The initial interview did provide an excellent opportunity

to get to know each child and to gather information about him.

Some of this information was put to use in the writing of the

stories for class discussion. At the time of the initial inter-

views, a number of the children appeared to feel free to confide

personal concerns. Others stated that they had no concerns but,

at the same time, some of these children were the same ones who

indicated a great deal of dislike of themselves. The conclusion

that these children were resistant to communicating much about

their personal lives appeared to be indicated.

The second interview had a somewhat different purpose from the initial interview. The findings of the second interview are presented next.

Second Individual Interviews

The second interviews were intended to again offer the opportunity for individual consultation wherein the child might bring up any personal concern which he did not care to present during the class discussions. Each child was encouraged to raise any questions he liked about the discussions that had already taken place. Some of the children raised questions about the story-discussions.

The second interview was also intended to gather information about the reasons the children had for their selection of classmates on the middle sociograms. As such, the middle interviews might best be described as sociometric interviews. Each child was presented with his sociometric choices and asked what there was about the children he chose that he liked. Thus a list of the qualities the children in the E group felt were desirable in others was made. This list was then divided into seven general categories. In order to show the number of responses of boys and girls which fell in each category, Table XIII was prepared.

TABLE XIII

CLASSIFICATION OF BOYS' AND GIRLS' REASONS FOR
SOCIOMETRIC CHOICES ON THE MIDDLE
SOCIOGRAMS WITHIN THE E GROUP

Reasons for sociometric choices	No. of boys listing these reasons	No. of girls listing these reasons	Diff- erence
I. Propinquity	4	0	4
II. Cooperative friendly, helpful	11	27	16
III. Nice, courteous pleasant	24	23	1
IV. Similar interests	19	12	7
V. Humor, fun, cute	4	12	8
VI. Excellence at something	13	3	10
VII. Other qualities	4	3	1

The listing of the qualities the children found desirable in others, and the classification of this listing presented in the table above, point out some of the differences in the respective choices of the boys and girls.

It is apparent that the boys were more interested in other boys who could do things and engage in activities such as sports. The girls tended to choose other girls who had outstanding social abilities. The girls also were apparently more impressed with the looks, cuteness, clothing, and humor of others. Both boys and girls liked others for their courtesy, pleasantness, and like qualities.

It is interesting to note that both sexes made approximately the same number of responses to the request for the reasons for their sociometric choices. The boys made seventy-nine responses and the girls eighty.

Some conclusions may be drawn from these sociometric interviews.

Conclusions based upon the second interviews. The conclusions derived from the findings in the sociometric interviews were not of great significance for the study. There is a question as to how much may be inferred about self-understanding from such findings. Nevertheless, some conclusions were made.

(1) The total responses tend to reflect an awareness
    of the desirable qualities of others.

(2) The reasons for the sociometric choices are similar
    to those reported by other researchers.[5]

(3) There were some differences between the reasons for the
    choices made by the boys and girls. These differences
    are of little apparent significance for this study.

Attention is now directed to the final interview which was the third individual interview held with each child in the E group.

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[5]Ruth Cunningham and Associates, Understanding Group Behavior of Boys and Girls (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1961), 462 pp.

Third Individual Interviews

The third interviews were largely evaluative in nature. The opportunity to discuss anything that the child desired in connection with the study was afforded. Few of the children felt that there were any specific points brought up in the previous interviews or the story-discussions that they were puzzled about.

The final "Like" and "Dislike" responses of each child were discussed. Most of the children explained their responses in some detail. Some asked questions and some added comments which clarified what they had written.

The final student questionnaires were discussed in a similar manner, a number of the students explaining their responses further. None of these explanations made during the interviews were used in the presentation of the final student questionnaire results later in this chapter.

At the close of the third interview each student was given the writer's thanks for their assistance. Almost all of the students expressed regret that the study was culminating. Some asked if they might not have the opportunity to study things about themselves again.

There were no apparently significant conclusions derived from the final interviews. The writer did feel, however, that the children were more relaxed and expressive about themselves than in the first interview. The few children with whom rapport was established with some difficulty in the first interviews, did not

hesitate to discuss themselves, what they had written, and what they felt about the study. This ease of communication might well have been closely associated with the fact that many hours had been spent in class having the mutual experiences of the discussions.

The children seemed to feel quite free in telling additional experiences of their own and of others. For example, two girls had a rather lengthy history of rivalry which had come out a little in a number of the group discussions and in the writings of each girl. Both girls, at no suggestion on the writer's part, independently expressed satisfaction that they had changed and the relationship was better than it had been. This was also noted by one of the girls parents on the parent questionnaire.

This reaction was, in a general way, typical of the responses of almost all of the students during the final interview. Generally, it appeared that the interviews served the purposes intended to an adequate degree. Considering all three interviews, many of the students utilized the opportunities for private consultation to bring up points of discussion which they had, for a variety of reasons, chosen not to discuss in class.

The remaining sections of this chapter are concerned with some of the various attempts to evaluate some of the changes that had apparently occurred within the E group.

The *Interests* *and* *Activities* questionnaires published by the California Test Bureau were administered to the E group before and after the twenty-four lessons.[6] It was hypothesized that any changes in self-understanding that might occur within the E group might be reflected by a change in their interests and activities.

The students checked those of the seventy-four interests that they liked, and also checked those activities that they actually did. The responses were tabulated and the interests and activities that were indicated six or more times more frequently or less frequently were noted and considered to be significant.

It was found that the students liked six of the interests significantly more at the end of the study. These were driving an auto, working in a laboratory, belonging to a gang, raising animals, collecting coins, and using a camera. It was also found that three interests were liked significantly less. These were studying history, going to parks, and playing tennis.

Concerning the activities the children actually undertook, there were nine listings named significantly more often on the final questionnaire. These were studying literature, raising animals, having a garden, playing cards, playing the

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[6]Louis Thorpe, Willie Clark, and Ernest Tiegs, *Interests* *and* *Activities*, *California Test of Personality, Elementary Form* (Los Angeles: California Test Bureau, 1963), 1 p.

radio, making a scrapbook, playing chess, riding a bicycle, and going camping. Only three activities were engaged in significantly less. They were singing in a chorus, going riding with others, and repairing things.

Thus the E group liked and did twenty-eight per cent of the seventy-four interests and activities listed significantly more, and only eight per cent significantly less at the end of the study than at the beginning.

Conclusions based upon the results of the interests and activities questionnaires. The results described above lead to one major conclusion. The E group generally became more active in the activities listed and their interests broadened. The findings would tend to give support to the hypothesis that the changes within the E group were reflected by an increase in their interests and activities. This would, in turn, appear to support the basic hypothesis for this study. Apparently, as the children came to understand themselves and others better, they changed in their behavior and attitudes. They engaged in more activities and became interested in more things.

