AN INVESTIGATION OF COMMUNICATION SKILLS TRAINING ON THE EFFECT OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS' SELF-CONCEPT SCORES AND BEHAVIOR

HEIDRUN M. DALTON

AN INVESTIGATION OF COMMUNICATION SKILLS TRAINING ON THE EFFECT OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS' SELF-CONCEPT SCORES AND BEHAVIOR

An Abstract
Presented to the
Graduate and Research Council of
Austin Peay State University

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Science

by Heidrun M. Dalton June 1987

ARSTRACT

A review of the literature indicated that inappropriate behavior tends to be the result of ineffective communication with significant others. This study sought to test the effect of a skills training in reflective listening, assertion, and problem solving on the measured self-concept scores of 24 adolescent high school students identified to communicate ineffectively with at least one teacher. Behavior defined as aggressive or passive constituted ineffective communication. A second comparison was made to determine if the passive and/or aggressive students' self-concept scores were significantly lower than the general population. A third general analysis was employed to measure behavioral improvements in the classroom as observed by the respective teachers.

The findings in the present research indicate that the passive and/or aggressive students' self-concept scores did not significantly increase following the communication skills training. However, the students' measured self-concepts were significantly lower than the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS) norm group. Also, the results indicated that some aggressive students intensified their aggressive behaviors following the training phase. Inclass acquisition of the reflective listening, assertion, and problem-solving skills were achieved by most of the students. No aggressive and/or passive behaviors during

the on-going group sessions were recorded after the second half of the training.

AN INVESTIGATION OF COMMUNICATION SKILLS TRAINING ON THE EFFECT OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS SELF-CONCEPT SCORES AND BEHAVIOR

A Thesis

Presented to the

Graduate and Research Council of

Austin Peay State University

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Science

by Heidrun M. Dalton June 1987 To the Graduate and Research Council:

I am submitting herewith a Thesis written by Heidrun M. Dalton entitled "An Investigation of Communication Skills Training on the Effect of High School Students' Self-Concept Scores and Behavior." I have examined the final copy of this paper for form and content, and I recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science, with a major in guidance and counseling.

Funda Kudolak Major Professor

We have read this thesis and recommend its acceptance:

Second Committee Member

Ahird Committee Member

Accepted for the Graduate and Research Council:

William N. Ellis Dean of the Graduate School

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Many people have been instrumental in helping me to complete this study. Dr. Linda B. Rudolph, Special Assistant to the Vice President for Academic Affairs, Austin Peay State University, has encouraged, supported, and guided me throughout this entire project. To Drs. John D. Martin and Robert M. Nevels, Professors of Psychology, Austin Peay State University, I am grateful for their recommendations and suggestions. I am indebted to Mr. Theodore G. White, Principal of Northwest High School, Clarksville, Tennessee, for his outstanding cooperation and assistance in the coordination and implementation of the skills training. My gratitude also goes to the participating teachers of Northwest High School who graciously allowed me to inconvenience them with additional assignments.

Last, but not least, I would like to thank my children, Bob, Mike, and Heidi for their understanding and support in seeing this project to completion. Also, I would like to express my sincere appreciation to my friends and colleagues who have offered their encouragement and assistance.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER																	PAGE
1. 1	INTRO	DDL	J C T	1 O	N												1
	Sul	o s k	il	1 s	0	f	Со	mm	un	ic	a t	io	n				7
	ı	_ i s	tε	n i	ng	s	kі	11	s								8
	F	ro	ь	em	- s	o 1	v i	ng	S	kі	11	s					9
	,	ls s	er	ti	v e	ne	SS	S	kі	11	s						11
	Pui	^pc	SE	0	f	th	е	St	u d	y							14
2. M	METHO	DOC	LC	GY													15
	Sub	ј€	ct	s													15
	Mat	ter	ia	1 s													15
	Pro	СЕ	dι	re													17
3. R	RESUL	_TS	5													<i>:</i>	20
4. 0	ISCU	JSS	IC	N													27
REFERENC	ES																35
APPENDIC	ES																42

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

The home constitutes the first and foremost psychological environment that exposes the developing child to cultural transmissions (Glasser, 1969; Schneider & Schneider, 1983; Berkovitz, 1985). The school and the relationships at school constitute a second major influence which provide an opportunity for the child to internalize valued attributes such as feelings of competence, adequacy, and control over environmental events identified to be crucial in the formation of mature personality traits (Berkovitz. 1985; Glasser, 1969). School curricula, however, researchers point out, are primarily based upon the assumption that psychological requisites have been provided, and that the student is receptive to prescribed instructions (Bruner, 1966; Ogburn, 1983; Brickell, 1980). The problem of the marginally functioning, maladjusted student remains unresolved although "lack of discipline" was singled out in the 1975, 1980, 1983, and 1984 Gallup Polls as this nation's paramount concern in regard to educational issues (Swick, 1981; Gallup, 1983, 1984).

In an analysis of four national education reform proposals developed by leading educators, Herr (1984) found that today, as in the past, human development and those forces that impact upon the learner such as interpersonal communication, decision-making skills, and

management of affect are largely ignored. Carkhuff, as quoted by Anthony (1985), states, "We simply have not trained people in the most human of functions: to think!"

A review of the literature published in the journal, "Adolescence," between 1976 and 1981 summarized by Stefanko (1984) shows a predominant number of articles addressing the issue of maladjusted behavior. Discipline problems generally, and delinquent behavior specifically, were singled out as the highest cause for concern in educational issues.

