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University of Massachusetts Amherst

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A FEASIBILITY STUDY OF A COMPETENCY-BASED TEACHER EDUCATION MODEL
FOR BUILDING POSITIVE SELF-CONCEPT IN CHILDREN

A Dissertation Presented
by
Anna Markus Pearce

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
January 1974
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A FEASIBILITY STUDY OF A COMPETENCY-BASED TEACHER EDUCATION MODEL FOR BUILDING POSITIVE SELF-CONCEPT IN CHILDREN

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by

Anna Markus Pearce

Approved as to style and content by:

Dr. Masha Rudman, Associate Professor (Chairwoman)

Dr. R. Mason Bunker, Assistant Professor (Member)

Dr. Richard Konicek, Associate Professor (Member)

Dr. Ann Schumer, Assistant Professor
(Dean's Representative)

January 1974
DEDICATION

To

My parents, Rita and Frits Markus
My teacher and friend, Masha Rudman
and
My husband, Tony Pearce

Each of whom has loved and strengthened me in a very special way.

"He who gives to me teaches me to give."
A Feasibility Study of a Competency-Based Teacher Education Model for Building Positive Self-Concept in Children

Anna Markus Pearce, B.A.; Smith College
M.A.T., University of Massachusetts
Directed By: Dr. Masha Rudman

The model around which this study is based combines the two major approaches to teacher training, the perceptual approach and the competency-based approach. After demonstrating in the first chapter that many people in the helping professions have come to believe that a person's self-concept profoundly influences personal growth and social interaction, this dissertation presents the argument that teachers can and should focus on building the positive self-concept of their pupils. In the second chapter, four competencies are defined and defended which, when appropriately performed by teachers, will build self-esteem in their pupils. These skills are (1) careful listening, (2) listening for and responding to the feelings beneath a child's words and behavior, (3) recognizing and focusing on strengths and successes in all domains, and (4) helping the child set realistic goals and make plans to meet them so that the child will experience success and grow
in competence and autonomy. In the third chapter a model for effectively teaching these skills to future teachers is presented. The model involves a process for developing both the future teachers' positive attitude toward each skill and their specific ability to perform the skills. The fourth chapter of this dissertation presents the results of a feasibility study designed to determine whether or not, when the skills were taught to ten undergraduate future teachers by the model described, these future teachers would show an increased awareness of and ability to perform the skills. The results of informal evaluation using paper and pencil pre- and post-teaching evaluation questions most of which involved students' responding to simulated situations with children showed that the skills could be effectively taught using the model. The fifth chapter is a discussion of four classroom environments, traditional, open or integrated day, programmed, and "free" or laissez-faire and an examination of which would be most conducive to a teacher's practicing the four self-concept building skills. It was found that the integrated day environment is most conducive to a teacher's practicing them. The concluding chapter of this dissertation discusses the implications of this work for future study.
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Note to the Reader: Since the author is planning to continue work
                   in this area, she would welcome correspondence.
                   Please address such correspondence to:

                   Anna Markus Pearce
                   Integrated Day Program
                   School of Education
                   University of Massachusetts
                   Amherst, Massachusetts 01002
CHAPTER I

PSYCHOLOGICAL AND PHILOSOPHICAL RATIONALE
FOR THE STUDY

For many years people in the helping professions have been interested in assisting those who are frustrated, disturbed, or unhappy to free themselves, use more of their potential, and feel a greater measure of fulfillment. Their efforts have most often been in the area of therapy. However, in recent years there has been a growing awareness that therapy comes too late, that greater efforts must be made in the area of prevention. Furthermore, many people in these professions have become persuaded of the fact that it is a person's self-concept, the way a person learns to perceive and evaluate her/himself, which profoundly influences her/his ability to respond constructively to personal needs and to the needs of others. Educators who have worked with young children and with teachers have grown more aware of how powerfully a teacher may influence a child's self-concept. They are realizing the opportunity they have for making teachers aware of this fact and of the need for helping teachers learn specific ways they can help build each child's positive perception of her/himself.

This dissertation begins with a discussion of the many reasons for believing that teachers should focus on building positive self-concept in their young pupils. The first chapter includes a discussion of how self-concept influences the individual and her/his society. In the second chapter four competencies are presented which, when appropriately performed by elementary school
teachers, will build self-esteem in their pupils. These skills are defined and defended. Chapter Three presents a model for effectively teaching these skills to teachers in training. It is a model which involves working with both the future teacher's attitudes and with her/his specific behavior. The fourth chapter presents the results of a feasibility study designed to determine whether or not, when the skills were taught to future teachers by the model described, the future teachers would show an increased awareness of and ability to practice the skills. That is, the author's intent was to demonstrate the feasibility of the overall model rather than to attempt to do a study which would exhibit valid statistical results. In the chapter on research for the future, the author suggests several such studies which might contribute to the field. It was, however, the purpose of this dissertation to examine the overall procedure rather than do a detailed analysis of one aspect of the study. The fifth chapter is a discussion of different classroom environments, and a consideration of which would be conducive to a teacher's practicing the four self-concept building skills. The final chapter is a discussion of the implications for this work for future study.

The primary impetus and reason for focusing on building a child's positive self-concept comes from the emerging recognition by many psychologists that it is a person's self-concept which underlies and influences almost all of her/his perceptions and behavior. The evolution of this theory is well-documented by Purkey (1970, p.3) who traces it from "the advent of written history, when writers would describe this awareness of self in terms of spirit, psyche or
soul," through Descartes, Spinoza, and Leibnitz's pursuit of the non-physical aspect of man, and to Sigmund Freud's introduction of the ego with Anna Freud's further emphasis on its importance. Then, moving on to American psychology, he traces self-concept theory from its central position in William James's *Principles of Psychology*, whose longest chapter was titled "The Consciousness of Self," through its de-emphasis in the first half of this century (with the strong exceptions of Mead in the field of philosophy and Lewin, Goldstein, Lecky, Murphy, and Allport in psychology), to the last few years during which there has been an enthusiastic rebirth of interest in internal and intrinsic motivation forces and cognitive and symbolic processes, particularly with reference to the dynamic importance of the self . . . and the dynamic of the self in determining behavior" (p.6-7).

The focus of this paper is predicated upon four outstanding contemporary views supporting the current position that self-concept is central to perception and behavior. Cattell, a psychological theorist, believes that "the most powerful sentiment of all is the self sentiment. He like other personality theorists, introduces the self to explain the consistency that seems to suffuse all the behavior of an individual. Thus, the self-sentiment acts on all the other sentiments and may strengthen or inhibit the tendency to action aroused by other sentiments" (Marx and Hillix, 1963, p. 320). Cattell sees these self-sentiments as "the functional core of being" (Patterson, 1966, p. 67-8). Rogers, a well-known contemporary psychotherapist and theorist, strongly puts forth the belief that the self is central in the dynamics of behavior and that one must
understand how individuals perceive themselves if one is to understand their behavior. He believes that a person reacts to a situation according to the way (s)he uniquely perceives it, and that "most of the ways of behaving which are adopted by the organism are those which are consistent with the concept of the self" (Rogers, 1951, pp. 483-507). It is significant that Combs and Snygg, leaders in the field of teacher education, also focus on individuals' perceptions of themselves and how these perceptions influence their behavior. They state their position in the following terms:

The self is the individual's basic frame of reference, the central core, around which the remainder of the perceptual field is organized. In this sense, the phenomenal self is both product of the individual's experience and producer of whatever new experience he is capable of.

(Combs and Snygg, 1959, p. 146)

Indeed, it is striking how very close their ideas are to those of the above-mentioned psychologists. This is true also of the view of Festinger who has come to a very similar view of the dynamics of behavior through his work in social psychology. That is, he too has found that the manner in which people view themselves influences all their behavior significantly. He has been described as believing that "people are constantly trying to behave in a manner which is consistent with the way they view themselves. He maintains that 'dissonance (an uncomfortable state of mind) results when we take action which is incompatible with beliefs we hold about ourselves. The ways we react to people, tasks and roles therefore are those most consistent with our self-image" (Purkey, 1970, pp. 12-13).
Thus, these leaders in their fields, Cattell in psychological theory, Rogers in psychotherapy, Combs and Snygg in teacher education, and Festinger in social psychology all argue that the individual's perception of self is central in determining that individual's behavior.

If we accept the theory that self-concept is such a strong and central basis of behavior, then it is important to ask next how a person forms this influential self-evaluation. Ruth Wylie (1961, p. 121) in her comprehensive review of the literature on self-concept points out that "all personality theorists who are concerned with constructs involving the self accord great importance to parent-child interaction in the development of the self concept." Indeed, according to practically every significant theory of development, the manner in which the parent or parent-surrogates behave toward a child in the earliest and most formative years greatly affects the child's development, particularly the development of the child's attitudes toward her/himself and the surrounding world. In terms of the development of positive self-concept Gergen says this:

... Self esteem is all important to the individual. Events or persons boosting one's self-esteem are gratifying and those which reduce it are abhorred. Rogers (1959) has spoken of the 'basic need for self-regard,' a need that leads one to seek the regard of others. He has noted that in some clinical cases seeking esteem of others seems more important than meeting physiological needs. (Gergen, 1971, p. 68)

Thus, before children have entered school their attitudes toward self have already been profoundly influenced by the extent to which the people closest to them have gratified their needs for self-esteem. But as Combs points out, it is not only the parents, nurses,
family members and close friends who have the power to affect the child's self-concept. He writes: "Outside the child's own family no institution in our society is in a better position to affect the growth and development of an individual's self-concept than our public schools. Indeed, this is a major responsibility" (Combs, 1958, p. 315). More specifically he points out that:

The child is influenced first in the family, then by peers in unstructured situations, then with teachers and peers in more structured situations. The people around the individual form the climate and soil in which the self grows. If the soil is fertile and the climate is wholesome, there is vigorous growth. If the climate is unwholesome and unkind, growth is stunted or stopped and illness occurs.

(Combs, 1962, p. 93.)

After people associated with the home it is the teacher who is usually the single most influential person in the young child's life and a strong influence on her/his developing self-view. Not only does the child spend six to eight hours a day with one teacher and feel the direct power of this person who controls and judges her/him as only parents have in the past, but also the teacher's power is compounded, for the teacher's evaluation of the child may greatly influence the parents' subsequent attitude toward this child. Recognizing that the teacher often is of such importance in the development of self-esteem, and that "the overwhelming body of contemporary research points insistently to the relationship between self esteem and academic achievement" (Purkey, 1970, v.), it is important that we ask how a teacher influences the child's concept of self. Purkey speaks to this point when he writes:
The ways significant others evaluate the student directly affects the student's conception of his academic ability. This in turn establishes limits on his success in school. Teachers, in their capacity as significant others, need to view students in essentially positive ways and hold favorable expectations. This is particularly important at the elementary level, but is vital in all grades. (Purkey, 1970, p. 47.)

The pattern of influence which Purkey delineates is this: The teacher is a "significant other" in the life of the young child; the young child's concept of self is greatly influenced by the way "significant others" perceive and evaluate her/him; the young child's concept of self and her/his ability is a strong determinant of that child's success in school. Marjorie Snyder has also recognized and written about the way significant others affect the child. One of her most striking points is the following:

Research in psychiatry and psychology would seem to indicate that much of the learner's ability to use his power to learn is determined by his concept of self, his perceptions of the way others see him and his perception of the world. . . .

(Yamamoto, 1972, p. 55.)

Rist (1970), Rosenthal and Jacobson (1971), Brookover (1962) have made clear the power of this influence of the teacher. If the teacher of young children expects them to be "successful," they are much more likely to be so than if such positive expectations are not held.

More explicitly,

the ways in which a student sees himself and his world are (1) products of how others see him and (2) primary forces in academic achievement (and thus) . . . the almost unavoidable conclusion is that the teacher's attitudes and opinions regarding his students have a significant influence on their success in school. (Purkey, 1970, pp. 2,7.)

Having recognized and accepted the validity of this process,
we must look carefully at its implications, for in our traditional American schools success and failure are often measured by very limited criteria. Rarely do our schools keep records on spontaneous curiosity, rigorous search for answers to relevant and engaging questions, evaluation of different solutions and points of view, and the subsequent debate of students with strong arguments informed by deep feeling. Schools which do not demonstrably value these kinds of skills would be unlikely to encourage children to believe in, use, value, and enjoy the many aspects of their intellectual powers. Instead, the young are forced to concentrate on skills and "basic" subject matter which was designed and ordered years ago. As Silberman points out (1970, pp. 113-114), it is a curriculum "designed to prepare them for specific vocations or professions or to facilitate their adjustment to the world as it is." Too often it is limited and irrelevant. This education alienates children from great parts of themselves—-from their powers to question, hope, and seek change; it alienates them from others and from a great portion of the real and relevant world. Children are taught to adjust to the group—-to memorize, to get "right" answers, to take tests, to think as the text or the teacher does, to be passive, uncreative and other-directed. They are reinforced and considered successful when they act in these ways, their self-esteem built by their teachers only if they can meet these limited criteria. Many, many other possible criteria for intellectual success are neglected as are the possibilities for successes in other domains. Thus, many roads for building positive self-concept are left unexplored.
Coleman spells out the wide range of needs of the individual to which the schools should attend. He writes (1964, pp. 140-142) that the individual needs to acquire "various competencies essential for adult living--for earning a living, marriage, parenthood, citizenship, and getting along with other people." According to Coleman, (s)he needs to "acquire certain physical competencies," to keep physically fit and protect the body against disease because these "contribute to a sense of well-being and adequacy and enhance our attractiveness to others" (p. 142). The child also needs to acquire certain emotional competencies to be healthy, productive and happy in adult life. (s)he needs to learn how to handle the difficult emotions of fear, anxiety, anger, depression, guilt, and grief, to develop a sense of humor, and the ability to give and receive love (p. 142). The child also needs to acquire certain social competencies since "most of our needs can be met only through relationship with other people . . . and the nature of interpersonal relationships has much to do with the satisfactions we gain in living" (p. 142). And finally, the child does, according to Coleman, need certain intellectual competencies. It is, however, important to note what he believes these are, for they are not just the competencies so often stressed as the criteria for school achievement, even though they are in the intellectual domain. Coleman states (p. 143) that "despite man's great potentialities for thinking, he is often very inefficient in solving his personal problems and those of his group." .In short, Coleman sees mental processes other than those generally evaluated
in schools involved in efficient learning. Specifically, he notes problem-solving, decision-making, reasoning, information gathering, making accurate assumptions and continual reality checking as skills which should be the criteria for success (p. 143).

If these are the competencies needed for a healthy, fulfilling, and "successful" life, should we not make the student's movement toward them the ground for positive recognition by the teacher rather than the present more narrow criteria? Should children not be encouraged by significant others to appreciate and use their powers in many domains of their being? Some may argue that emotional and social competencies should be developed in the home and not the school, but since the classroom is the first large social group of which the child is a member, the classroom seems the ideal, though not exclusive, place. Moustakas points out the waste incurred if we do not broaden our focus.

In no way should human values be neglected—sensitivity, awareness, uniqueness, responsiveness . . . each is more important than the most important fact or skill. In no way should expediency, efficiency, organization and achievement push the self of the learner away, for the self of the learner is his one unique contribution to humanity, his one tie to meaning and to life, his one tie to responsiveness and responsibility. (Moustakas, 1969, p. 45.)

It seems essential, then, that we confront the fact that although human values are sometimes recognized as important by administrators and teachers, they are rarely the real criteria on which a child is evaluated, for which (s)he is reinforced, and toward which (s)he is encouraged to strive. Thus, when the criteria are so
narrowed, many of the important avenues for building self-esteem are cut off. Too many children do not make the grade and come to see themselves as failures. This is a tragic waste of potential, and it produces a great deal of unhappiness which is unnecessary. If the myriad of possible sources of recognition were seen, the many different kinds of strength and talent rewarded, more people would develop a positive self-concept and could lead satisfied, confident, and productive lives.

The need for focusing on many aspects of personality and many domains of skills and for building self-esteem on the basis of them becomes even more pressing when seen beyond the individual, in broad societal terms. Today's industrial society, with its fast communication and transportation, exposes its members to a multiplicity of life styles and value systems. Often the imposed necessity to make choices which in the past were unnecessary comes along with the confrontation with diversity. "What shall I do?"; "Where shall I live?"; "How shall I live?" are but a few of the questions raised. Indeed, there is so much internal as well as external mobility today that a young person must literally ask: "Who shall I be?"

There is great opportunity in this situation, great promise, great excitement and great challenge. But it has been well documented (Reisman, 1961; Friedenberg, 1965; Goodman, 1960) that all too few are well prepared for such an opportunity. Paul Nash has worked for many years with young adults who have just left our public schools. He has listened carefully to them and has tried to understand the
feelings behind their malaise and rebellious discontent. Having done this, he has concluded that they are typically fraught with the following feelings. They speak frequently of a sense of purposelessness, of a feeling of being isolated, of a hunger for a sense of community, a feeling of alienation. They describe themselves as feeling impotent, and, at worst, of feeling anesthetized, no longer able to feel (Nash, 1971, pp. 3-5).

Our newspapers and the shelves of our bookstores record the more extreme response of many people to these feelings. Escape comes in many forms: running after material security, desperate attempts to conform to Madison Avenue images, euphoric denial of reality through alcohol and/or drugs, establishment of naively idealistic schools and communities which fall apart soon after inception, devastating anger turned inward or out, artificial responses or defensive rigidification of behavior and belief. Endemic to all these escapes, except in rare cases, is the underlying feeling that nothing quite adds up, that individuals find themselves feeling unnourished, ungrowing, unwhole and unreal in the roles they have been playing.

If, as the literature demonstrates, so many people today find themselves feeling uncertain and uncomfortable about who they are or who they may become, and if they arrive at less than satisfactory solutions in this world of great opportunity, how does the building of positive self-concept in the early years provide an at least partial solution to the problem?
First, self-esteem can be helpful to every human being in the search for roles and activities which will be truly worthwhile to individuals. It is extremely important that, from the time that they are very young, people be given the opportunity to explore activities in many areas, not just the conventional academic and extra-curricular ones. They need to explore freely, discovering and rediscovering as they proceed what it is which really interests them—whether it be mathematics or media, cybernetics or ceramics, Man or mechanics, mulch or meteors—so that they will be able to choose what they feel is worth pursuing.

