DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 056 536 FL 002 243

AUTHOR Andersson, Theodore; And Others
TITLE An Experimental Study of Bilingual-Affective Education for Mexican American Children in Grades K and 1.
INSTITUTION Southwest Educational Development Lab., Austin, Tex.l commands to allow easy and efficient computer-assisted instr
PUB DATE 27 Apr 70ere they couldn't observe him, rather than not be n
NOTE 77p.

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.65 HC-$3.29
DESCRIPTORS Biculturalism; Bilingual Education; Bilingualism; Curriculum Development; *Educational Innovation; Educational Objectives; English (Second Language); Ethnology; Experimental Programs; Language Arts; *Mexican Americans; Minority Groups; Parent Child Relationship; *Program Design; Program Evaluation; Self Concept; Spanish Speaking; Student Attitudes; *Teaching Methods

ABSTRACT

This paper proposes an educational study to determine the best way to educate Mexican American children. It suggests an experiment comparing the traditional approach, the English as a second language approach, and a bilingual-affective approach as described by the authors. The detail of the proposed program are presented, and the three language teaching methods are discussed. Teacher preparation and selection are described as are the criteria for school and student selection. The program is designed to operate through a scientific/democratic decision-making process where the teachers decide as a group on objectives, strategies, and assessment. The teacher's tasks throughout the year are listed along with details on the support they will receive. Criterion measures for testing program effectiveness are presented. Attachments to the main proposal chart the differences in instructional activities that characterize the three methods, provide time and scheduling rules and a typical daily schedule, list assumptions held in each method, describe an experimental research design for evaluative innovative learning activities, and present a theory of parent effectiveness. (VM)

AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY OF BILINGUAL-AFFECTIVE EDUCATION FOR MEXICAN AMERICAN CHILDREN IN GRADES K AND 1

A Proposal

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April 27, 1970

ABSTRACT

A comparative study of programs to improve language arts performance of Mexican American children is planned for grades K-1, 1970-1972. Pre-post criterion gains will be assessed both within and between treatment groups: Traditional (X_1); ESL (X_2); Bilingual-Affective (X_3). Major experimental variables are: (a) Use of English (X_1, X_2) vs. English and Spanish (X_3) as language of instruction; (b) use of ESL (X_2, X_3) vs. no ESL (X_1) as English language arts technique; (c) special effectiveness training in teacher-child relations (half of X_1, X_2, X_3) vs. no special training (other half X_1, X_2, X_3). All experimental variables are considered primarily affective, whether specific to the ethnic group or to students generally.

Major features of the evaluational research design include: (a) A process for active involvement of all teachers in "scientific/democratic decision-making" to establish curriculum during a summer workshop; (b) a process for finding vs. writing relevant curriculum for decision choices; (c) a process for obtaining immediate, objective feedback by teachers on classroom performance to allow on-the-spot decisions for proceeding with the curriculum; and (d) continuous up-dating or adapting of curriculum throughout the school year.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

BACKGROUND

A relatively long history of concern for the education of children who come to school speaking a language other than English has led to a variety of expedients. Many of these measures have been highly creative and presumably beneficial. Few, however, have been developed on the basis of information obtained from objective evaluational research. Fewer still have been subjected to rigorous tests which would show whether the improvements would not have been equally well produced by any of the competing programmatic efforts. As a result, the claims for a program's effectiveness in bringing about a desired change are seldom fully substantiated by unequivocal evidence.

A new approach is hereby offered, one which has been conceptualized by a team of co-workers composed of one professor of Linguistics, two professors of Spanish and Education, and one Psychologist/Research Designer. This program is considered by its authors to be a promising non-redundant answer to the question of how best to educate Mexican American children. In order to determine whether our belief is justified we propose that the plan be further developed and tested on site. Feedback of objective information based on the evaluational research design will test the major hypothesis of the study, viz., that this particular program equals or surpasses its major competitors in bringing about not only improved learning in English language arts but also the ability to read and write in Spanish. A second, and not less important, hypothesis to be tested in the study is that children in the bilingual-affective program will exhibit greater gains in developing positive attitudes

about themselves and others.

The target population envisioned for this endeavor are the disadvantaged Mexican American children of the Southwest. The first phase of the study is expected to become operational in June 1970 in grade K, to continue through grade 1 in 1971-72, and to terminate in June 1972. Subsequent phases for grades 2 and above will be developed on the basis of results obtained in phase 1.

THE MAJOR TREATMENT GROUPS

Set I.

The three major competing approaches to the education of Spanish-dominant Mexican American children here considered are (1) Traditional; (2) English-as-a-Second-Language (ESL); and (3) Bilingual-Affective. Each of these approaches may in one sense be conceived as an affective treatment of the child, in that the teacher's attitudes relate to the child's membership in a particular ethnic group, a group which has somehow become associated with lower socioeconomic status and educational disadvantage.[1] These three approaches may be described as follows:

A) Traditional. The teacher ignores, so to speak, the fact that the child is Mexican American and pretends that an entire array of correlated characteristics of the learner do not exist: i.e., he is not Mexican American; he does not have a browner skin, a lower socioeconomic status, a native tongue other than that of the dominant culture in which he lives, does not speak English with an accent, and so on. Also ignored is the fact that others may view him as a second-class citizen and thus undermine his self-image. By ignoring these differences in the learner, the teacher says in effect that since there is no real difference in the learning situation of the Mexican American child there is no serious problem to solve. From the teacher's point of view, this child is just the same as ("equal to") any Anglo child

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[1] As will be seen in the following section, a more general affective variable is included as a major treatment condition of the study.

and may therefore be treated as such. English is, of course, the language of instruction, and the child is assumed to know it. If he fails to learn, he may be considered intellectually inferior, just as some Anglo children undoubtedly are. In a manner of speaking, the traditional teacher rejects the child's language, his culture, and thus essentially the child himself.

B) English as a Second Language. The teacher here does not ignore the child as above -- not quite. She observes that he is, indeed, a Mexican American child; but she considers this difference in only one light -- that is, in terms of the difference in native tongue. She assumes that the child's entire learning difficulty relates to his failure to speak English and that this difficulty may be eliminated by teaching him to do so. Thus, by focusing on the language difference per se, she ignores all of the other correlated problems of the child and localizes his difficulty, so to speak, in the tongue. Her major approach to solving the problem is to teach the child in English but to be well aware that English is for him a second language, that initially he lacks most English words, and finally that certain structural differences in the two languages will trouble him and thus will need special attention. The ESL teacher will pay attention to these structural differences not just as she happens upon them but will actively seek them out and will engage the children in numerous exercises to resolve them satisfactorily.

C) Bilingual-Affective. This teacher, unlike the other two, is intent on viewing the whole child, just as he is, including

his color, his cultural heritage, his differences in name, speech, family background. She views him as an individual to whom this complex has meaning and to whom this meaning can be the source of positive self regard. She also regards these "problems" not as problems at all but as a potential source of enrichment and augmentation of what the child is. Instead of being viewed as monolingual (and thus conversant with only one set of people and one kind of culture) he is viewed as bilingual and thus conversant with other peoples and cultures. She sees his differences, then, not as debits but as credits. Her approach is to teach the child to understand, speak, read, and write in both English and Spanish and to appreciate the virtues of both cultures which are featured in the materials chosen for the two languages. She begins by teaching him to understand and speak English in grade K while teaching him to read and write Spanish. She believes that the child's native tongue can be the bridge to his learning to read and write in English; and in fact she teaches everything but English language arts in Spanish, which means that for 75% of the school day in K the instructional language is Spanish. The child's bilingual and bicultural development is supported in this general manner throughout his school career, which encourages him to accept and value all aspects of his cultural heritage. Thus, even though Spanish is used as the bridge to learning English, it is not considered merely as a means to this end. In fact, Spanish is considered a most worthy end in and of itself,

especially as it promotes in the child a deeper appreciation and fuller understanding of the cultural influences that have shaped him. The bilingual-affective program is thus a self-affirmative approach to teaching children for whom self-affirmation has been largely lacking as a result of their ethnic group membership.

Attachment 1 graphically displays the differences in the instructional activities that characterize the three groups. It should be noted that b E in the X_1 diagram is not at all the same treatment as b ESL in the X_2 and X_3 diagrams. However, it is contemplated that at some point b ESL will have become b E, so that the Mexican American children will have begun to "join the mainstream," so to speak. This process of transition should not be abrupt, nor can the point of convergence be predicted with accuracy at the present time. But since one of the major aims in the education of the Mexican American child in any of the three groups is to facilitate his joining the mainstream, a long-range goal of the present study will be to graph the progressive increase in comparability of reading and writing within the three groups and in comparison to equivalent groups of Anglos as well. It is anticipated that X_1 children will continue to lag as far behind their Anglo counterparts as they have in the past, that ESL children will approach nearer to Anglo performance, and that X_3 children will in time equal if not surpass comparable Anglos. A minimum measure in this regard will be comparison of performance in the three experimental groups with performance of Anglos (by reference to national/local norms) by means of school-administered tests such as the Metropolitan Reading Test

or SRA Series. It is also planned that very brief criterion-mastery tests of reading will be individually administered to the three groups of children, using passages in traditional readers from bilingual classrooms as the assessment instruments. This latter might be done at the end of each school year or at mid-year, as funds, personnel, and school participation permit.