Explanations for deviant behavior abound. Dreikurs (1964) theorizes that all behavior is purposive. He believes that the socially and personally ineffective youngster seeks to gratify his or her needs through four basic inappropriate behavioral patterns: attention, power, revenge, and displays of inadequacy or withdrawal. Seligman (1975) contends that when outcomes of behavior are not affected by one's attempt to control them, helplessness is learned. When children lack personal resources in dealing effectively with their environment, aggressive and/or regressive modes of behavior may lead to apathy and loss of self-respect (Frostig & Maslow, 1973). A study by Werner (1984) shows that the degree of adjustment and the resiliency to retain mental stability in a given environment appear to be proportional to confidence in

the effectiveness of one's own actions. Bronfenbrenner (1973) indicates that chronic, unsuccessful communication with people who matter results in alienation and isolation. Subsequent lack of direction and ignorance of boundaries render the individual susceptible to deeper social resignation and deviance. Dinkmeyer and Dreikurs (1963) refer to this phenomenon as "retreat into illness," a behavior that has been adopted through futile attempts to find an acceptable place in society. Schneider and Schneider (1983) state that the behavior of deviant youth can be characterized as "resistive," "anti-social," and "self-exploitative." These youngsters tend to feel discouraged, angry, revengeful, and helpless.

"Difficult to get along with" and "lack of attachment" were two other salient features found to be dominant in studies conducted by Stefanko (1984) and Spillane-Grieco (1984). Most of the delinquents in their research were reported to have a reputation for "being in trouble" long before the deviant episodes. Loeber's (1982) review of precursors of delinquency concurs with these latter findings. He also notes that chronic offenders display antisocial conduct at an early age and in various social settings such as the home and the school. Glasser (1969) emphasizes that when needs of self-worth and acceptance are not accommodated in the preadolescent stage, motivation will be destroyed and a failure identity will be assumed. Pathways of love and self-esteem will be abandoned in

favor of the only alternatives left open: withdrawal and/or delinquency.

Some adolescents appear to become deviant because of a direct need for control, attachment, support, desire to show competence, or because of ignorance as to what is expected of them (Hoffman, 1984). Hoffman concludes that such demonstrations of independence of mind are often misinterpreted by adults who are unable or unwilling to recognize normal developmental behaviors. Defensive reactions and/or punitive measures by such authority figures tend to intensify alienation between the two populations. Schneider and Schneider (1983) echo this position and point out that such students will continually strive to gain validation for the belief that they are highly rejectable and can only find a negative place with the teacher.

Assumptions of inferiority, humiliation, disgrace, and deficiency are signified by Dinkmeyer and Driekurs (1963) to be the most threatening dangers to the sense of personal value and status. They write that "What one believes him/herself to be is the basis for action" (p. 35). "People fail when they have lost confidence in their ability to gain approval through socially acceptable means. Discouragement is a fundamental determinant for all deficiencies and failure" (p. 42). This view is also consonant with Thompson and Poppen (1979) who believe that low self-concept formation is primarily derived

from unproductive work activities, poor interpersonal relationships, and the inability to form satisfying bonds with significant others. Individuals high in social avoidance and distress, in turn, were shown to possess significantly lower self-esteem, less self-confidence, and less need affiliation than those low in social avoidance and distress (Geist & Borecki, 1982). In his extensive work with delinquent girls, Glasser (1969), too, determined that this population had no confidence in themselves, possessed no confidence that they would succeed in the future, and were devoid of warm, constructive relationships with families or with teachers. They had resigned themselves to a life without important human interactions.

By the time the child reaches adolescence, Berkovitz (1985), as many other researchers, has determined that most attitudes toward family, school, and authority figures appear to have been formed "but not entirely foreclosed" (p. 162). He believes that remedial programs can be implemented by concerned school personnel to provide an opportunity for the adolescent to overcome detrimental environmental forces. Glasser (1969) and Ogburn (1983) posit that it is the foremost responsibility of the school to foster learning from within, and that the formation of a positive self-concept should not be left to chance.

Instrumental social incompetence and interaction deficit have been linked to maladjustment by all of the aforementioned researchers either directly or by implication.

A recurring, pervasive theme concomitant with the phenomenon of maladjustment is the marked inability for young people to be able to communicate with the environment in such a way as to gain, ameliorate, or enhance self-worth, competence, and control. Bolton (1979) believes that ineffective communication is one of the leading problems in today's society. He further espouses the view that a breakdown in verbal interaction may result in loneliness. physical illness, psychological stress, vocational incompetence, and even death. In his estimation, approximately ninety percent of all crucial communication is impeded by road blocks which increase the likelihood of impaired understanding, detrimental relationships, anger, and dependent behaviors counterproductive to the unfolding of psychologically healthy and mature individuals. Communication is believed to be the basis for relationships that enable another to learn, grow, solve problems, become more productive, and move toward psychological wellness (Rogers, 1958; Shostrom, 1967; Glasser, 1969; Harris, 1973; Gordon, 1975; Boser & Poppen, 1983; Zechnich, 1983).

The 1978 Education Act identified and recognized the value of oral communication and incorporated this competency into the "Back to Basics" mandate. Specific training in this new discipline at the elementary and secondary school levels, however, is largely non-existent. According to Ridge (1984), English teachers, themselves inadequately trained in oral communication, have been

assigned the task of instructing in a subject area that has not yet been clearly defined and that lacks the methodology from which to direct a course of study. To simplify the task, attempts have been made to analyze and subdivide this multi-dimensional phenomenon into various subskills. Preliminary investigations and studies are in progress but no conclusive research in regard to this issue appears to be available at this time.