There is no magic beginning. However, in a classroom where academic achievement narrowly prescribed is the greatest good, such exploration is rarely possible. In such situations the typical fear becomes that of not getting to a specific end point in the established curriculum, with the end point being measured by arbitrary means rather than by the student's sense of accomplishment in learning. If instead, students were allowed to explore and learn more freely, two ends would be accomplished. First, as already mentioned, they would be more likely to find what is genuinely and deeply meaningful to them. In itself this would be most beneficial, for a real interest, something one loves to do, is like having a fine and steadfast friend: it affirms oneself. Second, if a person engages in activities which interest her/him, that person is more likely to invest real effort and, in turn, to gain competence and a sense of mastery. An individual
is likely to experience an inner confirmation of self, a feeling of being "found" rather than "lost."

In order to engage in free exploration and become involved in many new subject areas and activities, one must first be provided with the opportunity to do so, be relatively free of fear of failure, free of crippling inertia, free of the need of security found in the familiar. In short; to gain a true sense of meaningfulness one must explore freely and experience one's inner reactions to many different activities, and to undertake this exploration in the first place, one must have a greater degree of self-esteem than simply to participate in a narrow array of activities which another person or structure has prescribed. The aim, then, is to gain a sense of mastery and worth through activity which is genuinely fulfilling. To accomplish this one must have the freedom to explore and involve oneself in many activities, the inner freedom, born of self-esteem, to avail oneself of this freedom and to make meaningful personal choices within it (Personological Task Force Report, 1968, p. 23).

There are even more impelling and crucial reasons for making an effort to train the teachers of young children in the ways of increasing the realistic and positive self-concept of all their pupils. These reasons pertain to the social relations and interactions of people in this society. In our society it has become painfully clear how we evaluate and behave toward those who deviate from white middle-class values and ideal types. It is apparent that, to a greater or lesser extent, members of most "minority" or "deviant"
groups receive less than full acceptance and opportunity from the general public. In the schools, they receive less than full acceptance from their teachers and from their peers.

Many members of many groups are covertly or overtly excluded and often scorned. These groups include not only those commonly recognized, such as those of minority races and religions, but also those who are otherwise physically, mentally, or socially "different"—the emotionally disturbed, the aged, and the disabled. In his study "Social Class and Teacher Expectations," Rist makes an important contribution to documenting teachers' prejudices toward children from lower-class homes. In the study teachers are shown to group kindergarten children as fast or slow learners on the basis of information sources not one of which was "related directly to academic potential ... but concerned social information" (Rist, 1970, pp. 418-419).

Much of this information came to the teacher by a pre-registration form which asked parents about their financial status, whether or not they had a telephone, how many children were in their family, and whether they were a single parent. Some of the information came from the teacher's observation of the child, and some came from information about siblings passed on by other teachers. Teachers were shown to judge children on the basis of whether or not they wore clean clothes, whether or not they smelled of urine, whether or not they had short hair cuts and processed hair, and whether or not they were verbal with the teacher. On the basis of these non-intellectual criteria children were divided into groups. The groups were then given differential
treatment—the "fast" group receiving more teaching time, reward
directed behavior, and more attention from the teacher; the "slow"
group receiving infrequent teaching, more control-oriented behavior,
and little (if any) supportive behavior from the teacher. Rist has
also clearly shown (1970, p. 422) that "those attributes most desired
by educated members of the middle-class become the basis of evalua-
tion of the children. Those who possessed these particular charac-
teristics were expected to succeed, those without could not be
expected to succeed."

The price of this discriminatory behavior, this low evalua-
tion, is high for the member of the minority group. A well-known and
painfully clear example of this is the study by Clark and Clark which
demonstrated that black children, given the choice between a black and
a white doll and asked to tell which is the "good" doll, were far
more likely to label the white doll as "good" (Clark and Clark, in
Hartley, Newcomb et al., 1942, p. 169-178). John McCabe speaks further
of the effect of low self-image on people of low income and minimal
education. Their view of themselves becomes that of the victim of
their past and present, "unable to take the continual risks which
are necessary to improve the quality of society... because of
blinding fears and crippling lack of self-confidence" (McCabe, undated,
p. 1). Yarumoto concludes:

In view of their generally negative public reception, it is
no wonder that those classified as deviant are inclined to
be frustrated, unhappy and often hostile... Further,
both emotionally disturbed and deaf children examples of
"deviants" have been found to show deprecating attitudes
toward themselves and toward others, especially those who are impaired in ways different from their own.  
(Yamamoto, 1972, pp. 16-17.)

Yamamoto is making us aware that negative public reception leads to deprecation of oneself, to frustration and unhappiness, and to yet another tragic toll. Hostility is turned outward as well as inward: it is often turned to those who are equally, if not more, vulnerable, those who are also in a minority position, those weaker or labeled as deviant. And so the damage is compounded. Those who have been violated do more violence. Simply re-stated:

If a child has received continuous hostility from his parents, teachers, and peers, a negative reaction to himself is likely to result from reflected appraisal. At the same time he learns to dislike himself, he develops hatred. . . .

(Gergen, 1971, p. 66.)

"Affirmation of self precedes one's affirmation of others. Trust and love for others does not grow in a hotted of contempt of self" (Yamamoto, 1972, p. 17). The cost is to the victim and to those (s)he victimizes. It is also to the democratic process and democratic education about which Dewey said: "If democracy has a moral and ideal meaning, it is that a social return be demanded from all and that opportunity for development of distinctive capacities be afforded all" (Patterson, 1966, p. 25).

There is another human cost which is rarely recognized--that is, the cost to those who are the observers of deprecating behavior. On this point it is worth quoting Yamamoto in full. She writes:
. . . All suffer from the often explicit public declaration: You are not one of us—you are not wanted here. When the precarious tolerance of Mexican-Americans as potential peers is based on the alleged "fact" of their inferiority, which is sustained by rationalizing stereotypes, and upon their "complete" Americanization in the sense of Anglo-conformity rather than either cultural amalgamation or pluralism, one wonders about the climate in which our children grow. Seventy thousand law-abiding American citizens and their forty thousand immigrant relatives can be categorically declared military threats solely because of their Japanese ancestry and can be forcefully "relocated" in internment centers with the blessings of the Government. Such an act . . . again makes us wonder about the coloring of our children's concept of self . . . and may force us to examine the kind of human image children see reflected in us.

(Yamamoto, 1972, p. 13.)

Our self-esteem may be diminished by awareness of our passive observation of such wrongs to others, and, in turn, the self-concept of our children may also suffer from their observation of us.

These, then, are many of the reasons we can believe that it is worthwhile and important to work carefully on building each child's positive self-concept: (1) self-concept is central to one's perceptions and to one's subsequent behavior; (2) a positive sense of self enables one to make the explorations which are necessary for her/him to find what will bring direction and meaning to her/his life; (3) for both society and the individual's sake, academic achievement should not be the sole foundation upon which self-worth is encouraged to grow. Furthermore, we must build in children a sense of worth sufficiently strong that they do not feel defensive and threatened in the face of differences or "deviances." We must find in ourselves, and reinforce in our children, loving ability to see both the wealth and the worth of one's self in one's uniqueness and of others in their
uniqueness. We must begin to listen to, understand, and reward kindness, cooperation, talent, responsibility, initiative, and engagement, and generally help the child gain the self-esteem necessary to affirm all that is positive in her/himself and all that is positive in others—human, humane qualities as well as intellectual abilities.

Having looked at why it is important to focus on building positive self-concept in the young child, the remainder of this thesis will be concerned with a means to this end. The second chapter addresses the question: "What, specifically, can a teacher do to build such self-valuing in her/his pupils?" It defines and defends four skills which a teacher can acquire to build self-esteem in her/his elementary school children. Each of these skills will be presented with its rationale from theoretical and research work in developmental, abnormal and clinical psychology.

It must be noted that rather than isolating a review of all aspects of the literature which are relevant to this dissertation, appropriate reviews of the literature will be included in each chapter in the sections to which they pertain.

The third chapter will describe a model developed for teaching these skills. It is a model which makes use of the contributions of behavioral scientists, social psychologists, and teacher trainers. A rationale for each step of the model is included. The model is then presented as it was applied in each of the five sessions of training the skills.
Chapter Four will look at whether ten students showed increased awareness of and ability to practice the skills after they were taught the skills by the model described in Chapter Three. It will include an analysis of the pre- and post-teaching data for each of the skills. It will also include some discussion of how the students practiced the skills.

Chapter Five will be a discussion of what kind of classroom would be most conducive to the practice of the skills and, thus, to the fostering of positive self-concept.

The final chapter of this dissertation will describe the implications of this study for future inquiries.
CHAPTER II
FOUR SKILLS FOR BUILDING POSITIVE SELF-CONCEPT

Having established the need for building positive self-concept in the elementary school child, we now will look at the four specific skills designed for this study. These are skills which a teacher can become aware of and use in her/his daily interactions with young children. The ultimate purpose of the skills is to help children develop positive attitudes toward themselves. The direct effect is to equip teachers with the ability to help children do this. As stated earlier, the skills were developed from both theoretical and practical knowledge. That is, they were developed from direct observation and teaching of children and teachers and from the study of various branches of theoretical and clinical psychology which concern themselves with what fosters and what retards healthy development. All of these skills are consistent with the findings of Gooding concerning the perceptual organization which is characteristic of effective teachers (in Combs, 1969, pp. 28-36).

Because all of the skills to be developed are performed by the teacher, we must look at the concept of "significant others," how they influence children, and why the teacher of the young child is considered to be one of these significant others.

Many influential psychologists, no matter what their theoretical viewpoints, believe that parents and a few other adults influence
the developing self-concept of the young child. According to Carl Rogers, the man who first coined the phrase "significant others," "one of the first important aspects of the self-experience of the ordinary child is that he is loved by his parents" (Rogers, 1951, p. 499). This is, of course, a great source of satisfaction to the child and "it is a significant and core element of the structure of self as it begins to form." When, however, the child values behavior in a manner which is different from that of the parents, the child is in a dilemma. For example, the child may enjoy devoting a great deal of time to producing a work of art. The parents, however, may value academic achievement much more highly and insist that the child concentrate efforts on that. To a greater or lesser extent they may imply that the child is lovable only when doing what they value or that the child is bad when doing what they do not approve. In this situation the child has many options. (S)he may continue to be involved in what (s)he finds personally satisfying and, without rejecting these activities, also engage in the activities which the parents value. However, if the child is made to feel that parental love is contingent on more complete conformity with the parents' values, then the child, fearing loss of love, may deny her/his experiences of enjoying artistic endeavor and engage only in the parentally valued work. Thus, parents and other similarly important people who fulfill the child's need for love, are enormously significant for they can influence the child's own perceptions of her/his experiences. The child can be made to
deny or discredit potentially fulfilling experiences and can be made to feel that (s)he is bad if (s)he engages in these activities. On the other hand, the child may be encouraged to experience and value things for her/himself while being guided toward activities which the parents value. Rogers would encourage significant others to allow the child to experience a wide range of activities and then value them for her/himself (Rogers, 1951, p. 499).

According to classical Freudian theory the way the child comes to view her/himself is attributed to the manner in which the mother, the earliest significant person, responds to the child's drives and shapes her/him in infancy. Calvin S. Hall describes the first crucial training session, feeding:

Because the baby is dependent upon an external agent, usually the mother . . . the mother can control the baby's conduct by giving him the food when he is obedient to her wishes and withholding food when he is disobedient. . . . the giving of food becomes associated with love and approval and the withholding with rejection and disapproval.

(Hall, 1954, p. 105.)

Patterson's interpretation of how the mother carries out this life-sustaining function goes so far as to say that at this stage the mother's behavior can lead to the following basic future attitudes in the child:

. . . to optimism or apathy, to security or apprehension, to sociability or lack of social feeling, to fear of being alone, or later compulsive sociability.

(Patterson, 1966, p. 186.)

Thus, it is contended that the mother's earliest attentions to her child in the feeding situation communicate to the child whether or not (s)he is an acceptable, love-worthy person.
This profound influencing also occurs at subsequent stages of development. For example, at the second stage the mother can handle cleanliness training in many ways ranging from great rigidity to complete laxity. Again, Freud claims that her approach will have profound influence throughout the child's life. It will, in this case, determine whether the child develops deep-seated anxiety and guilt or a sense of comfort about natural functions, and it will determine the nature of the child's future attitudes about authority and conformity. Freud argues that at each stage the mother's manner of handling her infant influences that infant significantly. This is because he sees this primary relationship between infant and mother as the prototype of future relationships. Despite the fact that many Freudian assumptions have been questioned in recent years, Freud's recognition of maternal significance is still generally accepted.

Reik, a follower of Freud, analyzes the same process more closely. He writes that the early "primitive observations" a child makes are not of self but of the external world. Specifically, they are first and foremost observations of "the reactions of his parents or nurses as expressions of approval or disapproval, or of pleasure or annoyance" (Reik, 1965, pp. 16-17). At first, then, the child's ego is not split, and (s)he is, therefore, not yet capable of self-observation. The child may play with her/his toes, but is no more aware that they are a part of her/himself than that
a rattle is not. At a certain age, however, the child comes to realize that "it is an object of observation on the part of parents and nurses" (p. 17). Self-observation thus originates in the awareness of being observed. Critical to our study of self-concept is the idea that the child is then said to "introject" the observations of others. The child comes to see her/himself as others have seen her/him and, too often, in critical ways. This may be recognized as the idea of Cooley who developed the theory that one's ideas of self are significantly affected by what he imagines others think of him. That is, he developed a looking-glass self, one that reflected the imagined appraisals of others.

(Gergen, 1971, p. 41.)

Mead, a sociologist "concerned with the processes by which an individual becomes a compatible and integrated member of his social group" (Coopersmith, 1967, p. 31), developed the above theory more completely.

For Mead the child was said to observe the behavior of 'significant others' around him--his mother, father, brothers and so on--and to imitate such behaviors in his play. Inasmuch as these others behave in certain ways toward the child, he begins to adopt these orientations toward himself. . . . (For example) to be seen by one's family as 'incapable' is eventually to see one's self in the same way.

(Gergen, 1971, p. 41.)

Later research based on Mead's theory, working with the hypothesis that self-concept is related to others' view of self, found that when students were asked to describe themselves along certain dimensions and then their acquaintances or family were asked to rate them along the same dimensions, the results showed
that the two correlated highly (Gergen, 1971, p. 41). These results are, however, not causal. Videback then designed a study with a systematic alteration of what Person A thought of Person B. It was hypothesized that Person A's self-concept should change in relation to positive or negative evaluation. The results of this study confirm that the subjects who had received positive appraisal showed a general increase in their feelings of adequacy while the subjects who received negative appraisal revised their self-appraisals in a negative direction (Gergen, 1971, p. 42). More simply put, Sullivan states that "if we find persons with low self-esteem, we assume that derogation by significant others has occurred in the previous life history of the individual and that he anticipates or perceives derogation in his present situation" (Coopersmith, 1967, p. 32).

According to Erikson too, a theorist who gives more credence to the importance of later development, the attitudes towards self which a child may carry through life are determined through her/his interaction with the environment, especially with the important adults in it. Erikson believes that in each stage of development there is a crisis which the child must resolve, and at the early stages, adults in the child's environment greatly influence whether a positive resolution is made or not. For example, the first stage is that in which the child develops either a "basic trust" or a "basic mistrust" (Erikson, 1964, p. 247). If the mother has regularly supplied the child with her/his basic needs in the first months of life, the child will develop a sense of trust. This
Erikson describes as "the infant's first social achievement" (p. 247), when the child will "let the mother out of sight without undue anxiety or rage, because she has become an inner certainty as well as an outer predictability" (p. 247). If, however, the mother's manner of fulfilling the child's basic needs has not been adequate, the child will develop a basic attitude of mistrust and fear.

At the second stage, the mother is very influential in whether the child develops a sense of autonomy or a sense of doubt and shame, and at the third stage, she helps determine whether her child will gain the sense of initiative or be burdened with a sense of guilt. Later the child's peers become important in how crises are resolved, but in the first three stages, it is the mother who significantly influences the nature of the resolution.

Finally, Abraham Maslow also saw self-esteem as one of the most basic of man's needs and acknowledged the influence of others on its development. He argued that without fulfillment of a person's need for self-esteem further self-actualization could not take place unhampered. Consistent with the theories already discussed, Maslow wrote:

All people in our society (with a few pathological exceptions) have need or desire for a stable, firmly based, (usually) high evaluation of themselves, for self-respect or self-esteem and for the esteem of others. By firmly based self-esteem, we mean that which is soundly based on real capability, achievement and respect from others.  
(Maslow in Hammacheck, 1965, p. 255.)

Clearly Maslow, and each of the other thinkers we have considered, saw that regard and respect from others are essential or significant
in the process of developing a positive self-concept.

But it is not only clinical and developmental psychologists whose theories about learning and development support the belief that significant others in large measure determine a child's self-concept. B. F. Skinner and many behaviorists, in their own way, acknowledge the same idea. Although they neither accept the notion of a non-corporeal, unobservable "self" nor concern themselves with "invisible, uncountable feelings," they do recognize that others have an enormous control over the individual, especially at an early age. For what is the essential component of the reinforcement paradigm? It is the will of the reinforcer--the programmer, the behavior modifier, the person controlling the rewards and/or punishments--who plans to increase certain behaviors and diminish or extinguish others. Even without the hypothetical "self" behaviorists accept the fact that through selective reinforcement by a significant person, certain predispositions for future behavior are established.

It is with these perspectives in mind that we move beyond the parent to how the teacher becomes a significant other in the life of the young child. When the child begins attending school, the teacher replaces the child's mother for many concentrated hours of the day. That is, the teacher now has a very large degree of control over the fulfillment or frustration of the child's needs. Such control extends even to the child's movements, through the teacher's granting or withholding permission to use materials which are desired, to go out on the playground, or even to go to the
bathroom. The teacher's control influences the child's social interactions and friendships, for the teacher can determine near whom the child may sit and with whom (s)he will be grouped. And the teacher is also responsible for whether the child receives adult warmth, coldness or indifference. Above all, the teacher becomes important to the child because (s)he has broad ranging powers to judge the child. Since the child wants approval and favors from this authority figure with whom so much of her/his time is spent, those judgments go deep within the child. Indeed, in this manner the teacher has the power to profoundly influence the child's opinion of her/his ability or stupidity, of her/his insignificance or worth, even of her/his basic goodness or badness.