It should be noted that for grade 1 the a E in the X diagram is for "easing the children into reading and writing" after whole summer spent out of school and that these pre-reading and pre-writing activities have a very brief and terminal life within the school year. This applies as well to a S in grade K of the X_3 diagram; i.e., it is assumed that the children should not immediately begin to learn to read and write in Spanish without some preliminary readiness activities. Note, however, that a ESL in the X_2 and X_3 graphs are not brief and not terminal. It is assumed that the child for whom English is a second language will continue to need readiness support, albeit in decreasing amounts, throughout the primary grades. (Attachment 2 gives details of scheduling.)

Set II.

Whereas the preceding treatment dimensions have particular reference to and implications for children of a given subcultural ethnic group, there is a broader affective domain which is presumably pertinent to growth of children of any cultural background. This broader view derives from a theoretical framework which emphasizes process over structure and content (Gendlin, 1964; Gordon, 1968; Rogers, 1961). The basis for this emphasis is the fact that although structure and content are very useful for description and diagnosis and for explaining how a certain set of

personal characteristics are more or less preserved as constants within a given individual, they do not account very well for change in these characteristics within the individual. Gendlin has maintained and documented with experimental evidence that the two major requirements for dynamic process are affect and interpersonal relationships in interaction. The learner must have some feeling that learning stimuli to which he is exposed are relevant to him; and he must have a listening ear to help him listen to himself and to what is of relevance to him. These then are the conditions under which the learner acquires content and assimilates it in a growing fashion.

In the school situation there is one major person to supply the two essential conditions -- the teacher. It is the teacher who must thus have at his disposal not only the customary learning stimuli but, most of all, the ability to respect the powerful influence of affect in learning and the skill to listen to the child listening to himself.

There are, unfortunately, few known ways to instruct and train teachers in these areas. There are only anecdotal supports in most of the training programs that have been instituted. However, Gordon's program (1968), which is directly related to both Rogers' and Gendlin's theoretical positions, has been so widely implemented in school systems in the states of California and Oregon that there is considerable reason to consider the positive response to this program as a kind of support in itself. Essentially the program affords training in constructive listening, confrontation, and problem-solving between adult and child. The training program is approximately four days long and relates to an underlying theoretical position described in an article by Gordon (1968). (See Attachment 3.)

The more general affective treatment variable for the present study may then be described as follows:

A. Half of the teachers are given the four-day intensive training in Gordon techniques prior to school.

B. Half of the teachers are not given this training.

It may easily be seen that six major treatment groups are generated from joint consideration of the two types of affective variables (the bilingual-affective and the general-affective) as follows:

X_1-G	Traditional/Gordon training
X_1-NG	Traditional/non-Gordon training
X_2-G	ESL/Gordon training
X_2-NG	ESL/non-Gordon training
X_3-G	Bilingual-Affective/Gordon training
X_3-NG	Bilingual-Affective/non-Gordon training

It is proposed that the six separate treatment groups above be represented by 18 grade K teachers, so that six teachers, each in a different treatment group, are included in each of three different schools.

Because maximum generalizability of results to comparable samples of learners is desired, a number of decisions are made which should best preserve this "external validity" without impairing the "internal validity" of the various treatment groups (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). That is, the theoretical positions from which the six treatment groups emerge are not to be compromised; but neither are they to be allowed to become esoteric to the point that (even if internally valid) they would be unacceptable or impossible to implement. Thus, both the integrity of the treatments and the integrity of the field are presumably preserved,

as may be seen in the following description of sampling and control measures.

SELECTION OF SCHOOLS

Three schools will be selected for comparability on: 100% (or nearly) Spanish-speaking Mexican American ethnicity of children, size, location, and attitude of principal towards participation in the study.

Attitudes of principals will be determined by contacting them prior to selection of the schools so that they will understand the nature and extent of teacher participation. It is anticipated that principals will be specially cited by the school system for their participation in the study.

SELECTION OF TEACHERS

Teacher Ethnicity

All teachers will be of the same ethnic background as the students (i.e., Mexican American) in order that they be able to relate well to the children. Because of the strong emphasis on use of Spanish as the language of instruction in the X_3 group, the teacher herself in this group should have learned to read and write Spanish as a child and should have maintained these skills.

Teacher Motivation

Only those teachers who have expressed a strong preference for being part of the study and for representing a particular treatment group will be considered as part of the initial pool of K teachers

from which selections will be made. The intent is to use all K teachers of Mexican American ethnicity in the school system as the initial pool. (An immediate need is to insure cooperation and support of the school system in identifying this initial body.)

A questionnaire which will describe the three treatment groups in terms of the major underlying attitudes (e.g., "The best way to teach a Mexican American child is..,") and general methods of implementation ("The teacher will use English only/English with special devices/Spanish predominantly as the instructional language") will be administered to the initial pool of teachers. They will be asked to rank order the three treatments according to their own convictions or theories. On the basis of teacher responses to these statements as well as to other questions ("Do you speak, read, and write Spanish? Did you learn to do so as a child? Have you maintained these abilities to date?"), three sub-pools of teachers will be established as comparable in motivation and, in the case of the X_3 sub-pool, as competent in speaking, reading, and writing Spanish. It is from these three sub-pools that the selection of teachers will be made for the experiment.

First, teachers from each sub-pool will be matched as far as possible on age, sex, SES, and educational background. These matched groups of teachers will then be asked, separately, by their principals to attend a meeting in which they will be told about the summer session: the pay for attendance then and throughout the school year, their various tasks, and other involvement in the experiment. They will also be told about special credit to be given them by the school system. Special emphasis will be placed upon their ability to

gain immediate feedback in class relative to their students' performance both before and after a lesson and to do so autonomously. An attempt will be made, additionally, to see to it that college credit will be given teachers who participate in the study. Teachers will be asked to reply affirmatively or negatively to an invitation to participate.

The teachers who accept will be included in the study in accordance with their own preferences and special competencies. Teachers within each group will then be randomly assigned to the three schools; and within each of the schools separately teachers will be randomly assigned to classrooms. The final number of teachers should be six in each treatment group plus two alternates per group and an equal number of aides, who will be selected in comparable but not identical fashion to that described above.

SELECTION AND ASSIGNMENT OF CHILDREN

Parent Motivation.

Only children whose parents feel neutral or positive about an individual group will be assigned to that group. To determine parent motivation, parents of all entering K students in the experimental schools will be asked to read descriptions of the major difference in approach between X_1, X_2, and X_3 and to express: (a) a preference for one over the others if there is one; (b) a negative reaction against any group if there is one. Three pools of children will be formed within each school on the basis of parents' attitudes. Within each pool separately the child will be randomly assigned to classrooms.

This kind of assignment technique should insure comparability of children from class to class, within and across treatments, on age, sex, SES, IQ, language dominance, and extent of spoken language proficiency.

Whereas comparability is assumed to result from this technique, it will also be verified ex post facto by examination of the children on the relevant variables so that unusual disbalances may be corrected as soon as possible after the beginning of school. In order to allow for this subsequent verification on variables requiring testing (IQ, language dominance, etc.), an appropriate set of tests will be administered to the children within the first full week of school.

A SCIENTIFIC/DEMOCRATIC DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

A key factor in the design of the present study with regard to all three of the programs is a decision-making process which allows the ultimate implementers of the program (the teachers) to make key decisions in regard to vital elements:

1. The objectives -- i.e., the learning behaviors which the children are to attain as a function of exposure to the instructional activities.

2. The activities -- the strategies and materials which will be used to bring about attainment of the objectives.

3. The assessment -- the means by which attainment of the objectives is evidenced.

Presumably teachers who are given the opportunity to make such choices, to "participate in their own destiny," so to speak, will be essentially motivated to implement those decisions, as opposed to having such vital decisions thrust upon them. In addition, involvement of teachers in this manner may well be the better part of valor inasmuch as they are generally used to making most classroom decisions autonomously and will tend not to implement procedures they do not believe in even if forced to "agree" to them. By preserving this natural field situation, motivation of teachers is thus reinforced rather than obstructed.

An objective and impartial means of voting on the elements to be included (and excluded) was designed to permit maximum teacher participation. The method, described in further detail in Attachment 4,

is democratic in that: each teacher gets one vote in each decision; no one other than teachers is allowed to vote; and no pressure is brought to bear upon the choices. The method is scientific in that the determination of whether or not teachers reach consensus on a given vote is based on exact probabilities of occurrence by chance for a given subset of Yeses (or Noes). If the subset is large enough to occur quite infrequently by chance (e.g., only 1 percent of the time), the notion that chance produced that number is rejected and it is considered that consensus was reached by the voting teachers.