Other ways of assessing behavioral and attitudinal changes were used. The students, parents, and the teacher were asked questions pertinent to the changes that apparently occurred. The findings of these questionnaires, and the corresponding conclusions follow in the next three sections.

Student Questionnaires

Following the discussion for the last lesson, the students in the E group were asked five questions in order to find their reactions to aspects of the study and the results of their experiences. In this section the results of these questions are given. Each question, and the conclusions based upon the answers, are treated separately.

The lessons liked best. In order to find which lessons the students responded to best the following question was asked. "Which lesson did you like best and why did you like it?" Nineteen lessons were mentioned as the best liked. Some students mentioned more than one lesson. A breakdown of their likes showed nine students voting for lessons two through five, the stories that dealt with Bob, Jim, and Russ. Four children liked the lesson on overcoming handicaps the best. Three felt the lesson on daydreaming was best. Two students each mentioned the lesson about Marie and Rose and the lesson about making excuses. Ten other lessons were mentioned once each. Thus a total of twenty-two of the lessons were liked best by at least one child in the class.

Most of the reasons given for liking a certain story were based upon the child's interest. Some of the comments made by the children follow: "It was interesting," "It held my interest," "The same things happen to me a lot," "I had a lot to offer on it."

The responses to this first question lead to some specific conclusions.

(1) The lessons liked best were those that had continuity of story and character. Continuing the same characters in different stories seemed to establish and held the students' interests.

(2) Almost all of the lessons were liked best by at least one child. Evidently someone found something in each of these lessons to which they personally responded in a positive way.

Since the first question was worded in a positive manner which tended to assure a positive response, it was felt that the negative response to the lessons should also be requested. Accordingly, the second question was designed to do so.

The lessons liked least. The second question was "Which lesson did you like least and why did you dislike it?" Twenty-one of the students answered that there was no lesson that they disliked at all. The remaining six children named five of the lessons they disliked or liked least. Some of the reasons for liking a lesson least are given: "Because I too fully inderstood the point from self-experience," "It was boring and taught me nothing." "The lesson without the story wasn't interesting to me" "It was the least interesting to me." It can be seen that the main reason for dislike of a story centered around the lack of interest of the student in that story.

The students' responses to this question seem to indi-
cate that most of the lessons were liked well. A decided
majority of the students did not dislike any of the lessons.
Since only six children mentioned liking a lesson least; it
may be concluded that interest ran high throughout the story-
discussions. The conclusions regarding the students' positive
responses to the first question appear to be supported by their
responses to this question.

What the children felt they had learned about themselves.
Liking or disliking a lesson did not, in itself, indicate what
the children felt they had learned. Therefore, the following
question was asked: "What do you feel you have learned about
yourself?" Twenty-one of the children responded positively
to this question. In order to show some of the things they
felt they had learned about themselves the following direct
quotations are presented:

> I have learned that I'm like some of the people you
> have read about and that has helped me understand myself
> better. For example, the story about Bessie and her tem-
> per. I may not be as bad as her but when we discussed
> that lesson it helped me inderstand why myself and others
> do what they do, and that with a lot of lessons too.
> I have learned that when I really try I can come up
> with a fairly logical answer to a problem.
> That I have many faults, and on almost every lesson
> I found I had another one (falut).
> I learned about my habits. I got better acquainted
> with my habits. Mother says I'm more considerate and
> I think so too.
> I have learned to understand myself more and also to
> realize my mistakes. Also what I can do to better myself.
> My brother is a real goof, real crazy, and I fight with
> him. So I decided I shouldn't call him crazy. It works
> sometimes and then we don't fight so much.
> I can see people through different eyes in the sense
> that I know what their feelings are.

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I've learned how I can act with my friends and some
ways not to act, like not to show off or boss people.
One time a friend said something a friend did to her and
I was going to say she did it to me too but I stopped
and didn't say it. She might have got mad and liked me
less.
Sometimes I try to get out of doing things and if I
have to do them I might get real mad and I try to make
excuses when I do something but I think that I try to
help people that are new in Glencoe or just visiting.
These are some of the things I've learned.
I've learned to think before I do something, like I
ask myself why I'm doing this? could I do this in a better
way? is it necessary to do this at all? etc. Like when I
get mad at my sister.
I know what I'm doing now. I don't do such fool
things. I don't get a temper so much. I learned what it
is to get a temper.

On the other hand, six of the class wrote that they

felt they had learned nothing about themselves. Two of these

added something they felt they had learned about themselves

after first stating they had learned nothing. Representative

of these responses are the following:

Nothing. I used to be in a hurry all the time and
I guess I'm not so much anymore.
I don't know. I guess I've got more will power than
I did. I really didn't want to get any fatter. That
part on goals was interesting.

A decided majority of the class responded very positively

to this question. Most felt they had learned a number of things

about themselves. As the students' responses indicate, it be-

came apparent that a number of the things they felt they had

learned aoout themselves were quite indicative of increased

self-understanding.

In order to assess the learnings about others, a fourth

question was posed.

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<u>What</u> <u>the</u> <u>children</u> <u>felt</u> <u>they</u> <u>had</u> <u>learned</u> <u>about</u> <u>others</u>.

Since self-understanding appears to be closely related to

understanding of others it was apparent that an effort should

be made to assess the children's learnings about others.

Accordingly, the following question was asked: "What do you

feel you have learned about others?" Twenty students felt

they had learned something about other people. Some of the

written statements are presented:

> I'm better able to understand their feelings. Like
> in Girl Scouts, if everyone wants to play a game and one
> doesn't, I can understand it.
> I learned a lot from hearing them tell there exper-
> ences with others and by them selfs.
> I found out that since the last lesson the boys and
> girls tried to stop acting babyish like groaning about
> something about baseball.
> I have learned that other people are nicer than I
> thought they were. One day when I was broke a person
> gave me ten cents to buy a coke. I didn't think they
> would.
> I learned about others just about the same things
> I learned about myself.
> If your nice to them they'll be nice to you and
> sometimes much more.
> That most people when they do something wrong try
> to think of excuses to get out of them and that they
> make friends in different ways and they also help you
> when you need help with your homework or something.
> How others feel when something happens what they
> do. Others feel bad when they don't get to play be-
> cause they're too late and it happened to me a couple
> of times. Some just take the breaks of the game and
> don't get mad or anything.
> I learned what they think a little more and I just
> feel I know more about them than I did before. (I don't
> know why) I put myself in their position sometimes. I
> used to think that everyone would hate me just because
> I fought with _____. I find now that it isn't true and
> then I don't get so mad at her either. The others don't
> care that much. Sometimes when we fought somebody else
> got in between and got hurt and I'm sorry for that now.