Because the teacher is a significant other and has the power to influence the child's self-concept, it is important that the teacher learn to do so in a positive manner. This chapter will now present four specific skills which a teacher can become aware of and use in her/his daily interactions with children. Each skill will be described and then arguments will be presented for why the skill will build the child's positive self-concept.

Skill One: The teacher listens carefully and respectfully to the child when the child is trying to communicate something to her/him. The teacher interrupts, analyzes and evaluates as little as possible until the child has finished.

There are several reasons for arguing that the practice of this skill affects the child's self-concept in a positive manner. As we have already demonstrated, the attitude which significant
others show toward the young child influences her/his attitudes toward her/himself profoundly. When a teacher, a significant other, takes the time to listen carefully to the child, the teacher is making clear through that behavior that (s)he feels that the child is a worthwhile human being, another full person whose feelings, ideas, thoughts, and needs are worthy of attention and consideration. Purkey has found that if a significant adult wishes to build self-esteem in a child, that adult should treat the child with respect. It seems that it is just this respect which is transmitted when the teacher listens carefully to the child. Moustakas describes this respect more fully when he writes:

Tenderness, care and personal warmth all affect the child's experience. To recognize the otherness of the child means to respect him as a valuable being with his own autonomy and independence and to understand him in his own terms, through genuine presence and communion. (Moustakas, 1969, p. 15.)

Two studies relate to the importance of listening. The first by Schwartz has shown that mothers of children with high self-concept perceive their child as an individual in her/his own right more than mothers of children with lower self-esteem (Schwartz, 1966). When a teacher listens to the child, that teacher too is clearly recognizing the child as an individual in her/his own right. This is not so when the teacher directs the child as one of the class. Nor is it so when the teacher merely reads the child's papers, for in the young child, speech and behavior are the most important of her/his communication tools.

Amidon and Giammetteo studied superior teachers, identified
by administrators and supervisors, in order to find out whether "the verbal patterns of superior teachers differed substantially from the average teacher's" (Amidon and Giammetteo, 1965, pp. 284-285).

In their findings the authors report that it is not only in their content that the verbal behavior of average and superior teachers differed: the groups also differed in the quantity of speech.

"The superior teachers talked about twelve per cent less than the normative group did" (p. 285). The University of Massachusetts Personological Task Force Report, which considered this study, sums it up as follows:

Superior teachers were more accepting of pupil-initiated ideas, tended to encourage ideas more, they dominated their classrooms less and used indirect verbal behavior more.

(Personological Task Force Report, 1968, p.12.)

In short, the teachers who were considered to be superior, demonstrated their respect for their pupils.

It is only necessary to note that it is all too rare to find teachers who find or make the time for this kind of careful, respectful listening. Too often teachers find themselves pressured by expectations of pupil achievement and, therefore, spend a great amount of time dominating the classroom, trying to get the children to know what they should know. Average teachers do more than fifty per cent of the talking (Amidon and Giammetteo, 1965) even though they are usually less than one twentieth of the classroom population.

Listening is also of central importance if the teacher is to facilitate learning and to optimize the self-validation which results when a task is fully understood and successfully completed.
More and more learning theorists are telling us that there are stages in a child's development and that a teacher's success is dependent on her/his being aware of each child's developmental level. With this awareness (s)he can fit instruction to "where the child is." Information or instruction at levels too far above that of the child simply cannot be assimilated by that child. Nor is instruction at levels below profitable or satisfying to the child. Therefore, the teacher must listen carefully to the child's reasoning if (s)he is to supply that child with the resources or instruction which will be useful. For example, the teacher should listen to how the child arrived at the wrong answer to an arithmetic problem in order to understand why the child made that error and what (s)he needs to learn in order truly to understand the problem. Less specifically Moustakas writes:

It is essential that the teacher prize the child as a person, be aware and value his feelings and thoughts, convey genuine understanding based on the child's own perceptions and accept his tempo and pace. (Moustakas, 1969, p. 23.)

There is another reason related to learning why listening is important. More and more educators are aware that children learn best when they are learning through what interests them. For example, a young child may be fascinated with trucks. With the guidance of a teacher's intelligent questions that child might learn about speed, volume, colors, traffic signs, geography, map reading, contracts, unions, engines, or construction. To learn what raises the interest of the child, the teacher must observe and listen to the child
carefully. (S)he must begin and continue a dialogue with the child, get to know her/him as an individual, and learn what challenges and interests her/him at a given time.

There is another powerful research study which demonstrates how important listening is to the development of self-esteem. Hatsorf, Gross and Kite divided thirty-six people into six discussion groups. The procedures were then as follows: Each student had a signal which (s)he alone could see which told that student when (s)he could speak. In the first part of the experiment all six students were signaled that they were free to speak. Thus, the most timid person of the six was identified. In the second part of the experiment, only the most timid person in the group was given the "go" signal for fifteen minutes and the other people in the group listened to her/him. Then, in the third and final part of the experiment, all group members again received the go signal (Gergen, 1971, p. 75).

The results are described as "dramatic."

The esteem boosting effects of speaking out while others attentively listened seemed to have lasting effects on the speaker. Not only did the originally timid member become one of the group's most dominant contributors, but the team members later rated him as one of the most influential members of the group. (Gergen, 1971, p. 75.)

Before ending the defense of this first skill, it is important to comment on the stipulation that the teacher interrupt, analyze and evaluate as little as possible. Although interruptions are often attempts to help the child, to reassure her/him, to make her/him feel better or to help solve a problem, they tend to communicate something else to the child. Often, instead, they say: "I know what
you should do and I don't really believe that you do or that you can figure out for yourself what should be done." In short, interruptions frequently rob the child of her/his own power and communicate to the child that the teacher feels (s)he is inadequate.

Skill Two: The teacher listens carefully to the child's words and non-verbal communications, trying to understand the feelings behind them. The teacher communicates her/his understanding, or wanting to understand, to the child.

Many religions and many ethical codes include principles of caring for others. They seem to recognize the human need for a sense of communion with other human beings as well as with God. Martin Buber retells the mythical saying of the Jews: "In the mother's body man knows the universe, in birth he forgets it" (Buber, 1958, p. 25), and suggests that there is after birth a powerful yearning for a renewed sense of connection. To Buber, the work of men and women is to recreate the sense of connection felt in the womb by the establishment of loving relations to others in the world.

An anonymous English author wrote of empathy that it is "to see with the eyes of another, to hear with the ears of another, and to feel with the heart of another." It is to experience the feelings of another human being as if they were one's own. But rather than being solely a reaction to another, a response to the cues a person transmits about her/his feelings, empathy is more; it is feeling one's self with the self of the other person. Empathy, then, is one of the deepest kinds of involvement and connection with another person one can have. For although the person empathizing "remains
an individual in his own right with his own private experiences... in moments of empathy he experiences the most vivid sense of closeness with the other person" (Katz, 1963, p. 4).

Empathy can be extremely helpful in dealing with some of the most pervasive and disturbing feelings people today experience. With so much mobility and rapid change of all sorts, we, as adults, often feel frighteningly alone--fearful of our uniqueness rather than celebrating it. The young child today may also know these feelings. More natural to her/his life stage, however, is the fear of aloneness which comes when the child begins going to school. It is then that the child is separated from her/his mother, the person (s)he knows best and by whom (s)he is best known, the person with whom (s)he probably feels secure and, therefore, good about her/himself. As Ginot writes:

A child's greatest fear is of being unloved and abandoned by his parents. As John Steinbeck put it so dramatically in East of Eden: 'The greatest terror a child can have is that he is not loved, and rejection is the hell that he fears... .' (Ginot, 1961, p. 161.)

When the teacher empathizes with young students' feelings, (s)he is declaring caring, closeness and even sameness to them. The teacher is saying that (s)he wants to understand, or does understand what the student is feeling, that (s)he has felt as the student does. This is reassuring to the child, at least, and, at best, a profound form of recognition, confirmation, and validation.

When the teacher empathizes with the child's feelings and tells the child so, (s)he is conveying a crucially important message--
that (s)he accepts the child's feelings and that the child can accept them too. Despite their many differences in their views of the nature of human beings both Freudian and Rogerian theory underscore the central importance of the self-acceptance of feelings and stress that significant others affect whether children come to accept their feelings or not.

Freudians believe that the child has instinctive impulses, defined by Freudians as "mental representatives of bodily needs" (Hall, 1954, p. 58), which need to be channelled into societally acceptable behaviors. Society's norms are interpreted by the child's parents and determine what gratifying behaviors are within acceptable parameters. The child is rewarded, punished, and controlled on the basis of compliance or lack of compliance with the parents' imposed values. Health is achieved only if a sufficient number of channels for releasing bodily tensions are available. Freudians believe that frustration and neurosis occur when the parents disparage or reject too many of the child's impulses or when parentally acceptable channels of impulse-release (or the child's interpretation of them) are narrow and allow for little impulse gratification. Then the child has to build up defenses against unreleased impulses which threaten to surface. The child may do this by repressing feelings, projecting them on to others, regressing or reacting strongly against the feelings which are feared. According to Freudians, these mechanisms of defense are rarely completely effective. The inadequacy of the defenses can
lead to a pervasive sense of anxiety about whether the impulses will be contained or be revealed. It also leads to a feeling of guilt, for the child almost always introjects the values of the parents and comes to judge her/himself negatively when the parentally unacceptable impulses are felt. In short, the child fears punishment from without for behavior (s)he has learned is unacceptable and often engages in self-punishment for even wishing to behave in unacceptable ways.

The process of Freudian therapy involves one or all of the following: (1) making one conscious of the values introjected from parents and the impulses which have been repressed (this process helps the individual deal with those impulses and allows the person to judge them for her/himself); (2) finding new and acceptable channels of impulse-release which were not previously available because of the parent's judgment of them; and (3) realizing that the restraints introjected and accepted were unnecessary and that punishment for wanting to break them will not ensue.

Logically, then, prevention would involve allowing the child to accept the basic impulses rather than labeling them and, thus, the child dirty, bad, or "wrong." Since significant adults have an enormous influence over the child, this happens only if these significant people listen to, understand, and accept whatever the child is feeling. This acceptance results in the child's allowing these impulses to remain in consciousness and be dealt with in direct, realistic and constructive ways. It avoids the
child's self-condemnation, and it creates a person whose energies could be constructively and satisfyingly utilized.

For many years this view was held by a majority of psychologists. Recently, however, many have moved away from this pessimistic position. According to Rogers, the individual has impulses toward growth and actualization. As experiences are perceived, some are valued by the organism because they lead to self-actualization and some are not. For the child to become healthy the process of valuing for her/himself should be encouraged by significant others, and experiences, unless dangerous, should not be censored or prejudged for the child.

According to Rogers, discomfort is caused when values are imposed on the individual, when the person has not been allowed to value experience for her/himself. In other words, discomfort occurs when a child has been rewarded for conforming to external norms rather than norms derived from personal experiencing. When external norms are imposed and accepted by the child, some potentially gratifying experiences are barred. Later, when the child's experiences are no longer prejudged or censored by adults, a conflict may occur if formerly censored experiences impinge on the child and they are valued positively. To avoid the pressure of this conflict, the person may bar perception of possibly conflicting experiences. Thus, the person is barring experience when it could be self-actualizing.

To avoid this situation, Rogerians encourage allowing
children to experience freely and to value their experiences for themselves. In either this or Freudian theory, then, whether or not significant others permit and even encourage the child to experience and feel freely is the key to that child's future healthy adjustment.

It is important to note that when the teacher accepts a child's feelings, and helps the child begin to accept them, the teacher is not replicating the dependent parental relationship. On the contrary the teacher is not reassuring, not solving the child's problems, not trying to assuage or avoid the natural anxieties each individual must experience in trying to establish independence and selfhood. The teacher is encouraging the child to find and accept natural feelings as (s)he accepts them—fear, anger, dislike, doubt, and confusion. That is, the teacher is trying to help the child begin to make the transition from having self-esteem dependent on the approval and love of another to having it based on self-judgment and self-dependence. This is essential to the development of true self-esteem. To be unable to accept and handle one's own feelings is debilitating and frightening; to be able to accept and deal with them constructively is reassuring and freeing.

Skill Three: The teacher helps the child recognize and focus on his strengths and successes in all domains. This is accomplished by the teacher's recognizing and focusing on them.

In Coopersmith's detailed study and analysis of self-esteem,
he concludes that it is not by "general public standards" that one assesses one's success but rather from "his immediate, effective, personal environment" (Coopersmith, 1967, p. 243). That is, "it is from a person's actions and relative position within this frame of reference that he comes to believe that he is a success or failure and not the broader and more abstract context of general socio-cultural standards" (p. 243).

For young children, the classroom in which they spend six to eight hours a day becomes the environment in which they are judged and come to judge themselves as capable of success or where they come to see themselves as failures. That is, their assessment of themselves comes from their experiences of success and failure as that environment defines it. Their subsequent anticipation of success or failure, a powerful determinant of future motivation, is also determined in large part by their experiences there.

Too many children today anticipate failure rather than success, are shadowed by their fear of failure, and are discouraged by their subsequent experiences of failure. In large part this is due to the fact that many teachers define success in school very narrowly. Success is getting the "right" answers, getting assignments in on time, doing assignments neatly, being passive and obedient--in short, acting and thinking in prescribed ways. But these qualities hardly begin to account for the broader talents and potential of the child, hardly begin to account for the
qualities needed to create a creative, constructive society.

Although the school may define success in primarily academic terms (and the tests they give to evaluate growth continue to reflect only this), the teacher in the classroom has the power to determine that strengths and qualities of many sorts will be the criteria for a student's being a successful and valued person in that environment. The teacher's ability to help children recognize positive, esteem-worthy qualities in themselves is limited only by that teacher's own breadth of recognition and appreciation. (S)he may recognize and focus on: the ability to help others, the ability to ask for help at appropriate times, the ability to cooperate and work well with others, the ability to work independently, the ability to handle constructive criticism and learn from mistakes, the ability to complete a task, the ability to try new things, the ability to defend a point of view, the ability to see the point of view of others and change her/his own, the ability to be forthright, the ability to be tactful, the ability to take initiative and lead, the ability to follow and take directions, the ability to solve problems, to think divergently, the ability to concentrate, to appreciate, to dance, sing, find humor, see beauty or to create it.

These are but a few of the qualities which a child may develop. But just as it has been seen that the child's evaluation of academic ability is a direct result of evaluation by significant others, so too with other qualities and abilities. Parents and teachers must recognize them and value them. If they do, the child
will be greatly helped in developing a positive self-evaluation.

Skill Four: The teacher facilitates the child's setting goals for her/himself which are achievable, thus helping the child build success, a sense of competence, and a sense of autonomy.

According to Robert White the basic motivations in humans are not just thirst, hunger, sex, and warmth. He contends that human beings are also motivated by a drive for "competence," observing that "man and the higher mammals develop a competence in dealing with the environment which they do not have at birth and do not arrive at simply through maturation" (White, 1959, p. 297).

Although some of the vast amount of exploratory behavior, manipulation and general activity exhibited by humans can be seen as necessary, much of it is not. It appears that human beings find pleasure in exploration which is not directly tied with the fulfillment of needs, that they enjoy facing challenges and accomplishing goals. Furthermore, the enjoyment of this sense of competence often implies the accomplishment of these goals with a minimum of assistance. Unnecessary assistance would detract from one's own sense of personal power, one's own sense of what White calls "efficacy" (White, 1959, p. 332).

Allport also identifies and discusses a similar concept which he calls the "need for autonomy" (Allport, 1955, p. 25). He considers it as the second of two forces. The first is the force of socialization which stems from the child's early dependent state. This is the force which makes the child conform to the
standards and demands of society. However, many people do not conform completely. They are motivated by a force which leads them to resist the demands which impinge on them, a force which leads them to seek autonomy (p. 25).

In the child, these needs for competence, a sense of efficacy, and autonomy are already clear at the toddler stage, and it is important to children that the adults around them give up some of their own power so that the children may experience theirs. If the adults do not, the children will become passive or angry. In either case, the child's self-concept will suffer, for (s)he will be deprived of the sense of her/his own competence and autonomy.

It has been shown how the four skills defined and defended here can positively affect the child's self-concept. First, the effect of carefully listening to a child was discussed, and it was argued that this is a demonstration of caring and respect which helps the child see her/himself as a whole and worthwhile human being. Second, the skill of listening for feelings was presented. This skill, when performed by the teacher, will build the child's self-concept by creating a bond of understanding between the teacher and the child, and by saying to the child that her/his feelings are accepted. This acceptance, by a person as significant as the teacher, helps the child with the crucial process of accepting all feelings which arise in her/himself. Third, it was stated that the teacher of the young child should develop the skill of
recognizing and focusing on the strengths and successes of each pupil. It was noted that if children are to judge themselves favorably and see their own strengths, the significant others in their lives must also do so. Finally, the need for allowing children to develop a sense of competence and autonomy was discussed.

In the chapter which follows, a model for teaching these skills to future teachers will be presented.
The previous chapters have discussed why it is important to build positive self-concept in the young child and have presented four skills by which teachers can learn to do so. This chapter will proceed with an inquiry into the optimum method for helping future teachers acquire these skills. We will begin with a description of the two major approaches to teacher training, for it was by combining the strength of each that the teaching model for this dissertation was developed. The first approach holds that the characteristics which distinguish good teachers from poor ones are the feelings, attitudes, and perceptions underlying the teacher's behavior. The proponents of this view further believe that the good teacher is characterized by the general ability to "use his self effectively" (Combs, 1964, p. 373), and that "teacher education is to be concerned with changing student perceptions" (Combs, 1965, p. 19). The second approach holds that specific behaviors distinguish the good teacher from the poor one, and that these behaviors can be isolated and taught to future teachers. (Ellena, Stevenson and Webb, 1961; Ryans, 1960; Cage, 1963).

Educators advocating the first approach see the teacher as a member of a helping profession and base their beliefs on research findings about the nature of the helping relationship. Researchers in this area argue that "the attempt to describe the helping
professions on the basis of common behaviors [of superior helpers] can at best provide us with little more than low statistical relationship" (Combs and Soper, 1969, p. 11). They concluded that it is not common observable skills which distinguish good teachers from poor ones, but common attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions combined with a general ability of the teacher "to use his self effectively" (Combs, 1964, p. 373). They argue with perceptual psychologists that "a person's behavior is a direct result of his perceptions" (p. 373). Their effort has therefore become that of asking what kinds of beliefs and perceptions about self, others and their profession good teachers have and then developing these perceptions and attitudes in young teachers.