Subskills of Communication

According to Webster's Third New International Dictionary (1961), to "communicate" denotes "to transmit knowledge, information or feeling so that it is satisfactorily received or understood," (p. 460). It is here that the discrepancy arises. Before any message can be correctly received, it must first be understood. In order for a message to be understood, it must be confirmed for accuracy by the sender. Reality differs from this ideal. Leaders in the field of human interaction agree that most people do not communicate well (Gordon, 1975; Harris, 1973; Bolton, 1979; Carkhuff, as quoted by Anthony, 1985). Most people make assumptions about what has been transmitted based on their own background, personal disposition, or immediate needs, and not on what actually has been asserted. Human interaction requires seeing things from the other person's perspective. Only when this foundation has been established can transactions achieve the desired purpose. Following accurate decoding of a message, the

receiver must be able to convey his or her needs to the sender so that an exchange of ideas and/or a solution satisfactory to both can be obtained (Bolton, 1979; Gordon, 1975; Harris, 1973; Pearson, 1983).

Listening skills. Ridge (1984), an advocate for teaching listening skills at the high school level, contends that "no one doubts that listening is the most used tool for learning" (p. 3). She believes that listening competence employs both knowing and doing. One must know that people communicate for different reasons and respond accordingly; knowing what is expected helps a person to realize when to speak and when to be silent; knowing when the speaker is looking for empathy helps the listener to fulfill that role; and knowing our own biases and those of the speaker are important variables to consider in making judgments. Ridge adds that merely knowing about these elements of competent listening does not provide the feedback needed to verify that the assumptions made during listening are correct. Not until covert thoughts are verified through appropriate overt comments and questions can such competence be claimed. Effective listening takes practice. To draw verbal conclusions, to hear facts and to guess at the mood of the speaker are skills which are the product of listening. The process of listening does not change, she continues, but the purposes to which we put our listening skills differ. For example, judgment in persuasive messages call for the same analytical process as empathically listening to a friend who needs assistance

in decision making. Ridge contends that "various aspects of each message are given different weights but the process of attending, concentrating, remembering, and cognitively structuring is the same" (p. 5).

Swanson (1984) espouses a four component approach to teaching listening skills to adolescents. The first unit focuses on the physical aspects of an effective listener who communicates attention to the speaker. Eye contact, body language, and meaningful sounds conveying congruence are characteristics indicative of the good listener. Lesson number two addresses attitudinal roadblocks and presents techniques designed to overcome these barriers. Lesson number three focuses on the speaker's input: the manner in which the message is delivered, the intent or purpose of the message, vocal patterns, and so forth. All require cognitive application from the listener that must be practiced. Ouizzes and performance reports serve as instruments of reinforcement and selfevaluation as outlined in the fourth component. A simple, five-point performance scale for each student ranging from zero, denoting absent listening skills, to five, indicating consistently active listening behavior, is suggested as a convenient device for objective measurements of progress. Swanson concludes that "when students learn to listen, they will be able to listen to learn" (p. 12).

Problem solving skills. Heppner and Anderson (1983)

examined the hypothesis that problem-solving ability is positively related to psychological adjustment. Their study not only substantiated this assumption but brought to the fore another related variable: self-appraisal. When informal self-evaluations were compared with the General Index of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, those individuals who rated themselves low in ability to analyze and evaluate situations and events also scored negatively on the General Index of Psychological Adjustment. Ineffective problem-solvers appear to have more personal dissatisfaction as well and report more severe levels of both short- and long-term depression (Heppner, Baumgardner & Jackson, 1985). Self-appraised effective problem-solvers by comparison claim to be more socially comfortable and generally more in charge of their lives. Concomitant attributes reported are: satisfaction, few self-doubts, greater personal adequacy, resourcefulness, and perseverance (Duckworth, 1979). The implication of such findings are summed up by the authors who emphasize the need for intervention strategies either administered concurrently with or prior to the problem-solving skill training. Without altering the person's deep-rooted feeling of inferiority and incompetence. the efficacy of a problem-solving skills training will he weakened.

Rogers (1983) adds some general guidelines to the teaching of problem solving. The message in problem-solving

must be simple, concise, and match the mental maturity and general knowledge of the student. The key is to understand the whole problem before attempting to solve it, Rogers claims. Questions such as "What am I expected to do"; "What information is necessary to identify the problem"; and "What key ideas will harness the essential components necessary for correct analysis and evaluation" are designed to help students to think more flexibly and critically. Successful problem-solvers delay initial judgments until the entire situation has been examined and evaluated. By means of this strategy, the underlying issue is uncovered and extraneous factors are eliminated. The problem is then restated into a simple, pertinent, and manageable format and divided into further substeps for easier resolution.

Assertiveness skills. Assertive skills training for adolescents is virtually non-existent. One study by Waksman (1984) examines the relationship between social skills training, of which assertiveness skill acquisition is a major part, and self-concept. Twenty-three high school students participated in a four-week intervention program that showed statistically significant improvements between pre- and post-evaluation scores on the Piers-Harris Children Self-Concept Scale and the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire.

Waksman (1984) stressed the difference between assertion and aggression, emotional defusing, and personal needs

and rights as part of the didactic instructions. playing, modeling, and behavior rehearsals offer opportunities for students to exercise each newly acquired concept. Presence or absence of the objective was checked on a behavior list following the modeling vignettes. Students were not identified for their poor self-concepts: the entire class learned new assertive skills as part of their regular curriculum. Socially more adept students were able to demonstrate socially acceptable behaviors and served as role models. The group setting itself presented the opportunity for peer support and positive reinforcement, a necessary component in most learning situations. The more withdrawn students were able to learn through observing the role models. Due to lack of comparable studies, the results of this training program are tentative.

A realistic working model implementing problem-solving skills and assertiveness has been advanced by Schneider and Schneider (1983). Subsumed under the affective curriculum module of a three-unit program designed to re-educate emotionally disturbed students, these subskills are taught within the framework of Adler's (1964) teleological prototype.

In an atmosphere of responsibility, respect, resourcefulness, and responsiveness, the students are exposed to therapeutic challenges to understand, alter, and redirect their lives toward personally and socially rewarding ends. The affective process is divided into four basic phases: relationship, analysis, interpretation, and reorientation. The relationship phase involves the integration of the maladjusted students into the social group where they experience a caring, concerned, firm but fair attitude provided under the leadership of the teacher. Interpersonal interdependence is encouraged by means of cooperative problem-solving and assertiveness practice sessions within the group setting. Students are placed in situations where they must relate and cooperate with each other either by introduction of a personal problem or a group project that requires everyone's input. The analysis and interpretation phase entails examining and questioning the students' goals or purposes of their behavior. The teacher offers non-judgmental interpretive hypotheses as to the motive of such behavior which encourages the students to appraise the unproductive outcomes of their actions in a realistic and rational manner. the final phase, the students experience the value of the program. Problem solving and assertiveness skills are applied in the group setting and through encouragement and suggestions, irrational convictions and behaviors are modified.

Problem solving is singled out by Schneider and
Schneider (1983) as the most crucial technique to be
learned. This tool provides the "pay-off" for positive
behavior. Assertiveness is instrumental in the protection

and defense of the newly acquired interaction skill within the home and school environment. The internalization of assertive skills involves "being able to ask for and defend ideas as well as being able to cope with the limits on what one can change" (p. 387).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to determine the effect of communication skills training upon high school student's level of self-concept. Effective communication is a skill that will enable adolescents to bridge the gap between past failures and future competencies in dealing with their environments, and a skill that will allow the maladjusted to experience success in relating to others in such a way as to enhance self-esteem and foster maturity. Educationally, the acquisition of such training is intended to render the student receptive to the equally important attainment of subject matter found to be vital in the formation of productive, mature and responsible adults (Herr, 1984).

The entire unit of affective re-education is based upon the fundamental, universal phenomenon toward which self-actualized individuals seem to be striving: to be understood, respected, and accepted. It is from this perspective that the proposed communication skills program was designed, implemented, and evaluated.

CHAPTER 2 Methodology

Subjects

Twenty-four students from a local high school, ages 15 to 17, voluntarily participated in the present study. Five students were black and 19 were white. There were six females and 18 males. The criteria for selection was aggressive and passive behavior displays toward at least one teacher as evidenced in class interactions. All but two students lived in homes classified as militar Materials

The subjects completed the Clinical Research Form of the Tenenssee Self Concept Scale (TSCS) developed by Fitts (1964). One hundred self-descriptive statements indicate the subjective view of physical self, moral-ethical self, family self, and social self. The total positive score reflects the overall level of self-concept This total score indicator, which has a test-retest relia bility of .92, was used to compare pre- and post-test results.

The six teaching units were comprised of teaching materials developed by Bolton (1979), Waksman and Messmer (1979), Thompson and Poppen (1979), and the present researcher. A lesson plan format was followed that described the objectives and activities of both students and teacher. The orientation unit consisted of TSCS

administration, establishment of rules of conduct by the students, and examination and discussion of the communication cycle. Unit Two required discussion of the students' and other people's communication styles within the communication process, why people behave as they do, what consequences ensue when miscommunication takes place, and the student's responsibility within the human communication network. Unit Three outlined the concepts for reflective listening skills such as identifying correct subject and affect of a message. Unit Four was designed to teach assertiveness following identification and correction of aggressive and/or passive communication styles. Unit Five encouraged problem-solving techniques to be applied following correct identification of each student's needs and wants. Unit Six entailed the final phase of the workshop to include TSCS posttest administration and students' responses to the overall effectiveness of the study.

A behavior rating scale composed of 15 items was used to measure transference of learning (see Appendix A). The items and format were selected in part from Burks' (1977) Behavior Rating Scales and from the objectives of the communication skills training lesson plans developed by the present researcher. The level of improvement was measured on a six-point scale ranging from "regressive" to "excellent improvement" on each of the 15 items.

The specific target behaviors were acquisition of reflective listening, assertion, and problem-solving skills. The global behavior evaluated was improvement in responsible behavior as evidenced in improved communication following the treatment phase.

A checklist was used by the present researcher to record the acquisition of the reflective listening, assertion. and problem-solving skills (see Appendix B). A checkmark placed to the right of each student's name on the daily attendance roster indicated ability to perform the task. A circle reflected non-acquisition. Four out of five correctly identified, asserted, and resolved statements, vignettes or problems constituted successful performance. To the left of each name a space was provided to record presence or absence of inappropriate, uncooperative and/or disruptive behaviors as they occurred during the on-going sessions. Such displays were noted with an asterisk placed to the left of the subject's name. The recording of the dysfunctional behaviors was concealed from the students. It was stressed to them at the beginning of the workshop that continuous note-taking by the researcher was a vital part of the study.

Procedure

The teachers were requested to recommend students they found to be communicating aggressively or passively. Forty-two students were referred under these two categories.

During a 30-minute orientation, the present researcher informed the potential subjects of the purpose, procedure and benefits of the communication skills workshop. From the pool of 42 students, 28 obtained parental permission to participate; 24 students completed the study.

Four groups of six students were exposed to approximately 40 minutes of communication skills training for a total of 11 sessions. Total time of treatment was approximately seven hours and 20 minutes. The subjects were assigned to first, second, third, and fourth period based upon their academic performance in those classes they would miss because of participation in the study. Ten minutes was allowed for obtaining homework assignments prior to attending the workshop. One session was canceled. Fifty-five minutes was required for TSCS pre- and posttest administrations. The skills training consisted of six units: Units 1 and 2--Orientation and Factors on Communication; Unit 3--Reflective Listening; Unit 4--Assertion; Unit 5--Problem Solving; and Unit 6--Closure.

The teaching format was a combination of group counseling and didactic instruction. Introduction and explanations of new concepts were followed by probing-style questioning requiring students' cooperative input and demonstration of the skills. Approximately 10% of the total learning phase consisted of written exercises. Lectures consumed approximately 30%, with the remainder being taken up with student activities. The students were challenged

to think about the subject matter, about their behavior in the group, and about the consequences of verbal and nonverbal behavior generally. The role-playing exercises served as practice and reinforcing agents of change. The group, initially prompted by the teacher, imposed sanctions upon students not adhering to rules of conduct predetermined by the group. The atmosphere established and maintained by the teacher/researcher was characterized by mutual respect, firmness, fairness, cooperation, and a positive attitude toward learning. Outside activities consisted of practice in the skills with significant others. No homework was assigned.

The present researcher designed and taught the teaching material used in the present study. A copy of these instructional units may be obtained from the researcher.

CHAPTER 3

Results

The pre- and post-test results of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (Fitts, 1964) were analyzed to determine if the subjects' self-concept scores had significantly increased following training in communication skills. A second comparison was made by evaluating the TSCS pretest scores against the test scores of the TSCS norm group to determine if the passive/aggressive subjects possessed lower self-concept scores than the general population. The recording of on-going dysfunctional behaviors during the group session served the purpose of measuring effectiveness of training within the group setting as well as allowing the researcher to determine if correct verbal and non-verbal behaviors were within the students' repertoire. The manifestation of skill acquisition was recorded on the communication skills checklist to establish competence in the new skills. A fifth evaluation was employed to identify transference of learning over .time. This instrument was designed to measure both long-term presence of the communication skills and the level of improvement in general maturity and responsibility.

The mean total positive score for the TSCS norm group, as reported by Fitts (1964), was 345.57 with a standard deviation of 30.7. The mean total positive

score for the passive/aggressive group before treatment was 310.33 with a standard deviation of 11.58. The value of the t-test for independent samples exceeded the critical value of 2.07 at the .05 level of significance. From this analysis, it may be concluded that the self-concepts of the subjects of this study were significantly lower than the TSCS norm group. This determination appears to confirm the hypothesis that adolescents who do not communicate effectively with their environments possess lower self-concept scores than the general population.

No statistically significant treatment effect could be established from comparisons between TSCS pre- and post-test means, however. A t-test for dependent samples yielded a value of 2.03, which did not exceed the critical value of 2.07 at the .05 level of significance. Therefore, it was concluded that the short-term communication skills training was not effective in raising the self-concept scores of the participating subjects.

The number of dysfunctional behavior incidents recorded for the ten aggressive students for the first five class periods was 17. For the same period, the number of passive episodes observed for the 14 passive students was 19.

By comparison, two aggressive and zero passive occurrences were noted during the second half of the treatment phase.

All but one disruptive occurrence was followed by an apology as agreed upon by the group at the outset of

the study. This change in behavior could indicate that the communication skills training was instrumental in improving functional verbal and non-verbal behaviors of the participating adolescents within the treatment setting, although no statistical analyses were performed.

The communication skill checklist indicated acquisition of basic listening, assertion, and problem-solving skills. Ihrough role play and verbal interaction, each student (100%) demonstrated the ability to identify correct affect and content of messages delivered by fellow students in five different reflective listening vignettes. The problem-solving objective (correctly solve four out of five problems) was met by 19 (79.4%) of the 24 students. Seventeen students (70.8%) obtained passing scores by using appropriate verbal responses when placed in five hypothetical situations that required non-aggressive/non-passive replies.

In addition to the specific communication skills and dysfunctional behavior, long-term attitudinal improvements were measured on a behavior rating scale. Six weeks after the conclusion of the study, 15 participating teachers indicated their observations of the students' behavior on the rating scale to measure transference of learning in both areas.

The rating scale consists of 15 items. Six levels of behavior, ranging from "Excellent Improvement" (Level

5) to "Regression" (Level 0), were used to identify the general and specific target behaviors. Of the 360 possible teacher responses, 120 (33.33%) were noted as "No Improvement," 46 (12.77%) "Very Little Improvement," 103 (28.61%) "Some Improvement," 35 (9%) "Much Improvement," 28 (7%) "Excellent Improvement," and 28 (7.77%) "Regression." Total improvement votes were 212 (56%). From this vote, it may be assumed that for over half of the subjects, the communication skills training resulted in positive gains in verbal and non-verbal communication following treatment (see Appendix C).

The greatest positive gains were made in Criteria #8 and #9. "Student is considerate of other people's feelings" and "Student is non-judgmental of other's actions and words." respectively. These data indicate that two of the primary prerequisites of good communication skills. to tune into the affective part of a message and to refrain from judging others, were present at that time. For some students, the analysis further revealed that the intervention may have had an adverse effect. Lowest improvement behavior was Criteria #5, "Student's grades have improved," with six regressive marks. Eight students showed deteriorated performance in homework completion. grades, and/or general attitude toward school. Furthermore. regression was more dominant in the aggressive than in the passive student category with 23 votes for the former and five votes for the latter subgroup. The passive

students regressed in school-related rubrics only, whereas aggressive students tended to regress across general and specific target behaviors. Of the 28 total regression votes, 18 were reported by one teacher, five were indicative of a suspended student's behavior (subject completed the study), and five were noted by various other teachers. This leads to the following conclusion: School-related performance deteriorated following the communication skills training for five aggressive and three passive students. The three passive students repressed in schoolrelated performance only. Four of the five aggressive students regressed in school-related criteria, general maturity, and specific skills performance learned during training. These four students were rated by a teacher who was the only one experiencing deterioration in both areas. This information suggested that passive students tended to learn more and regress less than aggressive students. Also, there appeared to be a potential relationship between type of student, training, and classroom teacher. Further research is needed before valid conclusions may be drawn.

Specific teacher comments included "citizenship has improved," "overall behavior improvement," (student is) "much happier," "great improvement," "attendance improvement," "much more cooperative," "tries to help much more," . . . "understands problems which has helped me" (teacher), as well as two negative reports: "can't

see any difference," and (student) . . . "is much worse" by the one teacher who also marked 18 regressive behaviors.

When comparing the aggressive with the passive student performance ratings, the following statistics applied.

Table 1

<u>Comparison Between Aggressive and Passive Behavior Performance</u>
Ratings

Item	Tallies	Percent
Aggressive		
No Improvement	71	43%
Very Little Improvement	10	6%
Some Improvement	35	21%
Much Improvement	15	9%
Excellent Improvement	11	7%
Regression	23	14%
Passive		
No Improvement	49	25%
Very Little Improvement	35	18%
Some Improvement	69	35%
Much Improvement	20	10%
Excellent Improvement	17	9%
Regression	5	3%

Total aggressive improvement tallies were 71 (43%). Total no improvement tallies were also 71 (43%). Total regression marks were 23 (14%).

Total improvement tallies for the passive group were 141 (72%). Total no improvement votes were 49 (25%). Total regression votes were 5 (3%). Comparisons of the two categories indicate a superior gain made by the passive group in both skills training and mature behavior displays as well as fewer regression votes. These results indicate that the beneficial effect of this communication skills training was more positive for the passive subjects. The aggressive students increased performance was negated by the total no improvement and regression votes. In fact, a deficit balance resulted when regression votes and no improvement votes were subtracted from improvement scores. This analysis suggests that the aggressive student displayed a greater increase in dysfunctional behavior following intervention than before treatment. Based on these indicators, a short-term intervention of reflective listening, assertion, and problem solving with emphasis on mature behavior may have had an encouraging effect upon aggressively disposed students to intensify deviant responses.

CHAPTER 4

Discussion

This study was conducted to determine if communication skills training would increase the self-concept scores of adolescents identified to communicate ineffectively.

A second purpose of this research was to test the hypothesis that adolescents who display dysfunctional behaviors such as aggression and/or passivity possess lower self-concept scores than the general population. The results indicated that the short-term training in reflective listening, assertion, and problem solving did not significantly raise the self-concept scores of the subjects although self-reports, reports by teachers, and the implications derived from the behavior rating scale indicate growth in both skill acquisition and responsible behavior.

The second hypothesis was substantiated by the results of the present study. When compared to the sample population included in the TSCS norm group, the measured self-concept scores of the adolescents in this sample were significantly lower. This result is in agreement with the findings of previous researchers in the field of human behavior who determined that ineffective communication with the environment is a correlate of low self-esteem (Glasser, 1969; Thompson & Poppen, 1979; Waksman & Messmer, 1979; Geist & Borecki, 1982).

The checklist of in-class skill acquisition and aggressive/passive behavior displays indicated that learning took place in both areas. Deviant responses had ceased by the fifth group session and the reflective listening, assertion, and problem-solving skills had been successfully demonstrated by most students. The results of the behavior rating scale showed the presence of overall transference of learning in 56% of the group with the most gain having been made in consideration for others and non-judgmental attitude categories. A deteriorated effect was noted in the academic-related rubrics "grade improvement." "homework completion," "class participation," and "school attitude," respectively. These data indicated that while skills training and an increase in responsible behavior were acquired by over half of the subjects, academic performance decreased for five aggressive and three passive students.

The passive students did not regress in the responsible criteria, but only in areas directly related to the school. Four of the five aggressive subjects showed regression in both responsibility and specific communication skills. This result points toward an increase in aggressive episodes in the aggressively disposed students outside the treatment setting. The emphasis on responsibility concurrently taught with the communication skills may not have been sufficiently integrated, overlearned, and/or reinforced in the field. Based on the data from the behavior rating

scale, it cannot be ruled out that the deterioration in responsible behavior may have been an interaction with another unknown variable as only the four students rated by one particular teacher regressed in categories diametrically opposed to the purpose of training.

The results of the study also reflect the inconsistent findings reported in the literature. Olexa and Forman (1984), for instance, studied the effects of social problem solving training on classroom behavior of 32 urban disadvantaged youth. They found that alternative and consequential thinking skills were acquired following eight weeks of training. Learning this skill, however, also seemed to result in an increase in observed aggressive behavior. Almeida and Denham (1984) summarized their findings of an analysis of studies on interpersonal cognitive problem solving with the statement that this kind of education "merely loosens the tongue" (p. 12) of behavior disordered students. This phenomenon was also noted in the aggressive students of the present study.

By contrast, Calsyn and Prost (1983) report positive growth in self-concept scores and behavior after an eight-hour training in affective education designed to improve interpersonal relationships and self-esteem of 25 middle school students. In their encounter with inconclusive and contradictory research findings, they conclude that "... it is difficult to explain why some programs

succeed in improving self-esteem while others failed
. . . however, it does seem that programs that were more intense in terms of either number of contact hours or integration with the regular school curriculum were more successful" (p. 60). Their study was not a skills training as the present study, but a program that focused on both the interrelatedness with and the unique individuality of people with emphasis on construction and maintenance of self-esteem. The fact that the present study could not be considered "intense" due to comparatively few contact hours and to non-integration in the regular curriculum may account for the lack of significant increases in the students' self concept scores.

Calsyn and Prost's (1983) results are inconsistent with Coopersmith's (1967) and Rosenberg's (1979) studies.

Their research showed evidence that the general sense of self-worth tends to remain constant over time and is only slow to change. Coopersmith (1967) further contended that assertiveness in children, the confidence in their own judgment, and actions in social as well as in intellectual endeavors appear to be a correlate of self-esteem. By implication, his data would suggest that the higher the self concept of the child, the more assertive he or she tends to be. Assuming this kind of reasoning, it would appear that as the self concept is slow to change the correlate, assertiveness, too, is slow to change. This

theorizing is also inconsistent with the results of Waksman's (1984) study. His research revealed that short-term training in assertion to improve the self concept of 23 adolescents did result in the desired effect.

The greatest difficulties incurred while conducting the present study were peripheral circumstances surrounding the skills training, not the training itself, although revisions to overcome methodological weaknesses are needed. The students' participation and cooperation after the initial "warming up period" was achieved. Responses to the activities, to the students' opportunity to contribute, and to the advantages gained by the training were positive except for the recurring theme: How to handle teachers. parents, and peers who are sometimes the cause, if not the contributors, to the students' negative attitude toward self and others. As Greenleaf (1982) pointed out, the transference of training is subject to reinforcement outside the laboratory. He contended that the issue of reinforcement "is of particular relevance to the deviant adolescent, as his peer group will often work against prosocial treatment aims by continuing to reinforce the deviant behavior. Essentially, once treatment strategies are terminated, transfer often fails to occur because the intervention does not prepare the person to generalize behavior to new situations and/or there is no incentive to perform the behavior in any situation if reinforcement contingencies are absent" (p. 123). A short-term skills

training is likely to counteract detrimental influences only during the treatment phase, at best. A troubled adolescent, primarily under the control and influence of parents, peers, and school is unlikely to possess the mental maturity, experience, and patience with which to approach a disadvantageous home environment, a negative track record at school and/or the reinforcing impact of peers. A long-term skills training is needed that not only teaches, but also monitors, corrects, and positively reinforces continued efforts to act and speak responsibly. Additionally, under such tutelage, students whose problems are severe could be identified and referred for individual counseling.

Other peripheral limitations of the study were absenteeism and tardiness. Some students missed as many as four of the eleven sessions. Sickness, conflicting work schedules, and expulsion from school in one instance were reasons for non-attendance. The tardiness was in part due to the inherent nature of the study. As the students were removed from their regular classes during the four-week workshop, homework assignments from their respective teachers were obtained immediately before coming to the workshop. The ten-minute allowance for this activity was often extended to 15 minutes, further reducing valuable contact time.

At the conclusion of the workshop, when asked to evaluate the communication skills training, the students

made two recommendations. One was to allow them more time to speak and the other was incorporation of a skills training of this kind in the regular curriculum. The former request would not be possible within a four-week time span. Careful preparation, monitoring, and quidance throughout the skills acquisition is essential in learning these concepts. As the data from the present study suggest, such supervision is not only imperative during the initial acquisition phase, but equally essential in the field where transference of learning is to take place. Without learning how to speak and behave responsibly, training of this kind would be counterproductive to the purpose of this program, and ultimately detrimental to the students. The latter request would be recommended only if the methodological weaknesses of the study are corrected, and if the influence on the regressive effects in the school-performance and in the increase of the aggressive behavior for some students have been identified and controlled.

Although the results of the present study reflect the inconsistencies reported in the literature, one argument cannot be questioned: the need to improve skill deficits and low self concepts of youngsters displaying dysfunctional behaviors. Perhaps the state of the art is best described by Goldstein, Sprafkin, Gershaw and Klein (1980), who stated that it is not true that nothing works, "on the contrary, everything works but only for certain youngsters"

(pp. 10-11). For certain youngsters, this communication skills training appears to have been instrumental in improving verbal and non-verbal behavior. With more time and more extensive training, perhaps the self concept scores, too, will improve.

REFERENCES

- Adler, A. (1969). <u>Understanding human nature</u>. New York: Fawcett World Library.
- Almeida, M. C., & Denham, S. A. (1984, April). Interpersonal cognitive problem-solving: A meta-analysis. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Eastern Psychological Association, Baltimore, MD. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 247 003).
- Anthony, W. A. (1985, February). Human and information resource development in the age of information: A dialogue with Robert Carkhuff. <u>Journal of Counseling and Development</u>, 63(6), 372-374.
- Berkovitz, I. H. (1985). The adolescent, schools, and schooling. Adolescent Psychiatry, 12, 162-176.
- Bolton, R. H. (1979). <u>People skills: How to assert</u>

 <u>yourself, listen to others, and resolve conflicts</u>.

 Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.
- Boser, J., & Poppen, W. (1983, March). Multidimensional communication in youth-adult relationships. Paper presented at the annual convention of the American Personnel and Guidance Association, Washington, D.C. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 236 464).
- Brickell, H. M. (1980, December). How to change what matters. Educational Leadership, 38(3), 202-207.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1973). The roots of alienation.

 Journal of the National Association for Women Deans,

 Administrators and Counselors, 37(1), 3-17.

- Bruner, J. S. (1966). <u>Toward a theory of instruction.</u>

 Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Burks, H. F. (1977). <u>Burks' behavior rating scales:</u>

 <u>Preschool and kindergarten edition</u>. Los Angeles:

 Western Psychological Services.
 - Calsyn, R. J., & Prost, B. (1983, December). Evaluation of affective education curriculum: Sex and treatment effects. <u>Journal of Humanistic Education and Develop-</u> ment, 22(2), 58-69.
 - Coopersmith, S. (1967). The antecedents of self esteem.

 San Francisco: W. H. Freeman.
- Dinkmeyer, D., & Dreikurs, R. (1963). Encouraging children
 to learn: The encouragement process. Englewood
 Cliffs: Prentice Hall.
- Dreikurs, R. (1964). <u>Children: The challenge</u>. New York: Hawthorn.
- Duckworth, J. (1979). MMPI interpretation manual for counselors and clinicians (2nd rev. ed.). Muncie, IN: Accelerated Development.
- Fitts, W. H. (1964). Tennessee self-concept scale.

 Nashville: Counselor Recordings and Tests. (Currently published by Western Psychological Services, Los Angeles).
- Frostig, M., & Maslow, P. (1973). <u>Learning problems in</u>

 the classroom: <u>Prevention and remediation</u>. New

 York: Grune and Stratton.
- Gallup, A. (1984, October). The Gallup poll of teachers'

- attitudes toward the public schools. Phi Delta Kappan, 66(2), 97-107.
- Gallup, G. H. (1983, September). The fifteenth annual Gallup poll of the public's attitudes toward the public schools. Phi Delta Kappan. 65(1), 33-47.
- Geist, C. R., & Borecki, S. (1982, July). Social avoidance and distress as a predictor of perceived locus of control and level of self-esteem. <u>Journal of Clinical</u> Psychology, 38(3), 611-613.
- Glasser, W. (1969). <u>Schools without failure</u>. New York:
 Harper and Row.
- Glasser, W. (1965). <u>Reality therapy, a new approach to</u>
- Goldstein, A. P., Sprafkin, R. P., Gershaw, N. J., & Klein,
 P. (1980). Skill-streaming the adolescent: A
 structured learning approach to teaching prosocial
 skills. Champaign, IL: Research Press.
- Gordon, T. (1975). <u>Teacher effectiveness training</u>. New York: David McKay.
- Greenleaf, D. O. (1982). The use of structured learning therapy and transfer programming with disruptive adolescents in a school setting. <u>Journal of School</u>
 Psychology, 20(2), 122-130.
- Harris, T. A. (1973). <u>I'm ok, you're ok</u>. New York:
 Harper and Row.
- Heppner, P. P., & Anderson, W. P. (1983, August). The relationship between problem solving, self-appraisal

- and psychological adjustment. Paper presented at the annual convention of the American Psychological Association (91st), Anaheim, CA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 240 431).
- Heppner, P. P., Baumgardner, A., & Jackson, J. (1985, February). Problem-solving self appraisal, depression, and attributional style: Are they related? Cognitive Therapy and Research, 9(1), 105-113.
- Herr, E. L. (1984, December). The national reports on reform in schooling: Some missing ingredients. Journal of Counseling and Development, 63(4), 217-220.
- Hoffman, V. J. (1984). The relationship of psychology to delinquency: A comprehensive approach. <u>Adolescence</u>, 19(73), 55-60.
- Kaplan, H. B. (1982, December). Self-attitudes and deviant behavior: New directions for theory and research. Youth and Society, 14(2), 185-211.
- Loeber, R. (1982, December). The stability of antisocial and delinquent child behavior: A review. Child Development, 53, 1431-1446.
- Mackey, J. (1974). The dimensions of adolescent alienation.
 Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University.
- Nugent, S. M., & Nugent, H. E. (1983, March). Teaching critical thinking: Protocols in the classroom.

 Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Conference on College Composition and Communication (34th),

 Detroit, MI. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service

 No. ED 236 675).

- Ogburn, K. D. (1983). Emotional education: How to deal

 with stress in the classroom before . . . and after

 . . . it happens. Strategies and techniques for

 educational consultants. Saratoga, CA: R and E

 Publishers.
- Olexa, D. F., & Forman, S. G. (1984). Effects of social problem-solving training on classroom behavior of urban disadvantaged students. <u>Journal of School</u>
 Psychology, 22(2), 165-175.
- Pearson, J. C. (1983). <u>Interpersonal communication:</u>

 <u>Clarity, confidence, concern</u>. Glenview, IL: Scott,
 Foresman.
- Ridge, A. (1984, July). Assessing listening skills. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the International Listening Association, St. Paul, MN. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 246 514).
- Rogers, C. R. (1958, September). The characteristics of a helping relationship. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 37(1), 6-16.
- Rogers, M. M. (1983, September). Understanding the problem:

 Key to problem-solving skills. <u>Captrends</u> (suppl.).

 (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 242 737).
- Rosenberg, M. (1979). <u>Conceiving of the self</u>. New York:

 Basic Books.
- Schneider, M. F., & Schneider, S. (1983, December). An
 Adlerian model for fostering competence: Reeducation
 of children with emotional disorders. <u>Individual</u>

- Psychology: Journal of Adlerian Theory, Research and Practice, 39(4), 380-393.
- Seligman, M. E. P. (1975). <u>Helplessness: On depression,</u> development, and death. San Francisco: W. H. Freeman.
- Shostrom, E. L. (1967). Man, the manipulator. The inner
 journey from manipulation to actualization. Nashville:
 Abingdon Press.
- Spillane-Grieco, E. (1984). Characteristics of a helpful relationship: A study of empathic understanding and positive regard between runaways and their parents.

 Adolescence, 19(73), 63-75.
- Stefanko, M. (1984). Trends in adolescent research: A review of articles published in <u>Adolescence</u> 1976-1981. Adolescence, 19(73), 1-14.
- Swanson, C. H. (1984, March). Monitoring student listening techniques: An approach to teaching the foundations of a skill. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Eastern Communication Association, Philadelphia, PA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 240 653).
- Swick, K. J. (1981). Maintaining productive student behavior
 : (rev. ed.). Washington, DC: National Education
 Association
- Thompson, C. L., & Poppen, W. A. (1979). <u>Guidance activities</u> for counselors and teachers. Monterey: Brooks, Cole.
- Waksman, S. A. (1984). Assertion training with adolescents.

 Adolescence, 19(73), 123-130.
- Waksman, S. A., & Messmer, C. L. (1979). Social skills

training: A manual for teaching assertive behaviors to children and adolescents. Portland, OR: Enrichment Press. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 244 587).

- Webster's Third New International Dictionary (1961).

 Springfield, MA: G and C Merriam.
- Werner, E. E. (1984, November). Resilient children. \underline{Young} Children, $\underline{40}(1)$, 68-72.
- Zechnich, R. (1983). <u>The ITTY game: I'm only trying to teach you</u>. Mesquite, TX: Ide House.