The above quotations are representative of the positive

responses to the fourth question. Seven of the students re-

sponded negatively to the same question. Some of these statements follow:

I'm not quite sure what I have learned about others.

Not as far as I know.

Nothing.

The majority of the responses to the questions tend to support the contention that understanding of others was improved as self-understanding improved. In order to examine this contention further, the fifth and last question was raised.

Students' behavioral and attitudinal changes. In order to evaluate the students' possible behavioral and attitudinal changes the following question was asked" "Have you found yourself doing something differently or thinking in some way differently since our lessons started?" Sixteen of the E group answered the question positively. Most of the students included examples of these changes. Some of the positive responses are presented:

> I now do some things differently. I'll take two of the lessons for example. First of all you talked about being ourselves and it wasn't so good to go to extremes in being like others. I thought ____ was the greatist thing and we are the best of friends she's to nice. Well I began to kind of like copy her. Then it kind of went to a little extreme. Then after the lesson I didn't do it as much. I still really like her but I make up my own mind sometimes. Second: The lesson about Marie and Rose brought to my mind after thinking about it that I should have a wider variety of friends, so I'm trying to.
> Yes! Lots of things, but mostly I don't try to act like I am king of the world anymore.

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Yes I think that I have a better idea of other
People's feelings. When _____ and I were asked to give
our report two days early I got mad at Miss _____ and
it showed with the others. I was irritable at the idea
of it. I thought then that that's why they were irri-
table and not so nice to me.

When I do things that we have talked about some-
times I notice it. Like making excuses I notice it and
stop and wonder if my excuses are really true and good
ones. If not, I stop making those excuses. Like when
I'm supposed to train the dog and I make excuses like
homework, had to read, and time just flew, etc. These
aren't true ones.

I no what people's feelings are now so I don't
want to put them on the spot where they will be embar-
redded. I want to comfort then like if a questions is
asked about a person's family and they're emotional
about it and answering it.

Yes I do. I think because of our lessons a friend
understood my problem and helped me out. Miss _____
bawled me out. Then, I didn't understand and a few days
later I talked to _____ about it and he helped me under-
stand I was always shooting off my mouth and commenting
all the time. Then I helped him with some things too.

I think about a problem as people in different
positions view it.

Yes. I think before I do things and I don't get
so mad at people I used to get mad at like _____ and
my sister. You can not like something and still not
be so mad.

Seven of the children indicated in their answers that

they didn't think they did or thought anything too differently

than before the study. At the same time they were not sure

of this negative response. Some of these indirect responses

follow:

I'm not quite sure.

I cannot recall anything that I do differently.

I don't think I have done anything very different. It's
not noticeable.

Four of the class gave a definite negative response to the

question.

The responses of the children to the last question were slightly less positive than to the previous questions. More of the children appeared to be undecided in their response. It is possible that they had not experienced much behavioral or attitudinal change, or were unaware of change. On the other hand, it is possible that some felt they did things differently, or thought a little differently, but not enough to write about. This last possibility seemed most likely since, in the final interviews, four of the children who have these uncertain responses explained that they felt a little differently about some things but couldn't put this feeling into words.

Reviewing the responses to all the questions asked of the students in this evaluative questionnaire, it became apparent that there was a decided positive response on the part of a majority of the class. It would then appear that the class felt that they enjoyed the story-discussions, they learned about themselves, they learned about others, and many felt they had changed their thoughts and actions. Generally, the hypothesis that self-understanding could be improved through the program used appears to be supported by the students' responses to the questionnaire.

Another way to evaluate the students' behavior and attitudes that might have changed as a result of the lessons and interviews was to question the parents about any changes they might have observed. Accordingly the parent questionnaire was constructed and sent to each child's parents.

Parent Questionnaires

After the research period with the E group was concluded, the parent questionnaire was sent to each child's parents with a cover letter requesting their cooperation.[7] The following questions were asked:

(1) Have you observed any change in your child's behavior over the last three months which might be attributed to our work at school?

(2) Has there been any noticeable change in your youngster's attitude towards himself or towards others which you feel might be attributed to our work at school?

(3) In relation to the child, his family, and others, have you observed any evidences of the value of this study.

The questions were phrased in such a way as to assist in the evaluation of the students' behavioral and attitudinal changes. A five point check list of descriptive ratings followed each of the three questions.[8] Space was also provided for the parent to indicate any specific incidents upon which he based his conclusion.

Two questionnaires were sent to each child's home with the exception of two whose fathers were not with the families. Thus, in most cases, both parents could answer the questions

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[7] See Appendix A.

[8] See Appendix C.

if they so desired. One hundred per cent of the mothers and sixty per cent of the fathers responded with completed questionnaires. Most of the parents who responded included comments about their children's behavior and attitudes. Of these, approximately forty per cent made frequent and extensive remarks after each question.

Parents' ratings on the questionnaire. The first two questions were directly concerned with the parents' observations of any behavioral or attitudinal changes in their children. The responses were tabulated separately from the twenty-seven mothers' and fifteen fathers' ratings. These ratings were then added in order to show the total ratings of the respondents on each question. The results of these ratings are presented in Table XIV.

TABLE XIV

PARENTS' RATINGS OF CHANGES IN THEIR
CHILDREN'S BEHAVIOR AND ATTITUDES

	Great Positive Change	Some Positive Change	Little or No Change	Some Negative Change	Much Negative Change
Behavior					
Mothers	1	14	11	1	0
Fathers	0	7	7	1	0
Totals	1	21	18	2	0
Attitudes					
Mothers	1	14	12	0	0
Fathers	0	9	6	0	0
Totals	1	23	18	0	0

The results indicated that a few parents felt there was some negative change in their child's behavior. One parent felt her child had made a great positive change in behavior. The vast majority of the parents felt their children had made little or no change, or some positive change in behavior.

The results of the second question showed that none of the parents felt they had observed any negative change in attitudes. One parent observed great positive change and the majority felt they had observed some positive change or little or no change.

Averaging the above ratings results in the following conclusions:

(1) The average parent observed a little positive change in the child's behavior.

(2) The average parent observed some positive change in the child's attitudes.

In order to further assess the parents' reactions they were asked whether they had seen any evidence of the total study having value. The results of the ratings on this question are presented in Table XV.

TABLE XV

PARENTS' RATINGS OF THE TOTAL VALUE
OF THE EXPERIMENT

	Highly Valuable	Worth-while	Value	Value	No Value Observable
Mothers	2	7	5	1	12
Fathers	0	4	2	2	7
Totals	2	11	7	3	19

An average of the results presented in Table XV indicated that the average parent felt there was a little value to the total study   in terms of his observation of his child. These ratings tended to agree with those in the previous table.