When applied to this study, this view, which focuses on attitude and perception, would argue that rather than merely teach the skills designed to build the child's positive self-concept, the teacher should be helped to perceive the child and her/his needs in such a manner that behaviors enhancing the child's self-esteem would follow. For example, rather than training the future teacher in the skill of carefully listening, the future teacher would be helped to perceive the child as a unique human being, developing in an individual manner which is worthy of, and requires, an attitude of respect and personal attention. The necessity of this focus on the attitudes and perceptions which underlie behavior
is exemplified by a finding of Carl Rogers and non-directive therapists. Rogers is convinced that the ability to behave in an empathic manner, to nod, look directly at the speaker, and paraphrase the speaker's words, is not therapeutically effective unless the therapist genuinely feels empathic toward that speaker, unless (s)he focuses on and tries to understand the "intent" behind the speaker's words (Rogers, 1951, p. 349-350).

On the other hand, social scientists have completed important studies which indicate that change in behavior precedes change in attitude (Ben, 1970, p. 54). This would imply that teacher trainers should concentrate their efforts on defining the behaviors of superior teachers and train future teachers in the specific behaviors or competencies we wish them to practice with children. Festinger's cognitive dissonance theory and his experiments provide strong defense for this second position. The theory hypothesizes that

if an individual is induced to engage in behavior that is inconsistent with his beliefs and attitudes, he will experience the discomfort of "cognitive dissonance," which will motivate him to seek resolution of that inconsistency. One way he can complete this resolution is to convince himself that he actually believes in what he has done, that he actually holds the beliefs and attitudes implied in his behavior. (Ben, 1970, p. 55).

Many experimental verifications of this hypothesis have been completed. The best known of these is Cohen's study of students at Yale University. Four groups of students were asked to write
papers defending a position they were known to oppose. That is, these students were asked to behave in ways which were known to be contrary to their attitudes and beliefs. The members of the first group were paid ten dollars for their essays, the members of the second group were paid five dollars for their essays, the members of the third group were paid one dollar, and the members of the fourth and last group were paid just fifty cents. The attitude of each participant was re-evaluated after writing the essay. The results of the study showed that the attitudes of the members of the group paid the least changed the most. That is, they came to believe what they had written. The explanation for this was as follows: when a person is paid well for behaving in a manner inconsistent with her/his beliefs, that person can justify the behavior by the payment and suffers little dissonance. When, however, the person has no such excuse, (s)he suffers greatly from the pressure of dissonance or inconsistency until attitudes are changed to make them consistent with behavior. In short, these experiments verify the hypothesis that changing behavior leads to changing attitudes. (Festinger, 1957; Brehm & Cohen, 1962)

When the view supporting perception and attitude change and the view supporting behavior change are considered together, each appears to have great merit. Thus, it seems important that they should be combined. For although the insistence on the actual
performance of certain behaviors is recognized as very important, teacher training is not sufficient if it merely produces mechanical behaviors which have been learned. Nor is it sufficient if it merely encourages the development of certain desired attitudes in teachers, for often such teachers cannot practice concretely what they preach. Therefore, a teaching model which combines the two approaches has been designed and used in this study. The design of the model is founded on the belief about learning that "any information will affect a person's behavior only in the degree which he has discovered its personal meaning for him" (Combs, Avila, Purkey, 1972, p. 91). That is, this is a model which presents the future teacher with specific competencies to be learned but which only does so after engaging the student in a process by which (s)he will see the positive meaning of that behavior in her/his own life, thus developing a positive attitude toward the skill before practicing it. The model follows:

Step One

Procedure: Each student's awareness of the skill to be taught later in the meeting will be evaluated. This will be done by asking each student to respond in writing to a question which asks that student to imagine her/himself as a teacher responding to a child in a given situation or for a specific purpose. For
example, to evaluate the student's awareness of the third skill, (s)he will be asked to note how teachers could help children focus on their strengths and successes and what those strengths and successes could be.

**Rationale:** This procedure provides information about each student's awareness of the skill before it is taught. The information can then be used as a point of comparison with information gathered after the student has been taught the skill and has practiced it. Because of the limitations of time and space, observations of each student's actual ability to practice the skill with children before and after the skill's being taught was impossible. Therefore, the pre- and post-teaching evaluation questions asked the students to imagine themselves in a situation with a child and to write out how they would respond to the child in that situation.

**Step Two**

**Procedure:** The new skill is considered in light of each student's own personal experience of it. This is done by attempting to evoke each student's memories of the effect of the practice or lack of practice of the
skill by her/his own elementary school teachers. For example, when beginning to consider the skill of recognizing and focusing on a child's strengths and successes, the students are asked to try to remember how those who taught them focused their attention. The students will try to recall whether their teachers noted only shortcomings and failings or successes and strengths. Then the students will be asked to try to remember how they felt about their teachers' behavior.

Rationale: Combs points out that "learning which makes a difference and which produces change in behavior calls for . . . the discovery of the relationship of events to the self, for truly effective learning is always a deeply personal matter" (Combs, Avila and Purkey, 1972, p. 91). Thus, one should be helped to feel the personal effect or meaning of the skills to be taught. Once one comes to feel strongly about the value and effect of these behaviors, one is more likely to develop a positive attitude toward them and a commitment to practicing them with others. This step is an attempt to help each student feel the meaning the skill had in her/his life.
Step Three

Procedure: Students will be asked to share with each other their memories of how the practice or lack of practice of the skill by their teachers made them feel as youngsters.

Rationale: It is important for each student to realize the impact of the skill on others since the impact may have been very different for each member of the group. It is important for each student reporting these feelings to get a sense of group support, especially if the memory is a painful one. Finally, it is important for the members of the group to realize that they are not alone in what they experienced, that others have felt similar to the way they do.

Step Four

Procedure: The new skill is explicitly stated and is presented in light of the child's needs. The group leader presents brief arguments for why the skill will positively affect the child's self-concept. (See reports of group meetings pp. 56-66 for explicit presentations).

Rationale: Once the students have re-experienced the effect of the practice (or lack of practice) of the skill in their lives and have therefore begun to see its
importance and started to develop a positive attitude toward it, they can begin to understand the importance of the skill in the lives of others, specifically in the lives of the children with whom they will be working. This is essential preparation if they are to commit themselves to learning how they can practice the skill.

Step Five

Procedure: Students will be asked for any questions, thoughts, or opinions they have about the skill or about its rationale.

Rationale: It is important that the students feel free to clarify any points of which they are unsure, that they feel free to question any arguments for the skill, and feel free to add any points of their own. This is helpful in making the skill a part of them, rather than something imposed by their group leader.

Step Six

Procedure: Students will be asked to practice the skill with young children in the coming week. They will be given a form to guide and record their practice.

Rationale: Developing a positive attitude toward the skill and understanding its effects on one's self and
Step Seven

Procedure: At the meeting a week after the last each student will share how (s)he practiced the skill and specifically what happened during this practice.

Rationale: Students will benefit from hearing many different ways in which the skill can be and was practiced rather than just knowing their own personal way of practicing it. Second, they will benefit from hearing the way different children reacted to the skill's being practiced. Third, they will benefit from the opportunity of having their efforts listened to, appreciated and responded to by their peers.

Step Eight

Procedure: The group leader will summarize what seem to have been the effects of practicing the skill and what seems to have been learned by the group.

Rationale: Learning is facilitated by summation and reinforcement.

Step Nine

Procedure: An informal paper-and-pencil post-teaching evaluation
question will be responded to by each group member.

Rationale: This response will provide a point of comparison of each student's awareness of the skill with the response given before the skill was taught and practiced.

In this study the teaching model just outlined was used in teaching each of the four skills discussed in Chapter Two. The skills were taught in two pilot studies. They were then taught in the study reported here. What follows is a record of how each of the skills was taught to teachers in training at Goddard College in Plainfield, Vermont. Each of the ten participating students was an undergraduate in the liberal arts program and was working two days a week as a aide in a local, rural Vermont public school. It was with the children from these elementary classrooms that the students practiced the skills. The study took the form of an eight-week course (one half of a trimester). The course was not required and no grades were given. At the end of the period students were required to write a course evaluation in which they assessed their learning. This was in keeping with the general requirements of the college. The author's role in the study was that of group leader. In her function as leader she shared her own memories and experiences. Each group meeting lasted about an hour and a half. What follows is a report of the contents of each group meeting. This report is derived from procedural notes prepared for and used during each session and notes taken after each session was over.
Group Meeting One

The purposes of the first meeting were: (1) to present a rationale for the work to be done over the eight-week period, (2) to state clearly the expectations for the course, and (3) to teach the first skill.

First, the contents of the first chapter of this dissertation were briefly summarized. Then students were told that they would be expected to work at becoming a coherent group, including attending class regularly and sharing in the group process. Students were, however, told that their privacy would always be respected, that the decision about what to tell the group about their experiences would always be theirs. Finally, students were informed that they would be expected to complete the paper work required for the course. They were told that this would include a weekly pre-teaching evaluation question, a practice sheet, and post-teaching evaluation. It was added that the responses to the evaluation question would be used to assess the effectiveness of the teaching model and not their individual performance.

When these introductory remarks were completed, each student was asked to respond to the first pre-teaching evaluation question. It read:

What do you think are the essential qualities which make a child feel that someone cares about him?*

*See Appendix A for one student’s responses to the pre- and post-teaching evaluation questions.
When these sheets were completed and handed in, each student was asked to find a quiet, comfortable place on the floor, to relax and try to put aside any pre-occupying thoughts. Using a common method of guiding relaxation, each person was asked to try to let go of the tensions (s)he was holding in feet, legs, hips, back, neck, arms, forehead, behind the eyes, etc. When the students seemed to have achieved a fairly restful state, they were asked to take a few minutes and think about the people in their lives who they knew had really cared about them. After a few minutes they were asked to think about the qualities of those people that made them feel certain of that caring, what these people did to make them know. The students were then asked to share with the group the memories they had just experienced.

With this personal experience as a background, the group leader presented the first skill, that of careful listening. She noted that listening is a common denominator of many ways of demonstrating care, a way of showing respect, and a way of getting to know someone as that person presents her/himself. She then discussed the concept of the significant other, showing how this figure is first the parent and then the young child's teacher. Next the group leader described carefully how the child's self-concept is derived directly from the concept, view or evaluation significant others express. The following summary was then
presented: (1) careful listening demonstrates caring, (2) caring of a significant other helps the child feel that (s)he is a full human being, worthy of respect, and (3) the teacher, as a significant other, has the power to build the child's positive self-concept through careful listening.

Following a period of questions and discussion, the practice sheet for the skill was distributed. On this sheet each student was asked to listen carefully to a child for at least fifteen minutes and then record this information: (1) how the skill was practiced, (2) what feelings this experience elicited, (3) what happened and what was learned, realized or brought to awareness. Finally as a reminder of the skill, the student was asked to answer the following rhetorical question: "Do you feel that listening to a child is essential to his sensing you care about him?"

Group Meeting Two

The group leader began this meeting by asking the students to recount to each other how they had practiced listening carefully to a child. The students were also asked to describe what they felt they had learned, realized or become aware of from the listening experience. Before the students began this procedure, they were told the rationale behind it. All members of the group volunteered to tell about their experience although they were reminded that they should feel no pressure to do so.
Following this sharing period, the group leader asked each student to work on the pre-teaching evaluation question for the second skill. The question read:

How would you respond to a child who said each of these things:

(1) "Arithmetic is too hard. I'm too dumb to understand it."
(2) "Why do I have to stay after school? I wasn't the only one talking. Everyone was."

The papers were completed individually and handed in. See Appendix A for one student's responses.

The students were then asked to relax, and when they had, they were asked to try to remember a time when someone they cared deeply about had shown understanding for their feelings. They were also asked to recall a time when someone they cared about had denied their feelings, misunderstood them, or given them the impression they were wrong to feel as they did. These memories were then shared.

Once these experiences had been discussed, the group leader presented the second skill. She said that behind a person's words or unspoken, non-verbal communications are often deep feelings which are difficult to express adequately. She stated that it is very important that the people who are significant to the child listen at the deeper level, that they try hard to understand the feelings the child is experiencing, and that they communicate to the child that they understand or want to understand. The leader pointed out that the effect of this empathy is the creation of a link between
the listener and the child and that this is a profound validation of the child. Finally, she mentioned that the instinctive response of most people to a child expressing deep feelings (especially painful feelings, negative feelings, or a problem) is to try to provide the child with a solution rather than help the child find a solution. This, however, was shown to be a denial of the child's own power and a covert statement that the child is not adequate to the situation.

After this material was discussed, each person was asked to practice the skill of listening for the feelings underneath a child's words or behavior during the coming week. The students were asked to respond to the child by reflecting her/his feelings or by showing they were trying to understand. The practice sheet to be completed during the week asked the students to record: (1) what the child said or did, and (2) what the student thought the child might be feeling.

It should be noted that no post-teaching evaluation question for the first skill was given at the beginning of this session. The questions on the practice sheet for that skill were a self-evaluation.

Group Meeting Three

Since the organization of the class time and the paper work in it was getting complicated, the group leader opened the session
with a presentation of the general pattern each class period would follow. That is, she presented the teaching model described earlier to the students. The class then proceeded as usual, with the students sharing how they had practiced the week's skill with children.

When this sharing period was over, the following post-teaching evaluation question was handed out and completed by each student:

How would you respond to a child who says:
(1) "Yesterday Mommy got angry when she saw my spelling test. I really did try."
(2) "This science is too hard. I'm too dumb to understand it."
(3) "Look teacher, I made this horse out of clay. Is it a good horse?"

Then the pre-teaching evaluation question for skill three, recognizing and focusing on a child's strengths and successes, was distributed. It asked each student to:

List all the ways which you can think of that teachers you had (or teachers you have seen) did or could have helped you and other kids focus on their strengths and successes.

When the students had finished their lists, they were collected. See Appendix A for one student's response to these questions.

After a brief review of the two skills already worked on by the group, the students were once again asked to find a comfortable place in the room and to relax as fully as possible. Then they were asked to picture in their minds an elementary
school classroom in which they felt good as a child. They were asked to do this very specifically, trying to recall the color of the walls, the placement of the windows, the order of the desks. Then they were asked to picture the desk of the teacher and to try to picture that teacher. Not only were they asked to picture her/his clothes, size and shape, but also the expression and attitude toward the children that teacher typically conveyed. The students were then told that this classroom was probably one in which they felt successful, one in which the teacher recognized their strengths and individual worth. And so they were asked to think back to a specific time when they were feeling particularly good, successful and/or proud, and they were asked to recall what it was that made them feel that way. Then they were asked to remember how they felt and to try to re-experience some of those feelings in the present. After a few minutes the students were asked to change gears, to picture a teacher who had made them feel unsuccessful, stupid, bad, or hurt. Again, they were asked to picture that person specifically, remember an incident and re-experience the feeling that teacher had evoked.

When the memories of each volunteering member of the group had been shared, the new skill was presented. The group leader made the following points: (1) that in our society people often take their strengths and the strengths of children and others for granted and focus instead on their failures and shortcomings; this
was exemplified by the way people show embarrassment when they are offered compliments and brush the compliments off, but when they are offered criticism, they embrace it; (2) that with children in the classroom we tend to focus on specific assignments and on the mistakes made in completing them; this was exemplified by the manner in which papers are assigned and then graded or marked; (3) that every child and every person has many areas of strength—physical, emotional, social, or intellectual, and that each teacher should become fluent in recognizing and focusing on them.

The group then made a list of the potential strengths a child might have. They were then asked to do the following during the coming week:

(1) spend some time with a child and describe the situation;
(2) try to focus on a strength, success, or skill of that child;
(3) report how they did this and what happened;
(4) think about other ways of focusing on strengths they might have tried.

Group Meeting Four

The meeting began with the students reporting how they had practiced the third skill with children during the week. The post-teaching evaluation question for this skill was then administered. It asked the students (1) to list the qualities they would consider strengths and/or success of a child, (2) to list the ways a teacher
might help a child see and appreciate her/his own strengths, and
(3) whether the student felt it was really important to recognize
and focus on a child's strengths and successes, and why (or why
not) that student felt this was so. Following this, the pre-
teaching evaluation question for the fourth skill was distributed.
It read:

One afternoon in your classroom during project time or
free time, Suzie spends about fifteen minutes wandering
around the room. When you come over to her and ask her
what she wants to do, she replies, "I want to learn about
animals."
The rest of your class is working well so you have
about ten minutes to spend with Suzie. How would you
use it? What might you ask? What might you do?

See Appendix A for one student's response to these questions.

It was then time for presentation and discussion of the
fourth skill, the teacher's helping the child set achievable goals
so that the child may experience success and a sense of autonomy.
In order to relate the skill to the students' own feelings and
experiences, the group leader began by tying it to a situation
which she guessed the students were themselves a part of in the
present. Students were told the following: (1) Too often we
each bite off more than we can chew, set broad goals for ourselves
which are not achievable. We expect too much from ourselves and
then feel overwhelmed. This point was exemplified by the times
when a student may set aside a study weekend. The student will
make a long list of back reading and assignments, and then will
accomplish only a small part of what (s)he has set out to do. The feeling which ensues is that of discouragement. (2) It was suggested that the students in the class might be feeling that way themselves, that they may have lists of all they should know before becoming teachers and feel overwhelmed by how much they have yet to learn, and critical of the way in which they had spent their time. (3) It was then suggested that one way to combat these feelings of self-criticism is to learn how to set realistic and achievable goals, to assess resources available and to plan study time carefully. If the goals are small enough, resources adequate, and time well-planned, success should be achieved and a sense of autonomy as well.

The leader then pointed out that the same self-esteem we feel about accomplishment and success is experienced by children. Often, however, when children are given free time, project time, or many assignments to do on their own, they experience failure because they are unable to reach their over-ambitious goals. When a child sets a goal like "I want to learn about animals," takes nine books from the library, and reads one and a half, it is no wonder that the child feels unsatisfied and her/his self-esteem is diminished.

The leader then discussed the process developed for helping children set reasonable goals and move toward accomplishing them. This process was said to include (1) having the child write
specific questions (s)he wants to answer about the subject being studied, (2) having the child assess all the resources available, (3) having the child plan specific times during the week to work on the questions, and (4) having the child record in some ways her/his questions and the answers found for them. After the process was discussed and clarified the rationale for it was presented.