The plan is to convene the teachers in a summer workshop (approximately July 20 to August 14) in which project directors will conduct orientation in the decision-making process and then assist in its implementation. A previous half-day orientation will include key school personnel and project directors; but following this session, only the teachers, the project directors, and their assistants will be engaged in the decision-making process. Because the procedures are quick, easy, and objective, it is anticipated that a very large number of decisions that need to be made can be made in the time allowed. Teachers will also be given training during this period in how and when to assess for attainment of objectives, this part of the workshop to be conducted by the evaluation research specialist. A manual for the teachers to use in their teaching and record keeping activities (see pages 27 and 28) will be covered in this training session with further (on-the-job) training to be provided during the school year (as indicated on page 28).

The plan is then to convene twelve of the 24 teachers for training

in the Gordon techniques (approximately August 17 - August 21).

THE BASIC POOL OF OBJECTIVES, STRATEGIES, AND SAMPLE ASSESSMENT ITEMS

The basic source of the objectives and materials from which the teachers would make their choices was a major point of concern in the design. Because there are at once too many and too few empirically supported theoretical viewpoints as to what and how we learn, it was decided that the best theoretical model to follow might be dictated not by cognitive theory but by other scientific considerations. Again the decision was made to maximize external validity while preserving internal validity of the programs as far as possible.

With this point of view in mind, the decision was to use guidelines approved or recommended by the Texas Education Agency (TEA) to establish objectives and the strategies for reaching them. Thus, it was reasoned, the integrity of the field condition would be maintained, whatever that condition might be and however much or little a theoretical orientation existed for it. In this way findings can best be generalized to other samples and situations.

TEA objectives, however, are stated quite generally. Personnel were therefore engaged to translate these fairly general statements of objectives (for English language arts only, grades K and 1) into specific behavioral or performance objectives, the ratio being approximately three specific objectives to each general one. The major technique used is to attempt to find ready-made performance objectives in such sources as the UCLA Evaluation Center lists of objectives, the Four County California ESL objectives, and similar sources which seem to relate to the TEA general objectives. The goal is to identify (or create

where necessary) 100 behavioral objectives for grade K and 100 for grade 1 in English language arts. An equal or greater number of behavioral objectives for grades K and 1 in Spanish language arts will be similarly identified if equivalent sources can be found; or, if not, they may be translated in large part from those generated for the English language arts, with deletion and supplementation as indicated by the differences in the languages themselves.

Activities for attaining the above behavioral objectives are to be found partly in State-adopted or State-recommended textbooks and partly in special ESL textbooks. One of the major challenges of the study is to ascertain TEA recommendations on English texts for grade K and to locate a sufficient array of Spanish texts for each grade, both for language arts and for other subject areas. In any case, for each such English objective the attempt will be made to find at least one related strategy in each of the two kinds of textbooks, traditional and ESL, these books having been previously discriminated as such by the professor of Linguistics on the basis of differences in underlying assumptions about the child as displayed in the descriptions of the different teaching techniques (See Attachment 6.) In general it is assumed that State-adopted texts would include traditional but not ESL strategies.

When objectives and strategies have thus been identified, they will be reviewed by several different kinds of specialists:

1. By the professor of Linguistics to determine that ESL and traditional strategies are appropriate to ESL or traditional objectives, respectively;
2. By a child-development specialist to determine that they are

not beyond the expected maturational capacity of t e learner of age 5-6;

3. By an elementary curriculum specialist to determin that they are appropriate to the grade level (K and 1) and s bject matter for English language arts;
4. By a native Spanish speaker, who is also a linguis , for similar considerations relative to Spanish language arts (and 1);
5. By a test developer (Anglo) to create one relevant objectively measurable assessment item for each objective in E glish language arts;
6. By a test developer (Mexican American) to create o e relevant objectively measurable assessment item for each ob ective in Spanish language arts.

In the case of numbers 5 and 6 above, the sample asse sment items are generated to test the idea that the behavioral objec ves are stated specifically enough to allow such items to be enerated. If a relevant objectively measurable item cannot be g erated from the statement of the objective, the objective and t - ciated strategies or activities may be discarded. A further restriction on the test item is that it must represent a class of similar items which, clearly deriving from the prototype item, would permit generation of 19 additional homogeneous items which can be group administered to students under test control conditions. (See Attachment 4 for rationale.)

Final Choices of Objectives, Strategies, and Assessment Items.

The behavioral objectives, the strategies (in identified texts) for achieving them, and sample assessment items for determining whether

objectives are achieved will then be cross-indexed so that the identification number assigned to any one will lead to the others. At this point the basic pool is ready to be presented to the teachers for the decision-making process. The series of choices to be made and the designation of the relevant decision makers are given on the following page. Precise records of decisions will be made and later reproduced as a sequenced lesson plan. (See sample chart, Attachment 5.)

English Language Arts

Decision #1: Choosing Performance Objectives: grade K and grade 1.

Decision-Makers: 24 teachers (X_1, X_2, X_3 plus 2 reserves for each treatment)

Decision #2: Sequencing Performance Objectives: grade K only.

Decision-Makers: 24 teachers (as in Decision #1)

Decision #3: Generating and Choosing Prototype Assessment Measures for Performance Objectives: grade K only.

Decision-Makers: 24 teachers (as in Decision #1)

Decision #4: Choosing Activities (from ESL materials only): grade K only.

Decision-Makers: 16 teachers (X_2, X_3 plus 2 reserves for each of these 2 treatments)

Decision #5: Choosing Activities (from Traditional materials only): grade K only.

Decision-Makers: 8 teachers (X_1 plus 2 reserves)

or 24 teachers (as in Decision #1) for any objectives not covered by X_2 and X_3 teachers in Decision #4.

Spanish Language Arts

Decision #6: Choosing Performance Objectives: grade K*

Decision-Makers: 8 teachers (X_3 plus 2 reserves)

Decision #7: Sequencing Performance Objectives: grade K*

Decision-Makers: 8 teachers (as in Decision #6)

Decision #8: Generating and Choosing Prototype Assessment Measures for Performance Objectives: grade K*

Decision-Makers: 8 teachers (as in Decision #6)

Decision #9: Choosing Activities (from Spanish materials only): grade K*

Decision-Makers: 8 teachers (as in Decision #6)

*The Spanish Language Arts (X_3) objectives for about one semester of grade K correspond in general to those of the English Language Arts objectives for the entire year. The second semester Spanish Language Arts objectives will correspond roughly to English objectives scheduled for grade 1.

One further set of decisions to be made by the teachers concerns the estimated time to be spent on an objective. All teachers will decide together on the total estimated time for each English objective, although the three groups of teachers will meet separately to make additional decisions as to how the constant amount of time for that objective (across groups) may be subdivided to suit their own particular group needs. It should be particularly noted that the X_3 group will be expected to spend no more time on a given objective than the X_1 and X_2 groups even though it must cover both English and Spanish language arts in the given amount of time. Attachment 5 indicates how such decisions might take form in a typical seven days of classroom teaching.

When all of the above decisions have been made, it will then be possible to consolidate the final list of chosen objectives, their sequencing, the location of the activities chosen from the various texts, the prototype assessment measures, and the time estimates for each objective into separate documents for the X_1, X_2, and X_3 groups of teachers.

These documents may then be sent to grade 1 teachers for ratification and comment. At the end of the 1970-1971 school year a pool of teachers will be identified as prospective first-grade teachers to be included in the study for the following school year and the entire process described herein will be repeated, ending in ratification of first-grade documents by second-grade teachers.

Theoretically, phase 2 of the study might then begin; that is, the experiment might be extended upwards past grade 1 through grade 2 and so on as far as desired through the process of successive cycling. However, an inevitable attrition may reduce the original sample to an unservice-

able number by the end of grade 2 or 3. Therefore, depending upon phase 1 results and other factors, a second larger wave of grade K students may be instituted at a point in time deemed most expeditious for carrying the study forward through whatever grade level is desired by the program's several sponsors.

Non-Language Arts Subjects.

Most, if not all, subjects taught in school are language-related. And although the developmental and research design described in the present paper may be applied in full detail to these other subjects at a later time, they will be presently handled in a less precise manner, as follows:

For all three treatments the source of general objectives will be the TEA guidelines. Both X_1 and X_2 teachers will be using (largely) the same textbooks and related materials (viz., those selected for district-wide use), as there are very few ESL offerings in non-language arts subjects at the present time. X_1 teachers may expect assistance in implementation of the guidelines from the school system's elementary curriculum supervisor. X_2 teachers will have similar assistance from the project's linguistics adviser, who will reinforce X_2 teachers' understanding of how to apply an ESL approach to traditional materials. (He will, of course, be equally available to these teachers relative to direct use of ESL materials in English language arts).

X_3 teachers will also have the services of the project's linguistics adviser exactly as described for X_2 teachers, but the textbooks and related materials used by these teachers will not be those selected for district-wide use in English. Instead, the X_3 groups will have an average of two different Spanish texts (teacher's and child's, one each from each of two

publishers) for each non-language arts subject in the curriculum. (These materials will have been assembled and screened in advance by appropriate specialists for level, language acceptability, etc., in much the same manner as that described previously for language arts.)