Parents' written statements. The parents' written comments on the questionnaire shed additional light upon their observations of their children and their reactions to the study. Some of these written remarks are presented in order to clarify the above data. The quotations following were taken from both fathers' and mothers' questionnaires:

> _____ has always been sensitive to the feelings of others, and lately she seems to have not only sensitivity, but a better understanding. For example: I became, or rather showed anger one day to _____ for not coming home at an appointed time, in fact, she was much later than she was supposed to be, and had gone off to play without notifying anyone at home of her whereabouts. After I cooled down -- I realized that _____'s reaction wasn't the same as it would have been in the past, but one that was more thoughtful -- in fact -- she discussed the fact that she had done wrong, and then proceeded to explain that she even knew why I was angry with her. She explained that she was sure that I must have been anxious about her, and that my show of anger was my way of expressing this anxiety. _____'s reaction and explanation amazed and pleased me.

> _____ has improved her healthy attitude even more this past three months, and the proof is her own admission of this. She told me one day that she feels that she understands herself as much better after hearing the stories discussed at school, and knowing especially that others had the same feelings as she has had about the same things.

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I don't recall specific instances of this change but recall that on occasion when small family misunderstandings came up she took the initiative in trying to straighten them out. I noted that her comments showed an insight into the principles of human relations which children of this age usually cannot verbalize. She herself has not gotten into trouble with her sisters as often as she used to. She seems to have much more of the "wisest one gives in" attitude lately and tends to act more as peacemaker when a storm arises.

In one instance, _____ had maintained a relationship based on competition and hostility with a child her own age in the room. This relationship has seemingly become unimportant to her and she shows some self-control when in contact with the child. She has formed new friendships and maintained older friends on a friendly, relaxed basis. This growth has certainly been accelerated by your work.

She has more willingly admitted both her successes and her failures to herself. She has said that she feels a little better liked by the children in general, whereas she was formerly very dubious about her position in the class. She has expressed this new feeling of security when she explained the knowledge gained through the discussions that other people have the same emotions as herself.

_____ has quieted down to some extent. He's not grandstanding as much, more cooperative. He acts as if he can understand more easily various reactions of those around him.

There have been a number of minor incidents which would show reason for hope of improvement as against the previous periods when there was less reason to feel too much hope.

There has been a definite change in _____'s work at home and school. The work is in on or before time and done well. She takes pride in comparing her work now with that of some months ago. She also gained a great deal of confidence in herself and became quite a bit more mature. She still lacks patience and whines very easily.

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He told me many times that you were "helping him learn how to live." Also he seemed more concerned with understanding the reasons for emotional situations and was better able to handle and recognize strong emotions in himself and his family -- anger, etc. He seemed better able to reason and be reasoned with and many times (always in negative situations like quarrels, etc.) would equate one of your stories to a reality situation and make a mature judgment either in thought or in behavior. And I am quite sure that he understands and rates himself more surely and maturely than he did before.

_____ seems to want to join in more activities than she formerly did. She also seems to be more at ease, and not as self-conscious of her weight and height as she used to be. _____ seems to enjoy other girls' company so much more than formerly. Her sudden desire to go to camp was a pleasant surprise to me. She seems to have developed a wonderful sense of humor, and is fun to be with and is considerate of others.

His appreciation of fair play has shown an increase as well as a better control of his temper.

I have noted some change. An analysis of why people (himself included) should be understanding of the behavior of a child from a broken home. In this case, he had no tolerance heretofore, of this child's behavior. _____ acts more mature and seems to have developed in his attitude toward himself. Now he knocks before entering a bedroom or a bathroom and is more aware of himself.
His only reference to the discussions was when he was so impressed with the fact that "people actually develop illnesses in order to avoid doing something they don't want to do" and now that he is aware of this possibility he would be very careful to try and analyze such a situation in his own life.

The foregoing quotations aid in clarifying the

parents' ratings. They are representative of those parents'

comments that indicated some positive change on the ratings.

Where no positive change was checked the parents sometimes

commented to that effect, or made no statement at all. Some

of these follow:

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While I feel certain that the work which was done must
have made an impression upon _____'s thinking, still
I must concede that his behavior in general has not
altered.

I feel that your study has been a good thing although
it has not seemed to affect _____ one way or another.
He said there were no ideas new to him.

_____ has habitually gotten along well with others
and has had unusual understanding and a sympathetic
attitude, from our observations. Therefore, from
my limited knowledge of your work at school, it
would not be very likely to have any observable ef-
fect on her. However, _____ says that she learned
a lot.

The responses of the fifteen fathers were checked

against those of the mothers to see if both parents rated

their child's behavior and attitudes similarly. By a ratio

of about four to one both parents agreed on the ratings.

Conclusions based upon the results obtained from the

parent questionnaires. The following conclusions appeared

to be supported by the evidence cited above:

(1) A majority of parents felt that they observed some

slight positive changes in the behavior of their

children.

(2) A majority of the parents felt that they observed

some slight positive changes in the attitudes of

their children.

(3) Where both parents answered the questionnaires,

essential agreement on the ratings was present.

(4) It is likely that the children's understanding

of themselves and others improved to the degree

that it resulted in noticeable changes in behavior

and attitudes.

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In connection with the last conclusion, the question
was raised as to whether or not these changes were observable
to another adult. Accordingly, the teacher of the E group
was asked to answer some pertinent questions.

Teacher Questionnaire

The E group's teacher had, of course, observed most
of the story-discussions in their entirety. Since she worked
and lived with the class during the entire school day, it
was deemed advisable to seek her response as to the nature
and degree of any changes she felt had occurred. This ques-
tion was therefore asked of her, "What is your opinion as
to the value of the work we have done in relation to each
of the following points: (1) general methods, (2) specific
evidences of value, if any, (3) group atmosphere as a whole,
(4) individual changes in behavior and attitudes, if any,
and (5) parental reactions?"

In order to comprehensively present the teacher's
responses, the following direct quotations from her letter
are stated:

1. I thought that the work was very well planned. The
   stories were very well told and had attention hold-
   ing details. You were very thorough in the inter-
   views and the amount of testing. You held the
   children's interest all the time and did a good
   job of getting everyone into discussion. I believe
   that you kept the whole work on a very high level
   from beginning to end. I enjoyed being a part of
   it and could not refrain from getting into it my-
   self once in awhile.

2. I believe that the work has helped the children to understand more clearly, even though perhaps not consciously, their own and other's behavior. It has helped them become a better adjusted group and should help them in making their adjustment to Upper School easier next year. I think this is particularly true in their not getting mad at each other and having "fights" or tiffs.

3. As I said before, I think the whole rapport of the group has been helped. The children work and play together very well with a minimum of fussing, are more tolerant of each other's actions and more understanding of each other's weaknesses.

4. I believe that it has brought out some children in discussion, especially _____, _____, _____, and _____. It also helped _____ and _____ to allow others to be a greater part of the discussions. It gave the first four much more confidence.