The students were then asked to use a practice sheet asking the following for themselves or with a child during the week to come: (1) specific questions I want to answer? (2) resources available? (3) times I plan to work?

At each of the four meetings the nine-step model described earlier in the chapter was used. That is, the practice from the week was shared, post- and pre-teaching evaluation questions completed, the new skill presented in light of the students' experience, the new skill with its rationale presented in light of a child's needs, and, finally, the sheet for practicing it distributed and discussed. The model seemed to have worked very well. At all meetings the students became very involved. They allowed themselves to be led to recall their personal experiences and feelings relating to the skills. They talked openly and with great feeling about these experiences and their personal meaning. They listened to and discussed with intensity how the skills might affect children and practiced the skills assigned each week. The only problem noted
was a shortage of time. An analysis of the specific responses to the pre- and post-teaching evaluation questions follows in Chapter Four.
CHAPTER IV
RESULTS

The model described in the previous chapter had two objectives: to help future teachers acquire four specific skills to build positive self-concept in children, and to help the future teachers develop positive attitudes toward the practicing of those skills. This chapter will assess whether those objectives have been reached.

The pre-teaching evaluation for skill one asked the students in the group to respond to the following question:

What do you think are the essential qualities which make a child feel that someone cares about him?

The aim of the question was to find out whether the students already considered careful listening an important way of demonstrating caring.

Nine of the ten students made two or more responses to this question. There were a total of twenty-six responses.* Four students stated explicitly (in a total of five responses) that listening to a child makes that child feel that someone cares. The other six students each made one or more responses implying that the act of listening demonstrates caring. There were a total of eleven such responses. The nine other responses (to make the

* Each student's responses are contained in Appendix B.
total of twenty-six) dealt with actions other than listening. Hence, the six students whose responses implied listening seemed to be at an excellent stage of readiness to make this skill explicit. The other four were ready to practice the skill of listening.

It would be helpful to look at examples of each sort of response. Four students showed explicit recognition of the importance of listening. One student said that "remembering his or her name and showing interest in his opinions" were ways of demonstrating caring. Another said that a child knows that someone cares if "the person is really listening to him when he speaks." A third said that caring is demonstrated by a person's "being genuinely interested in what the child says and does."

Of the students whose responses exemplified those implying listening, one student wrote that caring is shown when "someone wants to know why you feel a certain way--especially when you feel sad." This response implies that the person will act on her/his "wanting to know," that the child will be asked why (s)he feels sad, and that the child's response to that question will be listened to carefully. However, the student has not made these actions explicit. Another example of this sort of response comes from the student who said that "curiosity about a child's likes, dislikes, and interests" shows caring to the child. However, "curiosity" may be demonstrated non-verbally as well as verbally. It is, in fact, likely that in a classroom where resources are limited, the
teacher would ask the child what (s)he likes and would listen to the child's reply. The teacher would do this so that resources could be linked to the child's interest or simply in an effort to get to know the child. This verbal exchange is, however, only implied; it is not necessitated by the student's response.

There were also a number of responses which suggested ways of showing caring that did not involve listening. These are exemplified by the response of one student who wrote that a child would feel cared about if made to feel a "sense of belonging," or "if a person will do things for and with him . . .," and by student nine who pointed out that "being honest with a child shows caring." These responses were acknowledged by the group leader as good ways of demonstrating caring.

Students were asked to practice the skill during the week to come by spending fifteen minutes or more listening carefully to a child. They were asked to record the following: (1) how, specifically, they practiced listening; (2) how they feel or felt about the experience; (3) what happened; and (4) what they learned. Responses to (2) and (4) will be summarized here, because these responses were used as a self-evaluation instead of a formal post-teaching evaluation question.

The students mentioned quite a range of personal reactions. Of the eight students who responded, seven said explicitly that they felt good about the experience. This meant something different
for each student. One said that she felt that she had "made new friends," but added some scepticism about whether this can really happen so quickly. Another student mentioned that for her listening felt more or less natural, while another student felt something quite different. He noted that when he listened he felt uneasy and that he did not know what to say to the child in response. He said that although he felt this unsureness at the moment, in retrospect he felt good about his experience. Two students specified that it was awareness that the child to whom they each listened trusted them enough to discuss really deep feelings which made them feel good about their listening experience.

The period of listening led to different learning for different students. Students recorded the following in the column "I Learned": that "you have to listen to a child to understand him," "what an anxious and frightened child Sammy is," "how much there is to read in people's faces," that "sometimes it is important to set aside a given task in order to listen," that "negative behavior means that a person has a need to be filled," that "sometimes I can be sensitive to or for another person when whatever is happening may not even bother him," that "Alison likes having the individual attention of an adult," that "when a child has a difficult situation to adjust to he likes having someone to discuss his feelings with," that "children come to school with many heavy things on their minds like family illness and troubles which"
distract them from their work," that "some of the perceptions of a child are equal to or even superior to those of adults," that "from listening I understood his [the child's] fears and fantasies and how he deals with reality," and that "children often have assumptions and beliefs about how we will handle and relate to them."

Finally, all the students were asked the rhetorical question:

Do you think that listening to a child is essential to his sensing you care about him?

When reviewing this data we see that when responding to the pre-teaching evaluation questions, four of the ten students stated that they would listen to a child to demonstrate caring for her/him. Each of the six other group members made responses which implied the act of listening to show caring. These six students therefore seemed to be in a stage of readiness to make the skill conscious and a part of their repertoire of skills to practice, while the other four students could benefit from translating their awareness into action. In other words, it seemed all would benefit from practicing the listening skill. The sheets recording how each student practiced the skill and evaluated her/himself for so doing bore this out. Once the skill had been taught, every student recorded an experience in which it had been practiced. These reports showed that the students had gotten deeply involved in listening and that all students felt that they had learned
something from their experience. Each student also said that (s)he now felt that listening was an important way to show caring.

The pre- and post-teaching evaluations for skill two asked the students how they would respond to a number of situations. Each situation involved a child's expressing strong feelings. Since the response to the first situation was in each case typical of the student's response in each situation, only responses to the first situation will be analyzed. The pre-teaching evaluation question was:

How would you respond to a child who says: "Arithmetic is too hard. I'm too dumb to understand it."?

In the post-teaching evaluation the situation was the same, but the subject the child found difficult was science. All responses to these questions are contained in Appendix B.

The criteria for assessing positive changes between responses to the pre- and post-teaching evaluation questions were:

(1) towards avoidance of statements denying or avoiding the child's feelings or towards statements denying the child's feelings less strongly;

(2) towards statements involving the child in solving her/his own problems or statements less strongly reflecting an effort to solve the problem for the child;

(3) towards statements reflecting the child's feelings or expressing empathy with the child.

On the chart below the responses of each student are listed. The student received a "1" if (s)he did not deny or avoid the child's feelings (for example, did not say to the child, "You're not dumb").
or if (s)he denied the child's feelings less strongly in response to the post-teaching situation. The student received a "2" if (s)he involved the child in solving her/his own problem or if (s)he tried less strongly to solve the child's problem for her/him. The student received a "3" if (s)he made a response reflecting the child's feelings or expressing empathy with the child.

TABLE 1.--Responses to Pre- and Post-Teaching Evaluation Questions for Skill Two

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Pre-Teaching Responses</th>
<th>Post-Teaching Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student 1</td>
<td>1 3</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1 (2) 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 3</td>
<td></td>
<td>2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 4</td>
<td>1 3</td>
<td>1 (2) 3+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 6</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
<td>1 2 3+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 7</td>
<td></td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 8</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: 1 represents a response not denying the child's feelings
(1) represents denying them less strongly
2 represents involving the child in solving her/his own problem
(2) represents less strongly solving the problem for the child
3 represents a response reflecting the child's feelings or expressing empathy with the child
3+ represents a stronger empathic response
In analyzing these data, it is evident that five students made progress in acquiring the skill according to the first criterion. The criterion was that of not making statements which denied or avoided the child's feelings or making weaker denials of the child's feelings in the post-teaching evaluation situation. (Such a denial was exemplified by a student who said, "No, it is not too hard.") Three students made responses to the pre-teaching evaluation question which did not avoid or deny the child's feelings. On the post-teaching evaluation question eight students either refrained from denying the child's feelings or denied those feelings less strongly.

The second criterion for progress was movement toward involving the child in solving her/his own problem or toward trying less strongly to solve the problem for the child. In responding to the pre-teaching evaluation question, only two of the ten students in the group made statements which reflected they were trying to involve the child in solving her/his own problem. Most students' responses were exemplified by the student who suggested to the child that (s)he move to working on another problem. In responding to the post-teaching evaluation question seven students met this second criterion. Their responses were exemplified by the student who asked the child what (s)he thought (s)he should now do to try to solve the problem. Thus, by this criterion, five students made progress toward acquiring the second skill.

The third criterion was that the student moved toward making
empathic responses to the child, saying, for example, "I know how you feel." In responding to the pre-teaching evaluation question six students made empathic statements. On the post-teaching evaluation seven students made such statements, two of them being students who responded more strongly than they had before.

Of the three criteria it seems that most students were able to learn the importance of not denying the child's feelings. This is probably accounted for by the fact that earlier in the meeting they had been asked to recall a situation in which someone had told them they shouldn't feel as they did, and they had re-experienced the discomfort of this situation. In Combs' terms, not denying someone's feelings had acquired personal meaning for them so they perceived the criterion as important. When responding to the post-teaching evaluation question eight students met this criterion.

In their post-teaching responses seven students met the second criterion for acquiring the skill, that of involving the child in solving her/his own problem. Only two students had met it before the skill was taught. It seems that the students had grasped the importance of the criterion from the group leader's presentation. Seven students also met the third criterion, that of responding empathically. This was the smallest gain because six students had responded empathically in the pre-teaching situation.

In reviewing all the data it becomes clear that three
students made very little or no gain by any of the three criteria while the seven other students made progress and, in fact, met all criteria in their responses to the post-teaching evaluation question. For one of the first three students there is specific information by which to understand the lack of progress. Student five was under severe emotional strain and was also not feeling physically well. For student ten's lack of progress there is another more general explanation. He was very involved in the study of Eastern philosophy and meditation and seemed more concerned with appreciating the beauty of children and learning from them than in performing specific tasks and acquiring specific competencies.

On the pre-teaching evaluation question for the third skill, that of recognizing and focusing on the child's strengths and successes, students were asked to complete a sheet asking the following:

What strengths did your teachers (or could your teachers) focus on for you and your classmates?

The aim of the question was to see how many strengths each student could name, since recognizing a child's strengths builds that child's self-concept. On the post-teaching question the students were asked:

What qualities would you consider strengths or successes?

The pre-teaching question was worded in personal terms because it
was thought that this would make it easier for the students to get in touch with specific strengths. This wording may, however, have limited the students' thoughts unintentionally. All responses to the questions are in Appendix B.

On this skill it is not the nature of the student's responses but the number of them which is the criterion for change. Therefore, a numerical analysis of the student's responses to the first question on the pre-teaching evaluation and the post-teaching evaluation will follow.

**TABLE 2.**--Number of Individual Responses to the First Question of the Pre- and Post-Teaching Evaluation for Skill Three

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pre-Teaching Evaluation</th>
<th>Post-Teaching Evaluation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student 1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>absent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 5</td>
<td>absent</td>
<td>absent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is clear that all students but one, student 2, increased the number of potential strengths in a child of which (s)he was aware.
The second question of the pre-teaching evaluation read:

List all the ways you can think of that a teacher you had, knew of, or can imagine could have helped you or the other kids focus on their strengths and successes.

The post-teaching evaluation question read:

How many ways can you think of that a teacher might help a child see and appreciate her/his strengths?

The aim of these questions was to see how many ways a student saw to focus on a child's strengths and thereby communicate her/his recognition of these strengths to the child. An increase in the number of responses was the criterion for progress on this skill.

| TABLE 3.—Number of Individual Responses to the Second Question on the Pre- and Post-Teaching Evaluation for Skill Three |
|---|---|---|
| | Number of Responses | Pre-Teaching Evaluation | Post-Teaching Evaluation |
| | | | |
| Student 1 | 4 | 5 |
| Student 2 | 4 | 5 |
| Student 3 | absent | absent |
| Student 4 | 4 | 5 |
| Student 5 | absent | absent |
| Student 6 | 1 | 2 |
| Student 7 | 2 | 4 |
| Student 8 | 1 | 4 |
| Student 9 | 3 | 4 |
| Student 10 | 2 | 2 |
Again, all but one student increased her/his number of responses showing improvement on the ability to perform this skill. The changes in number of responses on this second criterion were not, however, as large as the changes on the first criterion. This is probably accounted for by the fact that during the group session the discussion centered very much on the kinds of qualities a teacher could focus on in her/his pupils rather than on the ways a teacher could focus on them. It is also easier to name many qualities than it is to come up with specific ways to recognize and focus on them.

The pre-teaching evaluation question for skill four, that of helping children set realistic goals so they will be able to create for themselves a sense of success and a sense of autonomy, involved the student's responding to the following:

One afternoon in your classroom during project time or free time, Suzie spends about fifteen minutes wandering around the room. When you come over and ask her what she wants to do, she replies, "I want to learn about animals."

The rest of your class is working well, so you have about ten minutes to spend with Suzie. How would you use it? (What might you ask? What might you do?)

The post-teaching evaluation question asked the same except the name "David" replaced "Suzie" and the subject he wanted to learn about was "skidoos." Again, all responses are found in Appendix B.

The responses were scored on the following basis: did the student (1) help the child make her/his goals specific rather than broad and general? (2) help the child think about various resources
(s)he might use in seeking answers to the specific questions posed? (3) help the child set aside specific times to work on her/his inquiries? (4) ask the child to think of a way of tying up her/his learning and share or demonstrate it?

Table 4 shows which of the behaviors each student used in response to the pre-teaching evaluation situation and which (s)he used in responding to the post-teaching evaluation situation.

TABLE 4. -- Criteria Used by Each Student in Response to Pre- and Post-Teaching Evaluation Situation for Skill Four

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Criteria Used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-Teaching Evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 1</td>
<td>1 (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 2</td>
<td>1 (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 3</td>
<td>absent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 4</td>
<td>(1) (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 5</td>
<td>absent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 6</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 7</td>
<td>1 2 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 9</td>
<td>1 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 10</td>
<td>(1) (2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: 1 represents helping the child make goals specific rather than general
2 represents helping the child seek many resources
3 represents helping the child set aside specific times to work on inquiries
4 represents helping the child find a way to tie up or demonstrate learning
The numbers in ( ) indicate responses which implied the use of the behavior but did not demonstrate it specifically.
In four cases, a student's absence from class made observation of changes in her/his ability to perform the skill impossible to assess. Student 5 was absent because of emotional and physical problems, student 3 because of conflicting commitments to student government. However, of the six remaining students, five showed considerable change in ability to perform the skill. One student did not show gain.

The first criterion was whether the student helped the child make her/his goals specific. In their pre-teaching responses only two of the six students clearly helped the child accomplish this goal, though three other students did ask questions which narrowed the field slightly. In their post-teaching responses all six students met this criterion.

The second criterion was whether the student helped the child gather resources to help in seeking answers to her/his questions. On the pre-teaching evaluation question only two students clearly asked the child to seek resources, while three suggested some resources for the child. On the post-teaching evaluation question two students suggested resources while four clearly helped the child do this for her/himself. Thus, on the post-teaching question all students met this criteria in some way.

The third criterion was whether the student helped the child set aside specific time blocks to pursue her/his question.
On the pre-teaching question no student helped the child to do this. On the post-teaching question two students did.

The fourth criterion was whether the student helped the child plan some way of demonstrating what had been learned. In responding to the pre-teaching question no student asked the child to do this. In responding to the post-teaching question one student did.

Reviewing the data for skill four, all the students seem to have been able to practice the first two criteria: helping the child make her/his goals specific and helping the child seek many sources of information. Few students, however, were able to help children set aside time to work toward their goals or to decide on a way to demonstrate their learning. This is probably due to the constraints of the classrooms in which they were working, for although the students had the opportunity to talk with the children individually (enabling them to meet the first two criteria), they were not able to free the children's time so that they could work on their questions and on ways of presenting what they had learned.

Reviewing the data for all four skills and looking back over the eight week period, it seems that the students experienced and accomplished a great deal. As noted at the end of Chapter Three, they allowed themselves to be led to recall their personal experiences and feelings relating to their own teachers' having
(or not having) practiced these skills and in so doing discovered or re-discovered the personal meaning of the skills. They listened to and discussed what effect the practicing of the skills might have on children, and conscientiously practiced the skill each week. They participated in a sometimes time consuming evaluation of their ability to apply the skills in simulated written situations. In general their evaluation responses, just specifically analyzed in this chapter, show that their ability to practice the skills in these situations increased over the eight-week period.

Before going on to a discussion of the students' evaluations of the course, the author would like to add a few words of appreciation. The students were, with rare exception, thoughtful, hard-working, and responsive. They were sensitive and committed.

In examining all the students' own evaluations of the course,* five themes emerge. First, a number of students voiced the feeling that the course had touched them personally, that they had learned about themselves and/or had re-experienced deep feelings about how people had affected them in their past. It was hoped that this would be achieved, for it was considered that discovering the personal meaning of the skills was an important step towards recognizing the importance of the skills (see Step Two of the Teaching Model). Second, most of the students said that the course had helped them develop sensitivity to children's feelings

*p These evaluations are contained in Appendix C.
and awareness of their needs. This attitude is the prerequisite for practicing the skills in a meaningful rather than mechanical way.

The third theme in the evaluations dealt with the recognition that the course was just a beginning, that it was, as one student wrote, "a very important seed... -- one that will take a long time to develop." Many of the students realized this and wrote of their desire or commitment to keep growing that seed. A fourth theme was the wish that the course had been longer. However, only two students expressed this. Hopefully, most students were confident that they would and could continue the work on their own. Finally, a number of students stated a commitment to the basic idea, as one did quite beautifully, that "a person's self-concept is essential to his ability to be a live... person, and that to feel good about one's self, environs and life is essential to positive learning." Some students ended with a few words of thanks.
CHAPTER V
PRACTICING THE FOUR SELF-CONCEPT BUILDING SKILLS
IN DIFFERENT CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENTS

In the preceding chapter it has been demonstrated that the four skills designed to build positive self-concept in young children can be taught to future teachers using the suggested model. This chapter will consider which of four classroom environments would be most conducive to a teacher's practicing these skills daily and, thus, to the slow and constant building of children's self-esteem. From several ways of classifying classroom environments, the system to be utilized here was designed by Bussis and Chittendon (in Langley, George and Rudman, 1971, p. 3). Their system provides a very useful way of beginning to look at and distinguish between four environments, namely the traditional, the integrated day or open classroom, the programmed, and the free school or laissez-faire. After describing each of these according to Bussis and Chittendon's criteria, this chapter will consider other salient characteristics of each environment and how far it lends itself to practicing skills to build self-esteem.