NOTE

Throughout this paper we have attempted to use the same terms for certain meanings. For example, "activities" (sometimes called strategies) are those actions the teacher initiates alone or interactively with her students in order to bring about a change in learning performance. Activities are usually found in texts used by the teacher. "Materials" include texts (teacher's or child's), props (clay, blocks, etc.), and equipment. A "lesson" may be considered to encompass activities and materials.

TEACHERS' TASKS THROUGHOUT THE YEAR

Teachers in all three groups in the present study will be quite busy throughout the school year. Among their various duties are included:

1. Testing: Ten-item pre- and post-tests will be administered for each given behavioral objective.

2. Scoring of Tests: Individual tests will be scored by totaling right answers and then converting the total scores to "chance" or "non-chance" as described in the technical report attached. (Attachment 4)

3. Analysis of Tests: A simple technique for determining class performance and change in class performance (Attachment 4) is provided the teacher to allow her to analyze the tests and to determine whether to go on to the next objective; or to repeat the same objective with different strategies of her own, which she will need to record in detail; or to use some other alternative technique.

4. Analysis of Class Understanding, Problems, and Interest: Based on prescribed interaction with the class, immediately after each posttesting she will hold a round table discussion with the children to assess weak spots and strengths in the activities employed for the given objective. She will also ascertain from the children whether they liked the given activities and why. And she will analyze test items which a significant number of children did not understand or did not recall being covered in class as indicated in a special check list devised for this

purpose. (See technical report, Attachment 4.) Finally, she will determine from the several kinds of objective test results which children need remedial work and will arrange for child-to-child tutoring as needed during free time.

5. Record-keeping. In addition to keeping the usual attendance and other school records, the teacher will be required to keep testing records (1-4 above) as well as certain other student data which will be detailed later.

6. Teacher Meetings. Within their own groups (X_1, X_2, or X_3) the teachers will meet weekly or twice monthly to discuss results obtained in 1-4 above.

TEACHER SUPPORT

The teachers' meeting will be attended, at their request, by one or both project directors (the linguistic specialist, the research evaluation specialist) to assist in regard to teaching activities or in regard to testing and evaluation activities. All testing records will be turned over routinely once a week to the evaluation specialist. Arrangements may be made for other supporting consultants to attend on request (child development specialist, curriculum specialist, etc.).

ANALYSIS OF DATA AND TESTS OF HYPOTHESIS

Whether the effectiveness of each of the programs is being assessed separately or comparatively, the major question at the end of grade 1 is whether or not the children have learned to read and write in English at a level appropriate for their age. There are a number of criterion measures to test the effectiveness of programs in this regard both within and between treatment groups. Among these are:

1) Effectiveness of the treatment for any given objective: Change in group performance from pre- to posttest may be assessed in terms of a shift from chance to non-chance performance on the ten-item assessment tests (See technical report, Attachment 4).

2) Total number of objectives for which the treatment was effective (cf 1).

3) Number of children assigned to remedial work for any <u>one</u> objective.

4) Number of children assigned to remedial work for <u>all</u> objectives.

5) Change in attitude of child towards self and others (ratings of self on various dimensions).

6) Attendance records: A special attendance scale has been devised and may be applied.

Results of routine testing of children by the school on commercial tests in all subjects will also be examined if available. In addition, variables characterizing child, teacher, and school will be used as control measures in validating strategies as above.

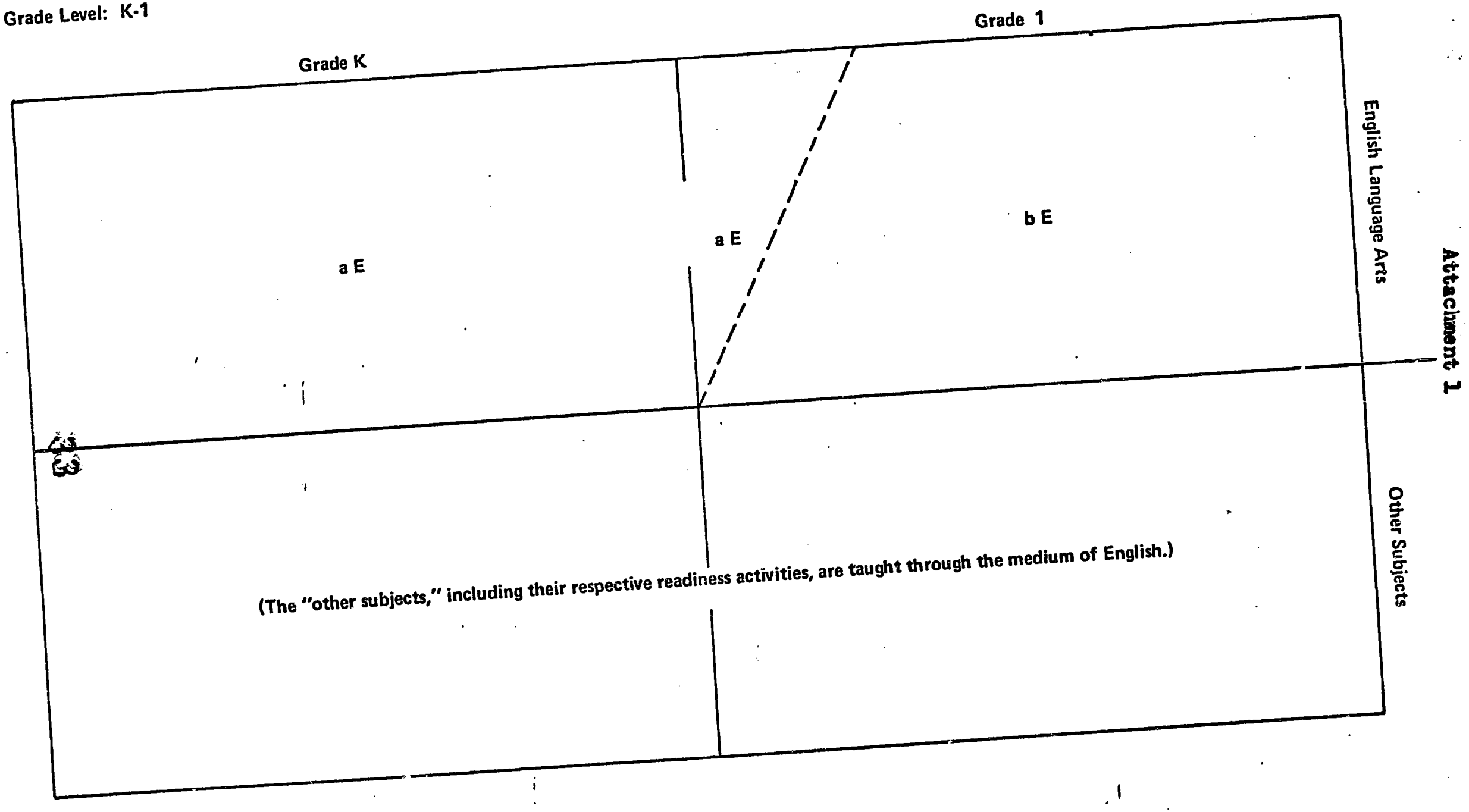
Because of the special design of the present study, which provides for testing before and after each set of strategies, adaptive curriculum

writing becomes possible throughout the school year rather than waiting upon the end-of-year results for this purpose which often come too late to be useful.