5. Any of the parents who have spoken to me about it have thought it was a most interesting study. Several have said that they thought their children were more conscious of how to avoid family situations through understanding what has made mother or father "bloe their tops." Some of them have questioned the amount of class time that this work took, but have agreed that it was worth the time.

These quotations from the E group's teacher indicate that at least one other adult noticed a general slight positive change within the group and some specific positive changes within a number of the children. The teacher's responses to the questionnaire would tend to offer support to those conclusions based upon the previous parent and student questionnaires.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter the results of the study which were more or less subjective have been presented as qualitative findings. These results have been analyzed and detailed conclusions drawn from them.

An attempt has been made to include some of the verbatim oral and written comments of the children in the E group. This has been done in order to assist the reader to more clearly understand the children's experiences. In addition, a number of student, parent, and teacher reactions to aspects of the experiment were quoted. This was also done to facilitate comprehension.

In summary, some generalizations about the study came out of the foregoing qualitative analyses. These generalizations are listed below:

(1) Most of the children indicated in their oral and written comments that they understood themselves and others better during and after the experiment than they had before.

(2) This increased self-understanding and understanding of others was reflected in the behavior and attitudes of a majority of the children. The students, parents, and teacher were aware of this and cited many instances of specific behavioral and attitudinal changes of a positive nature.

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(3) These changes were also reflected by the students'
    choices of interests and activities. Generally,
    they became interested in more things and engaged
    in a wider variety of activities.

(4) The story-discussions and interviews assisted the
    children in developing improved self-understanding and
    understanding of others. Both approaches had value.
    The privacy of the interview enabled some to express
    thoughts about themselves and others they did not
    apparently feel free to express in class. The spontaneity
    and excitement of the group discussions enabled many to
    express themselves in front of others in a way that helped
    them learn about others' feelings and problems as well as
    their own.

(5) A few of the children made little progress. At times one
    or two communicated some resistance to increasing self-
    awareness. There were apparently some aspects of their
    own behavior and their relationships with others that
    were too threatening to be accepted and integrated into
    their own self-concepts at the time.

In conclusion, the qualitative findings appear to support the
basic hypothesis for this study. The research program apparently
assisted many of the children in the development of self-understanding.
The evidence generally indicated that this was so for a majority of
the class to at least some positive degree.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS OF

THE STUDY

This study grew out of the writer's idea that a planned and organized program of experiences might be designed to assist the development of self-understanding in children. Accordingly the basic hypothesis was formulated as follows: through a series of class discussions and individual interviews, self-understanding of fourth grade students in a selected public school could be measurably improved.

In order to test this hypothesis the study was designed and carried out. It consisted of a series of twenty-four story-discussions with a fourth grade class in a public school; and a total of three interviews with each child in the class. The interviews were held before the first group discussion began, during the middle of the discussion lessons, and at the conclusion of the last story-discussion.

A plan of evaluation was evolved which consisted of two parts. The experimental group and the remaining five fourth grade classes, which acted as controls, were tested on a before and after basis. Four tests were used. Two were personal in nature and two social in nature. The

groups were then compared on the basis of the quantitative results of the pre-experimental and post-experimental testing. The second part of the plan to evaluate the study consisted of some qualitative analyses of the experiences of the experimental group. These analyses were based upon the children's discussions, writings, interests and activities, an analysis of their three wishes, and interviews. In addition, the results of student, parent, and teacher questionnaires were analyzed. The two types of evaluation were compared.

The previous chapters have been devoted to detailed explanations and descriptions of the study and its results. Specific conclusions based upon the detailed findings have been made. It is the writer's purpose in this final chapter to present only the broad conclusions derived from the study. These broad conclusions, lead to a brief number of implications and recommendations for further application and research. Accordingly, the remainder of this chapter is divided into two sections. These are first, general conclusions, and second, implications and recommendations for further research.

General Conclusions

The detailed conclusions for this study have been made in the previous two chapters and summarized at the ends of those chapters. Therefore, attention is concentrated here upon only the broadest salient conclusions. They are stated and explained in the following paragraphs. All conclusions in this section are numbered consecutively in order to facilitate reading.

Conclusions relating to self-understanding. Did the children improve in their understanding of themselves? The evidence appears to indicate that most of them did to some positive degree. The following conclusions express this belief:

(1) The children apparently developed increasingly positive attitudes towards themselves as shown by their increased awareness, acceptance, and understanding of themselves.

The students' comments in discussions and interviews, as well as by their responses to the essay questions showed evidence of this conclusion. They liked more things about themselves and disliked less than at the beginning of the story. A number of the children became intelligently accepting of their physical limitations of size, height, weight, and the like. The parents generally noticed these changes in attitudes, as did the teacher. The quantitative results of the personal measures of the groups before and after the study also support the above conclusion, although the results were generally not statistically significant.

Did this improved self-understanding result in any behavioral change? Shane and McSwain have stated:

A desirable improvement in the inner curriculum of the child
can be obtained only through the changes made by children in
personal and social behavior as they accept the need for
such changes.[1]

This leads to a consideration of the children's behavioral changes.

(2) As the children developed more self-understanding, they in-

dicated this improvement by changing their behavior in a

positive way.

This conclusion is amply supported by the evidence. The students

mentioned these changes, the parents noticed them, and the teacher

commented upon her observations of them. Frequent reference was made

to improved family relationships, particularly with siblings. Be-

havioral change was also noted in an increase in the number of

activities in which the students engaged and in the broadening of

students' interests. This conclusion is perhaps most aptly illu-

strated by the statement of one child during a final interview.

I don't show off so much anymore. It's funny, you really
don't have to . . . show off I mean. The other boys like
me just the way I am, I guess . . . and so do I. You know
what I mean!

It was interesting to note that this increased self-awareness

and self-understanding was reflected in another way.

(3) Some children, as they began to understand themselves

better, noticed behavior patterns in others which were

similar to their own.

---

[1]Harold Shane and E. T. McSwain, Evaluation and the Elementary
Curriculum (New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1951), p. 135.

A number of the students made comments about story-characters and about other children who did the same things and felt the same way they did. This appeared to denote increased self-understanding. The conclusion was illustrated by the children who made remarks about others who were "tough outside and scared inside," or about children who had bad tempers "like me." In this connection, it was observed that children responded most to those stories, characters, ideas in discussion, etc. which most nearly described themselves and their concerns. The problems of others which they did not have themselves, failed to evoke much of a response. In a sense, as understanding of oneself increased, some of the students developed more understanding of their own behavior being similar to and reflected by others' behavior.

The increased self-understanding could not, therefore be actually separated from understanding of others. This was very noticeable. Accordingly, some conclusions relating to understanding of others are made next.