When Bussis and Chittendon look at a classroom situation, they focus on two variables. The first variable is the extent to
which the teacher actively "contributes" to the class—that is, whether the teacher is an active participant in scheduling, in decision making, in providing materials and methods for learning, or a relatively low contributor in the classroom. The second variable concerns the level of contribution made by the children. Are the children low contributors or are they quite active contributors?

When all the possible pairs of these two variables are formed, four types of classroom emerge. When the teacher's contribution is high, and the child's contribution is low, this is labeled the traditional classroom situation. It is generally described as a place where "children have little to say about what they will do" (Langley, George, Rudman, 1971, p. 3). When both the teacher's and the child's contribution level are high, this is the open or integrated day situation in which both teacher and child are active and responsible for learning. When the contribution of both student and teacher is low, where experts outside the classroom have decided the curriculum and material, where the teacher is "a passive conveyor of decisions made elsewhere, and where the children have little freedom or chance to express themselves" (p. 3), this is the programmed situation. When the environment is one in which the child's contribution is high but that of the teacher is low, this is the laisser-faire or free school
classroom in which "the adults play a very supportive but entirely non-directive role, the children having great freedom which occasionally erupts into chaos" (p. 3).

Bussis and Chittendon's diagram of four classroom environments looks like this:

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TABLE 5.--Bussis and Chittendon's Classification of Classroom Environments according to Level of Child and Teacher Contribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Child's Contribution</th>
<th>Teacher's Contribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>high</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laissez-Faire</td>
<td>Programmed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or Free School</td>
<td>or &quot;By the Book&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open or Integrated Day</td>
<td>Traditional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>low</td>
<td>low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adapted</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Pussis and Chittendon, in Langley, George and Rudman, 1971, p. 3.)

It should be noted that the quadrants distinguish between each type of classroom only according to these two general variables. However, within each quadrant there are a myriad of possible combinations of the two. No classrooms of the same general type would be exactly alike, though they fall within the same quadrant. Nor would one classroom look exactly the same from day to day. The level and nature of the teacher's and children's contribution would vary somewhat.
A great deal has been written about each of these four types of classroom. From the literature we can describe more fully those general characteristics which distinguish traditional, open, programmed, and laissez-faire classrooms from each other. Having looked at the distinguishing characteristics of each, we can look at the extent to which each is conducive to the teacher's practicing the self-concept building skills.

In the case of traditional and open classes such general descriptions from the literature are supplemented by careful studies. Wallberg and Thomas (T.D.R. Report, May 1971) have carefully isolated the distinguishing characteristics of traditional and open classrooms. Using a rating scale they constructed,* Evans (in a field study involving observation of sixty-two British and American classrooms), proved that these characteristics do in fact distinguish between the open and traditional environments. Thus in the case of these two types of classroom we will describe each item on their rating scale which has been shown to distinguish the traditional or open setting and then look at whether or not it is conducive to the practicing of the self-concept building skills. Having made this examination of traditional and open classrooms, we will conclude with the more general examination of programmed and laissez-faire settings, and how their characteristics are conducive to the self-concept building skills.

* See Appendix D
In her general summary of the distinguishing characteristics of traditional classrooms, Ms. Evans writes:

The traditional teachers were much more in control of the learning environment with regard to organizing the children's use of time, materials, space and curriculum. They expected children not to talk while working, nor to move around without asking permission. The physical environment was uniformly arranged so that the children could conveniently see the blackboard... The teacher stressed keeping all children in his sight so he could make sure they were doing what they were supposed to. In general the children were supposed to use standardized curriculum materials, and the teacher gave academic achievement top priority. (Evans, 1971, p. 24.)

When Evans used the T.D.R. observational rating scale in her study of sixty-two British and American classrooms, she found that a number of the items describing the above-mentioned and other observable characteristics were more often found in traditional than open classrooms. We will now look at these specific distinguishing characteristics and discuss whether they are conducive to a teacher's practicing the self-concept building skills.

The study found that in traditional classrooms "texts and materials are supplied in class sets so that each child can have one of his own" (Item #1). This brings to mind a whole class of children reading on the same page of the same text, at the same time, at the same imposed rate, and, obviously, about the same topic. This contradicts the practice of skill four where children are encouraged and helped to define their own questions, seek varied resources, and pace their own learning. The item further
implies that the teacher had not listened carefully to the children and perceived their individual needs and/or interests. Since each child is doing the same things, it is also not likely that the teacher is recognizing and utilizing the unique strengths and skills of the individual children in her/his room (skill three).

Other distinctive characteristics of traditional classrooms are that "children are expected to do their own work without help from other children and without talking" (items 5 and 17). This means that the children are kept from developing such social strengths as helping, sharing, and cooperating and that the teacher is not practicing skill three very fully. Furthermore, in traditional classrooms, the child's development of autonomy is often very limited. "Children are not supposed to move around the room without permission" (item 10), they are not supposed to "use materials in ways not instructed" (item 21), and indeed, "materials are kept out of the way until they are distributed or used under a teacher's direction" (item 3). It was also found that in traditional classrooms "the teacher plans and schedules the children's activities" (item 20). The central position of the teacher is underscored in item 11 which found that "desks are arranged so that everyone could see the teacher from his desk." Clearly the child is supposed to respond to the teacher rather than the teacher's having the primary responsibility of responding to the child (skills one and two),
building a curriculum around the child's abilities (skill three) and her/his interests (skill four).

Finally, in the traditional American classroom "academic achievement is the top priority for children" (item 49). In all likelihood this means that teachers do not concern themselves very much with each child's deep feelings (skill two), with the myriad of her/his strengths and successes in other domains (skill three), or with the child's ability to organize and carry out her/his learning successfully (skill four). Furthermore, in these classrooms teachers use "test results to group children for reading and/or math" (item 26) and "to evaluate children and rate them in comparison with their peers" (item 43), not to find out each child's strengths (skill three) and problems in which the child has interest or a need to gain information (skill four).

There is one distinguishing characteristic of the traditional classrooms studied which seems to have real potential for practicing the self-concept building skills. This is the characteristic described in item 38 which reads, "the teacher takes care of dealing with conflicts and disruptive behavior without involving the group." It would, of course, depend very much on how an individual teacher handled the problem, but it would seem that this individual attention might well be conducive to the teacher's practicing skills one and two.
The general characteristics of the open classrooms were found to be quite different from those of traditional ones. The Evans study summarizes them as follows:

The open classroom teachers by contrast allowed the children more freedom in use of time, choice of activities and ways of working. . . . The teacher concentrated his time with the children in providing intense diagnostic help rather than giving whole group instruction. Children were encouraged to use other areas of the building. . . . The children seemed deeply involved in what they were doing.  
(Evans, 1971, p. 25.)

An open classroom is typically a place where children are very involved with doing, in activities which come naturally from their interests and choices within a carefully planned environment. The children learn the basic skills in the course of doing projects which involve and integrate many disciplines. For example, a child learning about trucks may be writing, spelling, and reading about them, learning about volume and speed, road-building, map-reading, or any one of a myriad of disciplines. The teacher's role in this environment is that of diagnostician and planner; (s) he may assess the individual child's needs and plan with that child projects which will serve her/his needs and lead to growth. And, as previously mentioned, the teacher helps or takes initiative in planning the environment, providing and arranging materials and resources which will stimulate the child's desire to inquire and learn. In fact, the teacher's job is, in large part, to help the children learn how to learn.
More specifically, one of the key distinguishing characteristics of more open classrooms is the fact that "many different activities go on simultaneously" (item four). This implies that the teacher has listened carefully to the needs of the children in the group, to their interests, likes, dislikes, strengths, and needs (skills one, three, and four) and that (s)he has planned, or helped plan, activities which are responsive to them. Moreover, because "the day is divided into larger blocks of time within which children, with the teacher's help, determine their own routine" (item 7), the teacher clearly is allowing the autonomy of the children to develop (skill four).

There are also characteristics of the provisioning of an open classroom which distinguish it from more traditional settings. In an open classroom "manipulative materials are supplied in great diversity and range with little replication" (item 6), implying that for some children these materials and not books are the route to successful learning (skill three) and that different children learn through different resources (skill four). Books are available and supplied in diversity and profusion, again reflecting the awareness of different interests and learning styles for different children (skills one and four).

Children in open classrooms "work individually and in small groups at various activities" (item 8). This reflects a teacher's
concern with the development and strengthening of social as well as academic skills (skill three). The children also are free to group and re-group themselves (item 18), reflecting again the teacher's respect for their social needs and need for autonomy (skill four) as does the fact that (s)he allows them to use other areas of the school building as learning resources (item 4).

In open classrooms children are more likely to use "materials developed or supplied by children" (item 19), and it is not unusual to see children using "'books' written by their classmates as part of their reference and reading materials" (item 16). The teacher's encouragement of the use of these child-made or supplied materials is a concrete way of recognizing the children's ability to seek out the resources necessary for their learning (skill four) and to share them (skill three). Furthermore, the fact that the teachers in open classrooms are more likely to leave "materials readily accessible to children" (item 24), and "to allow the children to work directly with manipulative materials" again reflects the teacher's faith in the children's ability to use resources wisely and constructively (skill four). Nevertheless, the children are helped to grow in independence and autonomy (skill four) and are thus helped to build meaningful and successful experiences, for the "teacher promotes a purposeful atmosphere by expecting and enabling children to use time productively and to value their work and learning" (item 25).
The teacher's manner of working with each child in an open classroom necessitates her/his watching and listening carefully. The teacher is described as basing her/his instruction "on each individual child and his interaction with materials and equipment" (item 28) and as obtaining "diagnostic information not by standardized tests but by observing specific work or the concerns of the child" (item 33). In general, the emotional climate is described as warm and accepting, reflecting the teacher's caring (skill one) and her/his wish to build the child's successes in many domains (skill three) rather than focusing on shortcomings.

Finally, the teacher's concern with all areas of a child and her/his growth rather than with solely academic achievement narrowly defined (skill three) is reflected in the item which mentions that the teacher takes records on each child in note form and "writes individual histories of each child's intellectual, emotional and physical development" (item 35).

In sum, it seems quite clear that in rooms where teachers listen to children, help children plan activities, and provision the environment with material responsive to children's needs, strengths, and interests, where children are respected and allowed to develop responsibility and autonomy--in such an environment, lasting learning and positive self-concept are nourished. When all children are asked to pursue and learn the same material in
the same teacher-directed manner, they feel neither cared about nor responded to in ways that build self-esteem.

Although no such thorough, and therefore helpful, studies have been conducted to isolate the observable distinguishing characteristics of programmed or laissez-faire classrooms, the most salient characteristics of each can be described. Then they can be considered in light of whether the features so described facilitate, imply, or are conducive to the self-esteem building skills.

We will first consider programmed classrooms and then the laissez-faire environment.

Programmed learning has been described as meaning, the kind of learning experience in which a "program" takes the place of a tutor for the student, and leads him through a set of specific behaviors designed and sequenced to make it more probable that he will behave in a given desired way in the future— in other words, that he will learn what the program is designed to teach.

(Programmed Instruction, 1962, p. 1.)

That is, the programmer carefully defines the end product(s) or learning desired. The program is then designed to lead the student by small steps to achieve this end. The student can usually work at whatever pace (s)he is comfortable, but the sequence is predetermined. The SRA reading program is a well known example of programmed learning.

In a classroom where learning is accomplished by assigning programs to children, both the teacher and pupil are relatively
passive. Since the work in such a classroom has been organized before the arrival of the specific children by an adult who has never seen them, there is little opportunity for the teacher, much less the children, to build a curriculum around the children's interests and no opportunity for the children to structure the learning. Thus it would be difficult for the teacher to practice skill four, to build each child's sense of autonomy and competence. Basal reading programs in which the teacher follows a programmed manual exemplify these problems. The questions are already posed, the program the only resource, and the product completion of the program. However, in a classroom committed to programmed learning, some choices between programs may be left to the teacher and/or to the child. It should be recognized that theoretically once the program is selected, there are no more choices to be made.

Programmed materials are designed to build success (skill three). Each step of the learning process is very small, and one step builds upon another. Most programs also have built-in check points to ensure mastery at each step. But successes are very limited in scope, since most programs are concerned only with the acquisition of factual knowledge and that knowledge itself is often very limited in nature. This is not to deny that programs build success; it is only to question their goals.

It can be argued, however, that precisely because programmed
material does help the child acquire necessary skills and knowledge efficiently, the teacher is therefore freed to spend more time building the children's successes in other domains and on broader bases (skill three), and that (s)he can spend more time listening to them carefully (skill one) and more time responding to their feelings (skill two). In some classrooms this is, indeed, the case. In others, however, teachers and children become obsessed with racing through programs and neglect all the other domains of experience within which the child's self-esteem can be built. Finally, it should be noted that for the non-verbal child, the child with some learning disabilities, and the child with reading difficulties, programs are likely to lead to frustration and to failure, since most programs are primarily verbal. In short, the programmed classroom is a potential environment for the practice of the first three skills, but that potential is often not realized.

Free schools are so called because they claim to allow children to develop naturally and freely, without what they would call "the tyranny" of adult-determined curricula, time-tables, and behavior standards. Their proponents believe that most children are asked "to obey to satisfy the adult's desire for power" (Neill, 1960, p. 155), and disagree with what they see as most schools' assumption that "a child will not grow unless he is forced to do so" (p. 155). They want to free the child from adult coercion and imposed standards. Furthermore, directors, parents, or
governing groups want to be free themselves to determine their school's goals, philosophy, and practices.

Most free schools use an informal physical arrangement and scheduling system. Depending on the wealth of the school and/or the ingenuity of the teachers, parents, and children, there is a variety of materials which the children are free to use as they wish. Thus, there is a great potential for the children's being stimulated to pose questions which come directly from their interests, and some real opportunity for them to structure their own learning. However, there are usually two major problems: (1) most children do not know how to structure their own learning, and (2) teachers in this environment do not believe in helping the children to do so (skill four). The result is often that the enormous potential for relevant learning in such situations is left unrealized, and the children do not experience success and satisfaction.

Furthermore, the teachers in these schools often believe that recognition of strengths and successes should not come from them (skill three), external sources, but should come from within the child. This means that the children are asked to judge their work and behavior for themselves. Thus, the teacher would be asked to refrain from focusing on what (s)he judges to be a child's strengths and successes.
In free schools teachers believe in and are encouraged by the philosophy to listen very carefully to children (skill one), to respect each child as a full, worthy human being. They also stress the importance of being responsive to each child's feelings, and a great deal of the teacher's time is spent practicing these skills.

In sum, both programmed and free school environments are places in which some of the self-concept building skills are practiced. However, in comparing all four environments, it appears that the open or integrated day philosophy and practice is the most conducive to, and indeed builds in, the practicing of all the skills defined in Chapter Two.
CHAPTER VI

IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This dissertation has now achieved a number of ends. First, it has presented a number of reasons why it is important for an individual to develop a positive self-concept, and has shown how the parents and teachers of the young child influence the development of that child's self-concept. Second, it has defined and defended four specific skills which the teacher of the young child can practice to build the self-esteem of her/his pupils. Third, it has presented a model for teaching these skills to student teachers, a model which is designed both to help the students feel the personal meaning of the skills and to help them acquire ability to perform the skills with children. Fourth, the results of using this model with ten students were presented and shown to be favorable. Finally, it was shown that of four types of classrooms, open or integrated day classrooms were most likely to be conducive to a teacher's practicing of the four self-concept building skills.

It remains now only to discuss the implications of this study for further research. First, in reconsidering the teaching model itself, a number of changes might be made and their value assessed. It would probably be a great contribution further to develop behavioral criteria for the successful practice of each
skill. From this a behavioral rating scale could be made to replace the informal and unvalidated written pre- and post-teaching evaluation responses used in this study to evaluate ... progress in acquiring each skill. If this were done each student's ability actually to practice the skill with children would be assessed. That is, behavioral criteria could be developed for each skill, raters trained, and each student's ability to practice each skill assessed before and after the skill was taught. If, however, responses to informal pre- and post-teaching questions remained the evaluation tool, the use of an objective second reader in assessing the students' responses might enhance the validity of the evaluation.

Another change could be made in the number of times the students practice each skill. In this study each student was required to practice each skill only once. In future studies the students could be asked to practice the skills more often, preferably in accordance to their need to do so.

Furthermore, the students in this study would probably benefit greatly from receiving immediate feedback on their ability to perform the skill after each practice. If the model just set forth in this dissertation were followed, the student's written record of how (s)he practiced the skill during the week could be commented on by the group leader. Alternately, the criteria for acquisition of the skill could be given to the students and they could then rate their own work or that of the others in their group. Another promising method for assessing each student's ability to practice the skill would be the use of tape-recorders.
Each student could tape record his/her practicing the skill with the child. Then the tape could be assessed by the teacher, student, or her/his peers.

It has been suggested that the order of the steps of the teaching model could be changed somewhat. Most specifically, it would be interesting to see whether the model would be more or less effective if the skill were explicitly stated (step four) at the beginning of the meeting. This might over-direct the students' memories, but it might help them to recall only directly pertinent material. For example, if the skill of listening were described at the beginning of the first group meeting, students would probably be led to recall only those situations when someone they cared about showed caring for them by listening.

If this study were to be replicated, the numbers of students being taught the skills should be larger and a control group should be added. That is, students participating in the same general teacher training program but not being taught the self-concept building skills should have their awareness of and/or ability to practice the skills assessed at the beginning and the end of a given period.

It would also be interesting to assess the impact of the personality, teaching style, and/or self-concept of the group leader on the students' ability to master the skills. Group
leaders with very different personalities, teaching styles, or level of self-esteem could use the model and the performance of their students could then be compared.

Finally, it would be interesting to see how well the model can be used for teaching other skills. These skills could be additional ones for building children's positive self-concept (of which there may be many) or skills in other areas. In fact, children could be taught to perform these and other skills and could practice them with each other.