Treatment: X_1 = Traditional

Grade Level: K-1

Attachment 1



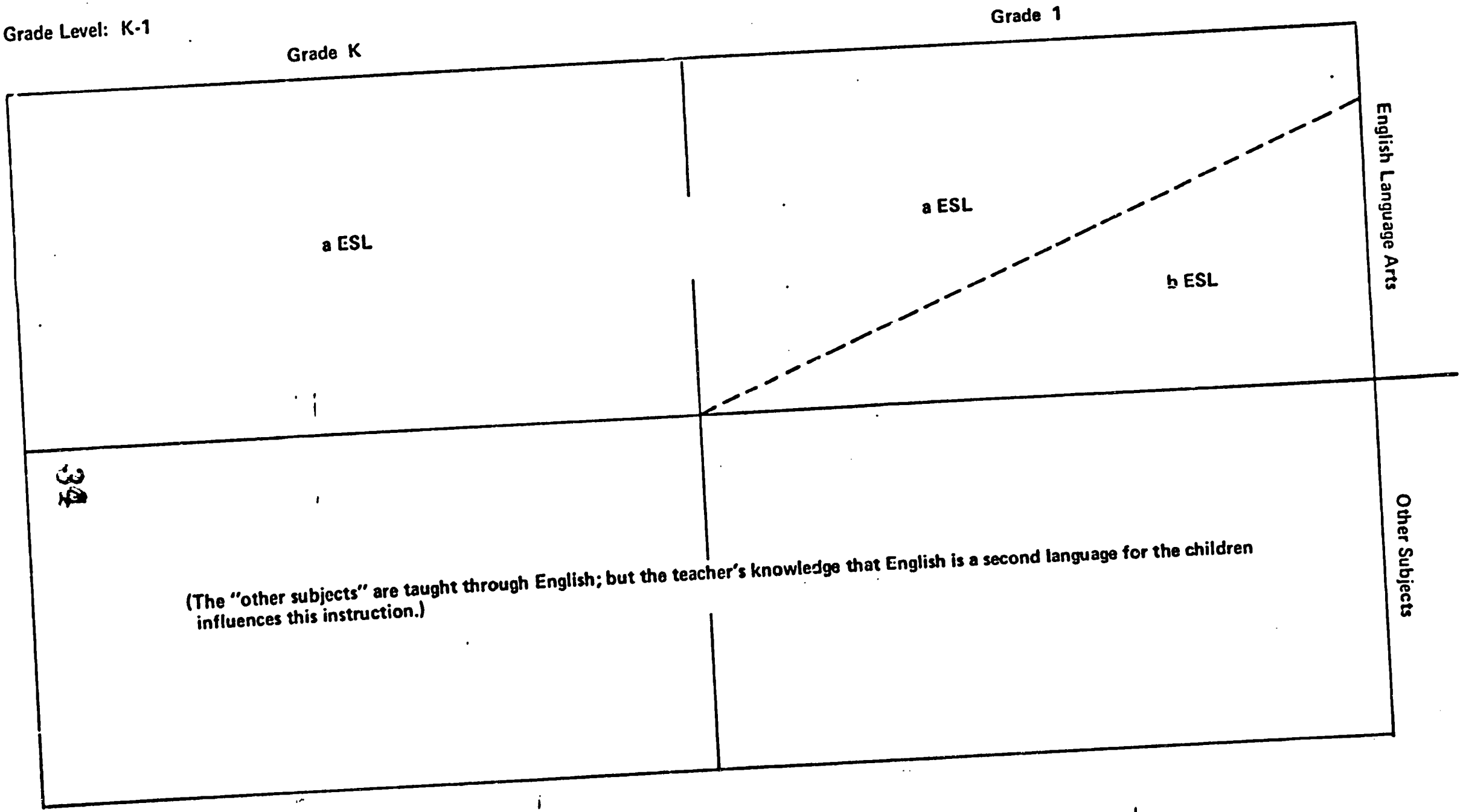
a = instruction designed to get children ready to read and write

b = instruction in reading and writing

E = English content

Treatment: X_2 = ESL

Grade Level: K-1



a = instruction designed to get children ready to read and write

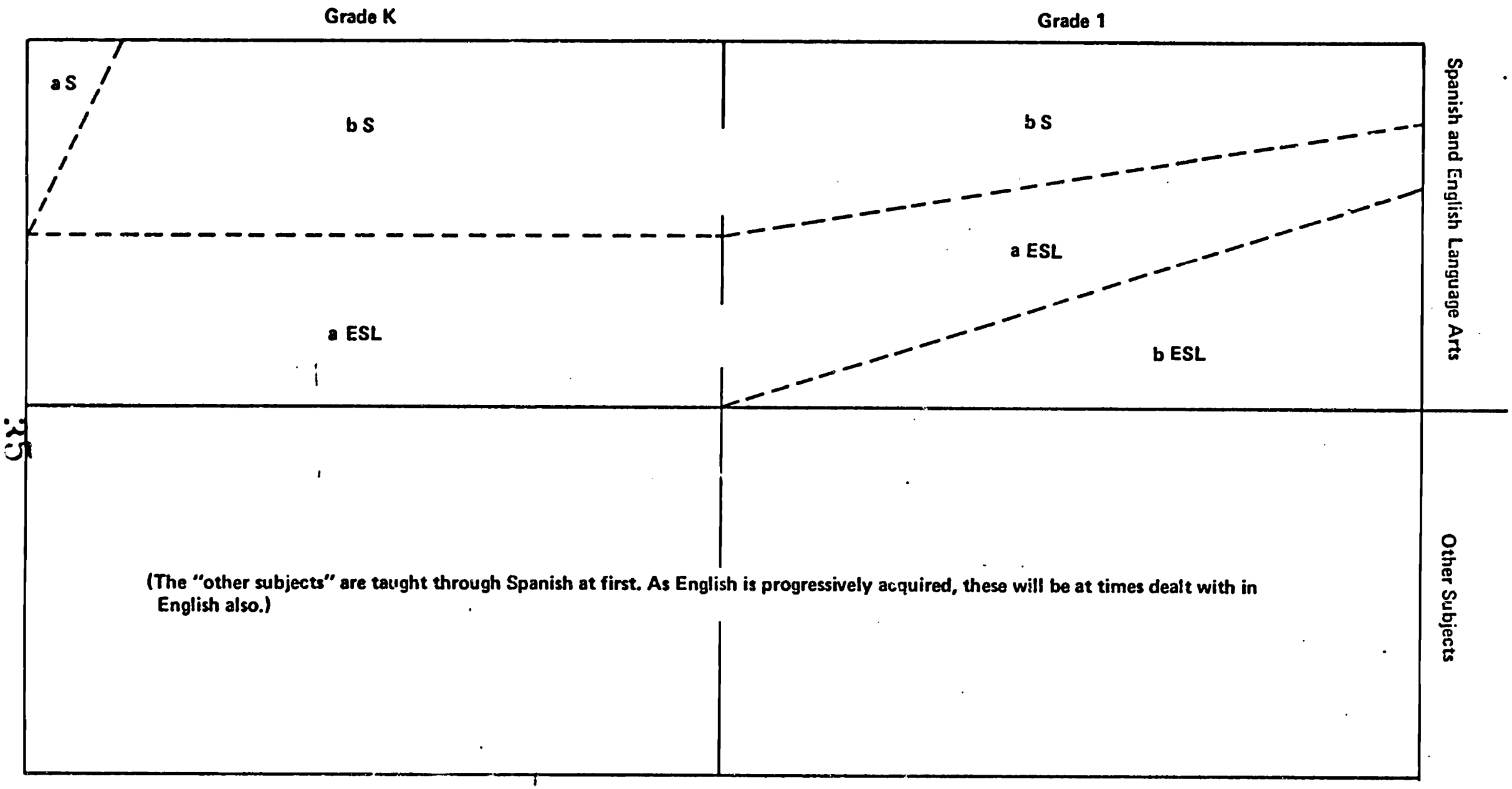
b = instruction in reading and writing

E = English content

SL = special devices and procedures

Treatment: X_3 = Bilingual

Grade Level: K-1



a = instruction designed to get children ready to read and write

b = instruction in reading and writing

E = English content

S = Spanish content

SL = special devices and procedures

Attachment 2

TIMES & SCHEDULING RULES

(1) Relative to any one given objective the same total maximum amount of time will apply to instructional activities across all groups (X_1, X_2, X_3) although the time may differ from one objective to another.

(2) All English objectives will be covered by all groups within the grade during the school year.

(3) Not more than 1 1/2 hours per day will be devoted to language arts in a structured manner. This figure is based on a TEA recommendation for grade K to limit total structured instructional time to 3 hours and on another TEA recommendation for grade 1 that approximately 50% of the instructional time be devoted to teaching of language arts.

(4) For X_3 only, the 1 1/2 hours will be divided equally between Spanish language arts and English language arts, but not necessarily within any one given day; although there will be equality within the week or month generally and certainly within the school year for grade K. For grade 1 a gradual shift from the 50-50 balance to a 60-40 ratio in favor of English language arts will begin to occur. The means for determining the poin at which the shift occurs and the successive points at which additional shifts take place is described in another section (See pages 7 and 8).

(5) A separate problem concerns use of <u>less</u> than the designated time in any language. If a class finishes early, as may happen, the teacher simply goes on to the next objective.

(6) If an objective has no sensible counterpart in both languages (for the X_3 group) then the objective is taught in whichever language is

appropriate.

(7) For X_3 only, an objective in English will always be preceded by corresponding instruction in Spanish. But there will always be at least one additional objective in Spanish interspersed between interrelated Spanish and English objectives (e.g., Obj. 11-Sp/ Obj. 12-Sp/ Obj. 11-Eng).

(8) Ordinal position of an objective within a language remains constant across all groups (X_1, X_2, X_3). Example: Obj. 12 always follows Obj. 11, Obj. 11 always follows Obj. 10, and so on, even though elapsed time between objectives may vary. (See Attachment 5.)

Attachment 3

A THEORY OF PARENT EFFECTIVENESS

Thomas Gordon, Ph.D.
Pasadena, California

Six years ago I made a decision to change radically the focus of my professional work, which until then had been a rather traditional clinical practice. There were four principal reasons for making the change:

1. A disenchantment with the medical model of private practice and its language of illness, treatment, therapy, doctor, cure, etc.
2. A growing concern about the excessive cost of psychotherapy.
3. My own personal needs to move away from a treatment focus and get into the preventive field.
4. A growing dissatisfaction with the results I was achieving in working with children.

Most of the children I had worked with over the years were brought to me far too late, and few of their parents wished to get involved themselves in the therapeutic process in order to take a look at their child-rearing practices.. Most parents preferred to drop their child off at my office, hoping that I would fix him up and return him back home repaired or remodeled, much like they would drop off their ailing car at the local garage. I might add, too, that not too infrequently there were strong complaints from these parents about the repair bill submitted to them.

Over the years, I began to see something else in these parents. While their children were very different in both personality and symptomatology, every new parent I talked to seemed strangely similar to all the others I had seen. They all had a similar philosophy of child-rearing, they all used the same approaches in discipline, they all had the same confusions about parental authority, and they all talked with their children the same way. Particularly, they all had the same dilemma about whether to be strict or lenient, restrictive or permissive, tough or soft. In my talks with these parents, I was hearing the same things as well as saying the same things. I remember thinking that as long as I seemed to be dealing with the same issues with all of these parents, why not save their time and their money by working with groups of parents instead of seeing parents individually. Furthermore, these parents seemed to need more education about human relationships than they needed therapy. As a matter of fact, most of these parents were remarkably healthy, as measured by the usual criteria of psychological health.

Thus, these were the factors that influenced me in 1962 to change the focus of my professional work. I set a goal for myself of designing a training program for parents. Once having set that goal, I obviously needed a relatively clear notion about parent effectiveness. What is an effective parent? What is my own theory of a good parent-child

relationship? I must have a sound theory, if I am to teach a course for parents.

While I had some ideas of my own, I turned to the theories and research of others. While I did not find in the literature the answers I was looking for, I did get a real surprise. My surprise was that most of the researchers who had done studies on the parent-child relationship were in the same dilemma as my parents. They sounded very much like all the parents with whom I had talked. While it may sound presumptuous for me to say this, I felt they were almost as confused as my parents.

Let me be more specific. With but a few exceptions, psychologists who have done research on the effects of various disciplining practices on children have conceptualized the parents' role as one of being either strict or lenient, restrictive or permissive, power-assertive or non-power assertive, authoritarian or permissive, dominating or non-dominating, tough or soft. I refer to such studies as those of Healy and Bronner as far back as 1926 and those of Symonds; Radke; Bandura and Walters; Maccoby; Levin, Levy; Sears; Allensmith and Greening; Kagan and Moss; McCord; Watson; and even Coopersmith as late as 1967. All of these researchers conceptualized parental discipline in "either-or" terms--either strict or lenient. Consequently, their studies were generally designed to compare the behavior of children

whose parents were strict with the behavior of children whose parents were lenient. Interestingly enough, these studies certainly did not agree as to the superiority of either approach. The consensus of the research suggests that both restrictiveness and permissiveness entail certain risks. My point here is that psychologists themselves have tended to think of but two approaches to discipline. Recently, a few studies have included other dimensions such as warmth, inconsistency, parental hostility, and so on. Nevertheless, the dichotomous thinking about discipline still persists in the theoretical systems of most researchers. There has been one notable exception--Baldwin, Kalhorn, and Breese in the classic longitudinal study at Fels in 1945 conceptualized three different parental approaches to discipline: Authoritarian, Laissez-faire, and Democratic.

Let me add parenthetically that the strict-or-permissive dilemma is clearly apparent in most of the books and articles for which parents are the target, as well as in the advice offered to parents by teachers, school administrators, ministers, nursery school directors, social workers, psychologists, psychiatrists, probation officers and the police.

Again, let me be more specific:

1. Some are obviously advocating permissiveness by telling parents to give their children more freedom, yet at the same time they talk about setting

limits, being consistent with your discipline, not letting the child rule the home, being firm but fair, etc.

2. Some talk about democracy in the home, yet warn parents against letting the child defy the parents' authority.

3. Some warn against using punishment, yet talk about restricting children and setting definite limits. All are strangely silent about how parents are to enforce their restrictions or what they are supposed to do when the child chooses to defy the limits.

4. Others advocate strong parental authority and warn parents about giving children too much freedom. They even argue that children not only need parental authority but actually want it! I have often wondered where these people have found children who enjoy having their parents restrict them from doing something they strongly want to do. These people seem amazingly naïve about how children learn to lie, rebel, retaliate, or strike back when parents rely on authority to control and direct. Have they also not seen how some children respond to strong parental authority by submissiveness, fearfulness, conformity, apathy, lack of initiative, withdrawal, and dependence?

5. Some advisors to parents, particularly school teachers and administrators, police and parole officers, tell parents to use more authority to curb the behavior of children that is obviously a rebellion against parental authority in the first place.

6. Some who advocate the permissive approach fail to tell parents that children who are always allowed to have their own way frequently become uncontrolled, inconsiderate, selfish, unmanageable, ego-centered, spoiled brats.

What I found, then was an almost universal fuzziness or confusion about parental authority and discipline in child-rearing.

I believe that I have formulated a theory that resolves a lot of this confusion about strictness or permissiveness. In this theory there is the influence of my ideas on democratic leadership, first described in my book, Group-Centered Leadership, published in 1955, because I see the parent-child relationship as being almost identical to the boss-subordinate relationship. I have also been influenced by Carl Rogers' ideas about what it takes to be a therapeutic or helping agent to another, outlined in the chapter, "Characteristics of a Helping Relationship," in his book On Becoming a Person (1961). However, I have had to go beyond both of these theories in order to deal more directly with conflict and how conflict gets resolved in human relationships. Both Rogers' theory and my own failed to deal

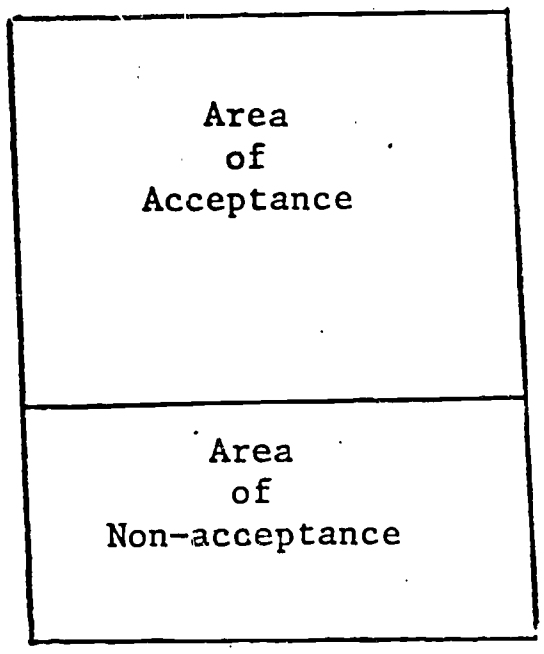
with conflict, largely because they both were derived principally from our work with relationships between a professional therapeutic agent and his clients. In such relationships, serious conflict seldom occurs. Not so, however, in the parent-child relationship, as all of us parents know too well. In this relationship, as in such relationships as husband-wife, boss-subordinate, friend-friend, group-group, and nation-nation, conflict is not only frequent, but it is inevitable. Hence a useful theory of effective human relationships must deal specifically with conflict and how conflicts are resolved.

In the remainder of this paper I will outline a theory of parent effectiveness. While I shall talk only about the parent-child relationship, I now feel this can also be a theory of effectiveness in all human relationships.

Acceptance and Non-Acceptance: Being Real with Children

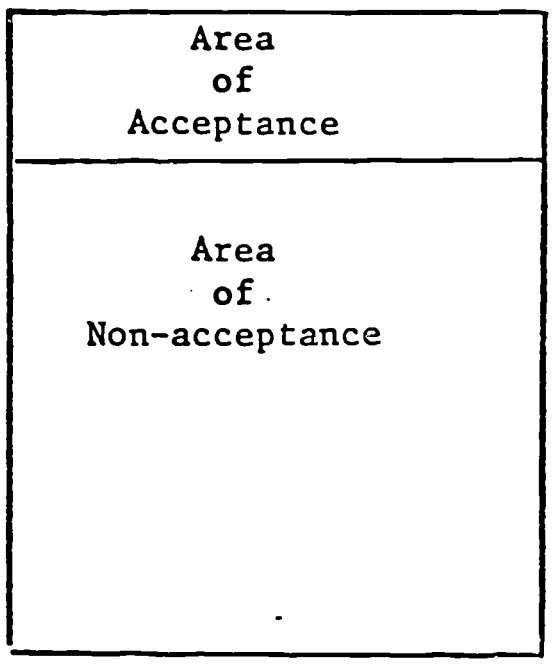
Fundamental to being an effective parent is having the quality of being real with children--the sensitivity to be aware of how one feels toward a child as of a particular moment, plus the courage to act toward him in a way that is consistent with that feeling. We can call it being honest, but that does not capture the essence of this quality. It is more a capacity to be what one is feeling--being "transparently real" (Jourard's term) or "congruent" (Rogers' term). It is the opposite of playing the role of being a proper parent, acting a part, pretending, or behaving the way one should or ought to behave as a parent.

We can initially think of a parent's feeling toward a child as being either one of acceptance or non-acceptance. Let us represent all of the child's possible behaviors--everything he might do or say--by a rectangular area. Obviously, some of these behaviors the parent can accept, some he cannot. We can represent this by dividing the rectangle into an area of acceptance and an area of non-acceptance.

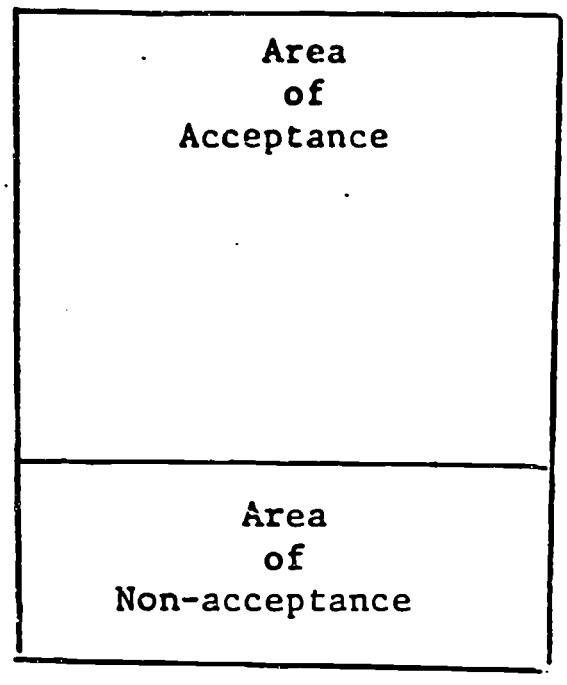


Using this diagram as a frame of reference, we can begin to describe some of the significant dynamics of the parent-child relationship:

1. The line of demarcation between the two areas will not be in the same place for all parents. Some parents are accepting of more behaviors of their children than are other parents. Some parents have a greater capacity for acceptance.

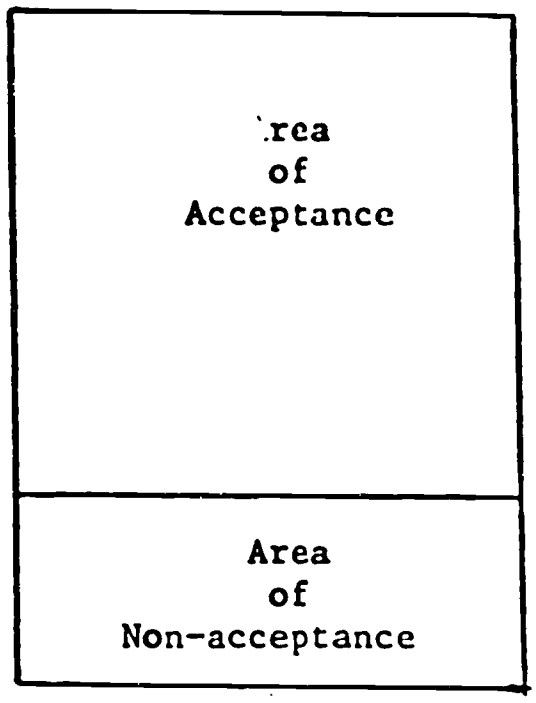


A Relatively Non-Accepting Parent

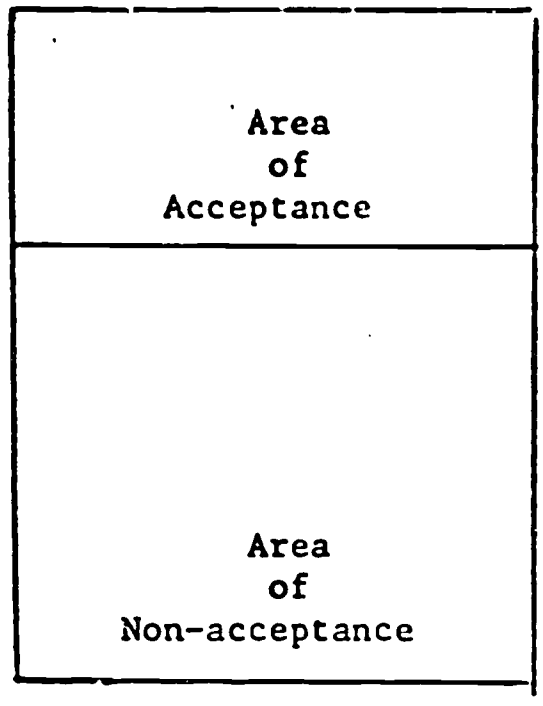


A Relatively Accepting Parent

2. Where the line of demarcation is drawn will also be a function of the child. It is much harder to accept some children than it is other children, for a variety of reasons. Some children are more aggressive, more active, more energetic. With such children we can expect that they might behave more frequently in ways that the parent finds unacceptable, e.g. getting into things, knocking things over, making noise, etc. Some children may start life with illness or cry more frequently or have difficulty sleeping or have the misfortune of being endowed with characteristics that are difficult for a parent to accept.



Parent with a more acceptable child



Parent with a less acceptable child

That a parent should feel equally accepting of each of his children is not only a fallacious notion but one that has caused many parents to feel guilty when they do not accept one as much as another.

3. The line of demarcation does not remain fixed or stationary. It moves up and down frequently, as a function of several factors: changes in the parent, changes in the child, and changes in the environment. A parent who on a particular day is feeling energetic, healthy, and happy with himself is likely to feel accepting of more of his child's behaviors. However, on a day when he feels terrible, some of the behaviors that were acceptable to him when he felt good are no

longer acceptable. All therapists know from experience that their capacity to be accepting varies with how they are feeling inside themselves. The same is true of parents.

Children, too, change from day to day. When a child is sick or tired or not liking himself, he is likely to exhibit more behaviors that will be unacceptable to his parents.

Finally, the situation will markedly affect where the line of demarcation is drawn. For example, acceptable table manners at home may become unacceptable when the family is eating in a public restaurant.

4. It is inevitable, then, that parents will be inconsistent with their children. How could they be anything else when their feelings are changing from day to day, from child to child, and from situation to situation. In fact, if parents should try to be consistent, they obviously could not be real with their children.

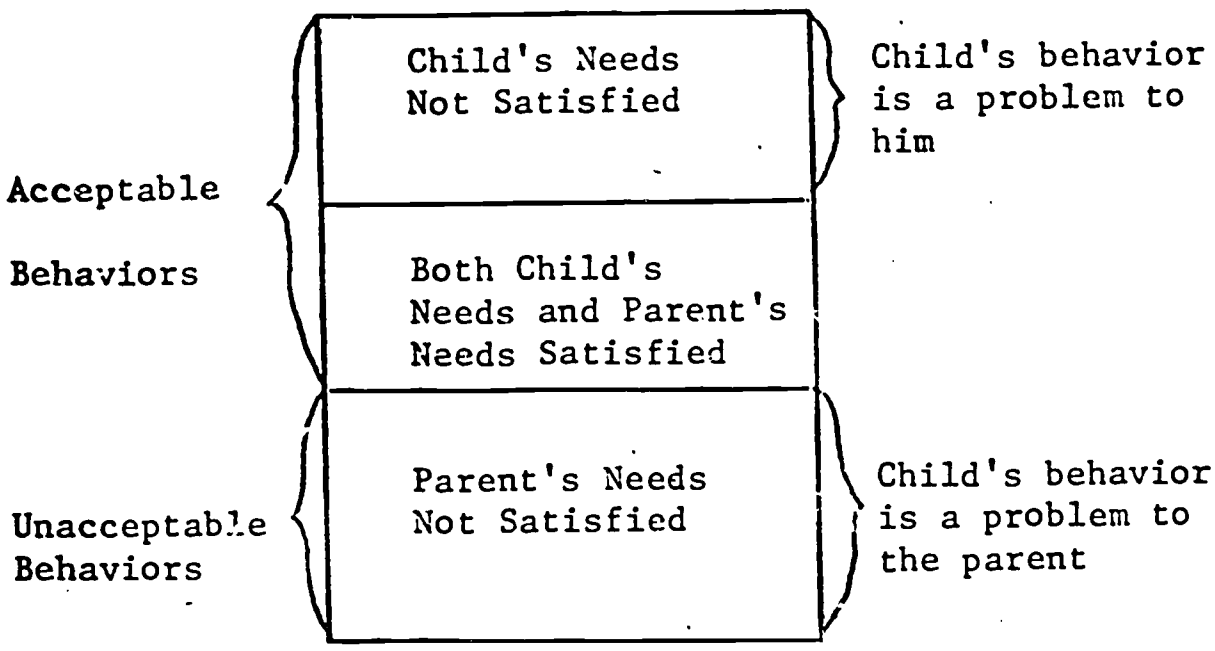
5. A child's father may be relatively accepting and his mother relatively unaccepting, or vice versa. Furthermore, the lines of each are constantly moving up and down, and probably seldom synchronously. The obvious implication of this is that those who tell parents to

present a common front to their children at all times are asking parents to be unreal, incongruent, or plain phony.

6. No parent can be unconditionally accepting toward a child. Here is where I depart from Carl Rogers' thinking. For every parent, at some time, there will be behaviors of the child in the parent's area of unacceptance. However, some parents play a role or pretend to be accepting when they are not. This we can call false acceptance or false permissiveness. I find many parents in our society guilty of this. Again, the parent who feels he should be unconditionally accepting and thus acts accepting when he feels unaccepting, obviously cannot be real with his children. Frequent exposure to situations in which a parent is feeling one way and acting another can cause children to feel in a bind, insecure, anxious and confused--they live in an interpersonal world of ambiguity and uncertainty, and they also learn to distrust their parents.

The Concept of "Ownership of Problems"

Another area must be delineated in our rectangle to represent behaviors of the child which while not unacceptable to the parent by virtue of causing a problem to him are indicative of the child being a problem to himself.



Our rectangle now represents the fact that in the parent-child relationship, three different kinds of situations occur.

1. Situations in which the child has a problem because he is thwarted in satisfying some need of his own, yet it is not a problem for the parent inasmuch as the child's behavior in no tangible way is interfering with the parent satisfying his own needs.

   CHILD OWNS THE PROBLEM

2. Situations in which the child is satisfying his own needs (he is not thwarted) and his behavior is not interfering with the parent satisfying his needs.

   NO PROBLEM IN THE RELATIONSHIP

3. Situations in which the child is satisfying his own needs (he is not thwarted), yet his behavior is a problem to the parent because it is interfering in

some tangible way with the parent satisfying a need of his own.

PARENT OWNS THE PROBLEM

What kinds of problems does the child own? In general, my criterion for child ownership of a problem is that he is aware that some need of his is not being satisfied yet his behavior in no way is interfering with his parent's satisfying his needs. We might say in such instances that the child is a problem to himself. Such problems as these would be owned by the child:

Jimmy feeling rejected by one of his friends.

Billy sad because he didn't make the tennis team.

Linda frustrated because boys are not dating her.

Bonnie unable to decide what her vocation is to be.

Ralph uncertain about whether to go to college.

Bruce suspended for two days for ditching school.

Fran unhappy with taking piano lessons.

Problems such as these are the ones children inevitably encounter as they attempt to cope with life--their own life. Children's frustrations, puzzlements, deprivations, concerns, and, yes, even their failures should belong to them, not their parents.

When does a parent own the problem? The first clue for a parent is simply when he senses his own feeling of unacceptance toward the child.

The child is behaving in a certain way and the parent begins to have inner feelings of annoyance, frustration, or resentment. A mother finds herself watching the child, becoming tense, experiencing discomfort, not liking what he is doing:

A child is getting too close to a valued piece of china.

A child has his feet on the rungs of your new chair.

A child is frequently interrupting your conversation with a friend.

A child is tugging at you to leave and break off your conversation with a neighbor.

A child has left his toys in the living room just before guests are to arrive.

A child appears about ready to tip over his milk onto the rug.

All of these behaviors actually or potentially are threatening some legitimate need of the parent. The child's behavior in some tangible or direct way affects the parent--mother does not want her vase broken, her chair scratched, her rug soiled, her discussion interrupted, etc.

We are finding that it is very important for parents to understand the difference between problems owned by the child and problems owned by the parent. They must be able to distinguish between the two, because solving the two types of problems requires two entirely different methods--two different approaches, two different skills.

To help a child solve problems he owns, the parent must learn the skills of a counselor. He must learn how to be

effective in facilitating problem-solving <u>inside the child</u>. The parent's principal tool, as a helping agent for the child, is <u>listening</u>. The main direction of the communication process is from the child to the parent. The parent is principally the receiver of the child's messages, not a sender of his own messages.

Parent Effectiveness Training teaches parents to avoid stepping in to solve the child's problem for him, yet gives parents training in the skill required to help the child solve his own problem. The skills we teach are identical to those of the client-centered counselor--what Dorothy Baruch calls "mirroring," Carl Rogers calls "reflection of feelings." We call it "Active Listening" (after Farson). In our classes we are finding that many parents acquire a very high level of competence in Active Listening.

On the other hand, to help solve a problem that the parent himself owns, he must learn the skills of confrontation. He must learn to be effective in influencing the child to modify the behavior that is a problem to the parent. The parent's principal tool is telling the child honestly and directly how the parent feels. We call this sending "I"-messages (I feel angry, I feel tired. I am annoyed). The parent must be a sender, not a receiver. The main direction of the communication process, then, is from the parent to the child.

These two contrasting approaches can be summarized as follows:

WHEN THE CHILD OWNS THE PROBLEM	WHEN THE PARENT OWNS THE PROBLEM
Child initiates	Parent initiates
Parent is a listener	Parent is a sender
Parent is a counselor	Parent is an influencer
Parent wants to help child	Parent wants to help himself
Parent is a "sounding board"	Parent wants to "sound off"
Parent facilitates child finding his own solution	Parent has to find his own solution
Parent can accept child's solution	Parent must be satisfied with solution himself
Parent primarily interested in child's needs	Parent primarily interested in his own needs
Parent is more passive	Parent is more aggressive

Our Parent Effectiveness Training has been described as a course to teach parents the skills of the professional counselor, so that they may increase their effectiveness in helping their children solve for themselves the inevitable problems they encounter as they move through their lives. But this is only one of our objectives. The second is to teach parents the skills of openly and honestly confronting children, so that they may become more effective in influencing their children to respect and consider the needs of the parents. Our course, by virtue of providing training in both of these skills, clearly tells parents that if any relationship between persons is to be therapeutic, the needs of both must be satisfied, the problems of each must be solved. We are trying to teach a philosophy in which the parent by his behavior toward the child continually communicates:

"I will try to help you solve your problems, but when I have a problem caused by your behavior, I expect you to try to help me solve my problem."

When "The Relationship Owns the Problem"

A third type of problem occurs in all human relationships. Unlike the problems caused by the child not meeting his own needs or the problems caused when the parent's needs are not being met, there are those problems involving a conflict-of-needs between the parent and the child. Such conflicts are inevitable, and they run the gamut from minor differences to major disagreements. These are problems owned by the relationship by virtue of both parent and child being involved--the needs of both are at stake.

While it may seem that because conflicts are all so different they may be resolved by an unlimited number of ways, actually there are but three basic methods of conflict-resolution available to parents. Parents thus have a rather limited choice in how they can try to resolve conflict. The vast majority of parents in our society use only two of these methods. My experience has convinced me that very few parents (less than one or two per cent) are even aware of the fact that there exists an alternative to the two most frequently used methods. In our Parent Effectiveness Training course, we refer to these three methods simply as Method I, II, and III. In the course we critically examine the two most frequently used methods, I and II, both of which are "Win-Lose" methods. Then we introduce parents to the alternative, Method III, which paradoxically is the least used yet by far

the most effective method.

Method I and Method II are "Win-Lose" methods, inasmuch as each involves one person winning and the other losing--one gets his way and the other does not, or one meets his needs but the other does not. First, let us look at how Method I works in parent-child conflicts.

Method I

Parent and child encounter a conflict-of-needs situation. The parent decides what the solution should be. Once having selected the solution, the parent then announces it and hopes the child will accept it. If the child does not like the solution, the parent first might try persuasion to try to influence the child to accept the solution. If this fails, the parent usually tries to get compliance by employing power and authority. In the end the child complies, but feels resentful because he has lost.

Let us look at how Method II works in parent-child conflicts:

Method II

Parent and child encounter a conflict-of-needs situation. The parent may or may not have a preconceived solution. If he does, he may first try to persuade the child to accept it. It becomes obvious, however, that the child has his own solution and is attempting to persuade the parent to accept it. If the parent resists, the child

might then try to use his power to get compliance from the parent. In the end the child gets his way, the parent feels resentful because he has lost.

Method I and Method II have similarities even though the outcomes are totally different. In both, each person has his own solution and is trying to persuade the other to accept it. The attitude of each person in both Method I and Method II is "I want my way and I'm going to fight to get it." In Method I the parent is inconsiderate and disrespectful of the needs of the child. In Method II, the child is inconsiderate and disrespectful of the needs of the parent. In both, one goes away feeling defeated, and then is usually angry at the other for causing the defeat. Both methods involve a power struggle and, of course, the adversaries are not loath to use their power if they feel it is necessary to win.

Almost without exception the parents who enroll in Parent Effectiveness Training have been resolving conflicts with their children exclusively by either Method I or Method II. Either the parent wins and the child loses or else the child wins and the parent loses. Thus, the parent-child relationship in our society typically develops into a power struggle--today's parents and their children end up in a contest or, if you will, <u>at war</u>, both thinking in terms of one winning and one losing. Sometimes the relationship is that of a cold war, sometimes it is a rather heated fight.