Conclusions relating to understanding of others. The research related in Chapter II indicated a close relationship between increased acceptance of, understanding of, and respect for self with acceptance of, understanding of, and respect for others among counseled clients. This relationship was corroborated by the results of this study. The children became more understanding of others as they increased their own self-understanding. Therefore, the following conclusions are made:

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(4) As the children became more self-understanding,

they also developed more positive attitudes in

their understanding of others.

This conclusion was supported by a multitude of discussion comments. It was also observed repeatedly in the children's writings. This positive change in attitudes towards and understanding of others was supported by the social distance data, but not by the sociometric data. Parents felt a more positive attitude on the part of their children, and the teacher likewise observed these changes. Sibling relationships and relationships between classmates were slightly improved. This was illustrated by the two girls who were initially quite hostile towards each other, but became more understanding and accepting of each other by the end of the study.

It rapidly becomes apparent that any discussion of attitudinal change hinges upon the accompanying behavioral change. The increasingly positive attitudes and better understanding of others were reflected by the behavior of the children. This leads to the next conclusion.

(5) As the children developed more positive attitudes

towards others, they reflected their increased

understanding of others in their behavior.

This was most noticeable to the parents and the teacher. The children played together with less friction. They commented on this themselves. A number of the quotations in an earlier chapter indicated this change in behavior. Many

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children became more helpful to others and more sympathetic to
what troubled their friends. Some of the children showed in-
creased understanding of and insight into their parents' be-
havior. As one father remarked to the writer when the study
was about half completed:

> Well, I still don't understand what you're doing up there,
> but whatever it is, let's have more of it. Our boy is
> treating us as human beings for the first time in years.

A girl also remarked to the effect that it was nice to know
that other persons had feelings about the same as hers. She said
it helped her to see things the way they did.

The preceding conclusions related to the students' self-
understanding and understanding of others as shown by their changes
in behavior and attitudes. Some other conclusions relate broadly
to the study as a whole.

Conclusions relating to the total study. The following con-
clusions are generally supported by the results of the study.

(6) A planned program can assist in the development of

children's self understanding..

The evidence cited in the previous chapter indicated that both
the story-discussions and the individual interviews had value in
assisting the development of self-understanding. The writer became
convinced that there was a place in the program for both the privacy
of the interview and the sharing of thoughts and feelings in the group
discussion.

(7) A planned program designed to assist the develop-
ment of positive self-concept does not negatively
affect the children's work.

The results of the academic achievement testing presented
in the fifth chapter indicated rather conclusively that
the experimental group did not suffer academically despite
the time taken from academic work to conduct the study. On
the contrary, the experimental group gained more academically
than all but one of the control groups. It may be added
here that the total cost in time and energy for such a pro-
gram it not so great as to be prohibitive. The values of
the program certainly appear to overbalance any possible
losses.

(8) Children, given the opportunity to do so, com-
municate their understanding of themselves in
a variety of ways.

A wealth of information about the children in the experi-
mental group was gathered through observation of their be-
havior and of the things that stimulated them to respond.
It became apparent that tests do not always indicate the
inner concerns of a child in his search for self-understand-
ing and maturity. Yet, in some way, the child communicates
these concerns. A boy who, within himself, was a rather
anxious child, responded to the story entitled "Being Anxious"
with considerable nervous laughter but no verbal contributions.
After the lesson he wrote what he thought he had learned.
It was largely a repetition of the points others brought out.

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On his paper he had drawn a snake with dripping fangs. This caught the writer's attention. An examination of all the papers he had written showed that most of them included drawings of punitive objects such as guns, swords, maces, and the like. He was apparently communicating part of his conception of his environment and of himself within that environment.

Another child, while telling a story to illustrate a point in a discussion, unconsciously slipped and used the name of a child in the class with whom she was having some difficulty. She was communicating her concern over the demands the second child was making upon her. The second child's seat was changed resulting in a better adjustment for both children.

The above example are only samples of the many methods of communication which children use. It is most important to realize that these attempts at communication are facilitated by setting up situations whereby they can be made with ease. This constituted one of the more intangible, but still highly valuable aspects of the study. What seemed to be vital was not the handling of each little aspect of behavior as it arose, but rather an isolation of the pattern of the child's perceptions of and responses to his environment. Only then could he be helped to realistically comprehend himself and his place in his social milieu. It can be stated that a number of the children were assisted in this regard as evidenced by the results given previously.

The claim that all the children were helped in this respect cannot be made on the basis of the evidence gathered. Yet, the final results will, in all probability, show themselves in the children's handling of their problems during adolescence and on into adulthood. This leads to a consideration of the implications and recommendations for further research growing out of this study.

Implications and Recommendations

The results and conclusions of this experiment appear to have three pertinent implications. Each of these is suggestive of certain recommendations for further research. Therefore, these implications are presented in this section with the associated recommendations listed under each.

Education for self-concept. If positive changes in behavior and attitudes can occur from a project involving a relatively brief time, then an inclusive program, designed to improve as many aspects of the development of positive self-concepts as possible, ought to make a real cumulative difference in youngsters' behavior. The further implications of this statement for the community, society, and human-kind everywhere are tremendous. These implications about a long-range program of education for self-concept suggest the following recommendations:

(1) A longitudinal study of self-concepts and its relationships to understanding of others needs to be undertaken.

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Aspects of such a study might include a scientific appraisal

of what constitutes normal development of positive self-concepts

and an isolation of the persistent problems of gaining self-

understanding at different developmental levels. Another

aspect might be a comparison of sex differences in relation

to the development of self-concept. A total considera-

tion of the respective contributions of home, school, and

community to this development appears to be needed. Any or

all of these aspects, as well as others, might be thoroughly

investigated with immeasureable profit to children and to

society.

    (2) The methods and materials employed in a program of

        self-concept and understanding of others need to

        be further developed, evaluated, and refined.

If a program of education for self-concept is undertaken, a

variety of methods and materials might be used. Evaluation

of these methods and materials would be indicated. Tests and

other measuring devices need to be developed as our knowledge

about self-development and self-concept increases. As

the respective roles of home, school, and community are

better defined and understood, the methods and materials

used in all the experiences of the child might undergo scru-

tiny and possible revision.

    The above recommendations grow out of some of the im-

plications of a program of education for self-concept.

Another broad implication of this study is stated next.

Relationships between self-concept, mental hygiene, and
human relations. This study suggests a very close relation-
ship between self-concept, mental hygiene, and human relations.
These relationships imply that human relations and total
mental health might be positively improved to a great degree
by means of improving the self-concept of many children. This
implication leads to two related recommendations.

(1) It is recommended that the attention of specialists
in human relations and mental hygiene be increasingly
directed towards aiding teachers and others who are
in a position to foster positive self-concept in
children.

(2) A program for developing better self-concepts should
include opportunity for education and re-education
of parents.