There are other implications for further study. Strong arguments were put forth for the position that to train the four self-concept building skills most effectively both positive attitudes toward the skills and specific behaviors should be developed in the future teachers. It was argued that training just the desired behaviors might lead to ineffective, mechanical performance of them, and that developing just positive attitudes toward the skills might never result in their being realized in practice. Extensive field studies would help to verify this. An experiment could be conducted in which one group of students was taught and worked at the behaviors which indicate mastery of the skills. Another group could do only the work required to make them feel the importance of the skills but which did not require them to practice the skills. A third group could be taught with the dual
approach of the teaching model used in this dissertation. Each
group would then have an equal amount of contact with a comparable
group of children. The self-esteem of these children could be
assessed before and after this contact. One could then determine
which approach to teaching the skills was, in fact, most effective.

It was also argued from observation and from psychological
and educational theory that the practice of the skills would build
a child's positive self-concept. This dissertation, however,
considered only whether the future teachers could and did learn
the skills designed to build self-esteem. It would be useful to
determine whether or not the skills learned and practiced by the
future teachers do actually enhance the child's self-concept. To
determine this, one would have to take teachers who had demonstrated
their ability to practice the skills and ask them to work with
children whose self-esteem had been measured before contact with
these teachers. The children's self-esteem would then be measured
after a given amount of time.

Two longitudinal studies would also be interesting to
conduct. First, it would make sense to investigate how long a
teacher needs to practice these skills to positively affect a
child's self-concept. Is there a minimum exposure period, and
if so, what is it? Is there a maximum exposure period beyond which,
if the skills are practiced, no further growth of a child's self-
concept occurs? In a second study one might wish to ask: how long
does the effect of a given period of self-concept building last? For example, if for one year a child's teacher practices the skills regularly, will the effect last into the next year, two years, months, if the child's next teachers do not practice the skills? In short, is there an extinction process?

One might also make an important contribution to the field if one were to study whether all children are equally affected by the teacher's practicing the skills. It is possible to argue that children with low self-esteem would cling to their concept of themselves and be least susceptible to the effect of the skills. On the other hand, one might hypothesize that these children would be eager for recognition by a significant other, hunger to be listened to, and therefore that their self-concept would change rapidly when the skills were practiced with them. One could also present arguments about children with high self-esteem and the relative effect of the skills on them. Children with high, average, and low self-esteem could be found, the skills practiced with them over an equal period in time, and their relative gains charted.

Similarly, one might also study the effect of the skills on children of different ages or at different developmental stages. For example, one might ask whether children of five or children of ten are more affected by the teacher's listening to them, or responding to them empathically. Or one might study whether
recognition of strengths is more important when a strength is just beginning to develop or once it is fairly well established in the child's repertoire. Arguments could be made that premature recognition might increase the child's fear of future failure in the strength just starting to be acquired. On the other hand, one could argue that early recognition might increase the likelihood of the child's continued effort in a given area. Again, specific hypotheses could be made and tested.

One might also ask the following question: If the child has parents who do not practice the skills and a teacher who does practice them, what are the effects of this situation? Or in the same realm of inquiry, one might ask whether efforts should not be made in the area of parent education rather than or as well as in teacher education. Each of these questions centers on the arguments made about the importance of significant others, and each could, again, be carefully tested.

Many studies of great worth could also be developed from the arguments made in Chapter Five. That is, it would be most important to verify whether open or integrated day classrooms do indeed further the practicing of the self-concept building skills more than traditional, free or laissez-faire classrooms do. A study could be designed in which trained observers would assess how often teachers in each situation practiced the skills. Or
one could assess the growth in self-esteem of the children in each situation over a given period of time.

This leads to a larger implication of this study. The study has suggested strongly that traditional American schools should broaden the criteria by which the children are tested and actually judged, for although some teachers value each child's feelings, ability to grow in independence, ability to make choices and decisions, and strengths in many domains, in the final analysis, what is valued and recorded is academic achievement defined as the relative ability to get right answers in test situations on a narrow range of tasks. This dissertation suggests that the well-implemented integrated day situation, where many facets of the child's personality and ability are valued and strengthened, where the process of learning how to learn is a primary goal, and where evaluation is a constant, informal, non-threatening process which the child participates in--this would be an excellent alternative to the traditional public school classroom, the programmed situation, or a laissez-faire environment. This hypothesis should be tested. (1) Do children who have been through open schools actually have a higher self-concept? (2) Are they less likely to show prejudice and hatred toward others? (3) Are they more likely to find meaningful work and activity in their lives? And if these hypotheses are answered "Yes," can we convince parents, teachers,
and administrators that these are the values towards which we should work—each person's valuing her/his strengths, unique feelings, and ability to set goals and attain them with success.

In sum, there are a great number of exciting questions still to be posed and a still greater number of important studies to be undertaken. It is hoped that this study has made some small contribution to the work in the field.
APPENDIX A

ONE STUDENT'S COMPLETED PRE- AND POST-TEACHING RESPONSES
WHAT DO YOU THINK ARE THE ESSENTIAL QUALITIES WHICH MAKE A CHILD FEEL SOMEONE CARES ABOUT HIM?

A child needs to have a sense of belonging—belonging to a family, to a peer group, to his dog, to his house. He should feel that it is his house, he is not an intruder, a spare in the crowd to the adults, thou etc.

This sense of belonging comes in many ways. It is subtle as well as obvious. (Obvious: he is not constantly shouted at, restricted from rooms he subtle: easy acceptance of the things around him: a feeling that he can be proud of being a part of this family, group etc.) He must also feel he can belong.

A child knows someone cares when he feels that person will side with him, spend time with him. Someone who recognizes his small accomplishments, understands what is important to him, and does not belittle what he loves or sees beauty in in the person. This child knows the person who cares, and knows this is one who is understanding when the child is angry, depressed etc.
In the case of Moon: (one four-year old amongst many adults. He is playing a game "cow" "scent"... they pick up on it, change it to a more aggressive game). I listened to the interaction between Moon and the adults. I remained out of the game; I only entered to reassure Moon "it's only a joke." I heard Moon asking for attention, care, protection. Instead I he was receiving threats (supposedly playful, but to him very real) rather than help. Amongst the adults at night in a close room, he was egged on in an aggressive game; teased, spat down, made to feel helpless. When the crisis came; (he was extremely frightened by the threats and ran from the room crying.) I joined him. I acknowledged that it's scary when people do these things. As I talked about what scared him; he confided in me that he really did not have any strong secret weapons. That he really did have Spiderman's strength & cunning. He was afraid they might get him when he forgot to watch out.

From our conversations I understood many of his fears, his fantasies, and how he deals with reality vs. fantasy. We spoke about Peter Pan and what a wonderful person this is who can kill pirates!
I felt very good about our interaction.
He trusted me. He believed I would protect
him and would not ridicule his dreams,
his smallness, his fears. We became
friends, equal.

I wonder at the insensitivity of
these adults; their self-centeredness.
I realized that many of us do such
things with our speed without meaning to.
Often with children we accept fears and
games or dreams etc. as part of childhood,
as 'real things to the kid.' But we
don't remember that (to him) fears, dreams etc. are
real too. Even though
we may think it nothing - or not
appreciate the deep emotions being touched.

Listening to ANYONE is essential
to their feeling that you care.
**PRE-TEACHING EVALUATION: SKILL 2**

1. "You don't like arithmetic, do you?" (Start out with an observation such as this, rather than suggesting he doesn't like it.) Continue discussion slowly, why he doesn't like it. Why is it hard? Maybe we can find something else, a different way to do things, so it wouldn't be so hard and tedious. Maybe we would decide to do something else altogether, and eventually come around to where arithmetic would fit into where it would be understood or liked.

2. I would do my best to listen to what he had to say, we could talk about what happened, why he was upset at the injustice, what he thinks should have been done. If I felt it was really unjust I would probably agree, but if it was a case I might suggest that we talk in the teacher about what she did. Together we would find out how he feels (during the talking or whatsoever) and how the teacher feels. We may have had a good reason for being upset about what happened.

The important thing is that he understands how the teacher felt, why she did it, and what he felt; he is understood. Why he did what he did.
How would you respond to a child who says:

\[ \text{(You fool)} \]


List all the ways you can think of that
a teacher you had, or have seen did, or could
have helped you and the other kids focus
on their strengths and successes.

Point out (post reinforcement) when he does
something well. I.e. ① I noticed you helped
Susan with her math. Small things help
child realize he is helpful; that he is good
at things. ② "I notice you liked that book." Then
use it to help read or to prove that
he can read ... or can enjoy books.

Ask him to help others, etc ... you are good at
this so will you do it for me? (This includes
small duties in room etc.)

If you notice he enjoys or is successful at something,
bring in more of same or follow-up on it.
You are good at these puzzles - try these -
I think you'll like them.

What could she have focused on?
1. What are the qualities you would consider "strengths" and/or "successes"? List as many as you can below:
   - Independence
   - Academic success
   - Positive attitude towards trying new things
   - Cooperation
   - Ability to play work with others
   - Ability to ventalge a deal with anger
   - Good self concept
   - Of a balanced view of own strengths
   - Good without too much concern of the need to always "prove I'm stronger"
   - Creativity
   - In art, academics dealing with people in new situations
   - Ability to "bounce back" after a fight or depression
   - Growing change developing marital progress (so in moving out of a "baby" stage to greater independence)

2. How many ways can you think of that a teacher might help a child see and appreciate his own strengths? List them below:
   - Talking about it- praise, pointing out what was done;
   - Asking him to help others with same, mentioning that last week he thought he couldn't do how he did.
   - Bringing in more (follow through) of similar materials-
   - "I see you did that so well, maybe we can try the next chapter step.
   - Encourage children to learn from each other;
   - To help each other do spirit and each other.
   - Talk about out of school stuff- what did you do at home that someone liked, or what was special to you.
   - Helping him believe in himself... he able to see for himself that he is good.

3. Do you really think it's important to recognize and focus on a child's strengths and successes? Why? Why not?
   - Yes! Self image is extremely important. One's attitude towards life would be much more if we can cope (or at least learn to cope) if we aren't to get frustrated and angry. Belief in your own worth and potential
is necessary do you desire to try new things or try again. It affects how you deal with others (bully vs friend) and well all aspects of life. As for the teacher, she must be aware of how a child feels when he is in these areas. If he is going to help the child go further and deal with his environment.
One afternoon in your classroom during project time or free time, Susie spends about 15 minutes wandering around the room. When you come over to her and ask what she wants to do, she replies, "I want to learn about animals."

The rest of your class is working well so you have about 10 minutes to spend with Susie. Now would you use it? (What might you ask? What might you do?)

What's your favorite kind of animal?

Or even what kind of animal would you like to be?

Then going from there, probably focusing on one animal or type - possibly working with fantasy first.

"Tigers." "What do tigers do?" "Eat people."

"They eat people?" - continue with fantasy? or look it up - find out what tigers really do.

I've got myself into a mess here... if the fantasy was really this strong I would work with that, but assuming we are on a more academic and curious track, we would look it up, draw pictures, talk about it, decide on a way of continuing, following thought.
One afternoon in your classroom during project time or free time, David spends about 15 minutes wandering around the room. When you come over to him and ask him what he wants to do, he replies, "I want to learn about skidoos."

The rest of your class is working, so you have about 10 minutes to spend with David. How would you use it? (What might you ask? What might you do?)

We would talk about ideas. I'd listen and what he already knew. Then we would decide what he wanted to know. Then I'd choose one specific thing we could go into. Decide where to go for resources, skidoos dealers, etc., and how to accomplish all the information. Then, have a time, and times for each.
APPENDIX B

SUMMARY OF PRE- AND POST-TEACHING RESPONSES FOR ALL STUDENTS
I feel now, very strongly that the-
I have been asked to write about a person who has had a significant impact on my life. The person is someone I have come to respect and admire. I have learned a lot from this person, and they have taught me important life lessons.

When I first met this person, I was a young child. They were always there for me, no matter what. I remember feeling safe and loved when they were around. They always took the time to listen to me and offer words of encouragement. They were a role model for me, and I looked up to them.

As I grew older, I began to understand the impact that this person had on my life. They were always there for me, even when I needed it most. They were patient with me and never gave up on me. They showed me the importance of hard work and dedication.

I have learned so much from this person. They have taught me the value of perseverance and the importance of putting others before myself. They have shown me the power of love and compassion.

I am grateful to have had this person in my life, and I will always cherish the memories we have shared. They have been a significant influence in my life, and I will always remember their words of wisdom and the lessons they have taught me.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STUDENT NAME</th>
<th>WHAT I THINK ARE THE ESSENTIAL QUALITIES WHICH MAKE A CHILD FEEL SOMEONE CARES ABOUT HIM/HER</th>
<th>HOW I PRACTICED LISTENING</th>
<th>HOW I FEEL ABOUT THIS EXPERIENCE</th>
<th>WHAT HAPPENED</th>
<th>I LEARNED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student 3</td>
<td>1. If the person is really listening to him when he speaks</td>
<td>A chance for me to listen to one of the children I'm working with was given to me quite coincidentally. Patrick lost one of his cowboy boots on the way to school. I backtracked with him all the way back to his house (4 or 5 blocks). We didn't find the boot (someone had picked it up), but I got a chance to listen to Pat in a natural environment.</td>
<td>As I walked with Patrick I was feeling a bit up tight in that I didn't spontaneously relate to him in a perfect way, I was unsure of what to say, for the most part I did just listen. At the time I felt unsure, now I feel really good about it.</td>
<td>Since that day Pat is on my lap when ever he has the chance. And is less of a discipline problem when I'm in charge of the class.</td>
<td>Having a sincere interest makes all the difference. Most adults don't get excited about what a EFF child is talking about. Listening to a child as an equal human being, maybe superior in certain ways. I believe some of the perceptions of children are superior to those of adults. To admit this to oneself is to automatically become interested in what a child is saying.</td>
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one who is understanding when the child is unhappy, depressed, etc.

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When a situation in
which something
starts to go wrong,
there are several
ways of handling
the situation. If
you are truly
interested in
learning, you can
make reality
through your
own experience.
Try your best to
get to know the
teacher and let
her/him know
what you need
to learn.

That's the secret.

Read under
this sentence
(your own words)
whenever you see
the next test. If
you are truly
interested in
learning, you can
make reality
through your
own experience.
Try your best to
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what you need
to learn.

That's the secret.
Student 10

I don't think this is 100% true. Perhaps there are exceptions.

It seems to me that the statement is not universally true, as there may be circumstances where certain actions are effective in specific contexts.

For instance, it could be that in a particular situation, disregarding a set procedure can lead to unexpected success. However, this is not a general rule and should not be applied in all cases.

In conclusion, while the statement may hold in some cases, it is important to consider the specific context and circumstances before applying it.
Say nothing sometimes.

Teach other children.

Learn the children that are strong

Instinctive, unselfishness, etc.

Preparation.

Experience: the things which are known to others.

Interest: the things which are known to oneself.

Feeling: the things which are known to God.

Preparation for success, work and inter-

The way you respond:

Appreciates and responds just as by

Show each child that he is an

teacher in the class. It is not

Teacher's note: 

Student 8:

Student 9:

Name:

What are your interests?

What are your goals?

What are you going to do when you

What are your strengths?

What are your weaknesses?

What are your aspirations?

What are your future plans?

What are your career goals?

What are your hobbies?

What are your favorite activities?

What are your favorite subjects?

What do you like to do in your free time?

What are your favorite books?

What are your favorite movies?

What are your favorite TV shows?
I like to do things when I'm really interested.

I think about the things I want to do and try to find a way to do them. I like to be creative and try new things.

When I find something I really like, I try to learn more about it and practice it. I like to challenge myself and try new things. I like to be around other people who are interested in the same things.

I like to be around people who are interested in the same things. I like to be around people who are happy and excited about what they're doing. I like to be around people who are creative and have new ideas.

I like to be around people who are creative and have new ideas. I like to be around people who are happy and excited about what they're doing. I like to be around people who are interested in the same things.

I like to be around people who are interested in the same things. I like to be around people who are happy and excited about what they're doing. I like to be around people who are creative and have new ideas.
I think I would respond pretty much in the same way as did Janet.

I would ask her what things she is interested in. 

Something else I would say or try to answer the question. 

That child wants to learn about pictures and there are many things to do with pictures. 

The child wants to learn about pictures and there are many things to do with pictures.

I would ask her what things she is interested in. 

I would ask her what things she is interested in.

I would ask her what things she is interested in.

I would ask her what things she is interested in.

I would ask her what things she is interested in.
There's so much you could do to fulfill that interest.
The choice is what's important and to keep in
me about it. I hope you can get an answer and keep it in
I'm thinking of doing something about it. If so, I'm going to
strength and effort to get something you could think about.
You'll find our library just a few blocks from here.
'Go through the room'
On "He'll manage to participate tomorrow".

The next question is about the library. I think we could go to the
respective section. Talk about what you know about
You would decide what you want to know, (the section, maybe).
We would talk about the library. Time. Ideas and what they already know. Then we

The main idea is about the library. I think we could go to the
respective section. Talk about what you know about
You would decide what you want to know, (the section, maybe).
We would talk about the library. Time. Ideas and what they already know. Then we

on a way of concentrating. lololololololol.
For others, start discussing with him – maybe bring each of class into it.

For first one – make him to book.

How they can be changed so they’re not so bad

Try thyself.

Possibly by viewing, you might learn about them.

Would you like to find out about animals, class about what the machine find out, find out how she draws some animals, do the reproductions study on animals, look at the pictures above the animal, depending on age, have her work on what she knows about this animal, she makes her read text in a reference book, hopefully with pictures.

Ask what kind of animals she would like to learn about.

Life and set up collection board.

Start a project to collect pictures of aspects of animal – find magazines that deal with animals, from library or

Then use reproductions for most immediate learning.

About what animals, do you like? Or how much do you like to learn

Do you have any ideas about what you want to learn

Name

Page 3
APPENDIX C

STUDENT EVALUATIONS
Each student is presumably engaged in a total program. Starting from that premise, indicate what fraction of your total program this activity represents. Or, if you don't take to fractions, indicate how many hours a week you spent on it.

Use your own format, on as many pages as needed, to describe as concretely as possible what you did in this activity. Some things to keep in mind: the resources you used -- Books and their authors, records, tapes, people, field trips, lab sessions, etc.; tasks you completed -- papers, projects, art works, experiments, performances, etc.; activities-materials-ideas which had the greatest impact on you.

Ask your instructor to write his evaluation/comments, sign and date the second page.

This study helped me re-evaluate my self-concept, and personally. I have learned to become more conscious of other people's feelings beyond the words they use, and that to show recognition of those feelings helps that person to feel understood and even cared for.

Anna would have us discuss our last week's project and then put ourselves into a situation for focusing on something new. Then we would discuss how we felt and how we might change the situation for the better. This is what we spent the bulk of an hour exploring in ourselves and with each other, with suggestions from Anna.

This helped me to feel out the more subtle aspects of positive thinking, and boost my self-image. I thank God and Anna for offering this very valuable opportunity at a time I needed it very much.
I believe that a person's positive self concept is essential to his ability to be a live, biophilial person, and that to feel good about one's self, environment, and life is essential to positive learning. But the question--how does one develop self concept, especially a positive one, is a complex problem.

Dealing with this question and with the skills designed to help us help others develop positive self image has been an intense experience. I have had to deal specifically with my own self image first. Of course, I have thought about this before, but not always in a very organized manner. This study has sharpened my self awareness, has helped me understand what formed my personality, my prejudices, my general attitudes towards others. Understanding my own personality better has made it easier for me to see how and why Ideal with people as I do. I am trying to develop a greater sensitivity for my actions, words, and attitudes.

I have realized some of my grosser mistakes and insensitive acts. I have, for instance, been aware of my self centeredness for a while as I was "stuck" on some personal problems. But I feel that, partially through this class, I have been able to confront these problems and to deal with them to such a point that I am fairly satisfied with the solutions, resultant relations, and the changes in myself. (i.e. I feel that I have had a chance to really use the skills we have discussed.)
I have gathered many ideas for helping children realize their strengths, develop that good feeling about themselves and the world, and learn to cope with their emotions, and environment.

As I practiced the skills in the Clockhouse or on dorm, I became increasingly aware of subtleties in wording, tones, and body expressions. I was then better able to use the skills to understand and relate to others.

As we dealt with the questions of self concept, it seemed that we were talking about good mental health. To be able to communicate easily with the people around you is important, to feel good about yourself is also essential to your well-being, and to your ability to feel good about others; but, we must take it one step further—we must be sensitive to the feelings, moods, and needs of others. We must work for more than just positive self concept, but for the purpose of stable, healthy minds, of people living together harmoniously, being strong, independent yet supportive and able to help others.

The class was a small one, for which I am thankful. The environment was one of close friendship—supportive and protective, so that it was easy to be open and honest. I only wish that it had been a full trimester course as I feel that we have only begun to understand ourselves, much less how to help others develop healthy attitudes towards themselves and life.

I have been trying to find the words to express how well I feel the class worked and how much Anna has done for me through it... all I can say right now is, Dear Anna, You are the most wonderfullest person I know.

[Signature]
Dates of study or activity: From B Session to Student's Name: Student 5

Evaluation with less structure.

Title: Child's Self Concept  Instructor's Name: Anna Green

Circle one: group study, independent study other (better explain)

Each student is presumably engaged in a total program. Starting from that premise, indicate what fraction of your total program this activity represents. Or, if you don't take to fractions, indicate how many hours a week you spent on it. 

Use your own format, on as many pages as needed, to describe as concretely as possible what you did in this activity. Some things to keep in mind: the resources you used -- books and their authors, records, tapes, people, field trips, lab sessions, etc.; tasks you completed -- papers, projects, art works, experiments, performances, etc.; activities-materials-ideas which had the greatest impact on you.

Ask your instructor to write his evaluation/comments, sign and date the second page.

I learned an important lesson in this class - just as important in dealing with my friends and adults, as with children. That is, to be sensitive to someone's feelings before reacting either positively or negatively to them. Because feelings are the single most thing a person has. They never lie although they may be misinterpreted.

This class crystallized that truth for me. I am not yet competent enough in a classroom to skillfully put it to use. I lack experience & contact.

But young children are not yet accustomed in completely covering up their feelings - and by being sensitive to their feelings, it becomes a key to understanding the "why" of their behavior. This led me to help them with their emotional or mental problems.

I didn't have the time to complete most of the skill reviews, but this class time alone taught me a lot. This is really the kind of class that should extend...
Teacher's Comments:

Over a long period of time so that we could have had the chance to follow them with some of the kids we discussed. It's a typical Godden steps—not enough time.

But the class did serve as a very important need in my mind—one that will take a long time to develop at first into effective use.

And was a wonderful person to have in class. Her sensitivity and understanding clearly her ability to understand children's feelings and behavior growing. So glad the class had such meaning to her.

Teacher's signature: Sharon Pearce  Date: April 13, 1973

G/C 12/72
Dates of study or activity: From March to April

Evaluation with less structure.

Title: Children's Image

Instructor's Name: Anna Pearce

Circle one: group study independent study other (better explain)

Each student is presumably engaged in a total program. Starting from that premise, indicate what fraction of your total program this activity represents. Or, if you don't take to fractions, indicate how many hours a week you spent on it.

Use your own format, on as many pages as needed, to describe as concretely as possible what you did in this activity. Some things to keep in mind: the resources you used -- Books and their authors, records, tapes, people, field trips, lab sessions, etc.; tasks you completed -- papers, projects, art works, experiments, performances, etc.; activities-materials-ideas which had the greatest impact on you.

Ask your instructor to write his evaluation/comments, sign and date the second page.

This course met once a week for an hour. We did exercises on many feelings and indicated, if we knew, how we would react or what we would do or say to another person. I learned to never ever deny a child's or anyone's feelings. There were several exercises that we would do ourselves and then continue to work with a child on the exercise. There were about 8 people in my class. The thoughts that everyone shared with the class, and their personal experiences, I feel were very interesting and worthwhile. Also the instructor would very often comment or tell experiences that she had as a teacher, were very helpful to hear in the specific way she handled situations. It is very important to really listen to what other people are saying, even without words. One does not always hear right but should be very careful to how they act to a real feeling of someone else.

I feel working the various exercises out to myself was an excellent learning experience. For myself and also to be able to really get the feeling of and remembering what it was like to be in a much lower grade than presently. This is very important if you are working with children or in many situations.
Each student is presumably engaged in a total program. Starting from that premise, indicate what fraction of your total program this activity represents. Or, if you don't take to fractions, indicate how many hours a week you spent on it. 

Use your own format, on as many pages as needed, to describe as concretely as possible what you did in this activity. Some things to keep in mind: the resources you used -- Books and their authors, records, tapes, people, field trips, lab sessions, etc.; tasks you completed -- papers, projects, art works, experiments, performances, etc.; activities-materials-ideas which had the greatest impact on you.

Ask your instructor to write his evaluation/comments, sign and date the second page.

"If you don't know how to teach something, you'll probably teach it the way you were taught." This seems to be a most valid concept; this was the basis of certain skills taught in this class. Most of the skills discussed in the class dealt with building up a child's concept of himself. It seems I had already been feeling in terms similar to those on these subjects, but it certainly was helpful to really get at some concrete methods of dealing with different problems that arise constantly with children in school. Due to the closed nature of the classroom in which I worked it was not always possible to do the skills assigned each week.

I saw many occasions in which I could have applied a few words to relieve a child's anxieties about one thing or another, but the situation made it impossible. Although the amount of time I spent on this class was minimal I feel it was a starting point for developing my own ways of dealing differently with children than I was dealt with by my teachers. The key for me is (as a teacher) if this class were definitely helped in bridging about this certain kind of memory I wish to develop.
Self Concept Skills Evaluation
Julie Adams
April 5, 1983

I judge the importance of self-image by my own experiences. I like it when someone remembers my name or seems concerned about my interests.

I have found that my relationship with people are much more fruitful when I relate to them on a personal basis.

The class has helped me to become more sensitive to the situations when a child needs someone to recognize and respond to their needs.

Julie Adams

For Julie this class seemed to have brought to consciousness things she was already aware of. That was an important process. From the experiences she shared it seems she has gained skill in working with children, in understanding the feelings and needs beneath their behavior.

Anna M. Bacon
Date of Study: Jan to April
Course: Self-Concept
Instructor: Anna Varco Pierce
Student: Student 8

NARRATIVE

This 8 session class helped me utilize and become aware of
some theoretical knowledge that I already had possessed. Through my
past reading (mainly Rogers, Axline, and Gordon), I encountered
techniques which stressed "listening for feelings", and I wholly agreed
with the concept behind it. I had tried to respond to the kids I
was working with at Waterbury in a similar fashion, but this class
really helped me become conscious of this process of relating. It
made me realize how often I project my own feelings on to others,
how often I offer solutions, and how often I have preconceived ideas
of where a child is at. I clearly see how this can cut off communication
and be detrimental to the teacher-student relationship (or any, for
that matter). I think that "listening for feelings" is a skill
that can be developed if a person actively works on it. This class
gave me the opportunity to do just that.

Teacher's Comments:

This already had the sensitivity to children necessary
to her being a really fine teacher. I think that I
could have helped her more if she had attended an
Action. She was a consistently conscientious
and appreciated member of the group.

Teacher's Signature

Anna Varco Pierce
Dates of study or activity: From 2/21/73 to 4/4/73

Title: Child's Self Concept In The Classroom

Instructor's Name: Anna Pearce

Evaluation with less structure.

Each student is presumably engaged in a total program. Starting from that premise, indicate what fraction of your total program this activity represents. Or, if you don't take to fractions, indicate how many hours a week you spent on it.

Use your own format, en as many pages as needed, to describe as concretely as possible what you did in this activity. Some things to keep in mind: the resources you used -- Books and their authors, records, tapes, people, field trips, lab sessions, etc.; tasks you completed -- papers, projects, art works, experiments, performances, etc.; activities-materials-ideas which had the greatest impact on you.

Ask your instructor to write his evaluation/comments, sign and date the second page.

My goal in taking this course was to become more aware of each child's individual needs and to respond to children in a more helpful way. Although, I did not expect it to at the outset of the course, I have found that it has helped me to respond to adults more positively, as well.

The course involved learning skills during weekly class meetings such as commenting on positive aspects of a child's personality rather than negative aspects, helping a child to have successes and praising these, and helping a child to feel that his feelings are valid and to help him become aware of what his feelings are. These all involved concerned listening and responding. For each skill there was a practice sheet on which we recorded our efforts to do these things with the children. I found that after awhile I automatically responded to a child that was upset by first reflecting his feelings. I also began to praise the children more for being cooperative or doing their work. I noticed that it encouraged them to do it some more, and it made me feel good. I also began to insist more and more that the children find ways to solve their own problems.

I feel that these skills are very important to me and that this is just a start. Now that I have been made aware of more positive ways to react to people in certain situations, I feel that I can continue to practice them until they become automatic. The result has to be a happier classroom, and closer teacher-child relationships.
Evaluation with less structure.

Title: Child's Self Image
Instructor's Name: Anna Marcus-Bearce

Circle one: group study independent study other (better explain)

Each student is presumably engaged in a total program. Starting from that premise, indicate what fraction of your total program this activity represents. Or, if you don't take to fractions, indicate how many hours a week you spent on it.

Use your own format, on as many pages as needed, to describe as concretely as possible what you did in this activity. Some things to keep in mind: the resources you used -- Books and their authors, records, tapes, people, field trips, lab sessions, etc.; talks you completed -- papers, projects, art works, experiments, performances, etc.; activities-materials-ideas which had the greatest impact on you.

Ask your instructor to write his evaluation/comments, sign and date the second page.

Anna's class: Child's Self Image was a very interesting class because it went away from Methods and Material, (which is needed to become a teacher) and brought to light another area needed to know in order to handle a classroom situation correctly. To me it consisted of the material used in Haim Ginott's writings. I have to admit that I was, in a way, prepared for the class. Before the class had begun for B session I had already read Ginott's Between Parent and Child and Teacher and Child. The books helped me to become aware of how to deal with children.

Anna's class went further for what Ginott helped me to become aware of how to deal with kids, Anna's helped me experience what I had learned. It was interesting because all the people in the class had or was having experience in the classroom and that helped a great deal in the sense that we were able to relate to each other. The class also helped me to remember how it was for me to grow up in elementary school and the understanding that was needed at some instances.

The hardest part of the class was the written exercises (as Anna and the rest of the class had also recognized). It was hard in the sense of in the type of situations that I had to handle I had to make up the atmosphere of a situation. I knew it couldn't be helped but to me the atmosphere of dealing with children at a particular situation is so important to understand.

What reading of Ginott's Between Parent and Child began, Anna's class continued and influenced me to continue my studies in child psychology and elementary education. I never felt pressured into doing the exercises. I did them because I felt I would be losing something in the class.

I was taking Teacher Aiding Seminar before I took the Self Image class and I got more out of going to the Image class because my interest was more into that particular area.

Anna handled the class nicely and tied many things into the class such as my days of when I went to elementary school, my interests in child psychology, my aiding in Berlin, and the situations that the children had that I dealt with, and then just the things that might have or will come up concerning the understanding of children.

As you might have gathered from reading this evaluation
I liked the class very much. I feel that this group independent should be made into a class in the future trimesters of Goddard. It's important that a person studying to be a teacher not only should learn the Methods and Material should also learn about how they should deal with children. I'm not saying that one is better than the other. What I am saying is that one is just as important as the other.

Teacher's signature: [Signature]
Date: April 2, 1972

G/C 12/72
Each student is presumably engaged in a total program. Starting from that premise, indicate what fraction of your total program this activity represents. Or, if you don't take to fractions, indicate how many hours a week you spent on it.

Use your own format, on as many pages as needed, to describe as concretely as possible what you did in this activity. Some things to keep in mind: the resources you used -- books and their authors, records, tape, people, field trips, lab sessions, etc.; tasks you completed -- papers, projects, art works, experiments, performances, etc.; activities, materials, ideas which had the greatest impact on you.

Ask your instructor to write his evaluation/comments, sign and date the second page.

This class made me think a lot about the way in which I might relate to any child or situation. I was forced to think about the influence my reaction (no matter how subtle) has on little people. I've always known that I can't fool a kid by pretending to know what I don't; but I was made even more aware of how my feelings about the child I'm dealing with come through. My interest or lack of interest in him. How well I do I understand him/her and if I don't I can't pretend to. But I can, however, sympathize and be with him in his feelings, be it angry, sorrow, joy, etc. And that that doesn't always entail a lot of words, or solving a problem, but that I am with him in his feelings and his feelings are ok.

Practicing the skills in the classroom made me really conscious of all of the above plus it really added a lot to my relationships with particular kids in the classroom. It was happy, too.
for the time when we all met with
Anna to as a group to share our
experiences. I feel like there was a good
feeling between people in the class, and
it was grateful for the feedback I got.

I would've liked to get into more detail,
some of the time, which means more time
spent in discussion groups. Also, I think
that this course could be good as a full
semester subject thus adding more
skills.

I feel good about the time we did have,
and feel that I became aware of the
real meaning of one's self concept, and
ways in which it can help growth.
Also, the need to
understand one's parents will be being in the role
of teacher or parent.
APPENDIX D

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION RATING-SCALE

developed for:
the Pilot Communities Program
Education Development Center.
Newton, Massachusetts

by:
T D R Associates, Inc.
Newton, Massachusetts

under:
U. S. Office of Education Contract
Number OEC-1-7-062305-3963
Amendment # 10

March 1971
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>OBSERVATION-RATING SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Texts and materials are supplied in class sets so that all children may have their own.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Each child has a space for his personal storage and the major part of the classroom is organized for common use.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Materials are kept out of the way until they are distributed or used under the teacher's direction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Many different activities go on simultaneously.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Children are expected to do their own work without getting help from other children.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Manipulative materials are supplied in great diversity and range, with little replication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Day is divided into large blocks of time within which children, with the teacher's help, determine their own routine.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Children work individually and in small groups at various activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Books are supplied in diversity and profusion (including reference, children's literature).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Children are not supposed to move about the environment without asking permission.

Desks are arranged so that every child can see the blackboard or teacher from his desk.

The environment includes materials developed by the teacher.

Common environmental materials are provided.

Children may voluntarily make use of other materials of the building and school yard as part of their school time.

The program includes use of the neighborhood.

Children use "books" written by their classes as part of their reading and reference materials.

Teacher prefers that children not talk when they are supposed to be working.

Children voluntarily group and regroup themselves.

The environment includes materials developed and supplied by the children.

Teacher plans and schedules the children's activities through the day.

Teacher makes sure children use materials only as instructed.
22. Teacher groups children for lessons directed at specific needs.

23. Children work directly with manipulative materials.

24. Materials are readily accessible to children.

25. Teacher promotes a purposeful atmosphere by expecting and enabling children to use time productively and to value their work and learning.

26. Teacher uses test results to group children for reading and/or math.

27. Children expect the teacher to correct all their work.

28. Teacher bases her instruction on each individual child and his interaction with materials and equipment.

29. Teacher gives children tests to find out what they know.

30. The emotional climate is warm and accepting.

31. The work children do is divided into subject matter areas.

32. The teacher's lessons and assignments are given to the class as a whole.

33. To obtain diagnostic information, the teacher closely observes the specific work or concern of a child and asks immediate, experience-based questions.
1. Teacher bases her instruction on curriculum ideas or text books for the grade level she teaches.

1 2 3 4

2. Teacher keeps notes and writes individual stories of each child's intellectual, emotional, physical development.

1 2 3 4

3. Teacher has children for a period of just one year.

1 2 3 4

4. The class operates within clear guidelines de explicit.

1 2 3 4

Teacher takes care of dealing with conflicts disruptive behavior without involving the group.

1 2 3 4

5. Children's activities, products, and ideas are reflected abundantly about the classroom.

1 2 3 4

6. The teacher is in charge.

1 2 3 4

7. Before suggesting any extension or redirection of activity, teacher gives diagnostic attention to the particular child and his particular activity.

1 2 3 4

8. The children spontaneously look at and discuss each other's work.

1 2 3 4

9. Teacher uses tests to evaluate children and rate them in comparison to their peers.

1 2 3 4

10. Teacher uses the assistance of someone in a supportive, advisory capacity.

1 2 3 4

11. Teacher tries to keep all children within her sight so that she can make sure they are doing what they are supposed to do.
46. Teacher has helpful colleagues with whom she discusses teaching.

47. Teacher keeps a collection of each child's work for use in evaluating his development.

48. Teacher views evaluation as information to guide her instruction and provisioning for the classroom.

49. Academic achievement is the teacher's top priority for the children.

50. Children are deeply involved in what they are doing.
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