These recommendations are placed together because they are so
closely related. This becomes obvious when examination is made
of such things as parent-teacher or parent-teacher-child
conferences. Following the recommendations would involve addit-
ional aspects of such a program. Some might be the production of
educative materials for parents by the aforementioned specialists,
provision for a variety of active parent-teacher contacts, and an
in-service training program for the teachers. In other words, what
the specialists learn, and can therefore advise, needs to be com-
municated to those who directly contact and affect children.

A final implication centers around the teacher.

Teacher's role in developing positive self-concepts in
children. Next to the parent, the teacher has the greatest
responsibility and opportunity for developing positive self-
concepts and understanding of others within children. There-
fore, this recommendation is made.

(1) The role of the teacher in a program of education
for enhancing positive self-concepts needs particular
study.

What kind of a teacher personality operates most effectively
in promoting positive self-concepts? What effects do the back-
ground, training, and experience of the teacher have upon
his personality? How well must the teacher understand him-
self in order to assist the children to do likewise? In
what effective ways can teachers be assisted to develop this
positive self-concept within themselves? The answers to these,
and many other related questions, depend upon thoughtful inquiry.

The task of truly understanding oneself appears to
be lifelong. Its importance is apparently beyond question.
Some time ago Shakespeare put it rather insightfully.

This above all: to thine own self be true,
And it must follow, as the night the day[2]
Thou canst not then be false to any man.

---

[2] William Shakespeare, "Hamlet Prince of Denmark,"
Act I, Scene iii. Charles Jasper Sisson, editor, William
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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

LETTERS TO PARENTS OF
EXPERIMENTAL AND
CONTROL GROUPS

Office of the Superintendent
Westwood Community Schools
Dearborn Heights, Michigan

Dear Parents:

As you know, the Westwood Community Schools are constantly seeking
to improve the quality of instruction for your children. One
of the ways in which this is done is by means of scientific
investigation. Mr. Charles W. Townsel, whom many of you know
from our staff in the Central Office, is presently engaged in a
study with Mrs. Kathryn Anderson's Intermediate Group at the
McNair School.

The study is directed by the School of Education at Michigan
State University.

In order to assess the results of the study it is necessary
to test the remainder of the fourth grades with comparable
measures before and after the study. This is a common method of
control of scientific studies. The measures to be used are
tests that are regular routine in many school systems.

Because of the excellent parent-school relationships which
exist in Westwood, we are taking this means of informing parents
of all fourth grade students of Mr. Townsel's study and what it
involves.

Cordially,

Robert E. Anderson,
Superintendent of Schools

INTRODUCTORY LETTER AND REQUEST FOR APPROVAL OF
PARENTS OF CHILDREN IN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

                    Office of the Superintendent
                    Westwood Community Schools
                    Dearborn Heights, Michigan

Dear Parents:

As you know, the Westwood Community Schools have consistently tried
to improve the quality of education for your children. One way
in which this is accomplished is to keep abreast of recent develop-
ments in education.

Mr. Charles W. Townsel, whom many of you know from our Central Office
staff, is planning to conduct an investigation into the subject of
Improving Self-Concept of Intermediate Grade Children. His study
is being directed by the School of Education at Michigan State Univer-
sity. It is an attempt to develop programs designed to assist child-
ren in developing positive self-concepts and healthy attitudes.

The study will involve a series of discussion lessons, interviews,
and tests with each member of Mrs. Kathryn Anderson's class.

Because of the close parent-school relationships which we enjoy
in the Westwood community, we are taking this opportunity to inform
you of the study and request your approval. Please sign and detach
the accompanying notice and return to McNair School with your child.

Mr. Townsel will be available at McNair School for the next few
months in case you should like to review the progress or results
of the study with him.

                    Cordially,

                    Robert E. Anderson,
                    Superintendent of Schools

_____

We approve the study. Signed:_____

LETTER ACCOMPANYING PARENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Parents:

Our classroom work with your children has been largely completed.

In order to assess the relative value of our procedure, we would appreciate your considered reactions to the enclosed questions and ratings. Two copies of the questionnaire are enclosed so each parent may react separately.

The additional remarks you make will be deeply appreciated.

My sincere thanks for your aid and assistance.

Cordially,

Charles W. Townsel

McNair Elementary School
Westwood Community Schools
Dearborn Heights, Michigan

LETTER OF THANKS TO PARENTS OF CHILDREN
IN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Dear Parents:

The school year is drawing to a close so I'd like to take this opportunity to again thank you for the privilege of working with your children.

If any of you wish to visit with me regarding your youngster I shall be in the conference office at McNair School all day Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday, June 8th, 9th, and 10th. Time can be arranged by calling Mrs. Richardson at the McNair School office.

My very best wishes to each of you and to your children.

Cordially,

Charles W. Townsel

McNair Elementary School
Westwood Community Schools
Dearborn Heights, Michigan

APPENDIX B

TESTS AND INSTRUCTIONS FOR TESTS
USED IN THE EXPERIMENT

INSTRUCTIONS FOR ADMINISTERING
THE ESSAY QUESTIONS

1. Pass out two sheets of theme paper to each child.

2. Have each child write his name at the top of each paper.

3. Say: Today I'd like to have you write the answers to two statements about yourselves. Each of you is a very important person. Each of you probably likes himself for certain things. Take the first sheet of paper and write this statement upon it . . .(write on board) . . . "What I like about myself is . . ." and now finish the statement as completely as you can.

4. Say: Of course, some of us also have some things that we don't like about ourselves. Take the second paper and finish this statement as completely as you can: "What I dislike about myself is . . ."

5. Check to see if each student has written his name on both papers.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR ADMINISTERING
A SOCIOGRAM

1. Pass out sociograms.

2. Say: On the sheet you have before you, you will find
   some questions about your friends and classmates. Will
   you please answer the questions with the names of
   people in the class. Please write both the last name
   and the first name. Your first choice will be after
   the number one, your second choice after number two,
   and your third choice after number three on each
   question. Your choices will be private.

3. Read each question to the class allowing time to fill
   in the three choices asked for.

4. Collect the papers making sure each child has put his
   own name in the appropriate blank.

THE SOCIOGRAMS USED
IN THE STUDY

Your Name: _____ Boy_____ Girl_____

Your Teacher's Name: _____

1. My three best friends in the room are:

    (1)_____

    (2)_____

    (3)_____

2. The three people I's like to invite to my house to play are:

    (1)_____

    (2)_____

    (3)_____

3. The three people I's like to work with at school are:

    (1)_____

    (2)_____

    (3)_____

INSTRUCTIONS FOR ADMINISTERING THE
SOCIAL DISTANCE SCALES

1. The check list you have before you will give you a
    way of telling how close an acquaintance you might
    like to have with the various boys and girls in your
    room.

2. Look for your own name on the list. When you come to
    your name you are to check the space opposite the
    statement that best describes the way you think most
    of the others feel about you.

3. Now look at all the names. Under each name listed
    across the top of your paper, put a check in the
    space opposite the statement which you feel most
    accurately describes that person.

4. No one in this room will see your paper but me.

THE SOCIAL DISTANCE SCALES
USED IN THIS STUDY

YOUR NAME _____

Names of Children in Class

1.) Would like to have him as one of my _very_ best friends.

2.) Would like to have him in my group but not as a _very_ close friend. He is "okey."

3.) Would like to be with him once in a while but not all the time or for too long a time.

4.) Don't mind his being in our room but I's rather not work with him. I don't know him very well.

5.) Would rather not have to work with him or speak to him.

California Test of Personality

elementary • form

GRADES • 4-5-6-7-8

DEVISED BY LOUIS P. THORPE, WILLIS W. CLARK AND ERNEST W. TIEGS

Name .... Last .... First .... Middle

Grade ....

School ....

City ....

Examiner ....

(..........) Pupil's Age ....

Date of Test .... Month .... Day .... Year

Date of Birth .... Month .... Day .... Year

Test

Component — Possible Score — Pupil's Score — Percentile Rank

1. PER. ADJ.

A. S-rel. - - - - 12

B. Per. Wth. - - 12

C. Per. Fdm. - - 12

D. Belg. - - - - 12

E. Wd. Td. - - - 12
   (Fdm. from)

F. Ne. S. - - - - 12
   (Fdm. from)

TOTAL (A-F) - 72

2. SOC. ADJ.

A. Soc. Sn. - - - 12

B. Soc. Sk. - - - 12

C. A-s. Td. - - - 12
   (Fdm. from)

D. Cm. Rel. - - 12

E. Sc. Rel. - - - 12

F. Cm. Rel. - - 12

TOTAL (A-F) - 72

TOTAL ADJ. 144

See Manual for Instructions.

PERCENTILE RANK
(Chart pupil's percentile ranks here)

1 2 5 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 95

Standard Score: 30 35 40 45 50 55 60 65 70

INTERESTS AND ACTIVITIES

	L D			L D			L D
1.	⠿ ⠿	Play the radio	27.	⠿ ⠿	Collect coins	51.	⠿ ⠿	Go to church
2.	⠿ ⠿	Read stories	28.	⠿ ⠿	Collect autographs	52.	⠿ ⠿	Go to Sunday School
3.	⠿ ⠿	Go to movies	29.	⠿ ⠿	Collect pictures	53.	⠿ ⠿	Belong to a club
4.	⠿ ⠿	Read comic strips	30.	⠿ ⠿	Use a camera	54.	⠿ ⠿	Belong to YMCA or YWCA
5.	⠿ ⠿	Work problems	31.	⠿ ⠿	Sew or knit			
6.	⠿ ⠿	Study history	32.	⠿ ⠿	Repair things	55.	⠿ ⠿	Go to parks
7.	⠿ ⠿	Study science	33.	⠿ ⠿	Make boats	56.	⠿ ⠿	Engage in sports
8.	⠿ ⠿	Study literature	34.	⠿ ⠿	Make airplanes	57.	⠿ ⠿	Go to a circus
9.	⠿ ⠿	Do cross-word puzzles	35.	⠿ ⠿	Make radio	58.	⠿ ⠿	Sing in a chorus
			36.	⠿ ⠿	Work with tools	59.	⠿ ⠿	Sing in a glee club
10.	⠿ ⠿	Study trees	37.	⠿ ⠿	Have a garden	60.	⠿ ⠿	Belong to a gang
11.	⠿ ⠿	Study birds	38.	⠿ ⠿	Drive automobile	61.	⠿ ⠿	Play ping pong
12.	⠿ ⠿	Study animals	39.	⠿ ⠿	Play with pets	62.	⠿ ⠿	Play croquet
13.	⠿ ⠿	Study butterflies	40.	⠿ ⠿	Raise animals	63.	⠿ ⠿	Play ball
14.	⠿ ⠿	Draw or paint	41.	⠿ ⠿	Go fishing	64.	⠿ ⠿	Play tennis
15.	⠿ ⠿	Work in laboratory	42.	⠿ ⠿	Climb or hike	65.	⠿ ⠿	Go hunting
16.	⠿ ⠿	Model or design	43.	⠿ ⠿	Skate	66.	⠿ ⠿	Go riding with others
17.	⠿ ⠿	Do housework	44.	⠿ ⠿	Ride a bicycle			
18.	⠿ ⠿	Sing	45.	⠿ ⠿	Ride a horse	67.	⠿ ⠿	Play in a band
19.	⠿ ⠿	Play piano	46.	⠿ ⠿	Practice first aid	68.	⠿ ⠿	Play in a orchestra
20.	⠿ ⠿	Make a scrapbook				69.	⠿ ⠿	Go to church socials
21.	⠿ ⠿	Keep a diary		———		70.	⠿ ⠿	Go to parties
22.	⠿ ⠿	Write poems				71.	⠿ ⠿	Go to dances
23.	⠿ ⠿	Speak pieces	47.	⠿ ⠿	Play cards	72.	⠿ ⠿	Be officer of a club
24.	⠿ ⠿	Play instrument	48.	⠿ ⠿	Play dominoes	73.	⠿ ⠿	Be a class officer
25.	⠿ ⠿	Visit museums	49.	⠿ ⠿	Play checkers	74.	⠿ ⠿	Go camping
26.	⠿ ⠿	Collect stamps	50.	⠿ ⠿	Play chess			

APPENDIX C

STUDENT AND PARENT QUESTIONNAIRES

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRES

1. Which lesson did you like best and why did you like it?

2. Which lesson did you like least and why did you dislike it?

3. What do you feel you have learned about yourself?

4. What do you feel you have learned about others?

5. Have you found yourself doing something or thinking in some way differently since our lessons started?

PARENT QUESTIONNAIRES

Child's Name:

Your Name:

Relationship to Child:

Date:

1. Have you observed any change in your child's behavior towards himself and others over the past five months which might be attributed to our work at school?

Great Positive Change	Some Positive Change	Little or No Change	Some Negative Change	Much Negative Change

(Please check the above rating scale in the appropriate place)

2. Has there been any noticeable change in your youngster's attitude towards himself or towards others which you feel might be attributed to our work at school?

Great Positive Change	Some Positive Change	Little or No Change	Some Negative Change	Much Negative Change

(Please check the above rating scale in the appropriate place)

3. In relation to the child, his family, and others, have you observed any evidences of the total experiment have value?

Highly Valuable	Worthwhile	Some Value	Little Value	No Value Observable

(Please check the above rating scale in the appropriate place)

Any additional comments you wish to make: