

**FACILITATING THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION
SKILLS IN CHILDREN: THE DEVELOPMENT, IMPLEMENTATION AND
EVALUATION OF A CURRICULUM WITH IMPLICATIONS
FOR PEACE EDUCATION**

by

Alison M. Walkley

B.ED. Simon Fraser University, 1984

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL
FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR
MASTERS OF ARTS**

in the Faculty
of
Education

© Alison M. Walkley
Simon Fraser University

March 1989

All rights reserved. This thesis may not be reproduced in whole or in part, by photocopy or any other means, without the permission of the author.

APPROVAL


Name: Alison Michelle Walkley
Degree: Master of Arts (Education)
Title of Thesis: Facilitating the Development of
Interpersonal Communication Skills in
Children: The Development, Implementation
And Evaluation of a Curriculum With
Implications For Peace Education

Examining Committee:

Chair: Suzanne de Castell

Selma Wassermann
Senior Supervisor

~~Michael~~ Manley-Casimir
Professor

Neil McAllister

External Examiner

Date Approved April 7, 1989

PARTIAL COPYRIGHT LICENSE

I hereby grant to Simon Fraser University the right to lend my thesis, project or extended essay (the title of which is shown below) to users of the Simon Fraser University Library, and to make partial or single copies only for such users or in response to a request from the library of any other university, or other educational institution, on its own behalf or for one of its users. I further agree that permission for multiple copying of this work for scholarly purposes may be granted by me or the Dean of Graduate Studies. It is understood that copying or publication of this work for financial gain shall not be allowed without my written permission.

Title of Thesis/Project/Extended Essay

~~FACILITATING THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS IN CHILDREN:~~

~~THE DEVELOPMENT, IMPLEMENTATION AND EVALUATION OF A CURRICULUM WITH~~

~~IMPLICATIONS FOR PEACE EDUCATION~~

Author:

(signature)

Alison Michelle Walkley

(name)

April 7 / 87

(date)

ABSTRACT

FACILITATING THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS IN CHILDREN: THE DEVELOPMENT, IMPLEMENTATION AND EVALUATION OF A CURRICULUM WITH IMPLICATIONS FOR PEACE EDUCATION

Educators interested in helping students develop their personal resources for living harmoniously have increasingly recognized the need for programs that enhance the development of interpersonal skills in children. To meet this need, a systematic program, based on Carl Rogers' theory of interpersonal communication, was designed to facilitate the development of communication skills in children thus encouraging interpersonal understanding. The curriculum uses issues arising in children's relationships with others as a medium for teaching listening, empathy and clarification skills. The purpose of this study was to assess the effectiveness of the curriculum in teaching these skills.

The curriculum was field tested in a grade five class. Students met with the investigator for 40 minutes, two to three times a week over the course of ten weeks to train in the interpersonal communication skills. Grade five students enrolled in two other classes participated as a control group. As a participant observer, the investigator kept anecdotal records to assess the effectiveness of the curriculum and to explore its effects on the students and their interpersonal relationships. In addition, prior to, and two weeks following the completion of the program, students in both groups completed indexes of empathy and clarification skills. Evaluations of the experience were also completed by the training group.

The interpersonal skills curriculum appeared to be effective in facilitating the students' development of interpersonal communication skills: Analyses of scores on the communication indexes revealed a significant improvement in empathy and clarifying skills, when considered separately or together, for students participating in the program

both over the course of training and in comparison with a control group. Exploratory findings indicate that the program had positive effects on many of the students and their interpersonal relationships. Qualitative data provided insight into the effectiveness of the content and process of the curriculum. Recommendations are made for the development, implementation and evaluation of interpersonal communication skills curricula for upper elementary school age children.

Implications of the study are discussed within the broader context of educating for peace. Suggestions for further research include: investigation of the durability of skills and their transfer out of the learning setting; investigation of the effects of the program on intra and interpersonal variables and learning outcomes; and investigation of how children of different ages relate, both cognitively and psychologically, to issues affecting peace.

For Kyla and Kian,
may peace, only a vision now,
become a reality in your lifetimes.

Acknowledgements

Many people gave their time, assistance and support to make this thesis possible. I would like to express my gratitude:

To Selma Wassermann, for her crucial work at Simon Fraser University, helping teachers to develop their interpersonal communication skills, on which this thesis is modelled;

To Mike Manley-Casimir, for his guidance, generous support and commitment to peace education;

To Greg and my family for their patience, understanding, faith and support during this venture;

To Karin Walkley, for her editorial help;

To Pat Holborn and Serena Patterson, for their empathy and clarification when I needed it most;

To Kathy Price for her interest in and commitment to researching the effectiveness of the second revision of the curriculum;

To the Burnaby School District, for their commitment to peace education; and

To the principals, classroom teachers, and children who participated in this study.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
APPROVAL	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
DEDICATION	v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii
LIST OF TABLES	x
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
QUOTATION	xii
CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION	1
Background and Rationale.	1
Definition of Terms	6
Statement of Problems.	7
Hypotheses	8
Methodology	8
Limitations of the Study	9
Organization of Thesis	10
CHAPTER II SELECTED REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	11
Interpersonal Skills Training	12
Empathy in Children	16
Theoretical Views on Empathy	
The Affective Component	
The Cognitive Component	
The Communicative Component	

**The Relation of Empathy to Prosocial and
Related Behaviors**

	Empathy Training Programs.	46
	Indications for Curriculum Development, Implementation and Evaluation	52
	Level of Intervention	
	Teaching Methods	
	Curriculum Content	
	Concluding Remarks	56
CHAPTER III	METHODOLOGY	57
	The Study Sample	58
	Curriculum Intervention	59
	Description of Measures	61
	Data Collection	63
	Data Analysis	64
CHAPTER IV	FINDINGS	66
	Results.	66
	The Communication Indexes	
	Effectiveness of the Program in Developing Communication Skills	
	Student Evaluations of the Curriculum	
	Student Self Evaluations	
	Qualitative Data.	81
	Observations	
	Modifications	
	Problems	
	The Revised Curriculum.	87
CHAPTER V	DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS	89
	Discussion of Results.	89
	Effectiveness of the Interpersonal Skills Curriculum	
	Effects of the Curriculum on Student Functioning	
	Communication Education as Peace Education	99
	Recommendations for the Development, Implementation and Evaluation of Interpersonal Communication Skills Curricula	101
	Summary	103

Conclusions	104
Implications of the Study	104
Importance of Training	
Intra and Interpersonal Functioning	
Effect of the Facilitator	
Teacher Training	
Student Readiness	
Implications for Further Research	107

APPENDICES

A. Letters of Approval	109
B. Consent Forms	112
Training Group	
Control Group	
C. Curriculum Intervention as Piloted	117
Curriculum Goals	
Overview of the Curriculum	
Student Materials	
Additional Teaching Materials	
D. Communication Skills Indexes	208
Empathy	
Clarification	
E. Rating Scales For Communication Skills Indexes	213
Empathy	
Clarification	
F. Student Evaluation	218
G. Curriculum Evaluation	220
H. Curriculum Evaluation: Summary of Written Comments	224
I. Prosocial Behavior	237
Table 1: Relation of Self Reports to Picture/Story Measures of Empathy to Prosocial Behavior	
Table II: Relation of Self Report Indices to Prosocial Behavior in Simulation Experiments	
Table III: Relation of Questionnaire Indices of Empathy to Prosocial Behavior	

REFERENCES.	242
---------------------	-----

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE

- I Summary of Inter-rater Reliability coefficients for Communication Skills Indexes
- II Summary of Mean Scores on Communication Skills Indexes
- III Training Group Data
- IV Summary of Analyses of Scores on Communication Skills Indexes
- V Results of Student Evaluations of the Training Program
- IV Results of Student Self Evaluations

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE

- I Mean Scores on Communication Skills Indexes
 - Empathy
 - Clarification

"If peace education is ever to provide students with a truly comprehensive study of peace, it will have to consider communication. After all, war and peace are relationships."

(Fry, 1986)

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background and Rationale

We live in very difficult times. One has only to read a newspaper or listen to a news broadcast to begin to ascertain the extent of the problems in the world: environmental problems, political strife, terrorism, wars on many parts of the globe, hunger, human rights violations, apartheid, inequality, the arms race. At times it seems inevitable that these problems will escalate into a nuclear war; that somehow the unimaginable, global annihilation, will become a reality.

Like us, our children are aware of these problems and are concerned and fearful about the possibility of nuclear war. Recent studies have reported that Canadian children as young as nine years old are aware of and afraid of the threat of nuclear war (Hargraves, 1985; Harvey et al, 1985; Parker et al, 1986; Sommers et al, 1984). Studies also reveal that some of these children believe that a nuclear war will occur in their lifetime. Most feel a sense of personal powerlessness in relation to the nuclear issue.

It is difficult to imagine how our children will cope with problems such as those that exist in our world today. Indeed, their future depends on whether we continue to move towards annihilation or begin to move towards peace. If the aim of education is to prepare our children for their future, then we need to actively prepare our children for peace. As educators, we need to provide students with information about issues affecting peace, with psychological skills to cope with this information, and with the personal resources necessary to live peacefully.

Policy makers, educators, and parents have recognized the need for peace education in our schools. For example, in 1974, the United Nations adopted a recommendation by

Unesco on Education for International Understanding, Co-operation and Peace relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms. The recommendation was to encourage and support education for the advancement of justice, freedom, human rights and peace. At an international government conference in 1983, it was observed that the main lines of emphasis of the recommendation are now reflected in most national educational policies (Petrovsky, 1986).

In a survey of peace education for the Canadian Institute for International Peace and Security, Wytze Brouwer (1986), found that a mandate for peace education exists within the formal educational goals and objectives of every Canadian province. In fact, many of the components of peace education are reflected in the objectives of subjects such as Social Studies, Language Arts, Science, and Drama.

The Canadian Teacher's Federation (CTF) also has a comprehensive policy in support of peace education:

Educators should provide leadership in supporting the concept of global understanding and peace.

Justice, mutual respect, and respect for differences can be taught and learnt.

Students must be assisted in acquiring skills to make choices relevant to world concerns.

Peace education must concern itself with teaching co-operation at all levels.

The CTF calls for educators to provide students with the knowledge, understanding attitudes, skills and powers to live in peace.

The public is also demanding that schools take a much broader view of education and include topics such as social awareness, values, sex education, peace education, and communication skills (Pitsula, 1987).

Given this impetus, the field of peace education has begun to grow in Canada. The field is, however, still in its infancy: there is no clear consensus regarding the focus,

content (Richards, 1986) and process of peace education. Indeed, both the terminology and the framework for the field differ across educational levels. At the university level, the term "peace studies" is primarily used to refer to programs and courses dedicated to the study of war and the alternatives to war. Recently, however, the focus has shifted from the study of war to the study of structural violence, including the examination of political and socioeconomic structures that perpetuate injustice and violence. At the secondary and elementary school levels the term "peace education" is used to refer to teaching and learning about peace. The primary aim of such education is to provide information about global issues that affect peace, the nuclear issue in particular.

One of the major difficulties in the development of "peace education" and "peace studies" is the lack of a positive vision of peace (Carson & Parsons, 1985). This is reflected by the content of programs which focus on "war" and the nuclear arms race. The content of "peace education" and "peace studies" is not without controversy. There is much debate over whether such curricula are, or should be, "balanced". Cox and Scruton (1984) argue that such curricula are not balanced and as such advocate political views which are "damaging to the national interests...and favorable to the Soviets" (Richards, 1986). Peace educators argue that such curricula provide a balance to text books which promote "nationalism" (Wilberg, 1981) and provide information that is hidden by government authorities (Carson & Parsons, 1985).

Recently, peace educators, especially at the elementary and secondary school levels have turned their attention to "educating for peace". The primary aim of such education is to help students to develop their personal resources for living peacefully. This includes teaching skills for mediation, conflict resolution, "non-competitive dialogue" and cooperation (Brouwer, 1986).

Out of the debate regarding the focus, content and process of peace education, a number of important criteria have emerged for the development and implementation of peace education programs and activities.

1. The content of materials for peace education, like any other subject area, need to be developmentally appropriate (MacIntosh, 1987). Because of the political controversy that can sometimes surround peace education, careful consideration must to be given to the manner in which students at different ages relate to the concept of peace, the extent to which they are aware of issues affecting peace, and their abilities to deal with information both cognitively and psychologically.
2. Teaching processes need to be consistent with and model the content of peace education curricula (MacIntosh, 1987; Richards, 1986). How we deal with power, justice, equality, differences and conflict in our daily lives tells students a great deal about peace. Providing students with opportunities to influence their learning and educational experience can help to alleviate the sense of powerlessness that many experience in the face of the future.
3. A balance between affective involvement and learning concepts, content and skills is necessary (MacIntosh, 1987). Helping students to deal psychologically with information and issues through discussions, sharing feelings and ideas is an important part of the peace education process, as is facilitating the development of skills, and the intake of factual information.

Curriculum materials have been developed to educate young people about global issues affecting peace, the nuclear issue in particular. Few materials exist to facilitate the development in students of their personal resources for living peacefully; to help them to show, in their day to day behavior, a deep and compassionate concern for each other and the future of our world. This thesis addresses this goal by designing and researching a curriculum to facilitate the development of communication skills in students, skills that encourage interpersonal understanding. The criteria, previously identified, are incorporated into the curriculum design.

A putative assumption in teaching interpersonal skills within the context of peace education is that there are strong links between interpersonal and international conflict and that peace on a global level is intimately connected to peace on a personal level. Peace, as such, is conceptualized as a social process involving communication between individuals, families, groups, schools, governments and nations. Peace is therefore ultimately connected to the quality of communication and interaction.

A major barrier to peace and interpersonal understanding is our tendency to judge: to approve or disapprove of ourselves, some other person or some other group. According to Carl Rogers (1961a) this tendency to judge is common in almost all interchanges and is heightened in those situations where feelings and emotions are deeply involved. Rogers suggests that when communication is met by acceptance, rather than evaluation, reassurance, denial or distortion, feelings become bearable, confusion becomes clear and insoluble elements become soluble - in essence a sense of personal and interpersonal peace is achieved. Acceptance, or being nonjudgmental, means working to understand another person's thoughts or feelings from "the other person's point of view, to sense how it feels to him(/her), to achieve his(/her) frame of reference in regard to the thing (s)he is talking about" (Rogers, 1961a).

The interpersonal communication skills of empathy and clarification embody Rogers' basic approach of seeing another's thoughts and feelings from the other's point of view and provide a means for communicating that understanding back to the other person. Results of research conducted in a wide variety of situations, demonstrate the effectiveness of nonjudgmental listening, empathy and clarification in enhancing interpersonal understanding and reducing conflict (Rogers, 1961a). The curriculum developed in this study was designed to facilitate the development of these skills in students.

Definition of Terms

The definition of terms as they are used for the purposes of this study are as follows:

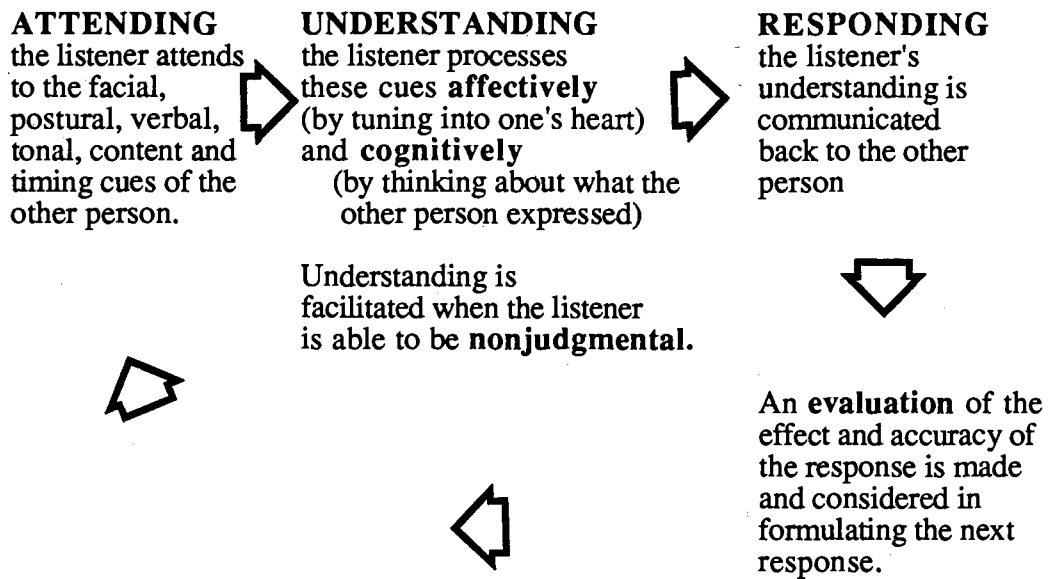
Curriculum intervention or interpersonal communication skills curriculum refers to the curriculum unit designed by the investigator to facilitate the development of listening, empathy and clarifying skills, described in this study (See Appendix C).

Empathy refers to the ability to perceive another person's feelings accurately and to communicate that understanding to the other person (Rogers 1961a, Wassermann).

Clarification refers to the ability to perceive another person's opinions, attitudes or ideas accurately and to communicate that understanding to the other person.

Listening refers to the ability to understand what another is saying by attending to the facial, postural, verbal, tonal, content and timing of cues of the other person.

Empathy and clarification are conceptualized as having three phases.



Statement of Problems

The intent of this thesis was to develop a systematic curriculum to facilitate children in their development of communication skills which encourage interpersonal understanding. Rogers' theory of interpersonal communication was used as a basis for the curriculum which was specifically designed to teach listening, empathy and clarification skills. Strategies for teaching these skills were developed based on a review of existing training programs and theory and research concerned with the development of empathy and prosocial behavior in children. The central purpose of this study was to assess the effectiveness of the curriculum experience in facilitating the development of empathy and clarification skills in students through the implementation of the interpersonal communication skills curriculum. The effect of the curriculum experience on the students and their interpersonal relationships was also examined. This examination was, however, exploratory in nature so that further avenues for research could be identified.

Hypotheses

- H1: The students in the training group will receive significantly higher mean scores on post intervention paper and pencil measures of empathy skills and clarification skills than the students in the control group.
- H2: The students in the training group will receive significantly higher mean post intervention scores on paper and pencil measures of empathy and clarification skills than pre intervention scores.

Methodology

As the main purpose of this study was to assess whether the interpersonal communication skills curriculum would lead to increases in empathy and clarification skills so that students might improve their interpersonal relationships, a pre-test post-test control group design was used to assess changes in the students ability to use these communication skills. The curriculum was field tested in a public school district in British Columbia during the 1986/87 school year. Students in a grade five class met with the investigator 2-3 times a week over the course of ten weeks and were trained in listening, empathy and clarification skills. Students in two other classes participated as a control group. Empathy and clarification skills were measured using indexes based on a communication index by Kvatochuil, Carkhuff and Berenson (1969) and scored using scales based on a rating scale developed by Carkhuff (1969), and two modified versions of this scale developed by McAllister (1978). The indexes and scales are located in the Appendices D and E.

In addition to collecting data to measure changes in the students' interpersonal communication skills, data were collected to assess the effectiveness of the curriculum so that revisions could be made to improve its effectiveness. Students in the training group completed evaluations of the curriculum and their learning; anecdotal records were kept by

the investigator as a participant observer throughout the implementation of the curriculum; and records were made of the students' task work. These data were used to make improvements to the training program and to begin to explore whether such a form of communication education was an effective means for educating for peace. An exploratory examination of the effect of the curriculum experience on the students and their interpersonal relationships was made so that further avenues for research could be identified.

Limitations of the Study

The study is limited by the following conditions:

The sample size was restricted to grade five students from a large suburban school district in British Columbia. By necessity, this was a "convenience sample", rather than a random sample. It was determined by the voluntary participation of students, with parental consent, enrolled in three classes at different schools, and by the willingness of the school principals and classroom teachers to participate in the investigation. Students in the training group came from a single grade 5 classroom. Students in the control group came from two grade 5/6 classrooms

Students in the study were not pre-selected according to the quality of their interpersonal relationships, the level of their communication skills, or any other criteria.

The material for the interpersonal communication skills curriculum was developed by the investigator who also taught the program to the students in the training group. Students in the control group received no intervention, thus the possibility of the "Hawthorne" effect was not controlled for.

The training program extended over two or three forty minute classes a week for the period of 12 consecutive weeks for a total of 31 sessions.

Pre and post training indexes of empathy and clarification skills were completed anonymously by all students in the study under the supervision of the investigator. These indexes were scored by two independent raters. Students in the training group also completed an evaluation of the curriculum. Observations were recorded by the investigator during the implementation of the curriculum intervention.

Organization of the Thesis

This chapter has identified the problem investigated in this thesis and has provided the background and rationale for this study. Chapter II provides an examination of interpersonal skills training and the need for such education in the schools. Research pertinent to the development and assessment of curriculum for teaching interpersonal communication skills is also reviewed. Chapter III outlines the methodology of the study, describing the procedures, measures and interventions used. Chapter IV presents the findings of the study and discusses revisions to the curriculum intervention. Chapter V presents conclusions and examines the implications of the investigation for communication education and peace education.

CHAPTER II

SELECTIVE REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Chapter one placed communication education within the broader context of educating for peace and the rationale for peace education, including the need to meet formal educational goals and objectives and professional obligations was described. It was noted that the need for peace education becomes increasingly more imperative as society becomes more and more complex and children become aware of, and concerned about, issues affecting peace. The rationale for communication education as an integral component of peace education was also sketched. The putative assumptions in this approach to peace education is that there are strong links between interpersonal and international conflict and that peace on a personal level is intimately connected to peace on a global level; it is, however also acknowledged that specifying the causal links in these putative relationships are problematic. Three important criteria for the development and implementation of peace education programs and activities were identified. Thus chapter one provides a discussion of peace education as a context for developing and evaluating curriculum materials designed to enhance the development of interpersonal skills in children.

The purpose of this chapter is: (1) to examine the historical roots and the contemporary state of interpersonal skills education in schools, and to focus on empathy and clarification as key interpersonal skills; (2) to review theory and research pertinent to the development and assessment of curriculum materials for teaching interpersonal communication skills to children including an examination of the research concerned with the development of empathy in children and its relationship to prosocial behavior; and (3) to examine existing programs for developing empathy skills in children. Key components of the above for the development, implementation and evaluation of curriculum materials for teaching interpersonal communication skills to children will be summarized.

The following review of the literature focuses on empathy. There are two reasons for this. First, little is known about clarification skills in children. The present review of the literature did not reveal any research on the development of clarification skills in children or any training programs for children designed to enhance these skills. Second, clarification is conceptualized as being theoretically similar to empathy. Both skills embody Rogers' basic approach of seeing another's thoughts and feelings from the other's point of view and provide a means for communicating that understanding back to the other person. Thus the processes involved in clarifying are similar to those involved in empathy. The delineation of the two skills lies in the type of expression that each is used as a response to: clarification is used as a response to expressions of thoughts, attitudes, opinions and ideas; empathy is used as a response to expressions of feelings.

Interpersonal Skills Education

The emphasis in public education has, since its beginnings, gradually shifted from a focus on academics to one encompassing the growth and development of the total person (Pancer & Weinstein, 1987; Woodring, 1975). Commentators have predicted that this will continue to be an important component of education in the future (McCune, 1984; Pinnel, 1984). Educators have long argued for the need for educational processes to foster the growth and development of the whole person. One can date such ideas back to the writings of Plato, Socrates, Kant, and in more recent history, to the philosophies of Carl Rogers, John Dewey, and A. S. Neil. These ideas are reflected in the writings and practices of proponents of affective or humanistic education today. In such education the crucial aspect of learning is seen to lie in the subjective experience of the learner. The role of the teacher is seen not as one of providing information but in helping students to explore and discover meaning for themselves. As such, the teacher's and learner's attitudes, values and feelings are considered to be important facets of the learning process.

Historically, humanistic education has emphasized the teacher's contribution to the affective education of learners (Carkhuff, 1982). In 1957, Carl Rogers suggested that learning is enhanced when teachers provide high levels of empathy, congruence and positive regard. Of these three conditions, Rogers emphasizes the importance of empathy as a key interpersonal skill and prerequisite for effective teaching (Rogers, 1967). Empathy enables the teacher to understand a student's inner world and as a result feel more warmth, respect and liking for the student. Through communicating to the student an empathic understanding, the teacher can help to empower the student to come to a clearer understanding of him/ herself and others (Carkhuff, 1969). Accurate empathy communicates to the student that the self is understandable and acceptable (Rogers 1961). In this way empathy is thought to provide the basis for intra and inter personal change and growth. Hatch and Guerney (1975) explain this process in the following way:

a person who shows acceptance and respect for [another persons feelings and ideas] creates an atmosphere of acceptance, trust and safety for that person. The defensive layers of the other are gradually relaxed, allowing the other to examine intrapersonal and interpersonal conflicts and self concept concerns. In the course of this process, the relationship between the two individuals is strengthened and deepened (p. 103).

Recognition of the importance of intrapersonal and interpersonal skills for teachers provoked the development of training programs. A number of training programs designed to facilitate teachers in their development of interpersonal communication skills focused on helping teachers develop skills in empathy and clarification (e.g. The National Consortium For Humanizing Education (Carkhuff, 1983; Aspy, 1975), Education 819, Simon Fraser University (Wassermann). Programs such as these encourage teachers to develop their skills so that they can more sensitively respond to the needs of their students. Research has documented the effects of such educational processes in helping to promote self esteem (Newberg & Love, 1982; Rogers, 1983; Carkhuff, 1987), higher-order thinking capacities (Raths, Wassermann, Jonas & Rothstein, 1986), the development of moral and ethical

behavior (Raths, 1971; Raths, Harmin & Simon, 1966, 1978), the nurturing of creativity, imagination and feelings (Ashton-Warner, 1963; Combs, 1982; Rogers, 1969, 1983; Wasserman, 1985) and the promotion of interpersonal skills (Carkhuff, 1982, 1987; Aspy & Roebuck, 1982; Wassermann, 1985) including cooperation, sharing and problem solving. Researchers have also documented positive results for achievement; Studies show that teachers with high levels of affective interpersonal skills are effective in facilitating the development of cognitive skills including those assessed by traditional achievement measures (Aspy, 1975; Aspy & Roebuck, 1977; Carkhuff, 1982; 1987).

In addition to arguing for affective or humanistic educational processes that foster interpersonal growth and development, educators have also argued for the need for curricula that directly teach students these skills (e.g. Carkhuff, 1982; 1987; Cooper, Munger & Raulin, 1980; Elias & Maher, 1983; Fry, 1986; Griffen, 1984; Kim & Stephens, 1987; Manning & Allen, 1987; Pitsula, 1987; Wassermann, 1985). Such writers have underscored the necessity of teaching skills such as listening, empathy, cooperation, sharing, problem solving and conflict resolution to children in schools. These skills are seen as crucial for preparing children to meet the challenges of the future.

The importance of interpersonal skills development for children is not limited to the writings of certain educators. It is also reflected in the goal statements of several government publications. For example, promoting "abilities to communicate with others" is proposed as a major objective of education by the United Nations (*Prospects*, 1985). In Canada, the importance of interpersonal skills development is reflected at the provincial level in the objectives of the elementary Language Arts curriculum, particularly in the areas of listening, speaking, writing and language, in the Social Studies curriculum, particularly in the areas of problem solving and citizenship, and in the Health and Guidance curriculum.

The public is also demanding that schools take a much broader view of education. Parents, in a recent survey in British Columbia indicated that next to intellectual development, schools should teach social and human development. The social and human skills described by parents included life skills, social awareness and communication skills (cited in Pitsula, 1987). Goodlad (1984) also reports that these goals for education are echoed by American parents who consider vocational and personal goals as well as academics as vital.

Despite the fact that educators, policy makers and the general public have recognized the importance of interpersonal skills development for students, schools have given little formal attention to developing these skills (Carkhuff, 1982; Cox & Gunn, 1980). As previously indicated, historically, interpersonal skills training has been aimed at teachers and not at students. In this way, educators have thought of students as dependent variables in the learning equation despite the accumulated evidence that they contribute most of the variance in cognitive learning (Carkhuff, 1982). As the interpersonal behavior of students within the school environment significantly contributes to the learning process (Cox & Gunn, 1980; Elias & Maher, 1983; Pancer & Weinstein, 1987) the emphasis in education must be placed on helping students as well as teachers in the development of interpersonal communication skills. This may enhance the effects of such training for teachers on the social, emotional and intellectual development of students.

It is clear from the previous discussion and that of chapter one, that helping students to develop interpersonal communication skills, such as empathy and clarification is a necessary and important component of education. These skills are crucial for preparing children to meet the challenges of the future. What is not yet clear is how to go about teaching these skills. Much can be learned from interpersonal skills training programs for adults. Rather than "scaling" down such programs, programs for children need to be based

on a developmental model which recognizes their intellectual, social and emotional capacities (Cox & Gunn, 1980). This is provided by theory and research pertinent to the development and assessment of curriculum materials for teaching communication skills to children including an examination of research concerned with the development of empathy in children and its relationship to prosocial behavior and an examination of existing training programs for children.

Empathy in Children

This section presents a review of research and theory concerned with the study of empathy in children. It considers the developmental course of empathy in terms of its affective, cognitive and communicative components, together with the individual differences, situational parameters and antecedents affecting empathy. The relationship of empathy to prosocial behavior is also examined. In view of the varied conceptions of empathy, both historically and contemporaneously, alternative definitions and approaches to the examination of empathy are first presented. Methodological issues are also briefly considered.

Theoretical Views on Empathy

Philosophers, researchers and theorists have often considered empathy to be the *sine que non* of human relationships (Smithers, 1978). Conceptual definitions of empathy have been numerous, diverse and at times conflicting. Goldstein and Michaels (1985) cite sixteen different definitions of empathy that have been proposed in the last one hundred years.

Reviews of empathy suggest that definitions can be delineated by their particular focus on either an affective or cognitive component (e.g. Barnett, 1984; Deutsch & Madle, 1975; Eisenberg & Lennon, 1983; Eisenberg & Miller, 1987; Feshbach, 1978;

Hoffman, 1977; Iannotti, 1975; Shantz 1975a and b). The affective orientation finds its roots in the works of McDougall (1908), Lipps (1926) and Buber (1948) and in the psychoanalytic tradition. Early definitions focus on the observer: "feeling oneself into" (Lipps, 1926). Contemporary investigators focusing on the affective component consider an affective experience in the observer to be a necessary requisite for empathy. Researchers interested in empathy in adults have primarily examined this orientation (Feshbach, 1978).

A focus on the cognitive component of empathy was initiated as a result of theoretical interests in moral behavior and cognition. The beginnings of this orientation are found in the works of Mead (1934) and Piaget (1967). Role playing is considered to be an essential feature of empathy when it is conceptualized in primarily cognitive terms. Given its roots, it is of no surprise that this orientation has been particularly prevalent in the research on empathy in children (Smithers, 1978).

Most contemporary developmental researchers take an "integrative" approach recognizing both the affective and cognitive components of empathy (Goldstein & Michaels, 1985) and, depending on their particular orientation, tend to emphasize the importance of one. For example, Feshbach (1975) proposes a three component model of empathy: two cognitive components, namely the ability to discriminate the perspective and role of another person, and one affective component, emotional capacity and responsiveness, are considered necessary for the empathy response to occur. An emphasis is placed on the affective component; a match between the affective response of the observer and that of the stimulus person is considered to be the primary requirement for empathy. Hoffman (1977) also proposes a model which recognizes both the affective and cognitive components. This model, which outlines a series of developmental stages for empathy, focuses on empathy as a primarily affective response that is given increasingly more complex meaning as the child progress through stages in cognitive development.

More recently, Rogers (1975) and Truax and Carkhuff (1967) have emphasized a third component, that of communication. These investigators consider the accurate communication of one's understanding to the stimulus person to be a critical dimension of empathy. Researchers concerned with empathy in adults have focused on the communicative component. Empathic communication in children has, however, for the most part, been ignored (Goldstein & Michaels, 1985).

In the present study, Carl Rogers' (1975) definition of empathy is used (see Chapter I). According to Rogers the act of empathizing involves the ability to comprehend sensitively another's affective state and to communicate that understanding to the stimulus person. Emphasis is placed on the communicative component. However, empathic communication is necessarily the outcome of affective and cognitive processes involved in comprehending another's affective state. Thus, using Rogers' definition, empathy can be seen as a process which consists of three cycles involving all three components. The first phase in the individual's experience of another's affect is perceptual. The observer must attend to the facial, postural, verbal, tonal, content and timing cues of another. Two distinct but interactive modes are then available to process these cues: an affective and cognitive mode. In the affective mode, an involuntary or voluntary tuning into one's emotional response to or with the other's affect occurs. In the cognitive mode understanding of the other's affect is achieved through thinking about the other's affective state. Cognitive processes involved in affect identification, nonegocentrism and role taking are key to affective understanding. Empathic comprehension is facilitated when the individual is able to remain nonjudgmental and accepting. In the third phase, the individual's acceptance and understanding of the other's affective state is communicated. The effect and accuracy of the empathic response is then perceived and considered in the process of empathizing.

The division between conceptualizations of empathy predominately in terms of an affective, cognitive or communicative component is most evident in the methodology that researchers use to assess empathy in children. Measures have typically required the subject to either demonstrate an understanding of another's feeling, measuring the cognitive component, to demonstrate a matching of feeling, measuring the affective component, or to communicate an acceptance and understanding of another's feelings, measuring the communicative component.

Research using each type of measure has given rise to knowledge about the nature and development of each of the components; the great majority of this research has focused either on the affective or cognitive components. Although most current researchers take an "integrative" approach acknowledging the affective and cognitive components, only one measure, the Empathy Continuum, recently developed by Strayer (1985), actually takes into account both components. At present, there are no measures which assess all three components.

Given the different requirements of measures used to assess empathy, the following review examines the nature and development of empathy in children and adolescents by considering research concerned with the affective, cognitive and communicative components of empathy separately. Knowledge about all three components of empathy is pertinent to the present discussion as empathy is conceptualized as a process which involves understanding of another's affective state through cognitive and/or affective processing and communicating that understanding to the other person.

The Affective Component

Developmental researchers interested in empathy have focused on the emotional response of the self to, or with, another's affect (Shantz, 1983). Whereas the cognitive component of empathy is thought to influence competence in providing comfort, the

affective component is thought to influence motivation (Burleson, 1984; Hoffman, 1982). Thus, research into the affective component of empathy is tied to broader theoretical interests in prosocial behavior.

In order to provide insight into the nature and development of the affective component of empathy in children, Hoffman's (1982) developmental model of empathy, which identifies and describes modes of affective arousal, is presented, as is a review of a selection of research studies. The association between empathy and prosocial behavior is considered in a subsequent section.

Hoffman's developmental model focuses on empathy as a primarily affective response that is given increasingly complex meaning as the child progresses through on going phases in cognitive development. Of interest to this particular discussion, is Hoffman's description of six different modes through which an affective response can be aroused. The modes differ in the degree to which perception and cognition are involved, in the type of eliciting stimulus and in the amount and kind of past experience involved.

The first mode of empathic arousal proposed by Hoffman, which is referred to as the "reactive newborn cry", describes the fact that infants respond to cues of distress in others by experiencing distress themselves. This distress response is considered reactive as the infant "lacks awareness of what is happening". The reactive newborn cry is thought to be a rudimentary precursor of empathy which may contribute to empathic distress later on.

The second mode through which empathy can be aroused involves both perceptual and discriminatory capabilities. This mode of empathic arousal involves classical conditioning such that cues from others become conditioned stimuli that evoke feelings of distress in the self. Through stimulus generalization, the co-occurrence of distress in self and distress in others becomes generalized so that similar expressions by others may evoke feelings of distress in the child.

The third mode of empathic arousal, direct association, is dependent on the arousal of past experiences of pain or discomfort in the observer by distress cues in the victim. This involves a general associative mechanism, which may provide the basis for the variety of distress experiences with which children may empathize.

The fourth mode of empathic arousal, mimicry, describes the arousal of empathy which occurs when the observer automatically imitates the facial and postural cues of another. This mimicry creates inner kinesthetic cues in the observer that contribute, through afferent feedback, to the observer's understanding and feeling of the same emotion.

The fifth mode, symbolic association, while still involuntary, is a relatively advanced mode of empathic arousal which involves the ability to interpret symbols. It is based on the association between symbolic cues of the victim's distress and the observer's past distress.

The first five modes of empathic arousal are automatic; affective cues are perceived and discriminated and an affective response occurs. However, the sixth mode, role taking, involves the deliberate cognitive act of imagining oneself in another's place. Thus, unlike the other modes, it is voluntary and requires advanced skills which allow for the cognitive restructuring of events so that what is happening to another may be viewed as happening to the self.

These modes are thought to follow a more or less developmental progression. Hoffman proposes that the first mode typically diminishes after infancy. The next four modes are thought to begin at different points in development and continue to operate throughout one's life. The sixth mode, requiring conscious activation, is believed to operate infrequently and is used primarily in adulthood. The six modes are accessed separately or simultaneously depending on the availability and saliency of affective cues and on the experience and perceptual and cognitive capabilities of the observer. The

operation of different modes influence, both qualitatively and quantitatively, the affective empathic response of the observer to another's affect.

Hoffman's description of these modes of empathic arousal provide insight into the affective response of the self to another's affect, particularly disphoric affect. In the following review research studies which have investigated the nature and development of the affective component of children's empathy, including those on which Hoffman's model is based, are considered. It should be noted that there is evidence that the different types of measures used to assess affective empathy (e.g. physiological measures, facial expressions and self report) are not measuring the same thing (Goldstein and Michaels, 1985; Hoffman 1977d; Eisenberg and Lennon, 1983; Eisenberg & Miller, 1987). In addition, approaches to measurement have differed across age groups. Caution is therefore indicated when grouping findings of research studies using different measures to provide evidence for the developmental progression of this component of empathy.

Research involving infants suggests that a rudimentary precursor of the affective component of empathy may be evident at a very early age. Studies by Martin and Clark (1982), Sagi and Hoffman (1976) and Simner (1971) indicate that newborn infants cry more readily when they hear other infants cry than when they are exposed to other sounds. This early reactive cry may be evidence of an innate empathic distress reaction, a primary circular reaction, or may be the result of an association of past distress - perhaps at birth. Regardless of which explanation is valid, the fact remains that infants appear to experience distress themselves in response to another's distress.

Hoffman (1982) states that this reactive cry disappears in the second year of life. However, young children continue to evidence other reactions to emotional displays which indicate an affective response. Cummings, Zahn-Waxler and Radke-Yarrow (1981) investigated the response of ten month to two and half year olds to expressions of anger and affections by others in their families. Their research indicates that by approximately

one year, children are not only aware of other's angry or affectionate interactions, but are also quite likely to evidence an emotional reaction to them. Main, Weston and Wakeling (1979) also note that twelve month old infants evidence empathic sadness in response to the cry of an adult stranger in a laboratory situation (Hoffman, 1982).

Strayer (1980) conducted a naturalistic observational study of empathic behaviors in preschool children. It was found that four to five year old children respond to another child's affective state with affective matching and instrumental responses 39% of the time. Differential responses to another's affect was noted: Happy emotional displays were more likely to elicit an empathic response. In addition, children highest in positive affect were found to respond most to other's emotions. The latter provides confirmation to Hoffman's theory that children who trust that their own needs will be satisfied are more responsive to the needs and feelings of others (Hoffman, 1976).

Researchers have also used facial and gestural measures to examine the affective component of children's empathy. Lennon, Eisenberg and Carroll (1983) investigated the affective response of four to six year olds to two videotapes showing children in emotionally arousing situations. The subjects' facial and gestural responses were scored according to their intensity and latency from presentation of the distress stimuli. The results of the study showed that empathy increases between four and six years of age.

Hamilton(1973) also measured empathy by examining the spontaneous facial expressions of children to happy and sad films. Facial expressions of preschool, second and fifth grade children were found to correspond with the emotions depicted in the films. Unlike the Lennon et al study, age differences were not found.

Strayer (1985a) investigated affective responses of five to six, seven to eight and thirteen to fourteen year old children to televised interpersonal dramas. Facial expressions were coded across ten second units on a -2 to +2 disphoric to euphoric scale, then overall judging of the subject's affect as euphoric or disphoric was made. Using these data, it was

found that children's facial expressions appropriately reflected the valence of the vignettes shown to them across age groups.

The most widely used measure of affective empathy in children have involved self reports to picture-stories and videotapes depicting children in emotionally arousing situations. Research using such measures have typically found that affective empathy increases with age. Studies using the Feshbach and Roe (1968) Affective Situation Test for Empathy (FASTE) have found that performance increases consistently between the ages of four and eight. Feshbach and Feshbach (1969), Kuchenbecker, Feshbach and Pletcher (1974) and Powell (1971) (Feshbach, 1978) report a marked increase in affective empathy scores between ages four to five and six to seven. This increment is shown to continue through age eight and level off by age ten. Feshbach (1978) attributes this leveling off to a possible ceiling effect caused by the fact that the content of the FASTE was originally designed for use with four to eight year old children. Feshbach and Roe (1968) and Levine and Hoffman (1975) also indicate that preschool children are more likely to respond empathically to euphoric than to disphoric affect. Differential responding to euphoric affect is found to diminish with age (Hoffman, 1977a).

Similarity between subjects and stimuli have also been shown to influence empathy scores using the FASTE. Kulak (1971) noted that kindergarten children responding to same sex stimuli, displayed significantly more empathy than when responding to opposite sex stimuli. Similar findings are reported for six to seven year olds by Feshbach and Roe (1968). Powell (1971) noted that ten year olds responded more empathically to picture-stories narrated by a ten year old than to those narrated by an adult (Feshbach, 1978). Klien (1970) also reports that racial similarity increases affective empathy scores.

More recently, Strayer (1987) found age differences for affective matching using another self report measure, the Empathy Continuum (EC). This continuum incorporates traditional scoring of affective empathy (as used with the FASTE) with its reported

cognitive mediation. Subjects aged five to six, eight to nine and twelve to thirteen watched a series of six emotionally laden videotaped vignettes and their responses were scored using the EC. Of particular interest to the present discussion is the finding that affective matching increased significantly with age. Taken together with the results of studies using the FASTE, these findings suggest that the affective component of empathy increases between the ages of four and thirteen.

Increases in empathic ability with age using self report measures may not be indicative of developmental changes in the affective component of empathy despite the fact that such methods require "affective matching". The FASTE and the affective matching portion of the EC were designed to measure affective empathy. However, such self report measures necessarily include both cognitive and communicative components. Kuchenbecker et al (1974) examined the role of social comprehension in empathy scores on the FASTE and found that there is a close interrelationship between social comprehension and empathy. Results from the Feshbach and Roe (1968) study indicate that variations in empathy scores cannot be accounted for solely by the ability to recognize the affective experience of others. Changes with age in empathy scores, using the FASTE, are thought to reflect developmental changes in cognitive skills and communication abilities as well as the enriched array of emotional experience that children accumulate with increased interpersonal exposure and interaction (Feshbach, 1978).

An examination of the relationship between cognitive mediation and affective matching for the EC also indicates that the two components are highly correlated across age groups. Cognitive mediation, along with caring for the characters' feelings accounted for 76% of the variance in affective matching. Thus it is difficult to ascertain the extent to which increases in empathy with age on measures involving self report are reflective of increases in affective responsiveness, and the extent to which such increases are reflective of developmental changes in cognitive and communicative abilities.

In addition to naturalistic observations, facial and gestural measures and self report measures, researchers have used paper and pencil measures to assess affective empathy in children and adolescents. Bryant (1982) developed a paper and pencil measure for children based on an adult measure by Mehrabian and Epstein (1972). The scale was administered to first, fourth and seventh grade children. A positive relationship between empathy and age was documented. No age differences were found between first and fourth grade children; however, seventh grade children had higher empathy scores than the two younger groups. Eisenberg and Mussen (1978) used the original Mehrabian and Epstein measure with adolescents in the ninth, eleventh and twelfth grades. In contrast, empathy scores for these adolescents were found to be unrelated to age.

These studies and Hoffman's description of modes of empathic arousal provide some insight into the affective component of empathy. Research provides evidence that affective responsiveness is found across age groups. An early precursor of this response is found in new born infants. Affective empathy appears to differ qualitatively and quantitatively during childhood and adolescence. However, a clear picture of the developmental progression of this component is not apparent. Studies using self report measures indicate that affective empathy increases between the preschool years and early adolescence. Adolescents also appear to experience greater affective empathy than younger children on paper and pencil measures. Evidence for age related changes in empathy using non-self report methods is, however, equivocal. Affective empathic responsiveness may not in fact increase with age. Instead, the child's original empathic response may only be mediated by increasingly complex cognitive processes as he or she grows older. On the other hand, there is reason to believe that the enriched array of emotional experience that children accumulate with increased interpersonal exposure and interaction with age, may increase their affective responsiveness. Further research will be necessary to clarify the extent to which the affective component of empathy follows a developmental pattern.

The Cognitive Component

Developmental researchers interested in empathy have also focused on the cognitive processing of the response of the self to another's affect. Research on the cognitive component of empathy is tied to broader theoretical interests in the development of social cognition (Feshbach, 1978) and moral development (Eisenberg & Mussen, 1978; Smither, 1978). Researchers consider egocentrism and role taking or perspective taking to be two of the most important cognitive processes involved in empathic development. Historically these concepts have played a large role in both defining the cognitive component of empathy and in determining routes of investigation.

Researchers have misconstrued nonegocentrism and role taking as identical (Shantz, 1983). These concepts, although related, are different. Shantz points out that nonegocentric functioning is a necessary but not sufficient requisite for role taking. Nonegocentric functioning enables the child to recognize that another may think or feel differently than the self. Role taking is an important inferential process that can be used to gather information about another's perspective.

Piaget's (1967) model of egocentrism and Selman's (1980) model of perspective taking is reviewed below to provide further insight into these two concepts and to provide a context for a review of research pertinent to the cognitive component of empathy which follows.

Piaget proposes that social awareness proceeds in a series of hierarchal stages. According to Piaget, the child is primarily egocentric until about seven years of age. Piaget describes egocentrism as a state of fusion or undifferentiation between the self and others. In early infancy there is no differentiation of the self from the environment or wishes from reality. In late infancy an awareness of the separateness between the self and the physical world is achieved. During infancy, in the stage known as pre-operations, there is no

understanding of the difference between the physical and the social worlds. The child is "unconsciously centered upon himself" (p. 21) and is unable to take another's point of view. At approximately six or seven years of age, with the advent of concrete operational thought, Piaget proposes that there is a lessening of egocentrism. According to Piaget, during this stage, which continues until approximately age twelve, the child becomes aware that other people have different thoughts, feelings and perspectives. In adolescence, with the advent of formal operational thought, recursive thinking becomes possible. The individual becomes capable of thinking about thinking about oneself. Egocentrism continues to lessen as children mature in their cognitive abilities and acquire greater knowledge of other's thoughts, feelings and motives. Egocentrism does not diminish for several more years. Elkind (1976) proposes that adolescence is characterized by a new form of egocentrism which involves over-identification with a peer group and an over-differentiation and pre-occupation with feelings of the self.

Selman (1975, 1980) proposes a model of interpersonal inference which outlines a set of descriptive social perspective-taking stages. Each stage is seen as a necessary but not sufficient condition for greater empathic understanding. Selman suggests that prior to six years of age, the child is in a stage of egocentric social perspective taking. In this stage the child assumes that the thoughts and feelings of others are separate but identical to the thoughts and feelings of the self in the same situation. During middle childhood, between the ages of six and ten years of age, the child achieves two important developments in social perspective taking. In this stage, the child realizes that the self and others may view the same situation in different ways. The child becomes capable not only of inferring intentions, thoughts and feelings of others with greater accuracy but is also able to understand that one's self and one's feelings and thoughts can be the object of another's thinking. At approximately ten or twelve years of age the child enters a stage of third person or mutual perspective taking. The child begins to understand that each subject can

be simultaneously and mutually aware of another's subjectivity, thoughts, feelings and motivations. In addition, the pre-adolescent is able to assume an impartial or third person perspective.

Later, during adolescence, a fourth level, known as society or in-depth perspective taking, is attained. Others are seen as having levels of awareness and relatedness. Perspective-taking at this age can involve awareness of complex psychological systems and relations of the self and others. In addition, the perspective-taking ability of the adolescent extends beyond the two person level to the social system allowing for the attainment of societal or cultural view points.

In addition to role taking and egocentrism, researchers consider projection, introspection and stereotyping as viable mediators in the empathy process. A relatively large number of research studies have investigated the role of these cognitive processes, particularly those of role taking and nonegocentrism, in influencing, both qualitatively and quantitatively, how a child understands another's emotional experience. The following is a review of a selection of these studies and other findings concerning the nature and development of the cognitive component of children's empathy.

Researchers interested in empathy, defined and measured in primarily cognitive terms, have debated at what age children become capable of empathy. Historically, researchers considered children under the age of seven to be primarily egocentric and therefore unable to understand another's feelings. Research now suggests, however, that children as young as three show an awareness and understanding of another's feelings. In an early investigation of children's empathic understanding, Borke (1971), examined the empathic capabilities of three to eight year old children. It was found that although social sensitivity increases with age, children as young as three were aware that other's have feelings and that these feelings vary in relation to the situation in which the individual finds him or herself. These findings challenge Piaget's conclusions that children younger than

the age of seven, primarily egocentric in their orientation, are not capable of empathic understanding. Borke (1972) speculates that young children probably use projection or stereotypical knowledge when attempting to understand another's feelings. She argues that this constitutes a preliminary form of empathy that, although less developed than the empathy described by Piaget which involves the ability to put oneself in another's place, enables pre-school children to make a judgment that others have thoughts and feelings different from their own.

Chandler and Greenspan (1972) argued against Borke's contention that preschool children are capable of empathic understanding. In their study of children six to twelve years old, they found that, although children could identify another person's affect using a procedure similar to Borke's, the youngest children were not capable of differentiating their own perspective from that of an unaware bystander. Their findings, they argue, suggest that preschool children are able to identify another's feelings though the use of projection or stereotyping but that this is not indicative of true empathic understanding. An alternate explanation of their findings may be that they underline the less sophisticated and less accurate nature of empathic understanding mediated by projection and stereotyping rather than decentration.

Further evidence that the capacity for empathic understanding develops at an early age is provided by a cross cultural longitudinal study by Borke (1973) and a study by Mood, Johnson and Shantz (Shantz,1975a). Recent research also supports the view that young children possess cognitive empathic capabilities. Iannotti (1985), in structured and naturalistic assessments of prosocial behavior, reports that children as young as three show awareness and sensitivity to the needs and feelings of their peers. In addition, Denham (1986) reports that two to three year old children can clearly demonstrate understanding of another's feelings. Denham's study, in which measures of perspective taking were used which minimized verbalization and processing demands, indicates that young children's

understanding of another's feelings include the use of nonegocentric and referential abilities.

Gove and Keating (1979) and Urberg and Docherty (1976) provide additional knowledge about the early development of affective role taking abilities in three to five year olds. Gove and Keating speculate that young children first consider emotion to be a part of the situation itself. Role taking at this early developmental stage consists of simply reading off the affective aspect of an event. At this age, children understand that others may have different emotional responses to the same situation. Later on, children come to understand that emotions are psychological processes or events. Role taking begins to resemble perspective taking as it is described in traditional developmental literature; the child becomes more focused on the internal state of the other person. Similarities can be noted between Gove and Keating's description of the development of affective role taking and Borke's suggestion that early on projection and stereotyping are involved in children's empathy and then later role taking .

Urberg and Doherty attempt to clarify the nature of changes in role taking abilities by examining the performance of three, four and five year old children on tasks which reflect increasingly more complex structural components and used the same affective components. The youngest subjects were found not to evidence affective role taking abilities. Two levels of role taking, sequential decentration and simultaneous decentration, were described as characteristic of four and five year old children respectively. In sequential decentration, the subject was able to infer another's point of view if it could be done by sequentially focussing on different aspects of the situation. In simultaneous decentration the subject was able to infer another's point of view if it involved simultaneous consideration of two aspects of the situation.

Further knowledge about the developmental changes in processes involved in cognitive mediation of empathy is provided by recent research by Strayer (1985a & 1987). Strayer investigated empathy in three age groups: five to six, seven to eight, and thirteen to fourteen year olds. The Empathy Continuum (EC) scoring system was used which integrates reported affective arousal with increasingly differentiated levels of cognitive mediation. Of interest to this particular discussion is the finding that cognitive levels of empathy increased significantly with age. These increases were most noticeable for the two older age groups, namely seven to eight and thirteen to fourteen year olds, in which an increased focus on the other person and an increased awareness of shared affect with them was noted.

Strayer's 1987 study examined the role of cognitive mediation in empathy in greater depth and reported that both projection and role taking were found to mediate empathy. Strayer found that projective identification did not differ with age while role taking increased significantly, particularly between five and eight years of age. Developmental differences in the relative use of these processes in empathy were noted: projection was found to relate more strongly to empathy for five to eight year olds than role taking, while role taking was found to be significantly related to empathy for thirteen year olds. Strayer indicates that imaginal processes linking the self to others and their situation appear implicated in empathy, whether the direction of movement is egocentric or allocentric. In addition, these cognitive processes are seen to play a defining role in how empathy is experienced at different ages.

Hughes, Tingle and Sawin (1981) also investigated the developmental changes in children's understanding of the emotions of others. In addition, they examined children's understanding of their emotional reactions to others. It was found that between the ages of five and eight, children become increasingly aware of the perspectives and personal and

psychological characteristics of others in emotionally eliciting situations. Young children were found to derive their understanding of their own emotional reactions and other's emotions primarily from situational cues and salient events. Older children were more likely to cite internal psychological reasons for other's emotions and their own empathic reactions. Older children were also found to spontaneously engage in role taking. In addition, children's thinking about their own reactions to affect in others seemed to improve their understanding of other's experiences rather than increase the likelihood of a more egocentric orientation. Youniss (1975) also reports that elementary school children naturally reflect on their own thoughts and feelings to understand other's emotional reactions.

Wiggers and Van Lieshout (1985) examined the development of recognition of emotions in this same age group. Their findings reflect developmental trends from recognizing simple emotions to recognizing complex emotions and from considering more or less salient clues to considering both types of clues. The latter was interpreted as reflecting the importance of the role of decentration in recognizing emotions.

Other developmental changes in empathic understanding in middle childhood are noted by reviews of this subject. Shantz (1975) reports that in middle childhood, children become capable of correctly recognizing emotions when judging people who are dissimilar to themselves in unfamiliar situations. At this same age, children become aware that situations can evoke several conflicting emotions (Harris & Olthof, 1982) and that other's overt behavior displays may not match internal emotional experience (Strayer 1985b).

The aforementioned studies, together with Piaget's theory of egocentrism and Selman's theory of role taking, provide an overview of the developmental changes which occur in a child's ability to understand another's feelings as well as insight into the nature of the cognitive processes involved. In summary, researchers have identified projection, introspection, stereotyping, role taking and egocentrism in defining how empathy is

achieved and experienced at different ages. Empathic understanding is evidenced by children as young as two. As preschool children are primarily egocentric, affective understanding appears to be mediated mainly by projection and stereotyping. Understanding at this age, is thought to constitute a preliminary form of empathy which is less sophisticated and less accurate than that achieved when role taking and nonegocentrism become possible. Thus, young children's empathic understanding is more reliant on similarity of the subject, familiarity and simplicity of the situation, and tends to be based on situational rather than intrapersonal cues.

As the child grows older, empathic abilities continue to increase as changes in cognitive processes allow for increased sophistication in the understanding of another's feelings. These changes seem to be pronounced between the ages of five and eight as role taking abilities increase. Projection also appears to be a primary mediator in the empathic process at this age. Sometime during middle childhood, children begin to spontaneously engage in role taking and this ability assumes a greater role in the empathic process. Accuracy and sophistication of affective understanding increases as children become able to identify emotions in unfamiliar subjects and in unfamiliar and complex situations. Consideration of a number of cues, including psychological variables, becomes possible.

Increases in role taking ability continue through to adolescence with concomitant increases in empathic understanding. It also appears that egocentrism may again play a role in mitigating increases in affective understandings.

The literature suggests that cognitive empathy skills appear to develop throughout childhood and adolescence and are mediated by processes such as projection, introspection, role taking and egocentrism. However, precise understanding of the development of the cognitive component of empathy is still lacking. Given the variety, interactivity and the complexity of the processes involved in empathy, precise understanding may be difficult to achieve. Goldstein and Michaels (1985) suggest that it will be necessary to develop new

instruments that are more sensitive to the complexities of the cognitive processes involved in empathy, and that allow young children to perform the required tasks. Thus further investigation including longitudinal research using new measures will be necessary to further understanding of the nature, development and interaction of cognitive processes involved in empathy.

The Communicative Component

Unlike the affective and cognitive components of empathy, the communication component of children's empathy has not been a major focus of investigation. A review of the literature shows that very few studies have investigated children's ability to verbalize their understanding of, or affective response to, another's feelings.

A few research studies on altruism and prosocial behavior touch on the earliest developments of the communicative component of empathy in children indirectly (Goldstein & Michaels, 1985). One such study conducted by Zahn-Waxler and Radke-Yarrow (1982) examined the prosocial interventions employed by young children confronted by another's distress. The subjects consisted of children between one and three years of age. Findings suggest that prosocial interventions are present in children by about one year. Interventions at this age were found to consist primarily of positive physical contact. By the end of the second year, prosocial interventions were found to be more specific and more diverse and included verbal sympathy, reassurance or concern and self-referential communications. The latter, as suggested by Goldstein and Michaels (1985), may include responses which would constitute empathic communication. These types of prosocial behaviors may be the developmental antecedents of empathic communication.

Strayer (1980) made naturalistic assessments of empathic behavioral reactions in preschool children. The responses conceptualized as empathic in this study are similar to the responses that Zahn-Waxler and Radke-Yarrow conceptualized as prosocial behavior in

their 1982 study. Specifically, empathic responses, observed 39% of the time, included participation in the affect display, comforting, helping and providing reinforcing comments. Most empathic responses were spontaneous and not contingent upon a verbal request. Strayer suggests that this indicates that young children try to interpret the feelings of others spontaneously.

In addition, it was found that displays of happy emotion were more likely to elicit empathic responses than displays of sadness, fear or anger. These findings concur with the results of investigations by Feshbach and Feshbach (1969) and Levine and Hoffman (1975) in which it was found that preschool children are more apt to give verbal empathic responses to stories depicting children in happy situations than in stories of children in situations depicting sadness, fear or anger. By six or seven years old this difference appears to vanish. Hoffman (1977a) suggests that these findings may demonstrate a developmental shift in the direction of greater sensitivity to negative affective states.

A recent naturalistic study by Dunn and Bretherton (1985), indicates that most children are able to talk about emotional states in the second year and that mothers and their two to three year old children converse about feelings (Strayer, 1985b). Studies by Bretherton and Beeghly (1982) and Ridgeway and Burrows (1980) also indicate that emotions and their causes are discussed with and by preschool children (Strayer, 1986). These studies provide some very indirect evidence to suggest that early precursors to empathic communication may be present as early as one year of age and that they are more likely to occur in situations presenting positive affect.

The speculative nature of this interpretation of these findings in relation to empathic communication is underlined by research which suggests that, even in older children and adults, empathic communication may occur infrequently. For instance, Kallman and Stollack (1974) examined the responses of first, fourth and fifth grade children and their parents to children in need arousing situations (Goldstein & Michaels, 1985). The adults'

and childrens' responses were categorized as "effective" or "noneffective" communications. The categories for effective communications included responses which could be considered empathic communication. The results of the study indicate that the use of effective communication by children was small and that parents engage in more ineffective than effective communications. It should be noted that the children were not asked how they would respond to the child in distress but how they would like their parents to respond if they found themselves in the hypothetical situation. These findings suggest that children of these ages infrequently engage in empathic communication.

Scores on measures of empathic communication in older children (Vogelsohn, 1978), adolescents (Haynes & Avery, 1979; Sprinthall & Erickson, 1974) and adults (Carkhuff, 1971) prior to training interventions gives further evidence of the infrequency of high level empathic communication.

Researchers have not investigated the developmental changes in empathic communication skills in children and adolescents nor empathic communication to positive or euphoric affect. Three studies have examined the developmental changes in empathic communication to distressed affect from middle childhood through late adolescence. Burleson (1980 and 1982) and Ritter (1979) examined the comforting and message strategies of children and adolescents to descriptions of hypothetical situations involving a distressed peer. Responses were coded according to a scale of empathic communication strategies designed to reflect progressively higher levels of perspective taking ability.

Ritter, in her study of highschool students, found that older adolescents used more sensitive communication strategies than younger adolescents when attempting to comfort distressed peers. In addition, adolescents were found to employ higher levels of empathic communication strategies when addressing a friend from within their immediate social group than from outside that group.

Burleson (1982) examined the comforting strategies employed by children and adolescents in the first through twelfth grades. The number, variety and sensitivity of responses were found to increase significantly with age. Older children and adolescents were more likely to employ strategies that acknowledged and legitimized the other's feelings and perspectives. Younger children, on the other hand, had a tendency to deny the feelings and individual perspectives of the distressed other. These results indicate that both qualitative and quantitative changes in the ability to use empathic communication strategies occur during childhood and adolescence.

Burleson (1980) also examined the rationales employed by children in the second through eighth grades when explaining their choice of specific comforting messages. As the age of the children increased, the rationales for their comforting messages reflected a progressively greater integration of their awareness of the specific characteristic of the distressed other and salient situational features in the comforting process, thus demonstrating an increased capacity for higher level empathic communications.

The capacity for empathic communication continues to develop into late adolescence, and probably throughout adulthood when substantial differences in such skills are still apparent (Applegate, 1978). Adolescence is, however, often thought to be an important period in the development of these skills (Haynes & Avery, 1979). Goldstein and Michaels (1985) suggest that during adolescence individuals may, for the first time, become capable of high level empathic responses. However, Ritter (1979) suggests that factors in adolescence such as the egocentrism proposed by Elkind (1967) may inhibit the application of these skills. Elkind speculates that the individual enters a new kind of egocentrism in adolescence which is characterized by an over-identification with a peer group and an over-differentiation and preoccupation with feelings of the self. Thus, although the adolescent may have acquired the cognitive and affective skills which are

required for accurate empathic communication, egocentrism may have a tendency to restrict the adolescent's ability to employ such empathic communication strategies.

Ritter's investigation of communication by adolescents provides evidence to suggest that egocentrism does play such a role. In addition, research by Vogelsong (1978) suggests that training programs designed to develop empathic communication skills are effective with children as young as ten. Further research may indicate that late childhood, a period prior to the development of this new egocentrism in which cognitive and affective abilities necessary for the recognition and understanding of another's affect are maturing, is a crucial time for the development of empathic communication.

Developmental changes in empathic communication skills are probably enhanced by concurrent changes in cognitive and affective abilities and communication skills. As previously discussed, the cognitive and affective abilities involved in recognizing and understanding another's emotional state, which are requisites for empathic communication, show marked developmental changes during late childhood and adolescence. These changes probably enhance children's abilities to employ sensitive, helping intended communications.

Children's communication strategies are also subject to qualitative and quantitative changes with maturation. Hater and Alvy (1973) and Delia and Clarke (1977) observed significant age and complexity related developments in children's abilities to recognize psychological differences in others and adapt their messages to these characteristics. Spivack and his colleagues (1976) have also found that the number and relevance of proposed solutions to interpersonal problems increase with age. Other researchers have found age related developments in children's use of persuasive and referential communication skills (Burlison, 1984).

These studies, although few in number and by no means comprehensive, provide an overview of the developmental changes which occur in a child's ability to verbalize

acceptance and understanding of another's feelings. In summary, rudimentary precursors of empathic communication appear by the end of the second year of life, following the appearance of other non-verbal prosocial interventions present at about one year of age. Throughout the preschool years, the frequency of such communications remains relatively rare, as children are developing their ability to behave prosocially. Until about age six, empathic communication is more likely to occur in response to positive rather than negative displays of affect. Empathic communication skills continue to increase throughout childhood and adolescence as children develop larger repertoires of comforting communications and give greater attention to personality and situational characteristics when forming their responses. Such communications in young children tend to be characterized by denial and reflect low perspective taking ability. By late adolescence, empathic communications reflect a higher level of perspective taking ability and an ability to acknowledge sensitively another's feelings. The concurrent changes in cognitive and affective abilities and communication skills plays a significant role in the noted developmental changes in empathic communication skills.

Although empathic communication skills appear to develop throughout childhood and adolescence, precise understanding of how perceptive, cognitive, affective, communicative and socialization processes contribute to the growth of these skills is still lacking. Little is known about the precursors and early development of empathic communication. It is also unclear whether there is a stage-like progression in the observed developmental increases or a point or points when major changes occur. Knowledge of the development of empathic communication to positive or euphoric affect is also needed. Further investigation and longitudinal research will be necessary to clarify our present understanding of the communicative component of empathy.

The Relation Of Empathy to Prosocial And Other Related Behaviors

Psychologists have frequently viewed children's capacity to empathize with the emotional state of another as crucial to the development and maintenance of effective interpersonal relations. Theorists have argued that empathy has an important role in the enactment of prosocial behaviors (Barnett, 1982; Hoffman, 1982,1984; Iannotti, 1975, 1985; Mussen & Eisenberg, 1977; Stuab, 1978) and that empathy underlies, in part, the development of socially competent and cooperative behaviors (Marcus, Telleen & Roke, 1979). It is generally believed that it is the observer's affective response to, rather than cognitive understanding of, another's emotional state that is instrumental in impelling prosocial and cooperative behaviors (Burlison, 1984; Hoffman, 1982). Affective empathy is generally thought to motivate prosocial behavior by producing sympathetic concern for another, aversive arousal within the self, or both (Eisenberg & Miller, 1987). For very young children who are unable to differentiate their own internal states from those of others and who have limited helping skills, an empathic response is likely to be experienced as personal distress; however this is thought unlikely to lead to helping (Hoffman, 1984). For individuals who can differentiate between their own and other's emotional states and who have sufficient helping skills, altruistically motivated behavior is thought to result from the anticipated cessation of the mutually experienced distress (Eisenberg & Miller, 1987) and/or from the anticipated vicarious pleasure following the prosocial act (Barnett, 1984). Altruistically motivated behavior is thought to result from sympathetic concern if the costs for helping are not too high (Eisenberg & Miller, 1987).

It is usually difficult to ascertain whether a given prosocial act is motivated by empathy, sympathy, personal distress or some other factor. Because of this, the differentiations between motivational sources proposed in theoretical explanations tend not to be reflected in research methodology.

In the past decade, there have been several reviews of research on the relation of empathy to prosocial behavior. In 1978, Feshbach examined the results of five studies relating empathy to aggression and prosocial behavior. In these studies the FASTE, a self report, picture-story measure of empathy was used. Feshbach noted that the relationship between empathy and aggression is influenced by gender and age and that empathy and aggression are inversely related after the preschool years, particularly for boys. No conclusions were drawn regarding empathy and prosocial behavior. It should be noted that researchers have often erroneously interpreted an inverse relationship between empathy and aggression as providing evidence for an association between empathy and prosocial behavior. However, decreases in aggressive or antisocial behavior do not necessarily result in concomitant increases in prosocial behavior.

In the early eighties, Underwood and Moore (1982) and Eisenberg (1983) reviewed the empirical data on the relationship between empathy and altruism. Underwood and Moore conducted a meta analysis of thirteen studies, the majority of which involved children and used measures of empathy requiring self reports of emotions to picture-story stimuli. No significant relationship was found between empathy and altruism. However, Underwood and Moore suggest that a reliable association between empathy and altruism develops over time and is found in adults. Eisenberg reviewed a larger body of literature, but did not compute a meta analysis. She concluded that there was a significant positive relationship between empathy and altruism for adults and for children when when empathy was measured toward the recipient of the potential assistance.

Since 1983, the number of research studies in the area has grown considerably. Recently, Eisenberg and Miller (1987) conducted a meta analysis of the empirical data from investigations of the relationship between empathy and prosocial behavior for children and adults. Low to moderate positive relations were found between empathy and prosocial behavior. The method for assessing empathy was found to influence the strength of

relations: self report to picture-story measures of empathy were not associated with prosocial behavior, whereas all other measures were. The relationship between empathy and prosocial behaviors was reported to stabilize over time such that stronger associations were found for adults than children.

In the following section, a review of research which has investigated the relationship between empathy and prosocial and related behaviors in children and adolescents is presented. Published research studies and dissertations (as reported in Dissertation Abstracts International) and some results of research presented at conferences described by Eisenberg and Miller (1987) are considered. For a more complete review and meta analysis which considers the results of studies with adults as well as children the reader is referred to the recent review by Eisenberg and Miller (1987).

Research which has examined the relationship of empathy to prosocial behaviors has tended to conceptualize and measure empathy in affective terms. Given the evidence considered earlier that the different types of measures used to assess affective empathy are not measuring the same thing, research reviewed is organized according to the type of method employed (self report, questionnaire, non verbal and ratings by others).

A review of sixteen studies involving children ranging from two to ten years old using picture-story measures indicates that there is no consistent relationship between empathy and prosocial behaviors. (For a summary of these studies, see Table 1, Appendix I). Although some researchers report positive findings (e.g. Feshbach, 1982; Howard, 1983; Iannotti, 1985) the majority of studies have found that the FASTE (or modified versions of it) are unrelated or negatively related to various indices of prosocial behavior (e.g. Eisenberg & Lennon, 1980; Eisenberg & Carroll., 1986).

There are, however, some interesting findings embedded within the larger inconsistent pattern of results. Researchers have noted gender differences (Cohen, 1974; Miller, 1979) and age differences (Sawin, 1979, described in Eisenberg & Miller, 1987) in

the relationship between picture-story measures and indices of prosocial behavior. Eisenberg-Berg and Lennon (1980) also found empathy to be marginally positively related to requested prosocial behaviors but negatively related to spontaneously emitted prosocial behaviors (Eisenberg-Berg & Lennon, 1980). However, Howard (1983) and Iannotti (1985) found both modes to be unrelated to empathy. These findings provide some support for the notion that self reports of empathy in response to picture-story indices are affected by social demands (Eisenberg & Miller, 1987) which may differentially affect children depending on their age and gender.

Studies of empathy with children using self report indices to simulated experimental situations have also revealed an inconsistent pattern of results. (For a summary of studies, see Table 2, Appendix I.) These studies differ from studies using picture-story methods in that the participants are led to believe that the events and people involved in the stimuli are real and not hypothetical. Nonsignificant relationships are reported by Brehm, Powell & Cohen (1984) for donating and Peraino & Sawin (1981, cited in Eisenberg & Miller, 1987) and Zahn-Waxler, Freidman and Cummings (1983) for helping.

Researchers using questionnaire indices report a more consistent relationship between empathy and prosocial behavior. (For a summary of studies, see Table 3, Appendix I.) Positive relationships between empathy assessed using Mehrabian and Epstein's (1972) scale of empathy are reported by Eisenberg-Berg & Mussen (1978) and Reed (1981) for helping and by Reichman (1982) for altruism and donating.

Positive relationships have also been found using Bryant's (1982) index of helping (Barnett & Thompson, 1985; Eisenberg, Pasternack & Lennon, 1984; Sturtevant, 1985), donating (Eisenberg, Pasternack & Lennon, 1984; Sturvent, 1985) and parent and teacher ratings of prosocial behavior (Strayer & Roberts, 1984). Differences in results from self report indices to picture-story and simulated experimental situations and self reports to questionnaires may reflect the fact that the latter tend to tap a broader range of reactions.

Nonverbal indices of emotional arousal, such as facial, gestural and vocal indices of empathy have also been examined in relation to prosocial behavior. (For a summary of studies, see Table 6, Eisenberg & Miller, 1987.) Eisenberg and Miller performed a meta analysis of eleven studies all conducted with children. Two patterns of results emerged: no consistent relationship was found for studies in which reactions to hypothetical situations were rated (e.g. Howard, 1983; Kuchenbecker, 1977); a positive and significant relationship was found for studies in which reactions to "real life" situations were rated (e.g. Lennon, Eisenberg & Carroll, 1985; Zahn-Waxler, Freidman & Cummings, 1983). Eisenberg and Miller suggest that these patterns of results do not adequately reflect the relation between facial reactions to another's distress and altruistic behavior.

Four recent studies have examined the relation to ratings of empathy by others to prosocial behavior. All four studies involved children and either parent or teacher ratings of empathy. (For a summary of studies, see Table 4 in Eisenberg & Miller, 1987). Eisenberg and Miller conducted a meta analysis of these studies and report that the association between other reported empathy and prosocial behavior was significant; however, the percentage of variance in prosocial behavior accounted for was very small (less than 3%). Correlations were high when the same person rated both the child's empathy and prosocial behavior while correlations were moderate when data concerning empathy and behavior were obtained from different sources.

Researchers have investigated the relation between empathy in children and aggression, prosocial behaviors (including helping, sharing and donating) and altruism. In all, research shows low to moderate correlations between empathy and prosocial behavior and altruism, when empathy is conceptualized primarily in affective terms. Research also indicates that there is an inverse relationship between empathy and aggression after the preschool years. The types of measures used in research seem to influence results with picture-story indices of empathy having the lowest relation to prosocial behaviors. In

addition, the relationship between empathy and prosocial behaviors appears to stabilize over time such that stronger associations are found for adults than for children. Researchers and theorists argue that empathy may have a causal role in the enactment of prosocial and altruistic behaviors. The exact nature of this relationship will only become clearer when research methodologies for assessing these behaviors improve. Until a consensus is reached on what constitutes empathy and prosocial behavior one should expect to find mixed results from such research in the literature.

Empathy Training Programs

Educators and psychologists have developed and researched a number of psychoeducational programs to train children and adolescents in empathy. In the following section, programs based on training models developed by Feshbach (1979; 1981) (The Empathy Training Program), Guerney (1977) (Relationship Enhancement) Carkhuff (1983) (Human Resource Development) and Goldstein (1981) (Structured Learning) will be described. These programs have been designed for use with small groups of children by a skilled leader (most often a counsellor) who has been trained in the particular approach to interpersonal skills development. All four models have similar components and emphasize the importance of modeling, practice, role playing, and feedback. The following section examines these training programs and describes the results of research investigating their effectiveness.

The Empathy Training Program (Feshbach, 1979; 1981), developed at the University of California for elementary school age children in grades three to five is designed to enhance empathy as a cognitive and affective skill rather than a communication skill. The program contains thirty activities (20-30 minutes each) designed for use with small groups of four to six children. The purpose of these activities is to increase the students abilities to discriminate and identify emotions, to understand the perspective of

others and to increase their emotional responsiveness. The activities, led by the teacher, involve role plays and structured discussions of pictures, audio tapes and stories. The effectiveness of the program was researched on two occasions. Results showed that, following the program, students reflected a more positive self concept, showed greater social sensitivity, an increase in prosocial behaviors and a lessening of aggression.

The Relationship Enhancement (RE) model developed by Geurney (1977) and his research team focuses on empathy as a key interpersonal communication skill. The program, designed to enhance skills in listening and speaking in dyadic interactions, uses a structured learning approach to teach three behavioral modes: the expressive (speaker) mode, the empathic (responder) mode and the facilitator mode. Role plays, demonstrations and modeling form the basis of the program.

Vogelsong (1978) studied the effects of a relationship enhancement program (PREP) for upper elementary school students based on the work of Geurney (1977). A structured learning approach was used in the training program to enhance the students' roles as listeners and speakers. It consisted of five stages which included training in identifying feelings, showing empathic acceptance, responding empathically and being aware of one's own feelings. Vogelsong met with eight students from a grade five class once a week for ten consecutive weeks to train them in developing empathic communication skills. Prior to, and following the program, students in the training group and students in a control group completed a measure of empathic acceptance which was scored using the Acceptance of Other Scale (AOS). PREP was found to be effective in facilitating students in their development of empathy skills; students in the training group were found to show a significant improvement in their scores relative to the students who received no training. Vogelsong's work provides evidence of the feasibility of training elementary school age children in interpersonal communication skills.

Haynes and Avery (1979) also investigated the effectiveness of a training program designed to facilitate students in skills of self disclosure and empathy. The program, designed for highschool students, also used a structured learning approach which incorporated both didactic and experiential training. Twenty three students participated in the program which was led by two experienced facilitators. Students in the training group and a control group completed an interview and a questionnaire requiring self disclosure and empathic responses. Responses were coded on the AOS scale and a Self-Feeling Awareness Scale. Results indicate that students who received training demonstrated significantly higher self disclosure and empathy skills levels immediately following training than did the control group. A follow-up study five months later revealed that the effects of the training program were lasting (Avery, Rider & Haynes-Clements, 1981). Haynes and Avery suggest that these skills could be successfully taught to even younger students and maintain that this would be potentially more facilitative in aiding students in the development of satisfying relationships.

Sprinthall and Erickson (1974) developed and researched the effectiveness of a program designed to train adolescents to act as counselors for their peers. The program was designed to promote the development of listening and empathic communication skills and was given as part of a course entitled "The Psychology of Counseling" . Students were taught about psychology and counseling and given practical peer counseling instruction and experience. Prior to, and following the course, students completed an assessment of their empathy skills. Responses were coded on a five point empathy scale developed by Carkhuff. Pre-class scores averaged just above 1.0 (lowest range), typical of scores of the general population, post-class scores averaged close to 3.0 (minimal level of acceptable functioning) indicating that the program was effective in developing the students empathy skills.

Training programs for children and adolescents in interpersonal communication skills based on a Human Resource Development (HRD) model developed by Carkhuff (1983) and his colleagues have also been designed and researched. This model, theoretically founded on Carl Rogers' work, uses a didactic-experiential approach and focuses on empathy as a key interpersonal communication skill. Empathy is taught using sequential activities. The first phase of the training is designed to enhance empathy discrimination skills. This is followed by training in communicating empathic understanding. This phase involves responding to taped materials, role playing and practice. The leader plays an important role in the training process providing high levels of facilitative functioning and offering performance feedback to the participants.

Carkhuff (1983) reports on the "living" and "learning" outcomes of thirty-five studies involving the direct training of recipients in interpersonal communication skills using the HRD model. Direct training of recipients was considered a "preferred mode of treatment" over training professionals, who in turn, would offer their helping skills to recipients. Five of the studies investigated the effectiveness of training programs for children. Two studies investigating "living" outcomes reported significant positive changes on four out of nine indices: Griffen & Carkhuff (1976) report a significant decrease in behavior problems for ten children involved in an interpersonal skills program for children and their parents; Leonidas (1976) report significant changes in popularity, behavior, and happiness for a three month training program involving 141 children. Three studies investigating "learning" outcomes reported a significant change in student achievement (Aspy & Roebuck, 1984), student decency (Cohen, Cashwell et al, 1976) and interpersonal skill levels (Wawrykow, 1978). Carkhuff (1983) concludes that direct training in interpersonal skills for children and youth using the HRD model yield improved functioning on a variety of physical, emotional, interpersonal and intellectual indices.

Social skills programs for adolescents have also been designed based on Goldstein's (1981) Structured Learning (SL) model. The Structured Learning model has four components: modeling, role playing, performance feedback and transfer training.

The trainee is shown numerous specific and detailed examples of a person performing the skill behaviors...; given considerable opportunity and encouragement to rehearse or practice the behaviors that have been modeled; provided with positive feedback, approval or behavior of the model; and exposed to procedures that increase the likelihood that the newly learned behaviors will be applied in...the real world. (p. 172)

This model has been used to teach a variety of social skills. Goldstein et al (1978) found that training programs for delinquent adolescents in social skills using this approach are effective (Goldstein, 1981).

A number of other interpersonal skills programs, such as the Affective Education Program (described in Minuchin & Shapiro 1983) and the Human Development Program ("Magic Circle") (Bessell & Palomares, 1969; 1970), do not teach communication skills directly but use affective educational processes to encourage intrapersonal and interpersonal development.

In the RE, HRD and SL models the leader plays an important role in the training process by providing high levels of facilitative functioning and offering performance feedback to the participants. By providing high levels of facilitative functioning, the leader serves to enhance the participants acquisition of the interpersonal communication skills in two ways. First the leader provides a model of how and when to use empathy skills effectively. Second, modeling empathy skills when a participant expresses his/her feelings can help the participant to feel the benefits of the skills. This encourages participants to value the communication skills and helps to provide a motivation to use the skills. In addition to providing a high functioning model, the leader also provides feedback to the participants. Hatch and Guernsey (1975) emphasize that the group leader should initially set expectations low and gradually increase them as the competence of the participants

increases, always setting expectations slightly higher than the level at which participants are functioning. Goldstein emphasizes the use of social reinforcement (praise, approval and encouragement) in performance feedback.

Goldstein (1981) points out that modeling and performance feedback are effective and necessary for training in interpersonal communication skills but insufficient. Role playing, and transfer training are also considered to be necessary. These components play an important role in the RE, HRD and SL models. Role playing provides participants with the opportunity to practice their skills in situations which resemble real life. Hatch and Guerney (1975) and Goldstein (1981) emphasize that the participants should be able to choose whether or not to take part in a role play and choose the topic for discussion.

The main purpose of most training programs is to sustain changes in interpersonal skills in real world contexts not just in the training context. It is thus important to build components into the training program which maximize the transfer of skills outside of the training situation. Goldstein (1981) indicates that training programs should include elements which, as closely as possible, emulate real life contexts. Thus training programs for children should take place at a school or other real-life setting in which children interact and participants should be trained along with other individuals with which they interact regularly. Situations, experiences and encounters commonly faced by students should be used as a primary resource in training materials and experiences (Backlund, 1985; Hatch & Guerney, 1975; Stevenson, 1985). In addition, Goldstein (1981) indicates that reinforcement in real life situations is necessary for enduring use of skills. Many authors stress the need for school and parental support for successful training of children in interpersonal skills (e.g. Hatch & Guerney, 1975; Kalmakoff & Shaw, 1987). The RE and HRD programs also give training to participants for evaluating their own skills and help them to develop strategies for ongoing skill development to facilitate transfer to real life contexts and maximize endurance of the skills.

Research conducted on empathy training programs for children indicates that, even though empathy appears to show advances with maturation throughout childhood and adolescence, training in this skill can enhance its development. Research conducted by Vogelsong (1978) and Feshbach(1979,1982), shows that training programs can be successful in increasing empathic abilities in children aged eight to ten. Similarly, research conducted on the effects of training elementary school age children in interpersonal skills, including empathy, based on the HRD model developed by Carkhuff, indicates that students show improved functioning on a variety of physical, emotional and interpersonal indices following training (Carkhuff, 1983).

Despite the success of these psychoeducational training programs in developing empathy skills in children and adolescents they have not resulted in systematic curriculum materials for use by teachers in a regular classroom situation.

Indications For Curriculum Development.

Implementation and Evaluation

The present review of theory and research concerned with the development of empathy and prosocial behavior in children indicates that empathy is crucial to the development and maintenance of effective interpersonal relations and may have an important causal role in the enactment of prosocial behaviors (Barnett,1982; Hoffman, 1982,1984; Iannotti, 1975; 1985; Mussen & Eisenberg, 1977; Staub, 1978). However, there is no clear consensus regarding the developmental course of empathy, or the individual differences, situational parameters or antecedents affecting it. Despite this, key components of the research on empathy can be identified for the development, implementation and evaluation of curriculum materials designed to enhance the interpersonal skills of students.

Level of Intervention

Research suggests that empathic responsiveness is present throughout childhood but appears to differ qualitatively and quantitatively across age groups. Middle to late childhood may be a crucial time for the development of empathic communication skills. This age is marked by an increase in role taking abilities (Feshbach, 1978; Selman, 1980), a lessening of egocentrism (Piaget, 1967) and an increase in communication skills (Feshbach, 1978; Burelson, 1980, 1982; Delia & Clarke, 1977; Hater & Alvy, 1973). With the onset of concrete operational thought in middle childhood children become aware that others have different thoughts, feelings and perspectives. Children gradually acquire a greater knowledge of others as they are able to employ role taking skills in addition to the less sophisticated skills of projection, stereotyping and introspection. At approximately ten or twelve years of age children's role taking abilities increase such that they become mutually aware of the subjectivity, thoughts, feelings and motivations of others. Accuracy and sophistication of empathy increases as children, at this age, become able to identify a greater range of emotions (Wiggers & Van Lieshout, 1985), and give greater attention to personality and situational cues (Hughes, Tingle & Sawin, 1981). In addition, they become more able to judge emotions of people who are dissimilar or who are in unfamiliar situations (Shantz, 1975). Together these changes in cognitive, affective and communicative abilities enhance children's abilities to employ sensitive, helping intended communications.

Peer relationships, at this age, also begin to assume a greater importance (Thornberg, 1982; Dorman, Lipsitz & Verner, 1985; Chad, 1971). The development of effective peer relationships is seen as a key factor in determining social-psychological adjustment and self concept which in turn influence academic and social adjustment in the school setting. Researchers have shown that there are strong relationships among interpersonal skills, social development and mental health (Rotheram, 1980). All of these

factors indicate that middle to late childhood is an ideal time to recognize and encourage social development and interaction by facilitating the development of interpersonal communication skills, particularly empathy and clarification (Manning & Allen, 1987; Pancer & Weinstien, 1987; Dorman, Lipsitz & Verner, 1985).

Teaching Methods

Research has documented the effects of affective educational processes in promoting the interpersonal development of students. This underlines the importance of teaching processes in curricula for developing interpersonal communication skills and indicates a need for consistency between teacher style, classroom and school climate and curriculum materials.

Affective educational processes should be an integral part of curricula for teaching empathy and clarification skills such that students are exposed, by their teachers use of the interpersonal communication skills in daily classroom life, to effective, competent models (Gulanick & Schmeck, 1977; Hatch & Guerny, 1975; Kalmakoff & Shaw, 1987; Rotheram, 1980). Empathic communications enhance the social development of children by making the perspectives, motivations, feelings and intentions of others salient. Research shows that children exposed to such communications will be encouraged to focus spontaneously on the feelings and needs of others in a variety of contexts (Applegate & Delia, 1980). In addition, children can be helped to improve their communication skills and sensitivity to others by encouraging them to talk about their own thoughts and feelings (Rogers & Ross, 1986). Research by Hoffman (1976) indicates that children who trust that their own needs will be satisfied are more responsible to the needs and feelings of others. Thus, teachers can encourage the development of interpersonal communication skills in their students by using affective educational processes and interpersonal communications that respond sensitively the needs of their students.

As empathy is thought to increase as children gain an enriched array of emotional experience accumulated through increased interpersonal exposure and interaction (Feshbach, 1978) materials should be structured in such a way as to encourage students to interact. Stevenson (1985) suggests that "self directed learning approaches should be used to enhance the learners pragmatic understanding of interpersonal communication".

Curriculum Content

The present review indicates that training for children in empathy and clarification skills should include the development of self awareness, listening skills, discrimination skills as well as skills in identifying feelings and ideas. Development of empathy and clarification skills can be facilitated through the use of modeling, practice, role playing, and feedback. In addition program components should provide students with concrete strategies for transferring skills to real life situations and identifying ways to continue skill development outside of training.

Research shows that it is important to encourage students to use affective as well as cognitive role taking in identify the feelings and ideas of others; children who reflect on their own feelings develop a greater understanding of the feelings of others (Hughes, Tingle & Sawin, 1981; Rogers & Ross, 1986).

Research has also shown that children are more likely to respond empathically to others who are similar in race, sex and age to themselves. Thus examples in materials should involve characters of various backgrounds who are similar in age to the students for which the curricula are designed. In addition, situations, experiences and encounters commonly faced by students should be used as a primary resource in curriculum materials (Backlund, 1985; Hatch & Guerney, 1975; Stevenson, 1985).

Program Evaluation

In the research, program evaluation has taken two forms: Evaluating the effectiveness of a program in teaching interpersonal communication skills and evaluating the effects that such a program has on the students and their interpersonal relationships. Clearly assessing student acquisition of skills is a first stage in evaluating a program. Assessing the effects of the program on variables such as self concept, academic performance, aggression, and prosocial behavior is a second stage in evaluating a program. Goldstein (1981) stresses that of equal importance to the effectiveness of interpersonal skills programs is the "pleasure, gratification or personal satisfaction" of the participant .

Concluding Remarks

In reviewing the literature pertinent to the development and evaluation of curriculum materials designed to facilitate the acquisition of empathy and clarification skills in children in this chapter, the connection between this form of communication education and peace education becomes even more apparent. Aspy (1975) suggests that:

in light of the destructive potential of our military weapons, the amelioration of human tensions through increased levels of empathic understanding appears to be one of the eminently sane alternatives to the holocaust. (p. 14)

The potential of such interpersonal communication skills can be seen for helping students to become the kind of people who, in their day to day behavior, will show a deep and compassionate concern for each other and the future of the world.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines the research design and discusses the methodology and procedures used in this study. A description of the study sample, curriculum intervention, data collection process, instrumentation and data analysis is provided.

The intent of this study was to develop a systematic communication skills curriculum, operationalizing Rogers' theory of interpersonal communication, that would facilitate students in their development of listening, empathy and clarification skills. The main objective of this study was to assess the effectiveness of the curriculum intervention in helping students to develop these skills. To achieve this purpose, methodology utilizing a pre-test post-test control group design was conducted to test the following research hypotheses.

1. There will be a significant difference between the scores on post-intervention paper and pencil measures of empathy and clarification skills for students in the training group and students in the control group.
2. There will be a significant difference between post-intervention scores on paper and pencil measures of empathy and clarification skills and pre-intervention scores for the training group.

The effect of the curriculum intervention on the students and their interpersonal relationships was also explored. To achieve this, students completed evaluations of the curriculum and their learning and qualitative records were made by the investigator throughout the implementation of the curriculum. The data are also used to make recommendations for improving the training program and to assess whether such a form of communication education is an effective means of educating for peace.

The Study Sample

The study sample consisted of 57 grade five students, ages ten and eleven years, from three classes at different schools in a large suburban school district in Burnaby, British Columbia. The schools were located in neighborhoods which might be characterized as lower middle class and were deemed to be similar in terms of the catchment area for the students by the principals involved. Classes were comprised of approximately the same number of girls and boys. The sample was determined by the voluntary participation of students with parental consent and by the willingness of the school principals and classroom teachers to participate in the investigation. Students participating in the study were not preselected according to the quality of their interpersonal relations, their abilities to communicate or any other criteria. Assignment of the classes as either "training group" or "control group" was based on convenience. After sending out letters to schools describing the nature and requirements of the study, contact was made with a grade five teacher who was interested in having the curriculum become a part of his regular social studies and drama programs. All of the 30 students in the class participated in the study. Two other teachers volunteered to have their grade five/six classes participate as a control group. Of the grade five students in these classes, 27 participated.

The students in the training group met with the investigator for 40 minutes two to three times a week over the course of twelve weeks and were trained in listening, empathy and clarification through the implementation of the interpersonal communication skills curriculum. The students in the control group were not exposed to any treatment interventions and met with the investigator only to complete the communication skill indexes.

Curriculum Intervention

The curriculum intervention consisted of the implementation of a unit, written by the investigator for children in the upper elementary school grades, designed to facilitate the development of communication skills that encourage interpersonal understanding. The unit, which operationalizes Rogers' theory of interpersonal communication, focuses specifically on issues that arise in children's relationships with others as a medium for teaching skills in listening, empathy and clarification.

In the following section a general description of the curriculum is presented to provide a framework for subsequent discussions. A copy of the goals of the curriculum, an overview of the tasks, and teaching materials are included in Appendix C.

The curriculum unit consists of two chapters: "Listening to Friends and Sharing Feelings" and "Sharing Ideas". Interaction leaders, response formulation and a high functioning model form the basis of the interpersonal communication skills curriculum. The first chapter opens with a focus on listening. Reasons why people do and do not listen are explored. Students are encouraged to develop their listening skills. Students are then given the opportunity to explore and identify their own feelings and the feelings of others. Empathy, the ability to accurately perceive another person's feelings and to communicate that understanding back to the other person, is then introduced. An important element of this skill, being nonjudgmental, is presented. Students are given the opportunity to develop this skill by examining responses to feelings and formulating their own empathic responses.

The second chapter "Sharing Ideas" opens with a review of listening. Clarifying, the ability to accurately perceive another person's opinions, attitudes or ideas and to communicate that understanding back to the other person, is then introduced. The importance of being nonjudgmental is again emphasized. Students are given the

opportunity to practice identifying what another is saying and to develop clarification skills by examining responses and formulating their own "thoughtful" responses.

In both chapters, students are encouraged to develop their communication skills first through paper and pencil tasks and later through role playing. The tasks are designed to take students through progressively more difficult applications of these skills; from writing to speaking and from the use of single responses to sequential responses. Appropriate uses of these skills are addressed and students are given the opportunity to reflect on their effectiveness.

The unit consists of 30 tasks each designed to be completed in a 40 minute lesson. The tasks involve the students in a variety of modes of communication: reading, writing, speaking, role playing and drawing. They are designed so that students can work at their own pace, alone or in co-operative learning pairs.

During the implementation of the interpersonal communication skills curriculum, students were encouraged to take responsibility in pacing their own work and in completing one task per class so that they could complete the unit in the time allotted. Students were encouraged to share their work, although as the curriculum addressed personal issues, they were also given the opportunity to keep their work to themselves. Opportunity was given for self evaluation and for feedback from other students and the investigator. When appropriate, reflective written and verbal feedback was provided so that the skills of empathy and clarification were consistently modelled. Students were required to hand in their folders regularly. Each time in addition to providing feedback on the students' task work, the investigator wrote a short comment to the student on a "Messages" page. Many students used this page to reply to comments and thus a dialogue was created between the investigator and each student.

At least once a week, the last ten minutes of class were used for a class discussion. This provided a forum for students to discuss their understanding of the material, their reaction to the task work and their experiences. During this time, when it was appropriate, the investigator modelled the skills being taught. Role plays, and examples were also used by the investigator to highlight content of the task work.

Description of Measures

Four measures were used in this study: a student evaluation of the curriculum, a student self evaluation, an index of the students' abilities to respond with clarification, and an index of the students' abilities to respond with empathy.

The Curriculum Evaluation (Appendix G), written by the investigator, was designed to survey students' opinions about the interpersonal communication skills curriculum unit. The first section consists of five statements concerned with the effects of the curriculum on the students and their interpersonal relationships. Students are asked to respond to each statement using a five point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The second section consists of five statements concerned with the effects of the curriculum on the students and their interpersonal relationships. Students are asked to respond to each statement using a five point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The second section consists of 22 open ended sentences aimed at getting feedback on the tasks, class discussions, methods of evaluation and small group work. Students are also asked to provide feedback on the usefulness of learning communication skills. Opportunity to write additional comments is provided in parts of the evaluation.

The Student Evaluation (Appendix F), also written by the investigator, provides students with the opportunity to reflect on their work, progress and learning during the implementation of the interpersonal communication skills curriculum unit. Students are asked to recall how many tasks they completed in each chapter and to rate themselves on a

five point scale, ranging from poor to excellent, and eleven criteria. They are asked to rate the quality of their work, their understanding of the material, their ability to use the skills and their effort.

The Empathy Skills Index and the Clarification Skills Index (Appendix D), written by the investigator, used in this study were based on the Communication Index designed by Kvatochuil, Carkhuff and Berenson (1969). The communication Index, intended for use with teachers and parents, consists of nine statements to which subjects are asked to respond to in as helpful a way as possible. Responses are then assigned ratings for analysis. Modifications were necessary to simplify the index for assessing empathy skills of upper elementary school students. A second index, modelled after the first, was designed to assess clarification skills.

The Empathy Skills Index consists of six statements of shorter length than the Communication Index. Statements reflect feelings and situations that upper elementary school children are likely to discuss with one another. Students are asked to imagine that they are talking with a classmate and to write helpful, sensitive responses.

The Clarification Skills Index consists of six statements of approximately the same length as used in the Empathy Skills Index. Statements reflect thoughts, opinions, attitudes and ideas characteristic of upper elementary school age children. Students are asked to imagine that they are talking with a classmate and to write helpful, thoughtful responses.

The scales (Appendix E) used to rate the students' responses to the Empathy Skills Index and the Clarification Skills Index were based on the global rating scale developed by Carkhuff (1969), and two modified versions of this scale, Rater Modified Global Scale for Rating Helper Responses (short and long form) developed by McAllister (1978). McAllister's modification of the Carkhuff scale was used as the rating scale for the empathy skills index with slight changes: "other person" was used instead of "helpee" and "not helpful, nor hurtful" was deleted from level three of the short form. This a four point scale

ranging 1.0 (low or subtractive) to 4.0 (high or additive). Level 3.0 is considered to be a minimally effective empathic response. It contains both the main feelings and reasons for those feelings. Below this level, feelings are ignored. Above this level, responses add to the other person's expression, identifying a deeper level of feeling.

McAllister's scale was then modified for use with the clarifying skills index. This was done by changing the focus from feelings to thoughts and ideas. Again a four part scale ranging from 1.0 (low or subtractive) to 4.0 (high or additive) was used. Level 3.0 is considered to be a minimally effective clarification response. It contains the main ideas, opinions or attitudes. Below this level, ideas are ignored. Above this level, responses add deeper meaning to the other person's statement.

Data Collection

Data were collected by the investigator in three phases. Prior to, and following the curriculum intervention, a number of measures were used to assess the effectiveness of the interpersonal communication skills program. In addition, throughout the implementation of the program qualitative records were made by the investigator as a participant observer about the curriculum experience. Records were also kept of the regular classroom teacher's observations and impressions. Copies were made of the students' task work including their written work and their video and audio tapes.

Students in both the training group and the control group completed a consent form (Appendix B), a questionnaire requiring demographic information, and indexes of empathy and clarification skills two weeks prior to the implementation of the curriculum intervention. The investigator met with the participating students in their regular classrooms. Students were first asked to sign a consent form which explained the nature of their participation in the study and to complete a form asking demographic information. Verbal and written instructions were given for the completion of the communication skills

indexes. The communication skills indexes were completed again by both groups, two weeks following the completion of the program. In addition, students in the training group completed a self evaluation and an evaluation of the curriculum. Students completed the questionnaire, indexes and curriculum evaluation anonymously; forms were coded for identification so that pre and post measures could be matched.

Throughout the implementation of the interpersonal communication skills curriculum unit the investigator made notes following each lesson as a participant observer. These records were kept in journal form. Particular attention was paid to the effectiveness of the content and process of the tasks, group discussions, and group activities. Observations were also made about the effects of the program on the students and their interpersonal relationships. When possible, examples of the students comments or written work were noted to illustrate the observations.

Data Analysis

Different scoring procedures were used for the two sections of the student self evaluation. Mean number of tasks completed in each part of the interpersonal communication skills curriculum were calculated. For the next section, in which students rated themselves on a five point scale, ranging from poor to excellent, on eleven criteria, an overall score for each student was calculated along with frequencies, modes and means for the class on each individual item.

Similar scoring procedures were used for the two sections of the curriculum evaluation. For the first section, frequencies, modes and means were tabulated for the students' responses to each of the five statements, concerned with the effects of the curriculum on the students and their interpersonal relationships were rated on a scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree. For the second section, responses to the eleven open ended statements aimed at getting feedback on the tasks, class discussions, and methods of

evaluation, were grouped according to content and frequency counts were made. A similar procedure was used for any additional comments which were made.

The Empathy Skills Index and Clarification Skills Index were scored by two independent raters trained to use scales based on the Carkhuff global rating scale. Student response forms, pre and post, from both groups were coded for identification by the investigator using random numbers and then shuffled together. Two independent raters, trained by the investigator to use the rating scales then scored the students' responses to the six statements comprising each individual index. Scores were then averaged for each index to provide an overall score for each student of empathy skills and clarification skills. One rater scored all of the students responses to both indexes. The other scored a random selection to allow for the assessment of the reliability of the rating scales. Scores for indexes scored by both raters were then averaged to provide the mean scores used in this study.

Statistical analyses were conducted on the individual response ratings of the empathy and clarification skills indexes to obtain inter-item and inter-rater reliabilities using the inter-class correlation.

Average scores, pre and post on each of the indexes were computed for the training group and the control group. A Multivariable Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) and univariate analyses were computed to assess relative changes in scores from pre to post between groups.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to assess whether an interpersonal communication skills curriculum would lead to increases in empathy and clarification skills so that students might improve their interpersonal relationships. Two hypotheses were tested to evaluate the effectiveness of the curriculum intervention in facilitating students in their development of empathy and clarification skills. Communication indexes were administered to a training group and a control group prior to and following the implementation of the program. Skills of the training group and the control group were compared. Analyses were conducted to assess the internal consistency and reliability of the communication skills indexes. These analyses are considered first and this is followed by a discussion of results pertinent to the hypotheses examined in this study. Results of student evaluations of the curriculum and student self evaluations are then considered. Qualitative data, collected by the investigator as a participant observer during the implementation of the program, are also presented. Finally, revisions made to the curriculum, based on the findings of this study, are summarized.

Results

The Communication Skills Indexes

The Empathy Skills Index and the Clarifying Skills Index, developed by the investigator and used in this study were based on a Communication Index developed by Kvatochil, Carkhuff and Berenson (1969). Modifications were necessary to simplify the original index index, intended to assess empathic communication skills of teachers and parents, for assessing empathy and clarification skills of upper elementary school students. Each of the indexes consists of six statements to which the students were asked to write a

response. The students' responses were coded by two independent raters on a four point scale, based both on the global rating scale developed by Carkhuff (1969) and two modified versions of this scale developed by McAllister (1978) . Higher scores reflect higher levels of these skills.

Statistical analyses were conducted to assess the internal consistency of the items on these indexes and inter-rater reliabilities. Cronbach's alpha was used on the post test scores to analyze the internal consistency of items. Both the Empathy Skills Index and the Clarification Skills index were found to be highly reliable ($\alpha = .92$ and $.87$ respectively) indicating that the items on the indexes elicited equivalent responses for each subject. Carkhuff (1969, pp 100) reports that on similar indexes, subjects communicating at low levels did not give high level responses to any particular item, nor did subjects communicating at high levels give low level responses to any particular item.

Inter-rater reliabilities of the communication skills indexes were assessed using Pearson's r (See Table I). Strong correlations were obtained for inter-rater reliabilities on the post-test for both empathy and clarification, while lower correlations were obtained on the pre-tests. The difference in these correlations probably reflects that, after training, student responses were more likely to "fit" the categories on the rating scale and thus were easier to rate in a consistent manner.

Effectiveness of the Program in Developing Communication Skills

Mean scores and standard deviations for the training group and the control group of the empathy and clarifying communication skills indexes are shown in Table II. Mean scores on the communication skills indexes indicate that students in the training group and students in the control group were functioning at similar levels of empathy (1.91 and 1.94) and clarification skills (1.82 and 1.85) prior to training. In both cases, the students in the training group were functioning at slightly lower levels than the students in the control group.

TABLE I

**SUMMARY OF INTER-RATER RELIABILITY
COEFFICIENTS FOR COMMUNICATION SKILLS INDEXES**

	EMPATHY	CLARIFICATION
PRE-TEST	r=.65 p<.05, n=17	r=.44 ns, n=13
POST-TEST	r=.95 p<.05, n=9	r=.94 p<.05, n=15

At the post-test students in the control group remained at approximately the same skill level as they did at the pre-test with scores dropping slightly for both empathy (by .02) and clarification (by .04). In contrast, students in the training group showed an average increase in empathy scores of .76, reflecting a change in responses from just below a level 2 (not helpful, ineffective) to almost a level 3 (helpful, facilitative) and an average increase in clarifying scores of .43, reflecting a change from below a level 2 (not helpful, ineffective) to above a level 2. Scores on the communication skills indexes for the training group are shown in Table III. The smaller change in scores on the clarification skills index for the training group is probably due to the fact that not all of the students completed the tasks designed to teach clarification skills. Students completed the tasks at their own rate, working through tasks designed to facilitate the development of listening skills, then empathy skills and finally clarification skills.

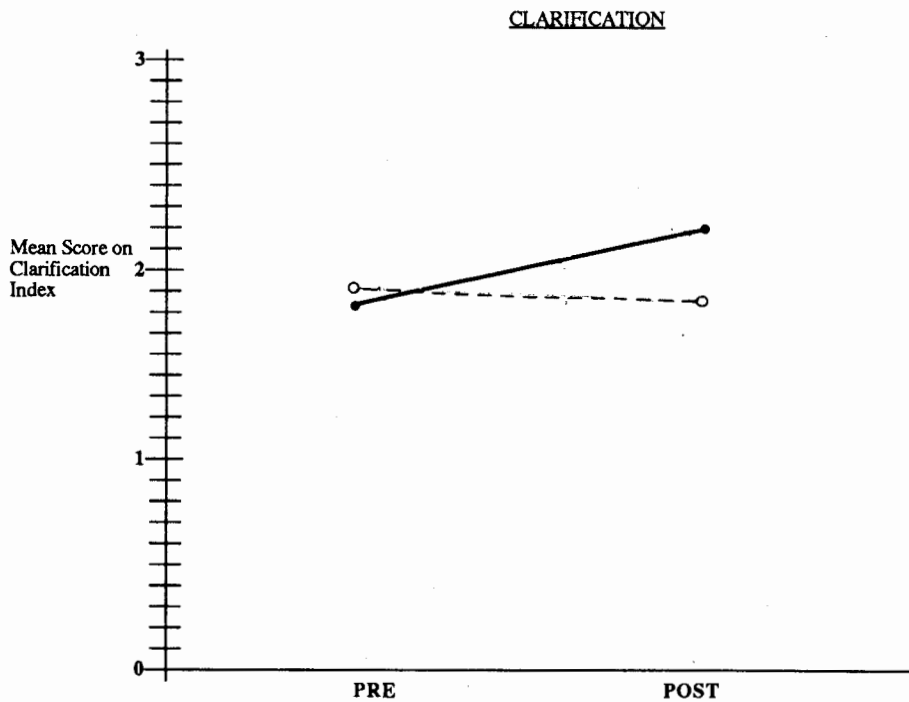
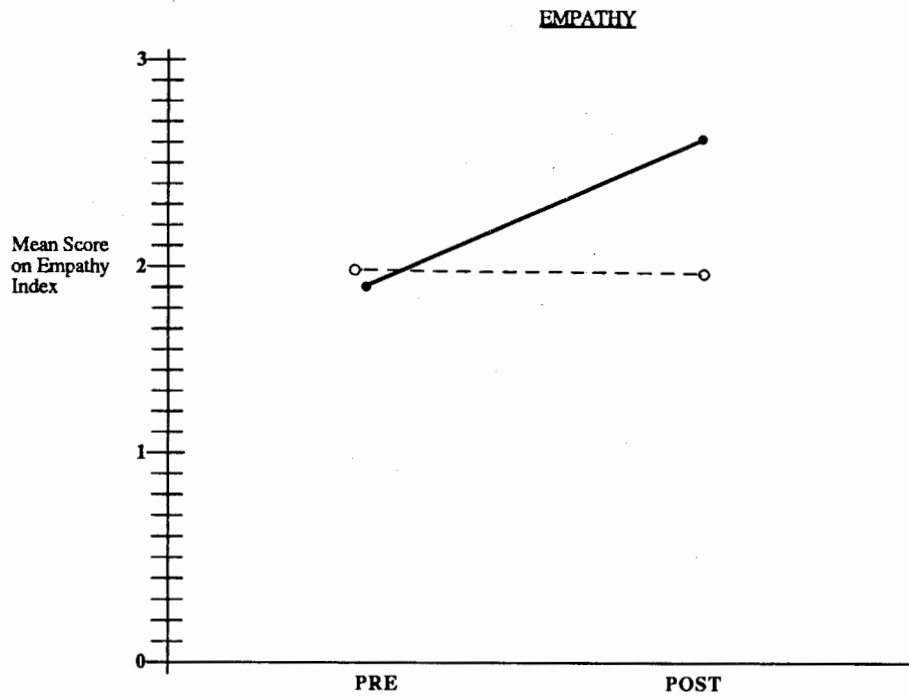
To assess the significance of these differences multivariate and univariate analyses of the results were performed. A multivariate analysis is indicated as empathy and clarification skills are theoretically related; one would expect empathic communication skills to be affected by and affect changes in clarification skills. Both skills are conceptualized as the communication of one's understanding of another to that person. The difference between these skills lies in whether that communication is in response to another person's feelings, as in the case of empathy, or to another person's ideas, as in the case of clarifying. Statistical analysis shows that, after training, empathy and clarifying skills are in fact significantly correlated ($r=.5569$, $p<.001$). It should be noted, however, that a test for homogeneity of dispersion matrices ($F=3.385$, $p<.05$) indicates that the data violate one of the assumptions necessary for conducting multivariate analyses. Because of this, an ANOVA was also computed on each of the dependent variables.

TABLE II

**SUMMARY OF MEAN SCORES
ON COMMUNICATION SKILLS INDEXES**

	EMPATHY		CLARIFICATION	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
TRAINING n=27	1.91 s.d.=.223	2.67 s.d.=.471	1.82 s.d.=.264	2.25 s.d.=.531
CONTROL n=26	1.94 s.d.=.240	1.92 s.d.=.272	1.85 s.d.=.239	1.81 s.d.=.201

Figure I
Summary of Mean Scores On Communication Skills Indexes



Legend: Training ———
Control - - - - -

TABLE III**TRAINING GROUP DATA**

S	EMPATHY			CLARIFICATION		
	PRE	POST	D	PRE	POST	D
1	2.33	3.00	+0.67	1.50	2.33	+0.83
2	2.33	2.83	+0.50	1.33	2.25	+0.92
3	2.25	2.67	+0.42	1.50	2.08	+0.58
4	2.25	3.25	+1.00	1.92	1.92	-----
5	2.17	2.92	+0.80	2.00	1.33	-0.67
6	2.08	3.17	+1.09	1.58	2.67	+1.09
7	2.08	2.17	+0.09	1.83	1.50	-0.33
8	2.08	2.00	-0.08	1.67	1.40	-0.27
9	2.08	1.58	-0.50	1.83	1.83	-----
10	2.00	3.00	+1.00	1.33	2.83	+1.50
11	2.00	2.50	+0.50	2.00	2.58	+0.58
12	2.00	1.83	-0.17	1.90	1.83	-0.07
13	1.92	2.92	+1.00	1.50	1.83	+1.33
14	1.83	3.00	+1.17	1.50	2.33	+0.83
15	1.83	3.00	+1.17	1.92	2.83	+0.91
16	1.83	3.00	+1.17	2.00	2.83	+0.83
17	1.83	2.92	+1.09	1.67	1.83	+0.16
18	1.83	2.92	+1.09	1.67	2.13	+0.46
19	1.83	2.90	+1.07	1.83	2.00	+0.17
20	1.75	2.83	+1.08	1.83	1.83	-----
21	1.67	3.00	+1.33	2.10	2.17	+0.07
22	1.67	2.17	+0.40	1.83	2.83	+1.00
23	1.67	1.83	+0.16	2.00	2.00	-----
24	1.60	2.00	+0.40	1.50	1.83	+0.33
25	1.58	3.17	+1.59	2.00	3.00	+1.00
26	1.50	2.83	+1.33	1.58	2.80	+1.22
27	1.50	2.83	+1.33	2.42	3.00	+0.58

A 2X2, last 2 repeated, multivariate analysis of variance was performed on the two dependent variables, empathic and clarifying communication skills, measured on two groups, the training group and the control group, prior to and following the implementation of the interpersonal communication skills curriculum unit.

The SPSS MANOVA was used for the analysis. A total N of 56, reduced to 53 after the deletion of 3 cases containing missing data, was used.

With the use of Hotellings criterion, the combined DVs were found to be significantly affected by both group ($F(2,50)=16.15, p<.001$) and time ($F(2,50)=22.22, p<.001$) and by their interaction ($F(2,50)=24.59, p<.001$).

Univariate analysis on average scores showed a significant group effect for both empathy ($F(1,51)=27.5, p<.001$) and clarifying ($F(1,51)=8.64, p<.005$). As an analysis showed that the variance of the DVs were not equal, difference scores were used in the univariate analyses of time and group by time effects. Again, significant results for time were found for both empathy, $F(1,51)=44.58, p<.001$, and clarifying, $F(1,51)=10.93, p<.002$. Significant results were also found for group by time for both empathy, $F(1,51)=48.25, p<.001$, and clarifying, $F(1,51)=15.14, p<.001$. For a summary of these results see Table IV.

Multivariate analyses indicate that there is a significant difference between the training group and the control group on measures of empathic and clarifying communication skills together over time. Univariate analyses show that this difference was significant for both communication skills when considered separately. These analyses indicate that the research hypotheses were tenable:

H1: The students in the training group received significantly higher mean scores on post intervention paper and pencil measures of empathy and clarification skills than the students in the control group.

TABLE IV

**SUMMARY OF ANALYSES OF SCORES
ON COMMUNICATION SKILLS INDEXES**

MULTIVARIATE ANALYSES

	GROUP	TIME	GROUP BY TIME
EMPATHY & CLARIFYING F(2,50)	16.15 p<.001	22.22 p<.001	24.59 p<.001

UNIVARIATE ANALYSES

	GROUP	TIME	GROUP BY TIME
EMPATHY F(1,51)	27.5 p<.001	44.58 p<.001	48.25 p<.001
CLARIFYING F(1,51)	8.64 p<.005	10.93 p<.002	15.14 p<.001

H2: The students in the training group received significantly higher mean post intervention scores on paper and pencil measures of empathy and clarification skills than pre intervention scores.

The interpersonal skills training program was found to be effective in facilitating the students' development of empathy and clarification skills.

Analysis of student evaluations of the curriculum intervention provide further evidence of the success of the program and of its effects on the students' interpersonal relationships. The results of these evaluations will now be considered.

Student Evaluations of the Curriculum

An evaluation of the curriculum which asked students to rate effects of the program on them and their interpersonal relationships, and to complete eleven open-ended statements aimed at getting feedback on the tasks, class discussions, small group work and methods of evaluation were completed two weeks after the implementation of the interpersonal skills training program. A summary of student ratings are provided in Table V. Student ratings of the effects of the program were mostly positive. The majority of students reported that the training program had helped them to know themselves better (40.7%), and to understand (55.5%), listen (59.2%), and communicate (55.5%) with others more effectively. In addition, 51.8% of the students felt that the program had helped make school a better place to be. A little more than a quarter of the students reported that the program had not had positive effects on them or their interpersonal relationships.

TABLE V
RESULTS OF STUDENT EVALUATIONS
OF THE TRAINING PROGRAM

	SA	A	?	D	SD
This class has helped me to know myself better	29.6% 40.7%	11.1%	29.6%	14.8% 29.6%	14.8%
This class has helped me to understand others better	18.5% 55.5%	37.0%	25.9%	14.8% 22.2%	7.4%
This class has helped me to be a better listener	29.6% 59.2%	29.6%	3.7%	14.8% 37.0%	22.2%
This class has helped me to communicate better with my friends and family	25.9% 55.5%	29.6%	14.8%	3.7% 29.6%	25.9%
This class has helped make school a better place to be	22.2% 51.8%	29.6%	11.1%	18.5% 37.0%	18.5%

N=27

SCALE: SA - Strongly Agree
 A - Agree
 ? - Unsure
 D - Disagree
 SD - Strongly Disagree

More striking than these clear-cut quantitative results were the written responses by students on the curriculum evaluations. For example students thought that kids should learn about empathy and clarifying because:

When they get older and have kids they will be able to tell them about it

It would make the world better.

In addition student comments about the program included:

This class was very important to people. It helped you to understand how others feel and how people feel about you. It helped me alot.

I liked this (class) alot. It helped me to get along with my friends and family better.

A summary of the students' written responses to the eleven open-ended statements contained in the curriculum evaluation can be found in Appendix H. In the following section highlights of these data are presented.

Summary data indicate that 45.5% of the students reported that the most important thing that they learned in the class was to listen to one another. Less than half as many students cited either empathy or clarification on the same item.

Role playing, particularly using a tape recorder or video recorder, was considered to be a favorite activity in the first section of the curriculum by 37.0% of the students and in the second section by 45% of students. Activities which involved listening skills, empathy skills and clarification skills were cited by 14.8%, 18.5%, and 20.0% of the students. Other activities mentioned by two or more students included drawing cartoons (11.1%), listening (7.4%), and being nonjudgmental (7.4%) in the first section , and filling in the cartoons (10.0%) in the second section.

All but two of the students (93%) thought that the communication skills were "helpful" and all but one (97%) thought that students "should" learn about empathy and

clarification. In both cases the most commonly cited reason indicated by students was that it helped them to understand others.

The majority of students were positive about the types of feedback used in the program: 73.1% gave positive comments about giving other students feedback about their communication skills, and 76.0% gave positive comments about the feedback they received from the teacher and other students. These types of feedback were considered helpful by 23.1 % and 32.0% of the students.

Eighty-nine percent of students gave positive comments about working in small groups. Students reported that, in small groups, "if you needed help you got it", "you [can] share your feelings with someone" and "we shared our ideas and that helped". Summary data indicate that 32.1% preferred working in small groups over working in a large group. This is supported by data which indicate that 42.9% of students made negative comments about the large discussion groups. Students reported that they found the large discussion groups to be "boring", "hard" and "confusing". Students also commented that they were noisy and made the class feel restless. Of the 57.1% of the students who made positive comments about the class discussions, most cited some aspect of being able to hear other students' ideas and feelings as their reason for liking the class discussions.

Students were also asked to indicate what they would and wouldn't change about the program. A third of the students reported that they wouldn't change anything, others suggested changes in classroom management (14.8%) and making the classes or the program longer (11.1%). Other suggestions mentioned by two or more students included changing the format, changing class meetings, eliminating tape recording and using more video recording. Tape recording was also something that 19.2% of the students indicated that they wouldn't change. Other aspects of the program that students indicated that they

wouldn't change included the pictures, the tasks, video recording and the small and large discussion groups.

Student Self Evaluations

Students completed self evaluations following the implementation of the interpersonal skills training program. Students were asked to rate themselves on a five-point scale ranging from poor to excellent on eleven criteria including their understanding and ability to use empathy and clarification. A summary of student ratings are provided in Table VI. Mean scores on all eleven criteria were high, falling between 3 (good) and 4 (very good). On average, students rated themselves on their overall task work just below "very good" at 3.9 and on their effort at 3.8. 70% of the students rated their task work in the overall as "very good" or "excellent". The quality of their written work, discussions with their partners, and evaluations of their skills received mean ratings of 3.2, 3.3 and 3.3 respectively. These three items all received lower mean ratings than the other eight items.

Students rated their understanding of clarification and empathy slightly higher than their ability to use the skills (3.7 and 3.8 respectively compared to 3.6). Approximately a third of the students rated their ability to listen, and use empathy and clarification skills as "excellent". On average, students rated the quality of their tape recordings and role plays just below "very good" at 3.7. While none of the students rated their understanding of empathy and clarification as poor, 8% and 11% of the students rated their ability to use these skills as poor.

When ratings on the eleven criteria are averaged for each student means range from satisfactory (2.1) to excellent (5.0). Almost 50% of the students' average ratings fell between three and four, 22% between two and three and between four and five.

TABLE VI
RESULTS OF STUDENT
SELF EVALUATIONS
(n=27)

	1	2	3	4	5	Mean
The quality of written work	4%	23%	46%	8%	19%	3.2
discussions with partner	7%	11%	37%	22%	22%	3.3
skill evaluations	---	31%	27%	19%	23%	3.3
role playing & tape recording	4%	15%	15%	26%	41%	3.7
ability to listen	---	11%	26%	33%	30%	3.8
understanding of empathy	---	15%	19%	26%	41%	3.8
ability to use empathy	11%	7%	26%	19%	37%	3.6
understanding of clarifying	---	15%	23%	23%	38%	3.7
ability to use clarifying	8%	8%	31%	23%	31%	3.6
effort in class	---	19%	22%	19%	41%	3.8
overall	---	12%	19%	35%	35%	3.9

SCALE: 1 - Poor
 2 - Satisfactory
 3 - Good
 4 - Very good
 5 - Excellent

Qualitative Data

The data presented in this section are based on the investigator's observations during the implementation of the program. While subjective, the data provide insight into the effectiveness of the program and its effects on the students and their interpersonal relationships. For clarity, the data are presented in three sections: (1) observations, (2) modifications and (3) problems. This is followed by a description of revisions made to the curriculum based on the data collected in this study.

Observations

Initially students approached the material enthusiastically. They were keen to be doing something "different" and welcomed the opportunity to work independently. When students first began working with the skills, they frequently commented that the responses sounded phony. Students also questioned the usefulness of the skills. Class discussions often focused on when use of the responses would be appropriate.

Students had to be encouraged to work through the parts of the tasks requiring discussion with their partners. Many students would either rush through the material, putting in minimal effort, or, skip over it, completing only the written parts of the tasks. Students also needed to be encouraged to complete the activities that required them to evaluate their own work or the work of someone else. The students seemed unfamiliar with these types of activities and unsure of their value. This may be a result of the emphasis that our school system has traditionally placed on teacher evaluations and on writing rather than on talking.

During the initial stages of the program, it was observed that many students had a need to express themselves and to be listened to. It seemed that only when they could trust

that their own needs to be listened to would be met that they could begin to listen to others. This emphasizes the importance of the teacher's interactions in facilitating the acquisition of empathy and clarification skills: By sensitively and thoughtfully responding to the needs of their students, teachers can help their students become more responsive to the needs of others. Through such interactions teachers also provide students with effective models and make the perspectives, motives, feelings and intentions of others salient.

Early on in the program, it was observed that the students' motivation to use the skills had a strong influence on their participation in the program and their acquisition of the skills. Strategies had to be developed to help to motivate students to learn the skills. Providing students with examples and role plays, and discussing the benefits of empathy and clarifying were found to help students to value the skills. Modeling empathy and clarification skills when students expressed their attitudes, opinions, ideas or feelings, was observed to be the most effective way to motivate students to develop their skills. One student, who was particularly disruptive in the class, often commented that the skills were "stupid" and "useless". One day, just before class, the investigator found the student, who had injured himself during P.E., waiting alone in the classroom for his mother to arrive to take him home. He was quite distraught. The investigator responded empathically. The following class a change in his attitude was observed. By the end of the program, the student had acquired a high level of empathy and clarification skills.

Opportunities for the investigator to model the skills during the implementation of the curriculum was limited to class time. It is expected that students would acquire the interpersonal communication skills more easily if they were exposed to an effective model over a greater period of time. Ideally, the program would be implemented following a period of informal exposure to the skills.

Integrating skills into daily life in the classroom was observed to help maximize the transfer of skills outside of the training situation. It seems reasonable to assume that the

more a teacher can use, and encourage students to use, these skills on an informal basis, the more likely it is that they will use them in their interpersonal relationships. By using skills on a daily basis the teacher could help students to become more responsive to others, provide students with an effective model, and maximize the transfer of skills outside of the learning situation.

Students needed acknowledgment and affirmation of their learning and progress throughout the unit to encourage them to develop their communication skills. This was provided by the investigator's verbal and written responses. The investigator found that by setting expectations low initially and gradually increasing them as the competence of the students increased was an effective way of encouraging students to develop their skills.

The curriculum helped to develop a positive rapport between the investigator and the students. One student commented that

When people listen to one another and use clarifying they get along better because they trust each other and don't judge each other.

Over the course of the program, students began to explore personal feelings and issues:

I have really enjoyed your class because I could say and write what had happened to me with knowing that nobody will laugh.

The nature of the investigator's written responses and interactions with the students during class and on the "message" page helped to encourage this. Whenever possible, the investigator's written comments were qualitative, encouraging students to reflect on their own feelings and ideas and to deepen their understanding of the material.

As previous research would indicate, some students showed awareness and concern about global issues. They expressed concern about world hunger and conflict and violence in other parts of the world. They were also keenly aware of conflict on an interpersonal level. Observations of the students indicated that they tended to conceptualize

peace in terms of how people get along with one another. Verbal and written comments made by the students which illustrate this include:

If you don't listen then everything would be in a mess. If we didn't get along in the world the world would be a mess.

Peace would mean no fighting.

It would be a better world if everyone listened to what people have to say.

Before students were able to use their skills in their daily interactions they first showed an awareness of when the skills would be appropriate. For example, when two students were having a disagreement, one student commented,

I know, I know. Empathy, empathy, empathy.

Students gradually became cognizant of their own interactions and began to notice when they were giving advice, denying another's feelings or ideas, being judgmental etc..

By the end of the program, the majority of the students expressed positive attitudes toward the skills and reported that they had been able to use the skills outside of the class. On the curriculum evaluation, 55.5% reported that the class had helped them to communicate better with their friends and family. Student comments reflect this:

I think empathic listening is a good way to communicate because you get to know somebody and know their feelings.

I liked this social studies activity alot. It helped me to get along with my family and friends better.

This class was very important to people. It helped you understand how others feel and how people feel about you. It helped me alot.

Now that I've taken this class, I can see how other people feel and how to make them feel better. Its great!

If we didn't have empathy almost everyone would never get their feelings out.

Not all of the students felt this way. Twenty nine percent reported that the program had not helped them in their interpersonal relationships. Some reported that they had not been able

to use the skills outside of the class and that the skills made them feel "weird", "funny" or "uncomfortable". Two students reported that they didn't like the skills and found the program "boring".

Finally, it was observed that the program had a positive effect on the students. Students reported that the program had a positive effect on how they feel:

I feel good when I use empathy. I feel that I'm helping out the person.

Using the skills feels great and makes who I'm talking to feel good too.

Using clarifying skills makes me feel great and confident.

When I listen non judgmentally, I feel good because I'm not thinking something bad about the person and I don't even think about running his life.

The program also seemed to have a positive effect on self awareness. Forty percent of students reported that the curriculum had helped them to know themselves better. One student reported that he had "learned to have feelings". Other students commented that the program had helped them to be more compassionate and understanding:

I learned to care more.

Working in (this class) made me feel more understanding.

Modifications

A number of modifications were made to the curriculum during the time it was piloted. These modifications included the addition of three tasks to each of the two sections of the curriculum. Two tasks were introduced into each section of the curriculum when it became apparent that intermediary steps were necessary to help students to make the transition from using written responses to using verbal responses. Originally students had been asked to develop single responses in their written work and then to use sequential responses in their role plays. This meant that, in addition to making verbal responses

instead of written responses, they were required to generate statements to which their partner could respond and to use responses sequentially. To make this transition more manageable, two tasks were added in which students were asked to role play using single responses. In the first task students practiced making responses to interaction leaders provided on cards. In the second task students were asked to write their own statements for use in their role plays. After the completion of these tasks students were ready to role play using their own topics and to practice the use of their skills sequentially.

A task was also added to each of the two sections of the curriculum to give students more practice in writing responses. The tasks contained six additional interaction leaders and students were asked to record the main feelings and/or ideas and to write a response.

Changes were made to two tasks of the tasks which required students to record, in writing, the ideas generated in their discussions.

Problems

During the implementation of the curriculum, it became apparent that there were a number of problems with the curriculum as it was piloted. For example, to encourage students to use personal examples which were relevant and meaningful a number of tasks indicated that students could mark their work "private" and that their work would not be read by the investigator or their teacher. When one of the students indicated in her written work that she may be being abused by a family member, it became very clear that a potentially difficult situation could arise if a child addressed a personal issue which required teacher intervention, but had marked his or her work as "private". The option to mark work as private was deleted from the revised tasks.

The majority of the problems which arose during the training involved the structure or process of the curriculum rather than the content of the tasks. For example, the students were expected to progress through the tasks at their own rates. This created a number of

problems. First, it gradually became impossible for students to work with different partners in each class. As a result most of the students worked with the same partner throughout the program. The pairs tended to be made up by students with similar abilities to communicate and to work independently. As a result, students functioning at lower levels of these skills did not benefit from working with students functioning at higher levels. Second, as the students were all working on different tasks at the same time, it became difficult to generate discussions during class meetings which were meaningful to all (or even a majority) of the students. Third, this made supervision of the groups difficult. The investigator often recorded that she felt "scattered" after the class from trying to work with fourteen or fifteen different groups who were all working on different tasks. Finally, if students were on the wrong track, and completed more than one task in a class, their mistakes would accumulate. Students found this to be discouraging.

A final problem was created by providing each of the students with a copy of the directions for the task work and materials for recording their written work: students had a tendency to work in parallel, rather than co-operatively, with their partners.

The Revised Curriculum*

The curriculum was re-written using a cooperative learning approach to eliminate the problems outlined above. In the revised program, students work in small cooperative learning groups consisting of four students of varying abilities. Students are taught the roles of "Organizer" and "Encourager" to facilitate their functioning in their learning groups. To encourage students to work together, each learning group receives only one card describing each task. The group is responsible for its members' understanding of the

* The revised curriculum was published in January of 1989 by the Public Education For Peace Society, Burnaby, B.C., under the title Understanding One Another: A Cooperative Learning Curriculum for Creating A Peaceful Classroom.

material. Even when tasks (ie. role playing) require that students work alone or in pairs, their learning is guided by the co-operative learning groups.

Instead of allowing students to work through tasks at their own rates, students complete one task in each class. Thirty minutes are given for task work, followed by 10 minutes for class discussion. The class discussion provides a forum for students to discuss their understanding of the material, their reaction to the task work and their experiences.

All of the tasks used during the time the curriculum was piloted are included in the final version of the curriculum, however, the sequence of the tasks was changed. In the revised curriculum, students work through tasks designed to develop listening skills, clarification skills, awareness of feelings, and finally, empathy skills.

A teacher's guide was developed based on the experience gained during the implementation of the curriculum. The guide provides objectives and background information for each task along with suggestions for class activities that deepen and extend the students' learning during task time. Included are suggestions of topics for discussions, demonstrations, additional activities and role plays. Strategies to motivate students to learn the communication skills, to help students to evaluate their skills and to encourage the transfer of skills out of the classroom situation are described. The importance of providing students with high functioning models is emphasized. Suggestions are made for setting expectations, evaluating task work, forming co-operative learning groups, and encouraging students to work cooperatively.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter discusses those results of the study which pertain to the effectiveness of the curriculum intervention in facilitating the development of interpersonal skills. This includes the results of analyses of scores on the communication indexes used to assess empathy and clarification skills, student self evaluations, curriculum evaluations, and anecdotal data collected by the investigator as a participant observer during the implementation of the interpersonal communication skills curriculum. Exploratory data concerning the impact of the curriculum on the students and their interpersonal relationships are also discussed. The potential of interpersonal skills education as a means of educating for peace is explored. Recommendations, based on the findings of the study, for the development, implementation and evaluation of interpersonal communication skills curricula for upper elementary school age students are presented. Finally, conclusions and implications of the study are presented.

Discussion of Results

The purpose of this study was to develop a curriculum to help students to develop their personal resources for living peacefully. To this end a curriculum was designed to help students to develop communication skills which enhance understanding and reduce conflict. Carl Rogers' theory of interpersonal communication was used as a basis for the program. The curriculum, found in Appendix C, was designed to facilitate the development of listening, empathy and clarification skills. These skills embody Rogers' theoretical view of seeing another's thoughts and feelings from the others' point of view and provide a means for communicating that understanding to the other person. The

curriculum was based on a review of existing training programs and theory and research concerned with the development of empathy and prosocial behavior in children.

Research, reviewed in Chapter II, indicates that empathy is a key ingredient in the development and maintenance of positive social interactions. It is thought to have an important causal role in the enactment of prosocial behavior and in the reduction of aggressive behavior. Empathic responsiveness is present throughout childhood and adolescence but in middle to late childhood developmental changes in cognitive, affective and communicative abilities occur which affect children's abilities to employ sensitive helping intended communications. At this age, children show increases in role-taking abilities (Feshbach, 1978; Selman, 1980), a lessening of egocentrism (Piaget, 1967) and an increase in communication skills (Feshbach, 1978; Burleson, 1980, 1982; Delia & Clarke, 1977; Hater & Alvy, 1973). These changes help children to become more aware of, and able to respond to the subjectivity, thoughts and feelings of others.

Research shows that training can enhance the development of empathy skills in elementary and highschool students. Programs using small facilitator/student ratios developed by Vogelsong (1978) and Feshbach (1979; 1982) for children aged eight to ten have been successful in increasing empathic abilities. Research also shows that following training in interpersonal skills including empathy, students show improved physical, emotional and interpersonal functioning (Carkhuff, 1983).

Despite the success of these psychoeducational training programs, no systematic curriculum materials for use by teachers in a regular classroom situation could be found for enhancing the development of empathy skills in children. This study was designed to examine the feasibility of such a training program. The interpersonal communication skills curriculum was field tested with upper elementary school students. Changes in communication skills of students in the training group, relative to a control group were examined. Grade five students from three classes participated in the study. Students in the

training group came from a single grade five class. Students in the control group came from two grade 5/6 classes. By necessity, this was a "convenience sample", rather than a random sample. Students participating in the study were not pre-selected according to the quality of their interpersonal relationships, the level of their communication skills, or any other criteria. The study controlled for the passage of time but did not control for the possibility of Hawthorne effects.

Effectiveness of the Interpersonal Skills Curriculum

Prior to, and following the implementation of the interpersonal communication skills curriculum, data were collected to evaluate changes in communication skills of the training group relative to a control group. Students completed indexes of empathy and clarification skills. To interpret the data multivariate and univariate analyses were conducted. These analyses revealed that students in the training group showed a significant improvement in empathy and clarification skills, when considered separately or together, both over the course of training and in comparison with a control group.

Prior to training, students in the control group and the training group scored higher than expected on empathy and clarification skills. On a four-point scale, scores for the training group and the control group were 1.91 and 1.94 and 1.82 and 1.85 for empathy and clarification respectively. These scores are higher than the average empathy scores for the general population of 1.2 reported in the literature (Carkhuff, 1971) and higher than the pre-training scores reported by Sprinthall and Erickson (1974) for adolescents of "slightly above level 1". This is probably a function of the raters' interpretation of the scales used to rate the communication indexes: Level 1.0 was used only for harsh or critical responses. This interpretation of the scale would have a tendency to elevate scores and to reduce gains demonstrated by students in the training group.

Following training, students in the training group showed mean scores of 2.67 for empathy and 2.25 for clarifying. The empathy score is lower than the score of "close to level 3.0" for empathy obtained by Sprinthall and Erikson (1974) after training for adolescents, and higher than the mean score for pre-service teachers of 2.57 obtained by McAllister (1978). Both studies used similar indexes to those used in the present study and responses were scored on the Carkhuff rating scale.

Significant increases in functioning were noted in the training group for the communication skills: On average students showed an increase in scores of .76 for empathy, with 55% of students showing increases of more than one skill level, and .43 for clarification, with 19% showing increases of more than one skill level (see Tables I and II in Chapter IV). After training, 67% of the students demonstrated skills in empathy close (within .20) to the level 3.0 deemed "minimally facilitative" in Chapter II. Only 26% of the students demonstrated skills in clarification at the same level. Smaller gains in clarification skills may be accounted for by the fact that not all of the students completed the tasks designed to teach clarification skills. Students completed the tasks at their own rates. All of the students completed the section of the curriculum designed to teach listening and empathy skills, while only 31% of the students completed the section of the curriculum dealing with clarification skills.

Results also indicate that some students did not benefit from the program. An examination of individual changes in scores on the communication skill indexes (see Table III, Chapter IV) indicates that two students showed marginal gains (less than .10) in empathy skills, three students showed decreases; and three students showed marginal gains in clarification skills while four showed no change and four showed decreases. In addition, twenty nine percent of the students indicated that the program had not helped them in their interpersonal relationships. Moreover, eight and eleven percent of the students rated their ability to use empathy and clarification skills as poor.

Many factors influence student acquisition of skills. Previous research indicates that trainee gains and final level of functioning are related, in part, to initial level of functioning. A face analysis of Table III in Chapter IV does not show such a relationship: initial levels of functioning appear to be unrelated to student gains or final levels of functioning for both empathy and clarification. The effectiveness of interpersonal communication skills training for children is perhaps related more to motivation and openness or resistance to training.

It is interesting to note that while some of the students rated their ability to use empathy and clarification skills as poor, none of the students rated their understanding of the skills as poor. This would seem to indicate that for some students the program was effective in developing understanding of the skills but not in facilitating the use of the skills in their interactions or in the transfer of skills outside of the learning situation. Clearly, competence or understanding of empathy and clarification does not ensure that the skills will be used. Students must also feel motivated to use the skills. Burleson (1984) suggests that an individual's motivation to comfort another is primarily influenced by personality traits, including values and prosocial orientation, and situational variables, including helper responsiveness. Observations made in the present study suggest that the responsiveness of a student was influenced in part by the extent to which the student's own needs to be listened to were met. This suggests that teachers can help their students to become more responsive to the needs of others by sensitively and thoughtfully responding to the needs of their students.

Various strategies were developed to help motivate students to use the skills in their interpersonal relationships. For example, skills were modelled whenever possible; students were provided with examples and roleplays; and benefits of the skills were discussed. The manner in which the program was implemented may have inhibited the overall effectiveness of these strategies. The program was intense as the curriculum was implemented over the course of ten weeks. In addition, as the investigator only met with

the students during class time, opportunities to model the skills were limited. Perhaps the curriculum would be more effective if it was implemented over a longer period of time by a classroom teacher who could integrate the skills into the daily life of the classroom to allow students more time to integrate the skills into their communication patterns. Under these circumstances, the program could be initiated after a period of informal exposure to the skills. This would enhance the students' pragmatic understanding of the interpersonal communication skills and thereby provide students with a motivation to develop their own empathy and clarification skills.

Openness or resistance to training also appears to affect student acquisition and generalization of skills. For some students, communicating with others was not seen as important. Two boys commented during the course of the program that they didn't "talk" to their friends, they "just played soccer and stuff". Another student noted that her parents were always "too busy to talk anyway".

Motivation, and openness or resistance to training would appear to be affected by the levels of functioning of teachers, school personnel and parents. Previous research indicates that the involvement of parents, teachers and other school personnel is essential to the success of interpersonal skills training programs (Kalmakoff & Shaw, 1987; Rotheram, 1980). Such involvement is thought to affect the durability of training and maximize the transfer of skills outside of the learning situation.

Further research is necessary to examine how motivation and openness or resistance to training contribute to final levels of functioning and student gains. Such research could contribute to the refinement of strategies used in the present study, or the development of new strategies, for motivating students to use the skills .

For children of this age, developmental factors may also affect training outcomes. Empathy and clarification require the ability to recognize emotional states, understand another's feelings and ideas from the others' perspective and communicate that

understanding back to the other person. It is expected that readiness to acquire empathy and clarification skills may be influenced, in part, by the development of social-cognitive skills such as roletaking and perspective taking and by the changes in communication skills. Developmental differences in these abilities would, quite clearly, affect an individual's capacity to acquire and use empathy and clarification. Further research is necessary to examine the influence of developmental factors on final levels of functioning and student gains. Knowledge about the influence of cognitive, affective and communicative abilities on an individual's readiness to acquire interpersonal communication skills may provide insight into when interventions for developing interpersonal communication skills can be most effective.

It should be noted that the communication indexes used in the present study to assess the students' empathy and clarification skills are limited by the fact that they are paper and pencil measures that ask students to make responses to hypothetical situations. Statistical analyses indicate that the indexes were reliable (see Chapter IV). However, their validity for predicting interpersonal functioning is unknown. Previous research indicates that similar measures to those used in the present study have validity in predicting functioning in real life situations. Studies investigating the validity of the communication indexes designed by Carkhuff for parents and teachers, on which the present indexes are based, have shown positive correlations between levels of written responses and functioning in real life (Carkhuff, 1969a). MacAllister (1978) also reports a strong correlation (.83) between paper and pencil measures and audio taped ratings of gains in empathy as a result of training.

Communication skills used in response to hypothetical situations are, however, frequently more sophisticated than those used in real life situations where people are subject to time pressures and contextual restraints, stress, and anxiety (Applegate, 1980; Burleson, 1982; Selman, 1980). To assess the validity of the communication skills indexes it will be

necessary to compare levels of empathy and clarification skills displayed by children in natural situations with performance levels on the indexes. Until such research is conducted to determine the validity of the communication skills indexes used in the present study, scores should be regarded as a maximum level of functioning, rather than the average or typical level.

Measures used in the present study are further limited by the fact that students were asked to write responses which they would make to a "friend". This factor may also have influenced results by tapping into the individual's maximum level of functioning. Research by Ritter (1979) provides evidence that adolescents employ higher levels of empathic communication strategies when addressing a friend from within their immediate social group than from outside of that group. Further research will be necessary to determine how students would respond to significant target others such as teachers, classmates, siblings, or parents.

It is difficult to assess the extent to which experimenter demand may have influenced the students' scores on the communication skills indexes. In an attempt to minimize these effects the indexes were completed anonymously and students were encouraged to write whatever response they would make to a friend.

In light of these limitations, results obtained on the communication skills indexes are interpreted as providing evidence for the feasibility of training upper elementary school age students in interpersonal communication skills using a systematic approach in a regular classroom situation. Analyses of scores on the communication skills indexes reveal a significant improvement in empathy and clarifying skills when considered separately or together, for students participating in the program both over the course of training and in comparison with a control group. Final levels of functioning and average gains suggest that the program was effective in facilitating the development of these skills in the majority of students. Observations made by the investigator during the implementation of the

curriculum and results of student evaluations support this interpretation. Results are consistent with the findings of previous research.

Effects of the Curriculum On Student Functioning

Data were collected to examine the effect of the interpersonal communication skills curriculum on students and their interpersonal relationships. Findings, although exploratory, indicate that the majority of students were able to use empathy and clarification skills to improve their interpersonal relationships both in and out of the classroom situation. The majority of students reported that the program had helped them to understand (55.5%), listen (59.2%) and communicate with others (55.5%) more effectively. Ninety-seven percent of the students thought that students "should" learn about empathy and clarification. The most commonly cited reason indicated by students for this was that the program had helped them to understand others. Over half of the students rated their ability to listen and use empathy and clarification skills as "very good" or "excellent". In addition, the majority of students reported that they had been able to use the skills outside of the class. Findings also indicate that the program had a positive effect on intrapersonal variables. Forty percent of the students reported that the program had helped them to know themselves better. Some students indicated that the program had positive effects on how they feel.

Previous research has also documented positive effects for training in interpersonal communication skills on intra and interpersonal variables. Carkhuff (1983) reports that children and adolescents show improved physical, emotional and interpersonal functioning following training in interpersonal skills. Similarly, teachers trained in interpersonal communication skills, including empathy have been shown to help to promote self esteem (Newbweg & Love, 1982; Rogers, 1983; Carkhuff, 1987), higher order thinking capacities (Raths, Wassermann, Jonas & Rothstein, 1986), the development of moral and

ethical behavior (Raths, 1971; Raths, Harmin & Simon, 1966,1978), the nurturing of creativity, imagination and feelings (Ashton-Warner, 1963; Combs, 1982; Rogers, 1969, 1983; Wassermann, 1985), and the development of interpersonal skills (Carkhuff, 1982; 1987; Aspy & Roebuck, 1982; Wassermann, 1985) including cooperation, sharing and problem solving in their students. Positive results for achievement have also been documented (Aspy, 1975; Aspy & Roebuck, 1977; Carkhuff, 1982, 1987). Facilitating students, as well as teachers, in the development of interpersonal communication skills may prove to enhance these effects.

The pleasure, gratification and personal satisfaction of the trainee are also considered to be important goals, of equal importance to effectiveness, of interpersonal skills training programs (Goldstein, 1981). In this regard, the training program was highly successful. Student comments revealed their enjoyment of the program:

I have really enjoyed your class because I could say and write what happened to me with knowing that nobody will laugh.

Now that I've taken this class, I can see how other people feel and how to make them feel better. Its great!

Other comments revealed that students valued the program:

This class was really important to people...

Kids should learn about empathy and clarifying because when they get older and have kids they will be able to tell them about it.

Although the present study provides preliminary evidence which indicates that the interpersonal skills curriculum had positive effects on the students and their interpersonal relationships, further research is necessary before conclusions regarding the impact of the curriculum on intra and interpersonal functioning can be drawn. Findings and previous research indicate the need to investigate the effect of training on self esteem, self awareness, peer interactions, prosocial behaviors such as cooperation and sharing, and

aggression. As exposure to a high functioning model is an important component of interpersonal skills training, it will be necessary to examine whether changes in intra and interpersonal functioning are enhanced by training students as well as teachers in interpersonal skills or whether they are primarily a result of teacher interactions.

Communication Education as Peace Education.

Results of the present study allow for the examination of the interpersonal skills curriculum within the broader context of peace education. The curriculum intervention was designed to help students to develop their personal resources for living peacefully; to facilitate the development of interpersonal communication skills which reduce conflict and increase understanding. In Chapter One, criteria for the development and implementation of peace education programs were identified. It was suggested that (1) the content of peace education curricula should be developmentally appropriate; (2) teaching processes should be consistent with and model this content; and (3) a balance should be achieved between learning concepts, content and skills and affective involvement. These criteria were incorporated into the content and process of the interpersonal skills curriculum.

Interpersonal skills education appears to be a developmentally appropriate form of education for upper elementary school age children. It provides a logical extension of the conception of peace held by children of this age. Preliminary evidence of this is provided by observations made by the investigator during the implementation of the curriculum. As previous research would indicate, these students were developing concern and awareness about global issues affecting peace. Joyce (1972) indicates that students conceptualize peace in various personal, social, cultural and global contexts. Observations suggest that, for the grade five students involved in the training program, awareness was on a personal level. Peace tended to be conceptualized in terms of their abilities to get along with their friends and families.

Teaching processes were consistent with and modelled the content of the curriculum. Students were given opportunities to influence their learning; the tasks were designed so that students could work independently and opportunities were provided for self evaluation. In addition, students were encouraged to take responsibility for their learning and the ongoing development of their communication skills. Finally, development of interpersonal skills was balanced with opportunities for students to deal affectively with the information through discussion and the sharing of ideas and feelings in small group work and class meetings.

It is the investigator's belief that to make the program a more effective means of educating for peace, materials need to be included in the curriculum which directly relate the development of interpersonal communication skills to the achievement of peace. This could include an examination of "peacemakers" and the role of the individual in the peace process through active participation at community, society and global levels. By exploring the relationship between communication and peace, students can be encouraged to adopt a more active, positive vision of peace.

Findings of this study do not allow for conclusions regarding the effectiveness of interpersonal skills education for helping students to develop their personal resources for living peacefully. This study is a first stage in investigating interpersonal skills education as a means of educating for peace. Results of the indexes used in the present study to assess empathy and clarification skills suggest that the curriculum intervention was effective in developing the interpersonal communication skills of upper elementary school age students. Previous research points toward the potential of such training for fostering understanding and reducing conflict on a personal level. However, further research is necessary to examine the impact of the curriculum on the interpersonal functioning of students in real life contexts. The contribution of training in listening, empathy and clarification skills for helping children to become the kind of adults, who in their day to day behavior, show a

deep and compassionate concern for each other and the future of this planet has hardly begun to be explored.

This study also indicates the need for research which comprehensively and systematically examines how children of different ages relate to peace, the extent to which they are aware of issues that affect peace, and the extent to which they are able to deal with such information both cognitively and psychologically. This is an important task for peace educators to undertake so that materials can be designed in ways that are developmentally appropriate and address the needs and concerns of the students for whom they are intended.

Recommendations for the Development, Implementation and Evaluation of Interpersonal Communication Skills Curricula

Anecdotal records made by the investigator as a participant observer during the implementation of the interpersonal communication skills curriculum provided insight into the effectiveness of the content and process of the curriculum. These records considered along with evaluations of the curriculum completed by students in the training group led to some important revisions to the materials and the development of a teacher's guide. Changes made to the curriculum include structuring the tasks so that students could work independently in small cooperative learning groups. This included making provisions for teaching students to use the roles of organizer and encourager in their learning groups. A greater emphasis was placed on class discussions. New strategies were developed to help students evaluate their communication skills and to motivate students to learn these skills and encourage their transfer outside of the classroom situation. The importance of modeling the skills when interacting with the students and evaluating their work was

confirmed. The teacher's guide, reflecting these changes, includes suggestions for setting expectations, evaluating task work, and forming cooperative learning groups.

Experience gained through the implementation of the curriculum allows for the following recommendations for the development, implementation and evaluation of interpersonal skills curricula designed to enhance the development of empathy and clarification skills in upper elementary school age students:

1. Teaching methods should be consistent with and model the content of the curricula. Consistency is needed between teacher style, classroom and school climate and curriculum materials.
2. Materials should:
 - (i) be structured in ways that encourage students to interact to enhance their pragmatic understanding of the interpersonal communication skills;
 - (ii) involve characters of various backgrounds who are similar in age and sex as the students for which the curricula are designed;
 - (iii) use situations experiences and encounters commonly faced by students as a primary resource;
 - (iv) move students through progressively more difficult applications of the skills (ie. from writing to speaking, from the use of single responses to the use of sequential responses).
3. Program components should:
 - (i) facilitate the development of self awareness, listening skills, and discrimination skills;
 - (ii) facilitate students in identifying the feelings and ideas of others by encouraging students to develop affective as well as cognitive roletaking skills;

- (iii) include opportunities for modeling, practice, roleplaying and feedback;
- (iv) emphasize self evaluation skills;
- (v) include concrete strategies for transferring skills to real life situations and identifying ways to continue skill development outside of training;

4. Evaluation:

- (i) Students should be provided with ongoing acknowledgement and affirmation of their learning and their progress;
- (ii) Expectations should initially be set low and gradually be increased as the skills of the students increase;
- (iii) Written and verbal feedback should be reflective so that students are encouraged to reflect on their work and deepen their understanding of the skills.

5. Modeling:

- (i) The interpersonal skills should be integrated into classroom life so that students are exposed on a daily basis to effective, competent models;
- (ii) Evaluation skills should also be modeled (ie. identify what was effective about a response, identify problems and formulate strategies for improvement).

Summary

In this discussion of findings quantitative and qualitative data concerning the effectiveness of the interpersonal communication skills curriculum, and exploratory data concerning the effects of training on students and their interpersonal relationships have been examined. The findings of the study have been interpreted as indicating that the interpersonal skills curriculum was effective in facilitating the development of empathy and

clarification skills in upper elementary school age students. Factors which may have limited the effectiveness of the curriculum were also considered. This included a discussion of motivational factors, developmental factors affecting student "readiness", and student openness or resistance to training. Although no hard and fast conclusions can be drawn, results of the study point to the positive impact of the program on intra and interpersonal functioning. The potential of interpersonal skills education as a means of educating for peace was explored and further avenues for research identified. Finally, recommendations based on findings of the study were made for the development, implementation and evaluation of interpersonal skills curricula.

Conclusions

With respect to the purpose of the study, it can be concluded that the interpersonal communication skills curriculum was shown to be effective in facilitating the development of empathy and clarification skills in upper elementary school age students as assessed by paper and pencil measures of these skills.

Implications Of the Study

This study has evaluated the effectiveness of a curriculum for upper elementary school age students designed to facilitate the development of listening, empathy and clarification skills, in a regular classroom situation. The study was a first stage investigation and was limited by the fact that the possibility of Hawthorne effects and experimenter demand were not controlled for. The results of the study nevertheless underscore the feasibility and potential benefits of training elementary school students in

interpersonal skills and supports future research in this area. The following implications emerge from the study:

1. Importance of Training. This study has indicated that grade 5 students can be trained in the development of the interpersonal communication skills of empathy and clarification. In so far as (i) previous research indicates that middle to late childhood may be a crucial time for the development of affective and cognitive abilities which affect children's abilities to employ sensitive helping intended communications, and (ii) previous research and exploratory findings of the present study indicate that such skills may enhance intra and inter personal functioning, it would seem appropriate that upper elementary school age students be given formal educational opportunities to develop their interpersonal communication skills.
2. Intra and Interpersonal Functioning. Exploratory findings provided by anecdotal data and student evaluations suggest that over the course of training, the majority of the students were able to use empathy and clarification skills to improve their interpersonal relationships. Students showed greater understanding of the feelings and ideas of others. In addition, students reported that the program had positive effects on their self awareness and self esteem. These findings point to the positive impact of training students in interpersonal communication skills on intra and interpersonal variables.
3. Effect of the Facilitator. Research was reviewed which underlines the importance of high functioning models and affective educational processes in promoting student functioning in interpersonal communication skills. Exploratory findings

of the present study provide further evidence of this. This emphasizes the importance of the role of facilitator in the successful implementation of curricula designed to enhance the development of interpersonal communication skills. It appears that by sensitively and thoughtfully responding to the ideas and feelings of students a teacher can help students to become more responsive to the needs of others, provide students with an effective model and maximize the transfer of skills outside of the learning situation.

4. Teacher Training. Given the importance of the teacher's role for the successful implementation of interpersonal skills training programs it would seem appropriate that teachers receive appropriate training in interpersonal communication skills either prior to or along with the implementation of such curricula with their students.

5. Student "Readiness". Some students did not benefit from training. There may be identifiable factors which affect a student's readiness to acquire and use empathy and clarification skills. Developmental differences in cognitive, affective and communicative abilities, motivation, and openness to training may affect gains and final levels of functioning resulting from training in interpersonal skills. Identification of such factors could lead to the refinement of curricula for developing interpersonal skills in students.

Implication for Further Study

The results, discussion, and implications of this study suggest the need for further research which:

1. Tests the validity of the communication indexes used in the present study and/or contributes to the development of new measurement instruments. In this regard, the present study indicates the need for behavioral measures which go beyond the limits of written indexes to determine the actual use of skills in real life contexts. With such measures it will be possible to assess more accurately the effectiveness of interpersonal skills training programs.
2. Explores factors which affect an individual's readiness to acquire interpersonal communication skills so that the content and processes used in training programs can be refined. Studies which examine the role of motivation, openness to training, and the influence of cognitive, affective and communicative abilities on final levels of functioning and student gains seem especially warranted.
3. Assesses the extent to which students generalize skills and examines the durability of skills over a long term period.
4. Examines the impact of interpersonal skills training on the intra and interpersonal functioning of students and on learning outcomes. Studies which directly examine the impact of such training on intra personal variables such as self concept and self awareness and on peer interactions, prosocial behaviors such as cooperation and sharing, and aggression seem especially warranted.

5. Explores the potential of training in listening, empathy and clarification skills for helping children show in their day to day behavior, a deep and compassionate concern for each other and the future of the world.

6. Clarifies what is encompassed by the term "peace education" and identifies specific areas for curriculum development and implementation. In this context, it will be necessary to explore the relationship of interpersonal skills education to peace.

7. Comprehensively and systematically examines how children of different ages relate to peace, the extent to which they are aware of issues that affect peace, and the extent to which they are able to deal with such information both cognitively and psychologically so that peace education materials can be designed in ways that are developmentally appropriate and address the needs and concerns of the students for whom they are intended.

APPENDIX A

Letters of Approval

SIMON FRASER UNIVERSITY

VICE PRESIDENT
RESEARCH AND INFORMATION SYSTEMS



BURNABY, BRITISH COLUMBIA
CANADA V5A 1S6
Telephone: (604) 291-4152

February 20, 1987

Ms. Alison Walkley
Faculty of Education
Simon Fraser University
Burnaby, B.C.
V5A 1S6

Dear Ms. Walkley:

**Re: Facilitating the Development of Peaceful
Interpersonal Communication Skills in Children**

This is to advise that the above-referenced application has been approved on behalf of the University Ethics Review Committee conditional on your receiving permission from the School Board and schools involved. When written permission is received, please forward a copy to this office.

Sincerely,

Thomas W. Calvert, Chairman
University Ethics Review
Committee

/bjr

cc: S. Wasserman



1987-02-23

Ms. Alison Walkley,
Graduate Student,
Education Department,
Simon Fraser University,
Burnaby, B.C. V5A 1S6

Dear Ms. Walkley:

This is to advise you that your research proposal re: "Educating for Peace Research Project" has been reviewed and permission has been granted for you to approach elementary schools with a view towards obtaining student participation.

Please be advised that this permission to approach schools does not obligate either students or staff to participate. Involvement in research studies of this nature are always done on a voluntary basis.

I would appreciate an abstract of your findings when they become available.

Good luck with your project.

Yours truly,

Dr. Blake Ford,
Supervisor - Staff Development and
Program Inservice

BF:da

APPENDIX B

Consent Forms

Consent Forms

Training Group Permission Letter

Dear Parent,

I am a teacher and a graduate student at Simon Fraser University who is very interested in the field of peace education. I have created a program to help children develop effective interpersonal communication skills. I believe that these skills can help our children live peacefully together. I would like to research the effectiveness of this program in your child's class and would like your permission for your child to participate.

This project is under the supervision of members of Simon Fraser University's Faculty of Education. It has been approved by the university's ethics committee, the North Vancouver School Board and your school's principal.

I will be teaching the interpersonal communication skills program three times a week over the course of ten weeks beginning in March. During this time the children will be learning ways to listen to and understand one another.

In addition to learning some important communication skills I would like all of the children to complete a few simple questionnaires. I will also tape some of the classes and copy some of the children's task work so that I can assess the effectiveness of the program. The questionnaires, tapes and task work will be treated very confidentially. None of this material will be seen or heard by any school personnel. If any of this material is reported in the research findings it will be done so in such a way that anonymity is assured.

I am looking forward to working with your child's class and helping them learn ways of listening to and understanding one another.

I would greatly appreciate it if you would sign the consent form below and return it to the school with your child. If you have any questions or concerns I would be more than happy to discuss them with you. I can be reached at (879-7642), or you can leave a message for me at the university (291-3395) or at the school (-) and I will get back to you as soon as possible.

Thank you for your kind cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

Alison Walkley

.....
I give my child permission to participate in the research project.

Signature of parent or guardian

Training Group

Permission Form for Students

I know Alison Walkley is doing a project with my class.

I know she will be doing the following activities with my class:

- get us to fill out a short questionnaire about sharing ideas and feelings in our class.
- get us to fill out our responses to some statements a friend might say to us.
- meet with our class to teach us some communication skills.
- she will tape record some of our classes.
- she will not play any of the tapes for any teacher or parent or for any other person in the school.
- she will copy some of our work to help her with her project.
- if any of this material is reported in her write-up it will be made anonymous so that no one will know it was mine.
- she can destroy the tapes and copies of our work when the project is over.

I fully understand that I can choose not to take part, and that it is OK, and will not be bad for my marks or my report card. And, I can stop taking part anytime I want.

I am willing to take part in the activities.

Signed

Student's Name

Control Group Permission Letter

Dear Parent,

I am a teacher and a graduate student at Simon Fraser University who is very interested in the field of peace education. I have created a program to help children develop effective interpersonal communication skills. I believe that these skills can help our children live peacefully together.

I am researching the effectiveness of this program and would like the children in your child's class to complete a few simple questionnaires. I am seeking your permission for your child to participate.

This project is under the supervision of members of Simon Fraser University's Faculty of Education. It has been approved by the university's ethics committee, the North Vancouver School Board and your school's principal.

The questionnaires are short and simple. The children will be asked to write their responses to statements that a friend might say and to give their attitudes about sharing in class. This material will be treated very confidentially. It will not be shown to any school personnel. If any of the material is reported in the research findings it will be done so in such a way that anonymity is assured.

I would greatly appreciate it if you would sign the consent form below and return it to the school with your child. If you have any questions or concerns I would be more than happy to discuss them with you. I can be reached at home (879-7642), or you can leave a message for me at the university (291-3395) or at the school (-) and I will get back to you as soon as possible.

Thank you for your kind cooperation.

Sincerely,

Alison Walkley

.....

I give my child permission to participate in the research projects.

Signature of parent or guardian

Control Group

Permission Form for Students

I know Alison Walkley is doing a project with my class.

I know she will be doing the following activities with my class:

- get us to fill out a short questionnaire about sharing ideas and feelings in our class.
- get us to fill out our responses to some statements a friend might say to us.
- If any of this material is reported in her write-up it will be made anonymous so that no one will know it was mine.

I fully understand that I can choose not to take part, and that it is OK, and will not be bad for my marks or my report card. And, I can stop taking part anytime I want.

I am willing to take in the activities.

Signed

Student's Name

APPENDIX C

**Curriculum Intervention as Piloted:
Curriculum Goals
Overview of the Curriculum
Student Materials
Additional Teaching Materials**

Curriculum Goals

Learning Skills

Students will develop their abilities to:
learn cooperatively in small and large groups.
work independently.
monitor their own progress.

Evaluation Skills

Students will develop their abilities to:
evaluate their own work.
provide other students with feedback.

This includes:

- appreciating the work.
- identifying the parts they liked best.
- identifying and defining problems.
- formulating strategies for improvement.

Communication Skills

Clarification:

Students will develop their abilities to:
understand how what they say affects another person.
listen nonjudgmentally to another's thoughts.
understand another person's attitudes, opinions and ideas.
formulate responses that attend to what another has said
thoughtfully using their knowledge of clarification.

Empathy:

Students will develop their abilities to:
understand how what they say affects another person.
listen nonjudgmentally to another's feelings.
identify feelings.
understand another person's feelings.
formulate responses that attend to what another has said
sensitively using their knowledge of empathy.

Overview of the Curriculum

Part One

LISTENING TO FRIENDS AND SHARING FEELINGS

Introduction

LISTENING

- Task 1: When Someone Doesn't Listen
"How it Feels When Someone Doesn't Listen"
- Task : When Someone Doesn't Understand
"Feeling Misunderstood"
- Task 3: Being Nonjudgmental
- Task 4: When it is Difficult to Listen
"Some Reasons Why People Don't Listen"
- Task 5: Ways to Show That You are Listening
"How To Show That You Are Listening"
- Task 6: Feeling Words
- Task 7: Recognizing Feelings
Writing Feeling Statements: "I Feel..."
- Task 8: Facts About Feelings

EMPATHY

- Task 9: Empathy
"More Sensitive / Less Sensitive Responses"
- Task 10: Writing Empathic Responses
Responding Using Empathy
- Task 11: Practicing Empathy
- Task 12: Responding Using Empathy
- Task 13 1/2: Roleplay I: Empathy (Using "Feelings" Cards)
Evaluation: "Using Empathy"
- Task 13 3/4: Roleplay II: Empathy (recorded) (Creating
feeling statements)
Evaluation: "My Empathy Skills"
- Task 14: Roleplay III: Empathy (recorded)
Evaluation: "My Empathy Skills"
- Task 15: Reflection

Part Two
LISTENING TO FRIENDS AND SHARING IDEAS

Introduction

CLARIFYING

- Task 1: Clarification
"More Thoughtful / Less Thoughtful Responses"
- Task 2: Writing Clarification Responses I
- Task 3: Practicing Clarification
- Task 4: Writing Clarification Responses II
- Task 5: Roleplay I: Clarification (Using "Ideas" cards)
Evaluation: "Using Clarification"
- Task 6: Roleplay II: Clarification (recorded) (Creating idea statements)
Evaluation: "My Clarification Skills"
- Task 7: Roleplay III: Clarification (recorded)
Evaluation: "My Clarification Skills"
- Task 8: Reflection

Student Materials

Listening to Friends and Sharing Feelings

Alison Walkley

© 1987

The activities in this chapter will give you a chance to think about:

- how it feels not to be listened to.
- feelings.
- why people don't listen

The activities in this chapter will help you develop your abilities to:

- recognize and identify feelings.
- show that you are listening
- listen nonjudgmentally
- respond sensitively to another person's feelings using a communication skill called **EMPATHY**.

Listening and understanding can help people to get along with one another.

There are 15 tasks in this chapter. You will be able to work on these tasks on your own or with a friend at your own pace.

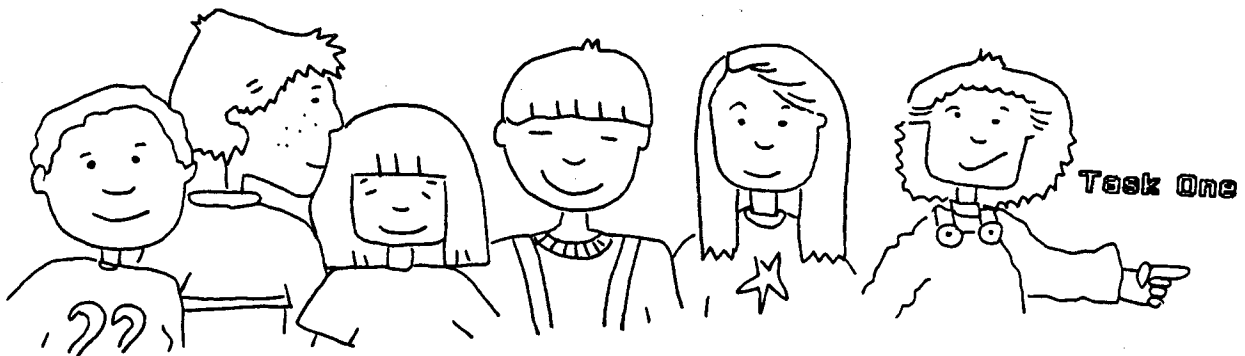
You should try to complete one task in each class.

There will be opportunities at the end of some of the classes to share your work and ideas if you want to.

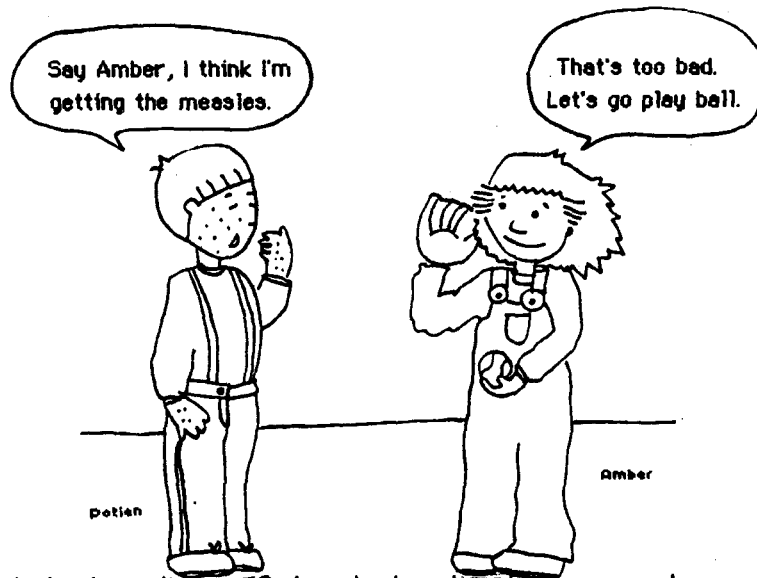
If you don't want to share your written work you may mark your paper 'PRIVATE'. If you do, no one else will read your work, not even your teacher.

You can hand in your folder at the end of each class for feedback.

Try to participate in these activities to the very best of your ability. Help yourself to grow in your abilities to listen and understand -- so that you may learn more about getting along with others.



Task One When Someone Doesn't Listen



Work with a friend. Look at the cartoon above.

Talking : * Talk about what you think is happening in the cartoon.
How do you think Potien is feeling?
How do you think Potien felt about Amber's reply?

- * Work together and discuss how it feels when you are talking and the other person is not listening.
Has this ever happened to you?
If so, tell about the situation.
Explain how it made you feel.

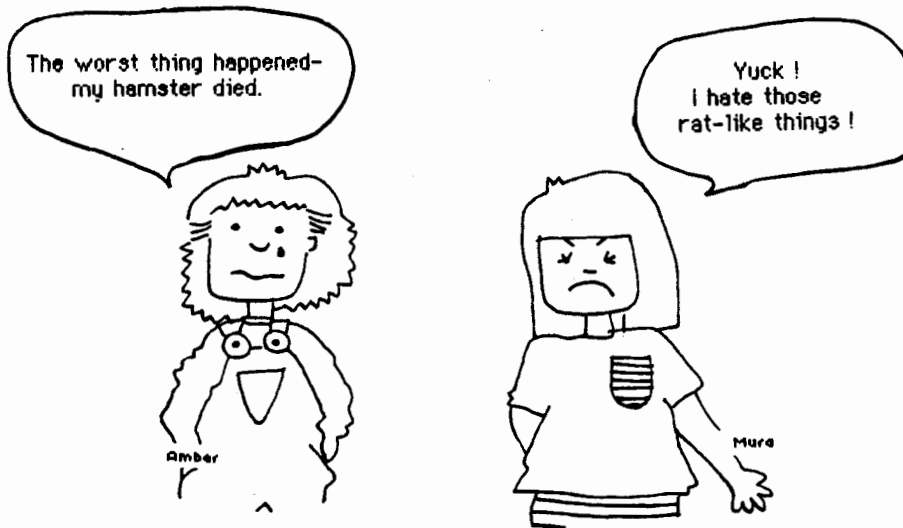
Writing: *How does it feel when you are talking and no one is listening?
Working alone, write about it.

- *If you wish you may exchange papers with your friend and talk about your stories.

*If you don't want to share your story, mark your paper 'PRIVATE.'

Task Two

When Someone Doesn't Understand



Work with a friend. Look at the cartoon above.

Talking: *In your opinion, what kind of feelings are being expressed by Amber?
How do you think Myra's response made Amber feel?

Discuss your ideas.

Writing: *Has there ever been a time when you tried to tell someone how you were feeling and found that they just didn't understand you?

Working alone, write about what happened to make you feel misunderstood.

What did they say?
How did it make you feel?

Write about it.

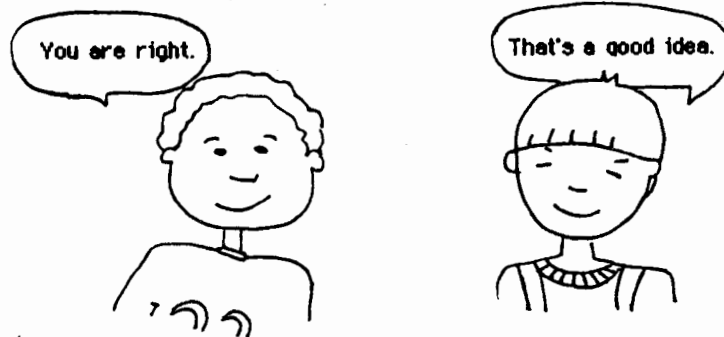
*If there is time you may exchange papers with your friend and talk about your stories.

*If you don't want to share your story, mark your paper 'PRIVATE.'

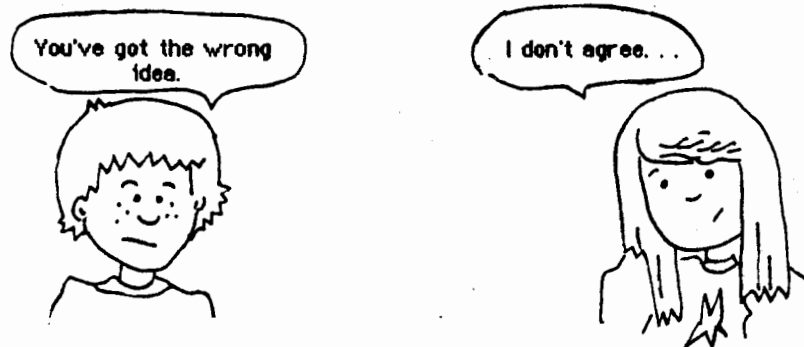
Task Three

Sometimes when we are listening to someone else we may JUDGE what they are saying.

The judgment may be positive:



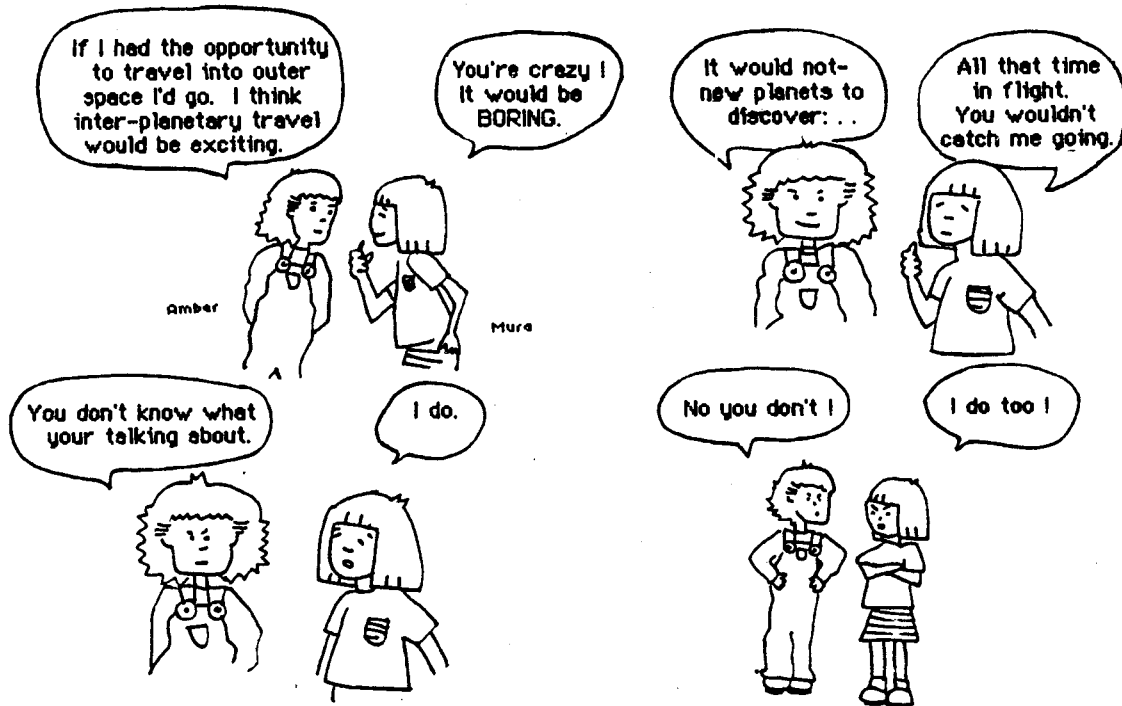
or it may be negative:



*When we judge another person's ideas or feelings

- we stop ourselves from fully understanding what they are saying.
- they may become angry (especially if our judgment is negative).
- conflict can arise

Work with a friend. Look at the following cartoon.

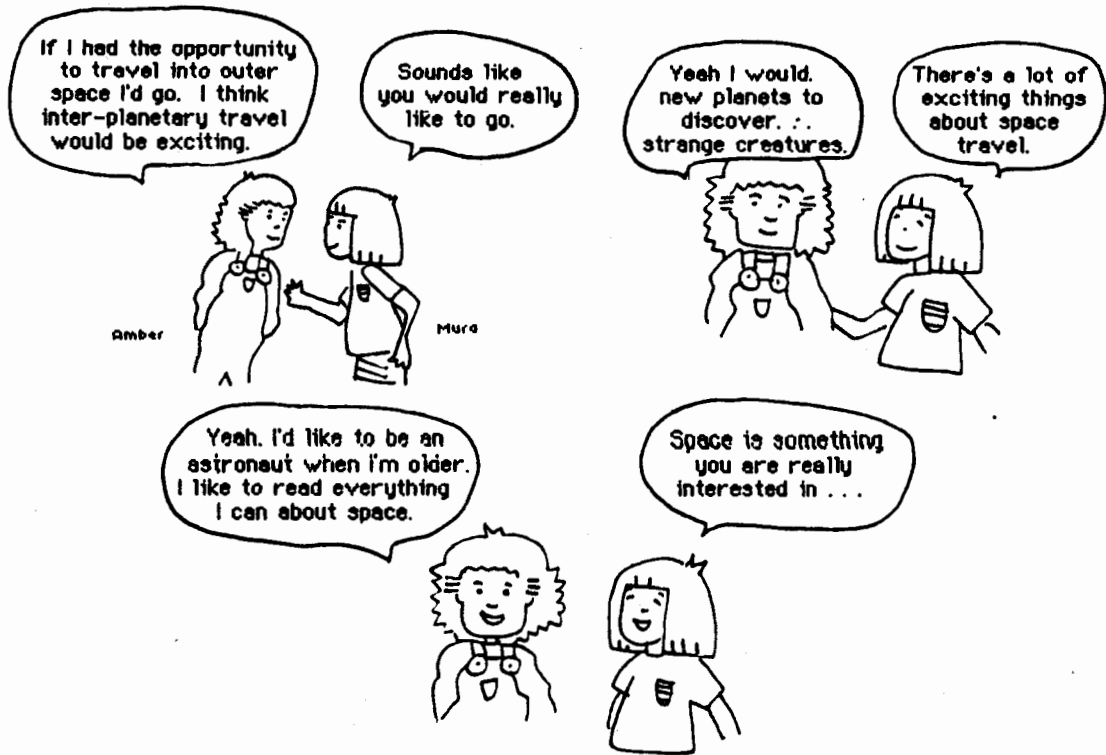


Talking: *How do you think Amber felt when Myra judged what she was saying?
What happened?
Why do you think Myra judged what Amber was saying?

Discuss your ideas.

*Try and think of times when someone judged what you were saying.
What happened?
How did you feel?
Talk about your experiences.

*What effect does judging have on understanding?
Discuss your ideas.



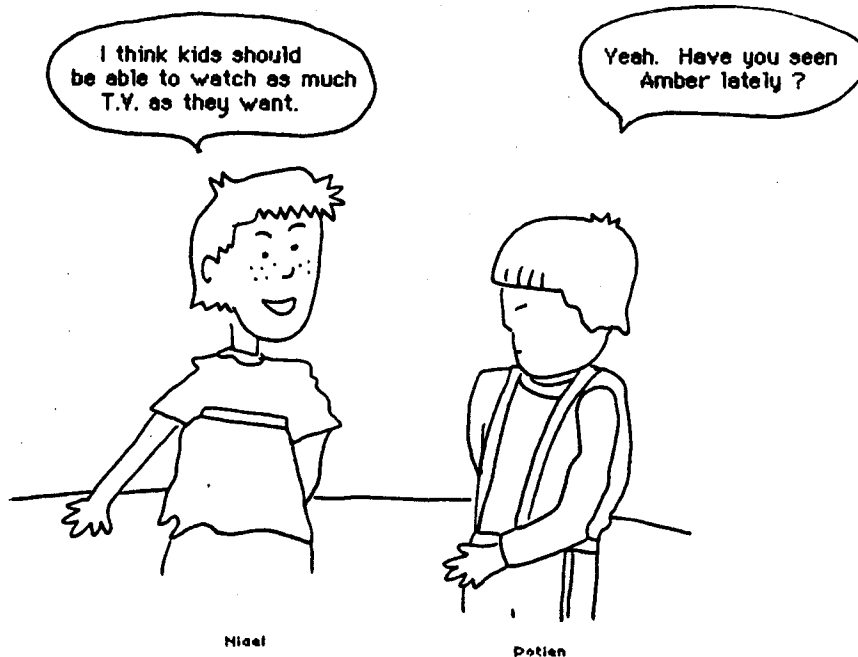
Talking: *How do you think Amber felt when Myra responded non judgmentally?
What happened?

Discuss your ideas.

Writing: *What effect does being nonjudgmental have on understanding?
Working together make a list of as many effects as you can.

Task Four

When it is Difficult to Listen



Work with a friend. Look at the cartoon above.

Talking: * Talk about what you think is happening in the cartoon.
What message is being given to Nigel?
How do you think this makes Nigel feel?
Discuss your ideas.

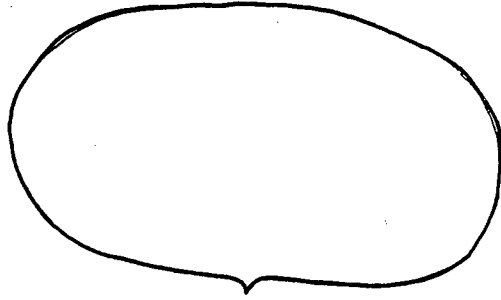
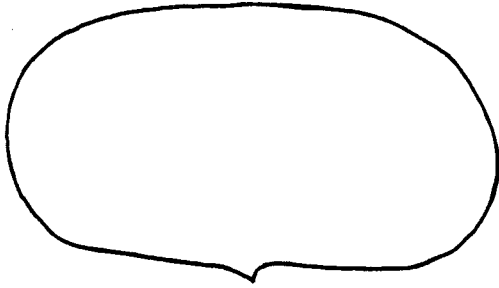
*Why do you think Potien said "Have you seen Amber lately?"?

*When is it difficult to listen to someone else ?

Discuss your ideas.

Writing: *Working with a friend, write down all of the reasons that you can think of that people don't listen to one another.
Write as many reasons as you can.

Drawing: *Choose one of your "reasons" and make a cartoon, like the one above, to illustrate it.



Task Five

Work with a friend.

*This is a roleplaying exercise. You will be taking turns being the "talker" and the "listener". Decide who will be first to be the "talker" and who will be first to be the "listener".

*"Talker": Your job is to talk for at least two minutes. Try and think of a topic which you feel comfortable talking about.

You could talk about:

your feelings about girls playing in a boys hockey league...

how you feel about...

a time that you felt angry...

*"Listener": your job is to listen to your friend's story.

Do your best to show that you are interested.

*When you are ready-

"Talker": Share your story. Spend at least two minutes doing this.

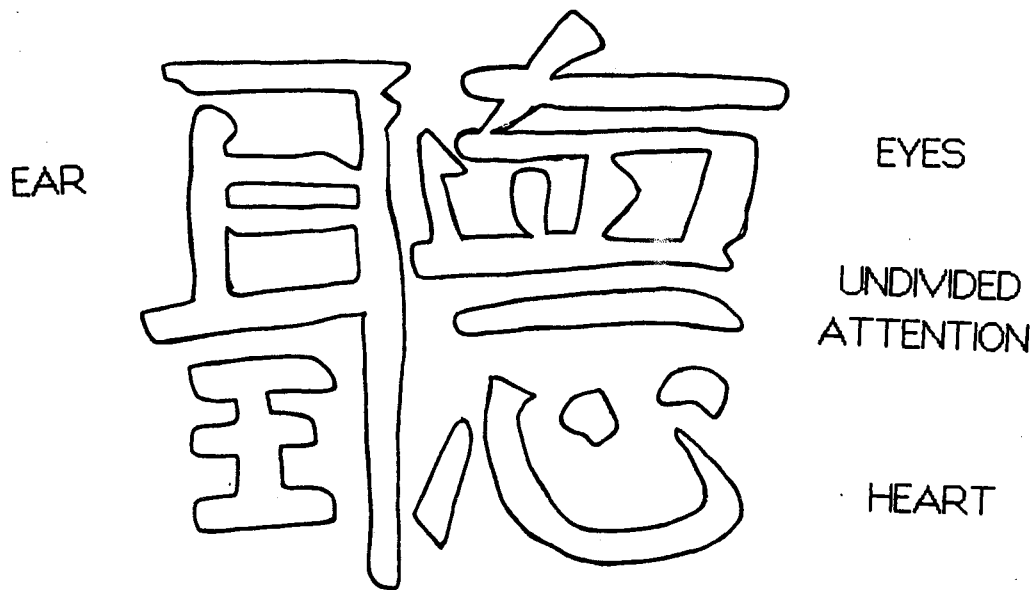
"Listener": Do your best to listen.

*When you are finished, switch roles and try the roleplaying exercise again.

Talking: *Discuss the roleplay.
Tell how it felt to be listened to.

Writing: *Working together, make a list of the ways people can show that they are listening.

*If there is time, get together with another group and share your ideas about listening. (Practice listening to the other group.)



The Chinese character that makes up the verb
"to listen"
can tell us something about this skill.

Task Six

Feelings



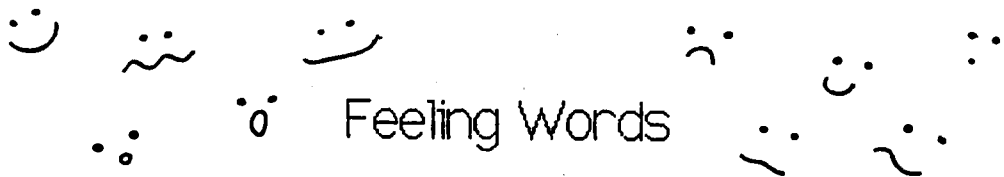
Sometimes when people are talking they will say something that tells you how they are feeling.

Work with a friend. Look at the cartoons above.

- Talking:
- *In your opinion, what kind of feelings are being expressed by Monique?
What word could be used to describe how Monique is feeling?
 - *In your opinion, what kind of feelings are being expressed by Jessie?
What word could be used to describe how Jessie is feeling?

Discuss your ideas with one another.

- Writing:
- *Working together, make a list of all the words that you can think of that describe a feeling.
List as many words as you can.
 - *If you wish, when you are finished, get together with another group and share your list of feeling words.
Perhaps they will have some feeling words that you hadn't thought of or perhaps you will have feeling words that they hadn't thought of.
Collaborate.



Feeling Words

A series of horizontal dashed lines for writing, consisting of 18 lines.

Task Seven

Recognizing Feelings

Work with a friend.

When people are expressing their feelings they don't always come out and say: "I feel...".

It is important to learn to recognize what someone is feeling by looking at clues.

We can listen to what the sound of their voice can tell us - not just the words they use but how they say them.

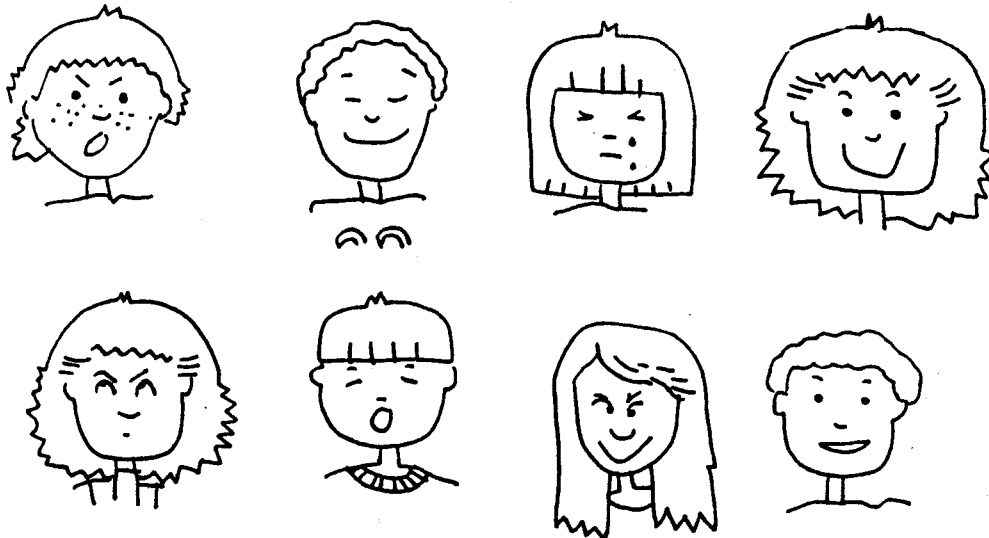
Voices can sound tired, happy, tense, relaxed, hurried...
Voices can express many emotions.

*Working together, try to say the following sentences as many ways as you can.
Each time, try to decide what feeling is being expressed.

"Hi. How are you?"

"I had a wonderful time"

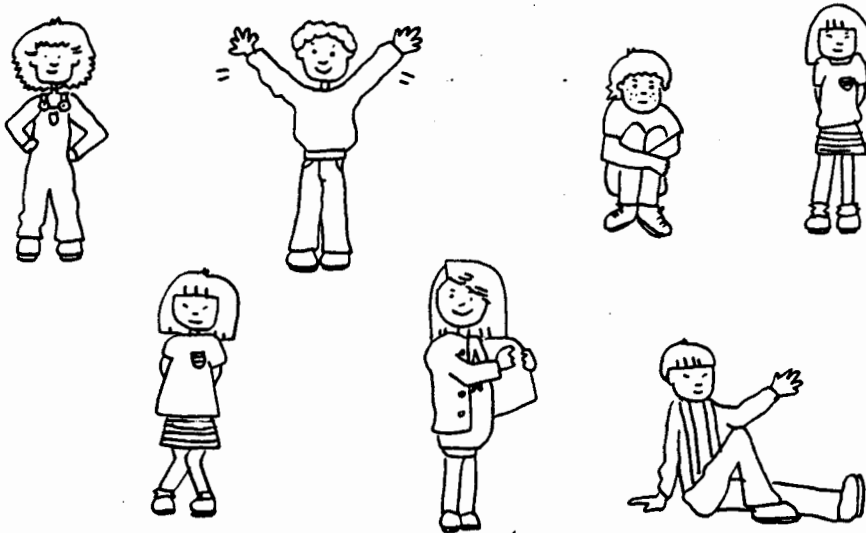
We can also look at facial expressions.



*Talk together and discuss what feelings you think are being expressed by each facial expression.
What is it about the expression that shows that feeling?

(Feelings are sometimes hard to recognize. An expression can show more than one feeling. If you don't agree on what feeling is being expressed - that's O.K.)

We can also look at "body language".



*Working together, try and decide what feelings are being expressed by the "body language" in each picture.

Of course

- words
 - the sound of the voice
 - facial expressions
 - & "body language"
- all work together to express feelings.

If you want to be really clear when you are expressing an emotion,
you can label that emotion:
"I feel _____."

Writing: *Working alone, fill in the page titled "I Feel...".
Try to complete the statements with something that
you would feel comfortable sharing with a friend.

When you have completed the statements:

Talking: Work with a friend.

- *Share one of your feeling statements with your friend.
Work together and identify the
 - sound of the voice
 - facial expressions
 - & "body language"which help to communicate the emotion.
- *Take turns sharing your feeling statements and identify
the sound of the voice, facial expressions and "body
language" that help to communicate those feelings.

"I Feel..."

I feel happy_____

I feel angry_____

I feel content_____

I feel uncomfortable_____

I feel confident_____

I feel jealous_____

I feel_____

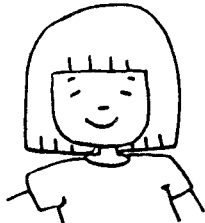
I feel_____

Task Eight

Facts About Feelings

People can feel differently about the same things.

I love birthdays -
birthday parties, presents.
It's great to be with
family and friends!
Birthdays make me feel
special.



I hate birthdays -
especially birthday parties.
All that attention
makes me feel nervous.



Talking:

Work with a friend.

*Talk together for a few minutes and see if you can find something that you feel differently about.

You could talk about how you feel about:

- acting in a school play
- math
- jogging
- riding a horse
- writing letters
- getting up in the morning
- singing a solo
- flying in a plane

People can feel more than one feeling at a time:

I'm still angry at
Myra for breaking
my skateboard.

I really wish
I hadn't yelled
at her.



I was nominated
class president.
I'm so thrilled I
could burst.

I hope I can
handle it.
I feel nervous.



Talking:

*Think of times you have felt more than one feeling at a time.
Share your experiences.

Write about it.

Feelings are different than actions.

Saying "I'm so mad I could punch you." is a lot different than actually doing it.

Letting someone know how you feel gives you the opportunity to explore your feelings. It does not mean that you have to "act out" your feelings.

Talking: *Have you ever felt like doing something but knew you wouldn't do it.
(like strangling your little brother...
screaming at your teacher...
taping shut your talkative friend's mouth...)

Share your experiences.

Write about it

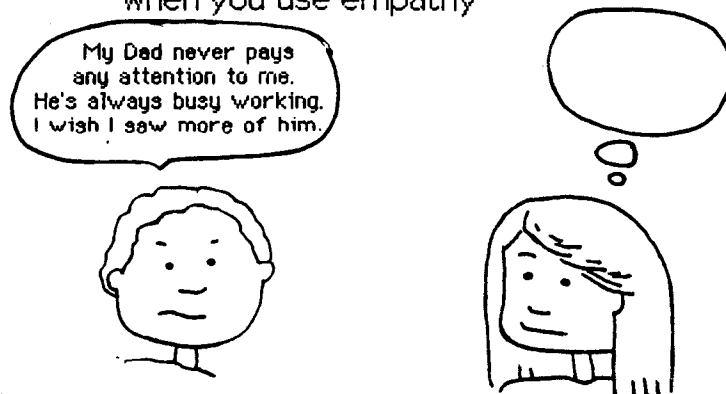
Task Nine

EMPATHY is a communication skill which can help us respond to someone else's feelings in a sensitive way.

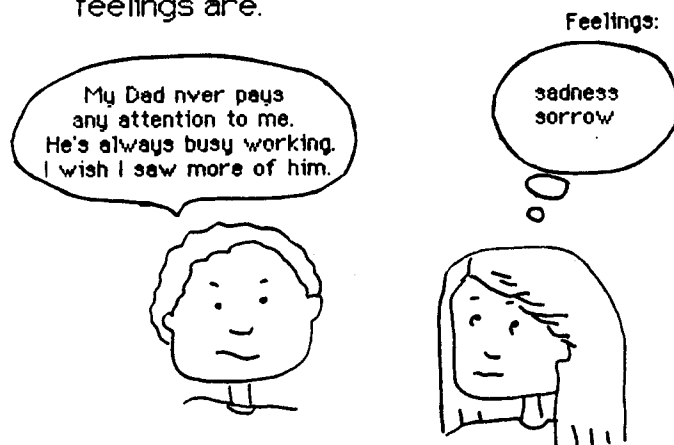
It can help us understand what they are feeling.

*The first step of empathy is to listen nonjudgmentally to what the other person is saying.

You will have to use all that you have learnt about listening and being nonjudgmental when you use empathy



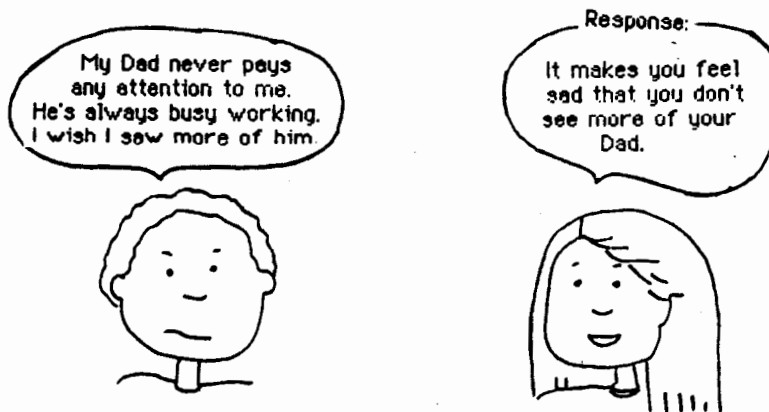
*The second step of empathy is to decide what the main feelings are.



*The third step of empathy is to decide what the main ideas are:



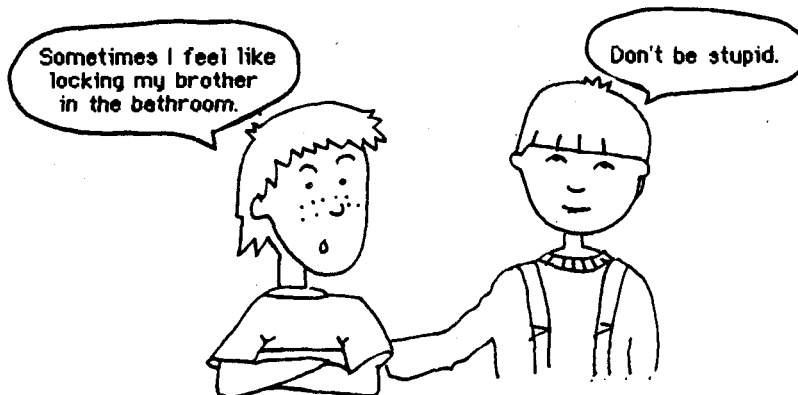
*The fourth step of empathy is to put together a response which contains both the main feelings and the main ideas.



*As you can see Monique reflects back the main feelings and ideas that Jessie has expressed.
Her response is reflective.

It is sensitive. Monique's response shows that she has listened to and thought about what Jessie is feeling.

Monique is trying to understand what Jessie is feeling.



Work with a friend. Look at the cartoon above.

Talking: *In your opinion, what kinds of feelings are being expressed by Nigel?
 What is there about Potien's response that is hurtful to Nigel?
 Discuss your ideas.

*Using your knowledge of empathy:
 Talk about what Potien could have said that would show Nigel that he heard and understood what he is feeling.
 Why do you think those responses would be more sensitive and caring?
 Discuss your ideas.

Remember...
 to respond using empathy:
 First- listen nonjudgmentally
 Second- decide what the main feelings are
 Third- decide what the main ideas are
 Fourth- put the main feelings and ideas together to make a response.

Talking and Writing:

*Now, working with a friend, look at the following list of responses.

- Don't be stupid.
- You'd be sorry.
- You sound like you are very angry at your brother.
- Your brother has really gotten to you.
- Don't do it.
- Sometimes I feel that way to.
- Tell me what happened.
- What if your parents found out?

*Talk together and decide if the responses are MORE SENSITIVE or LESS SENSITIVE.
 *Make a list of the more sensitive responses and a list of the less sensitive responses.
 *Do your own responses fit into the "more sensitive" group?

More Sensitive Reponses

Handwriting practice lines for 'More Sensitive Reponses'. The page contains 20 horizontal lines, each consisting of a solid top line, a dashed middle line, and a solid bottom line.

Less Sensitive Responses

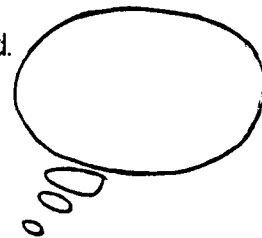
Handwriting practice lines for 'Less Sensitive Responses'. The page contains 20 horizontal lines, each consisting of a solid top line, a dashed middle line, and a solid bottom line.

Being nonjudgmental is not always easy when you are listening to someone else's feelings.

Remember: Being nonjudgmental does not mean that you have to agree with the other person's feelings

- just that you try to understand them. :

Being nonjudgmental means keeping an open mind.

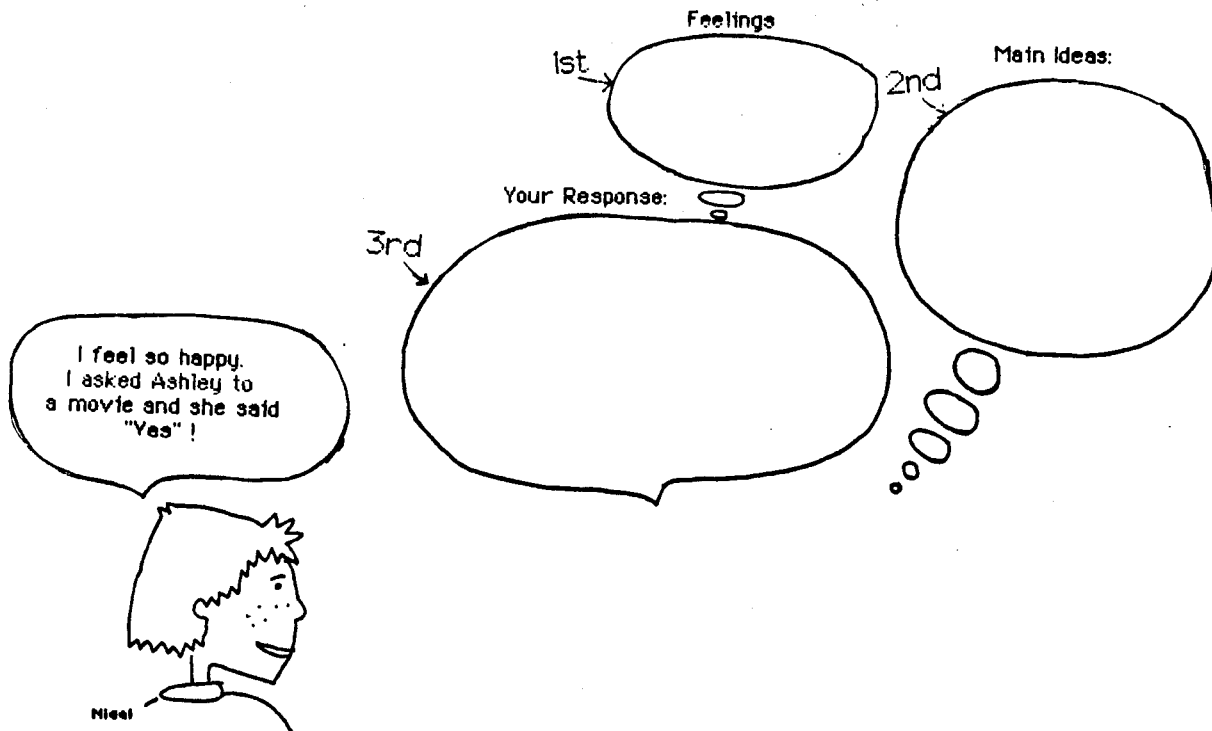


Task Ten

Responding Using Empathy

In this activity you will have the opportunity to practice your empathy skills.

Work with a friend. Look at the cartoon below.



Talking:

Using your knowledge of empathy:

*Think about what Nigel is saying.

What are the main feelings that Nigel is expressing?

Discuss your ideas.

Record your ideas in the space provided.

*What are the main ideas that Nigel is expressing?

Discuss your ideas.

Record your ideas in the space provided.

*What could you say to Nigel that would tell him that you have heard and understood what he is feeling.

Discuss your ideas.

Record your response in the space provided.

Repeat the same process for each of the following:

Feelings

Main ideas

Your Response

My brother hasn't written to me since he left for college. I miss him. I know he's busy but I wish he'd answer my letters.

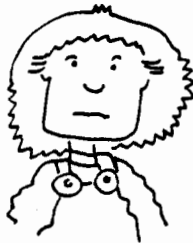


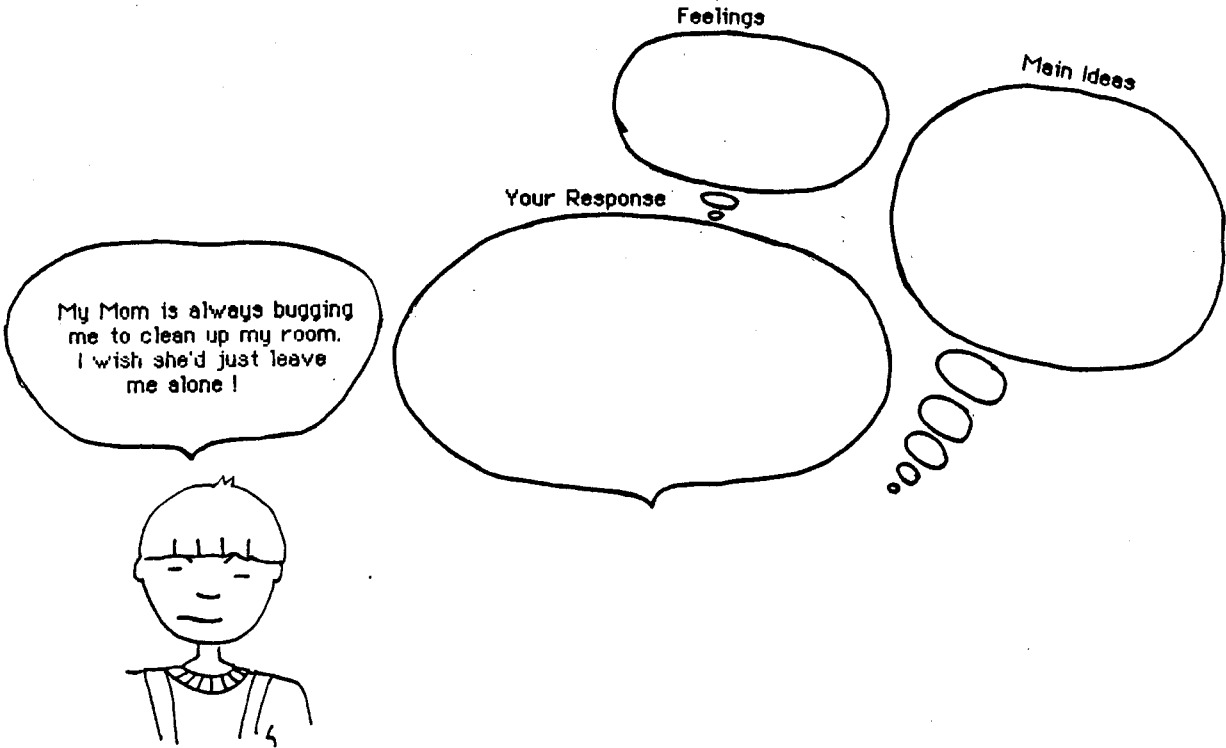
Feelings

Main ideas

Your Response

My Mom and Dad are always fighting. It scares me. Sometimes I think that they might get a divorce.





PRACTICING EMPATHY

My Mom is going away on business again. She is always working. I miss her so much. I liked it better when she had her old job and didn't have to go on business trips.

Main feelings _____

Main ideas: _____

Your response: _____

I'm so happy. My Dad is taking me fishing this weekend, just my Dad and I. I love it when we get to spend time together.

Main feelings _____

Main ideas: _____

Your response: _____

I don't think Amber wants to be my friend any more. She's always playing with other kids these days and when I try and talk to her she just ignores me.

Main feelings _____

Main ideas: _____

Your response: _____

4. I think that there should be limits on how much people can drive. Cars cause air pollution and our area is getting too polluted. If there were limits on driving I bet there would be less air pollution.

Main ideas: _____

Your response: _____

5. Peace is really important. I think everyone should do as much as they can to work towards peace. That's why I go on a peace walk every year.

Main ideas: _____

Your response: _____

6. I don't think parents should tell their kids when to go to bed. How do they know if their kids are tired? Kids should be allowed to decide for themselves when to go to bed.

Main ideas: _____

Your response: _____

- When you have finished, evaluate your work:

- Working with a member of your group, tell each other what you like about each of your responses.
Use your knowledge of clarification to make suggestions if you think improvements could be made.
Discuss each others work critically but with respect.
Try to listen to what each other has to say so that you both feel "heard".

Task Twelve

Responding Using Empathy

I can hardly believe it !
I got 98% on my
Math test !



Look at what the barber
did to my hair !
How can I go to school
looking like this ?



Work with a friend. Look at the cartoons above.

Talking:

Using your knowledge of empathy:

*What could you say to Amber that would tell her that you understood what she is feeling ?

*What could you say to Nigel that would tell him that you understood what he is feeling ?

Discuss your ideas.

Writing:

*Now working alone, write a response to Amber that would show her that you have understood what she is feeling.

*Write a response to Nigel that would show him that you have understood what he is feeling.

Talking:

*Evaluating your work:

Working with a friend, tell each other what you like about each of your responses.

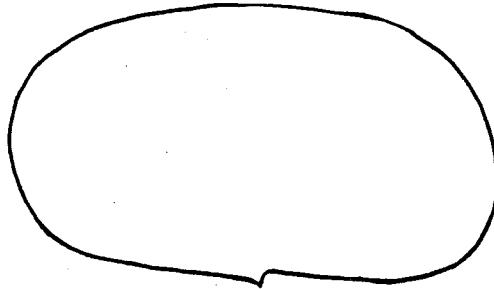
Use your knowledge of empathy to make suggestions if you think improvements could be made.

Discuss each other's work critically but with respect.

Try to listen to what each has to say so that you both feel "heard".

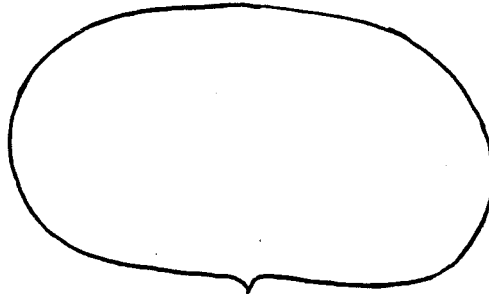
Your Response: .

I can hardly believe it !
I got 98% on my
Math test !



Your Response:

Look at what the barber
did to my hair !
How can I go to school
looking like this ?



Task Thirteen

Writing *Working alone, write a response to each of the statements on the following pages. Use your knowledge of empathy.

Remember...

to respond using empathy:

First - listen nonjudgmentally

Second - decide what the main feelings are

Third - decide what the main ideas are

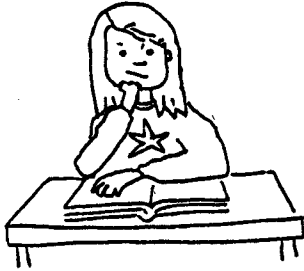
Fourth - put the feelings and the main ideas together to make a response.

Talking *Evaluating your work:
Working with a friend, tell each other what you like about each of your responses.
Use your knowledge of empathy to make suggestions if you think improvements could be made.

Discuss each other's work critically but with respect.
Try to listen to what each other has to say so that you both feel heard.

Your Response

I'm so behind in Math
I don't know
what to do. I work
as hard as I can but I
just keep getting further
behind!



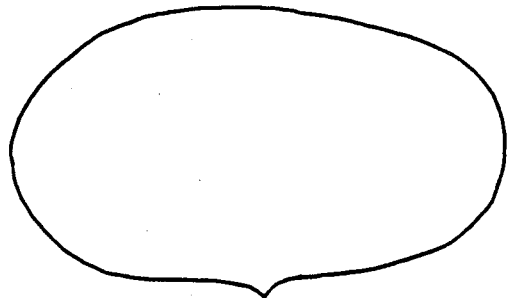
Your Response

My piano examinations
are just two weeks away.
I'm so nervous... what if
I make a mistake... My
teacher would never
forgive me.



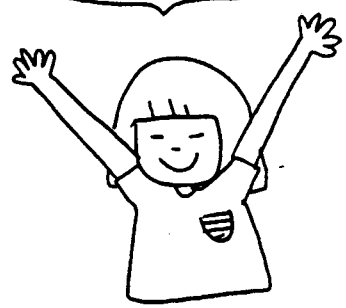
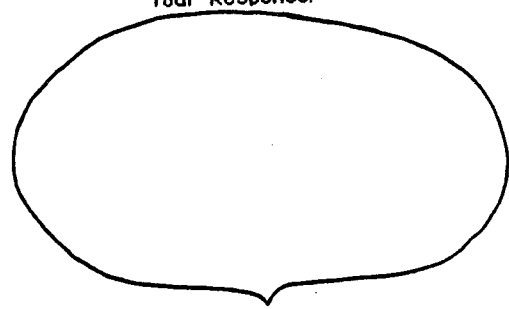
Your Response:

I can't believe it -
my family is moving again.
I feel as though I just
settled in here and now
we're moving again. I
can't handle another move.



Your Response:

Yahool
I made the track
team! All of my hard
work paid off!



Task Thirteen and a Half

Here's your chance to put your empathy skills to work. This is a role playing exercise.

- * You will be taking turns being the "talker" and the "empathic listener". Decide who will be first to be the "talker". You will need two FEELING cards for this task - Card A and Card B.
- * "Talker": Choose either Card A or Card B.
Your job is to act out each "feeling" statement.
- * "Empathic Listener": Your job is to really listen to your friend.
"Empathic Listener": Use your knowledge of empathy to do your best to show him or her that you understand his or her feelings.
- * When you are both ready:
"Talker": Share one of the feeling statements
"Empathic Listener": Do your very best to respond using your empathy skills.

After you have responded take time to evaluate the response:

- Did the "empathic listeners" response contain the main ideas and feelings?
- Did the "talker" feel understood?
- What was good about the response?
- What could be done to improve the response?

Repeat this process with each of the statements.

SHARE ... RESPOND ... EVALUATE

- * When you have finished, switch roles and repeat the process using the second card.

Writing: *Work alone.

- * Complete "Using Empathy".

Using Empathy

What happened when you used empathy?

How did it feel when you used empathy?

What happened when your partner used empathy when you were sharing your feelings?

How did it feel when your partner responded with empathy when you were sharing your feelings?

Does listening to one another's feelings and using empathy help people to get along?

Task Thirteen and Three Quarters

- * Once again, this is a role playing exercise. This time you will be sharing your own feeling statements. You will also be tape recording the role play.

Begin by writing three feeling statements . Each statement should be two to four sentences long. Try to write something that you feel comfortable sharing.

- * When you have both finished writing your feeling statements, decide who will be first to be the "talker" and who will be first to be the "empathic listener".
- * When you are ready - turn on the tape recorder.

"Talker": Share your ideas statements, one at a time.

"Empathic

Listener": Do your very best to respond using your empathy skills.

- * When you are finished, replay the tape. Listen to the first response. Working together, decide whether or not the response is an empathic response.
 - If you think the response could be improved, talk about it.
- * Continue listening to the tape, talking about each response.
- * Switch roles and repeat the exercise.

Writing: Complete the page titled "My Empathy Skills".

My Empathy Skills

Were you able to keep an open mind? _____

If not, what happened?

Were you able to understand the main ideas and feelings?

If not, what happened?

When it comes to empathy I'm good at ...

I'm not so good at ...

One way to improve my empathy skills would be ...

Task Fourteen

Show Your Stuff

Here's your chance to show your empathy skills.

*Once again, this is a roleplaying exercise. This time you will be tape recording your roleplay. You will be taking turns being the "talker" and the "empathic listener". Decide who will be first to be the "talker".

*"Talker": Your job is to talk for at least two minutes. Try and think of a topic which you feel comfortable talking about. Pick a topic which lets you talk about your feelings. You could talk about:
an embarrassing moment...
something that makes you feel angry...
a time you felt really good...

*"Empathic Listener": Your job is to really listen to your friend. Use your knowledge of empathy to do your best to show him or her that you understand his or her feelings.

*When you are both ready - turn on the tape recorder.

"Talker": Share your story, piece by piece. Spend at least two minutes doing this.

"Empathic Listener": Do your very best to reflect the feelings that your friend is sharing.

*When you are finished, replay the tape. Listen to the first response. Working together, decide whether or not the response was an empathic response.

- If you think the response could be improved, talk about it.

*Continue listening to the tape, talking about each response.

*Switch roles and repeat the exercise.

Writing:

*Work alone.

Complete the page titled "My Empathy Skills".



My Empathy Skills

*When it comes to empathy, I am good at...

*I am not so good at...

*One way to improve my empathy skills would be...

Task Fifteen

Reflection

Here's a chance for you to reflect on some of the things that you have learnt in this chapter.

Work with a friend.

Talking: *How effective do you find empathic listening as a way of communicating?

*Have you been able to use your empathy skills outside of this class?
What effect did it have?

*How does it feel to use empathic responses?

*How does it feel to listen nonjudgmentally ?

*What effect does listen to one another's feelings have on how people get along?

Discuss your ideas.

Writing: *Working alone, write about it.

Student Checklist

	Read "Introduction"	<input type="checkbox"/>
Task One:	Discussed "When Someone Doesn't Listen"	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Completed "How it Feels When Someone Doesn't Listen"	<input type="checkbox"/>
Task Two:	Discussed "When Someone Doesn't Understand"	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Completed "Feeling Misunderstood"	<input type="checkbox"/>
Task Three:	Discussed "When Judging Interferes With Listening"	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Completed "Being Nonjudgmental"	<input type="checkbox"/>
Task Four:	Discussed "When it is Difficult to Listen"	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Completed "Some Reasons Why People Don't Listen" Cartoon	<input type="checkbox"/>
Task Five:	Completed Roleplay "Listening" -as Listener	<input type="checkbox"/>
	-as Talker	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Completed "How to Show That You Are Listening"	<input type="checkbox"/>
Task Six:	Discussed "Feelings"	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Completed "Feeling Words"	<input type="checkbox"/>
Task Seven:	Discussed "Recognizing Feelings"	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Completed "I Feel..."	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Discussed feeling statements	<input type="checkbox"/>
Task Eight:	Discussed "Facts About Feelings"	<input type="checkbox"/>
Task Nine:	Read "Empathy"	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Completed "More Sensitive / Less Sensitive"	<input type="checkbox"/>
Task Ten:	Completed "Responding Using Empathy"	<input type="checkbox"/>

- | | | |
|-----------------------|--|--------------------------|
| Task Eleven: | Completed "Responding Using Empathy"
Completed Evaluation. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Task Twelve: | Completed "Responding Using Empathy"
Completed Evaluation | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | Attended "Introduction to Roleplaying" | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Task Thirteen: | Completed Roleplay "Empathy"
-as Empathic Listener
-as Talker
Completed "When Someone Really Listens" | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Task Fourteen: | Completed Roleplay "Show Your Stuff"
-as Empathic Listener
-as Talker
Completed "My Empathy Skills" | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Task Fifteen: | Discussed "Reflecting on Empathy"
Completed "Empathy" | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Listening to Friends
and Sharing Ideas

The activities in this chapter will help you develop your abilities to:

- show that you are listening.
- listen non-judgementally.
- respond thoughtfully to another person's ideas using a communication skill called **CLARIFYING**.

Listening and understanding can help people to get along with one another.

There are 7 tasks in this chapter. You will be able to work on these tasks on your own or with a friend at your own pace.

You should try to complete one task in each class.

There will be an opportunity at the end of each class to share your work and your ideas if you want to.

You can hand in your folder at the end of each class for feedback.

Try to participate in these activities to the very best of your ability. Help yourself to grow in your abilities to listen and understand -- so that you may learn more about getting along with others.



Task One

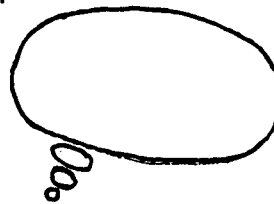
CLARIFYING is a communication skill which can help us respond to someone else's ideas in a thoughtful way.

It can help us understand what they are saying.

*The first step of clarifying is to listen nonjudgementally to what the other person is saying.

You will have to use all that you have learnt about listening and being nonjudgemental when you clarify.

I don't understand why we have to study history. What's past is past. I'd rather study the future. It's more important to me.



*The second step of clarifying is to decide what the main ideas are

I don't understand why we have to study the past. What's past is past. I'd rather study the future. That's more important to me.



-history is past.
-rather study the future.



*The third step of clarifying is to formulate a response which contains the main idea

I don't understand why we have to study history. What's past is past. I'd rather study the future. It's more important to me.



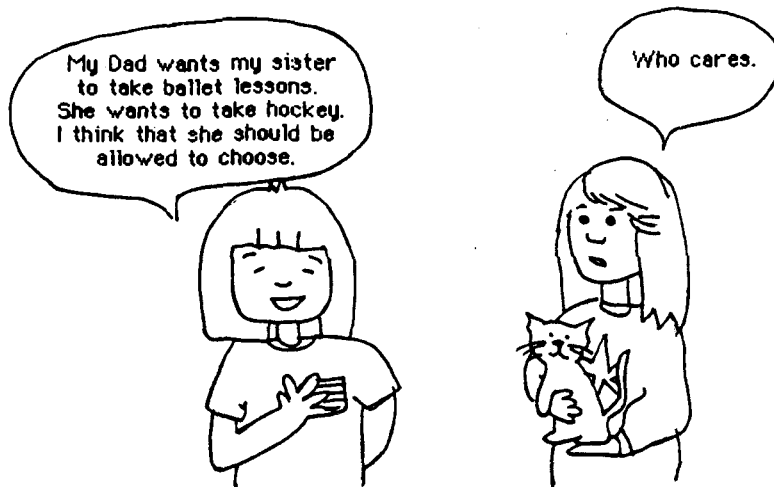
You'd much rather study the future than the past.



* As you can see Monique's response is reflective. That is it reflects back the main ideas that Jessie has expressed.

It is thoughtful. Monique's response shows that she has thought about what Jessie has said.

Monique is trying to understand what Jessie has said.



Work with a friend. Look at the cartoon above.

Talking: *In your opinion, what **feelings** are being expressed by Myra?

What is there about Monique's response that is hurtful to Myra?

Discuss your ideas.

*Using your knowledge of clarifying:

Talk about what Monique could have said to Myra that would be more thoughtful and caring?

Why do you think those responses would be more thoughtful and caring?

Discuss your ideas.

Talking and Writing:

*Now, working with a friend, look at the following list of responses.

Don't be stupid.

Your Dad knows best.

You think your sister should make her own decision.

Your sister likes hockey? I don't.

I think your sister should take hockey.

Kid's should be allowed to make their own choices.

My Dad wants me to take ballet too.

*Talk together and decide if the responses are **MORE THOUGHTFUL** or **LESS THOUGHTFUL**.

*Make a list of the more thoughtful responses and a list of the less thoughtful responses.

Task Two

In this activity you will have the opportunity to practice your clarifying skills.

Remember when you are making a clarifying response

First: Keep an open mind.



Main Ideas

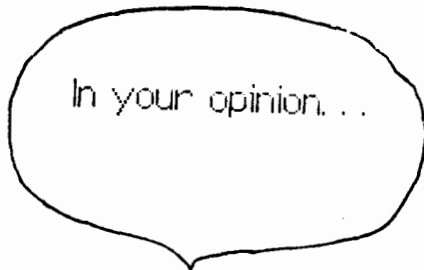
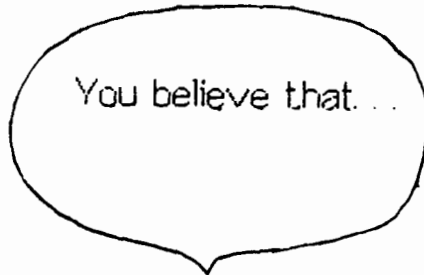
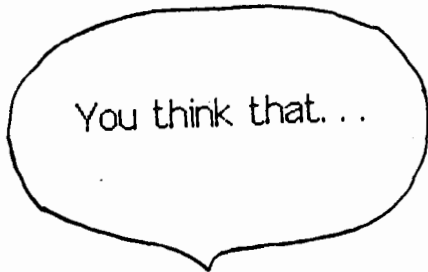
Second: Decide what the main ideas are.



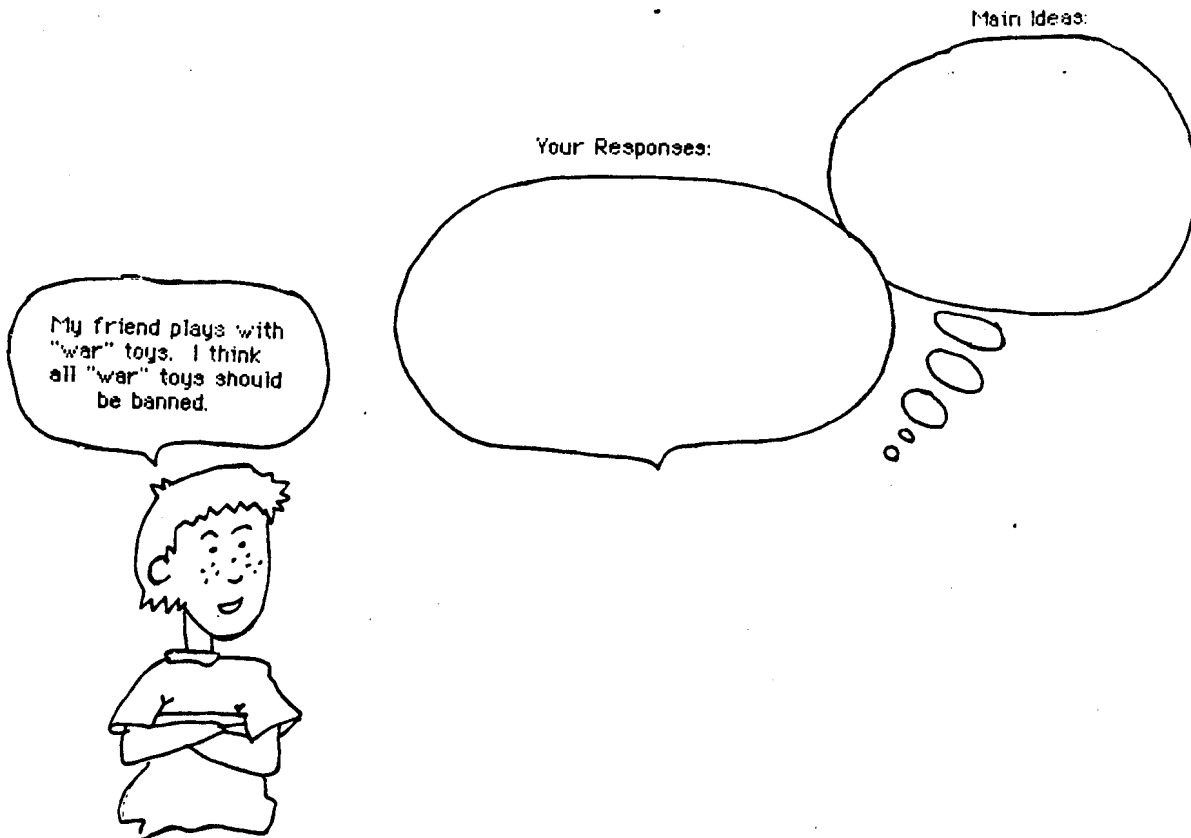
Third: Make a response which contains the main ideas.



*When you are practicing clarifying you might want to start your responses by saying:



Work with a friend. Look at the cartoon below.



Talking:

Using your knowledge of clarifying:

*Think about what Nigel is saying.

What are the main ideas that Nigel is expressing?

Discuss your ideas.

Record your ideas in the space provided.

*What could you say to Nigel that would tell him that you understand what he is saying.

Discuss your ideas.

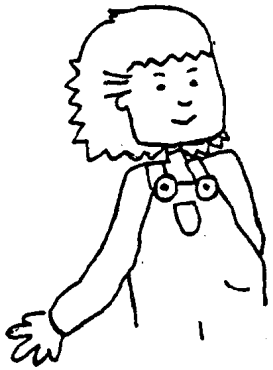
Record your response in the space provided.

Repeat the same process for each of the following:

My Mom says that my sister has to wait until she's 16 before she can date. I don't think that's fair.

Your Response:

Main Ideas:



If girls can play on boys' ice hockey teams I think boys should play on girls' grass hockey teams.

Your Response:

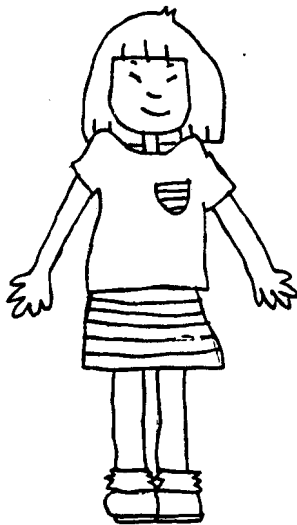
Main Ideas:



Main Ideas.

Your Response:

My teacher says that if someone from another country came to our class we should try and be friends. I agree, but that's not easy if you don't speak the same language.



Task Three

PRACTICING CLARIFYING

*Working alone, write a clarifying response to each of the following statements. Try to remember to keep an open mind. Begin by recording the main ideas. Then put the main ideas into a clarifying response.

1. In Social Studies we've been learning about people from other countries. I think that there are a lot of exciting places to travel. It would be interesting to meet other kids from all over the world.

Main ideas _____

Your response _____

2. I think kids should be free to spend their allowance however they like. After all, once a parent gives the money to the child the money becomes the child's.

Main ideas _____

Your response _____

3. I don't think teachers should be allowed to give kids homework. We spend enough time in school doing our work. We should be able to do what we want afterschool and not do homework.

Main ideas _____

Your response _____

4. I think that there should be limits on how much people can drive. Cars cause air pollution and our area is getting too polluted. If there were limits on driving I bet there would be less air pollution.

Main ideas _____

Your response _____

5. Peace is really important. I think everyone should do as much as they can to work towards peace. That's why I go on a peace walk every year.

Main ideas _____

Your response _____

6. I don't think parents should tell their kids when to go to bed. How do they know if their kids are tired? Kids should be allowed to decide for themselves when to go to bed.

Main ideas _____

Your response _____

*When you have finished, evaluate your work:

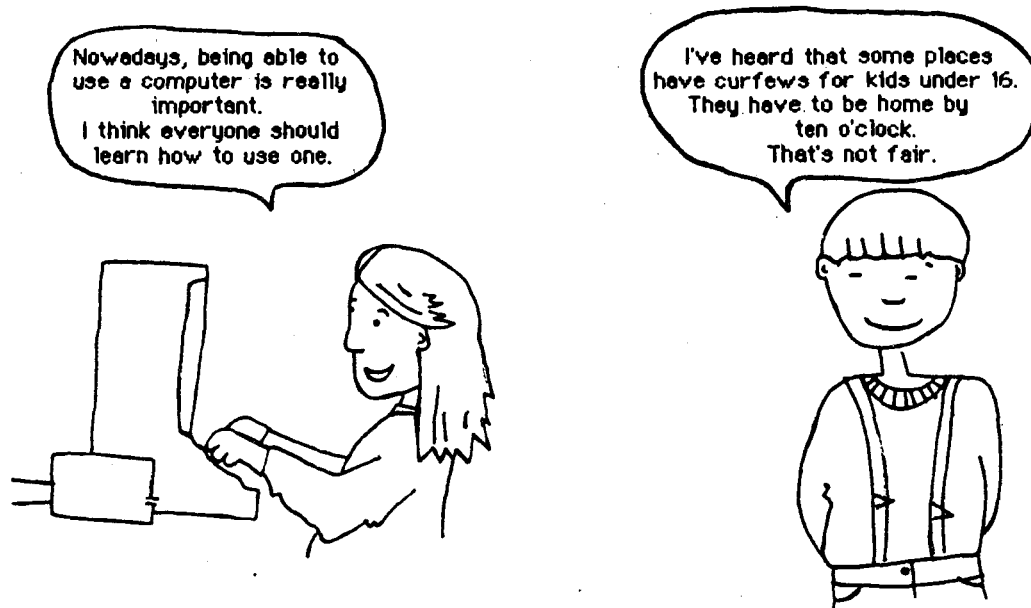
Working with a friend, tell each other what you like about each of your responses.

Use your knowledge of clarifying to make suggestions if you think improvements could be made.

Discuss each others work critically but with respect.

Try to listen to what each other has to say so that you both feel "heard".

Task Four



Work with a friend. Look at the cartoons above.

Talking: Using your knowledge of clarifying:
*What could you say to Amber that would tell her that you understood what she is saying?

*What could you say to Jessie that would tell him that you understood what he is saying?

Discuss your ideas.

Writing: *Now working alone, write a response to Amber that would show her that you have understood what she is saying.

*Write a response to Jessie that would show him that you have understood what he is saying.

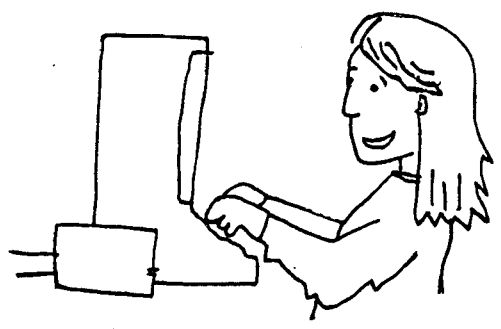
Talking: *Evaluating your work:
Working with a friend, tell each other what you like about each of your responses.

Use your knowledge of clarifying to make suggestions if you think improvements could be made.

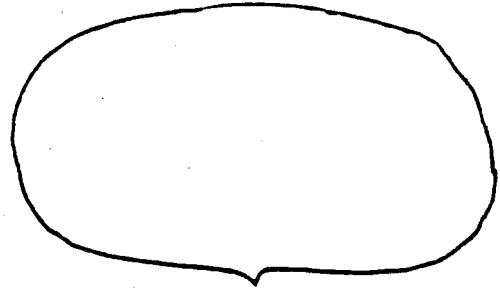
Discuss each others work critically but with respect.

Try to listen to what each has to say so that you both feel "heard".

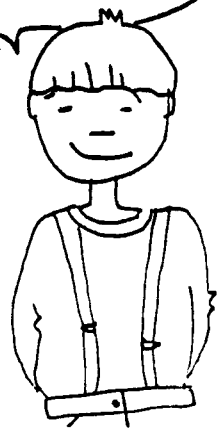
Nowadays, being able to use a computer is really important. I think everyone should learn how to use one.



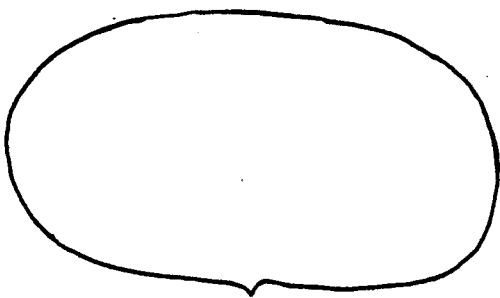
Your Response:



I've heard that some places have curfews for kids under 16. They have to be home by ten o'clock. That's not fair.



Your Response:



Task Five

Here's your chance to put your clarifying skills to work.

*This is a role playing exercise. You will be taking turns being the "talker" and the "clarifier". Decide who will be first to be the "talker". You will need two IDEAS cards for this task - Card A and Card B.

*"Talker": Choose either Card A or Card B.
Your job is to act out each "ideas" statement.

*"Clarifier": Your job is to really listen to your friend.
Use your knowledge of clarifying to do your best to show him or her that you understand his or her ideas.

* When you are both ready:

"Talker": Share one of the ideas statements.

"Clarifier": Do your very best to respond using your clarifying skills.

After you have responded take time to evaluate the response:

Did the "clarifier's" response contain the main ideas?

Did the "talker" feel understood?

What was good about the response?

What could be done to improve the response?

Repeat this process with each of the statements.

SHARE... RESPOND... EVALUATE

*When you have finished, switch roles and repeat the process using the second card.

Writing: *Work alone.

Complete the page titled "Using Clarifying".

Using Clarifying

What happened when you used clarifying responses?

How did it feel when you used clarifying responses?

What happened when your partner used clarifying responses when you were sharing your ideas?

How did it feel when your partner responded with clarifying when you were sharing your ideas?

Does listening to one another's ideas and using clarifying help people to get along?

*When you have both finished writing your ideas statements, decide who will be first to be the "talker" and who will be first to be the "clarifier".

*When you are ready - turn on the tape recorder.

"Talker": Share your ideas statements, one at a time.

"Clarifier": Do your very best to respond using your clarifying skills.

*When you are finished, replay the tape. Listen to the first response. Working together, decide whether or not the response is a clarifying response.

-If you think the response could be improved, talk about it.

*Continue listening to the tape, talking about each response.

*Switch roles and repeat the exercise.

*Work alone.

Complete the page titled "My Clarifying Skills".

My Clarifying Skills

How many responses did you make? _____

How many of these were clarifying responses? _____

Were you able to keep an open mind? _____

If not, what happened?

Were you able to understand the main ideas? _____

If not what happened?

When it comes to clarifying, I'm good at. . .

I'm not so good at. . .

One way to improve my clarifying skills would be. . .

Task Seven

Here's your chance to show your clarifying skills

*Once again, this is a roleplaying exercise. This time you will be tape recording your roleplay. You will be taking turns being the "talker" and the "clarifier". Decide who will be first to be the "talker".

*"Talker": Your job is to talk for at least two minutes. Try and think of a topic which you feel comfortable talking about. You could talk about:
something that you think is unfair...
your views on a new movie...
your thoughts on...

*"Clarifier": Your job is to really listen to your friend. Use your knowledge of clarifying to do your best to show him or her that you understand his or her ideas.

*When you are both ready—turn on the tape recorder.

"Talker": Share your story, piece by piece. Spend at least two minutes doing this.

"Clarifier": Do your very best to reflect the ideas that your friend is sharing.

*When you are finished, replay the tape. Listen to the first response. Working together, decide whether or not the response was a clarifying response.

- If you think the response could be improved, talk about it.

*Continue listening to the tape, talking about each response.

*Switch roles and repeat the exercise.

Writing: *Work alone.
Complete the page titled "My Clarifying Skills".



My Clarifying Skills

*When it comes to clarifying, I am good at...

*I am not so good at...

*One way to improve my clarifying skills would be...

Task Eight

Reflection

Here's a chance for you to reflect on some of the things that you have learnt in this chapter.

Work with a friend.

Talking: *How effective do you find clarifying as a way of communicating?

*Have you been able to use your clarifying skills outside of this class?
What effect did it have?

*How does it feel to use clarifying responses?

*How does it feel to listen nonjudgementally?

*Does listening to one another's ideas help people to get along?

Discuss your ideas.

Writing: *Working alone, write about it.

Additional Teaching Materials

Card A
Feelings

1. What a total drag. I have to spend the whole weekend helping my Mom and Dad clean up the yard.
2. Yesterday, when I went to my piano lesson, my teacher gave me a new book. He said that I'm ready for more difficult music. That made me feel really good.
3. All right! I got an "A" on my science project. I even did better than that smart kid Marion. Wait 'till I tell my folks.
4. My best friend and I got in trouble in gym yesterday. She says that it is my fault and won't talk to me anymore. I feel terrible.
5. My older brother and my Dad are always doing things together. They never ask me to join in. If I talk to my Dad about it he just jokes around and says, "We do things together. Quit being a baby."

Card B
Feelings

1. I try as hard as I can but I just don't seem to be able to get all of my work done in class. And then I have to stay after school to finish. I guess I'm just slow.
2. I've got a picture of my new baby sister with me. She's really neat. Want to see? I just love having a sister!
3. My Mom is working again today so no one is going to be home when I get home from school. I hate having to go in to an empty house. It makes me feel scared.
4. My older brother is so weird. He started wearing this weird hat. Everyone looks at him as if he's strange. It's embarrassing to be with him.
5. I feel overwhelmed. My Dad wants me to take guitar lessons, my Mom wants me to go to gymnastics, and my teacher wants me to join orchestra. How can I ever fit it all in?

Card A
IDEAS

1. When I'm a parent I'm going to let my kids listen to whatever music they want. I think kids should be allowed to make their own choices.
2. My Mom says that I can only watch one hour of T.V. a day. That's not fair. My friend gets to watch as much T.V. as he wants.
3. I think everyone in a family should have certain chores to do. That way the work gets shared evenly.
4. If I saw a friend stealing something I wouldn't tell anyone. I wouldn't want to get a friend in trouble.
5. If I had twenty four hours to live I'd want to be with all the people I love most. Being with people who I care about is really important to me.

CARD B
IDEAS

1. We are working in groups in Social Studies right now. I don't like it. I'd rather work alone. It seems like we are always having to wait for the slow people to catch up.
2. My Dad is always bugging me to clean up my room. Its my room. I should be able to keep it how I like it.
3. I don't think its right that some people have more money than others. I think that everyone should share all the money in the world. That would be fair.
4. I don't think we should let any more people come into our country. There aren't enough jobs to go around as it is. We have enough people here already.
5. I don't understand why we all have to study French at school. My family is Spanish and I'd rather learn how to speak Spanish than French.

Roleplay: Empathy

A I've had it. I just can't keep up with everything.

B You feel exhausted.

A I sure do. Yesterday I had my piano lesson, today there is choir practice after school, tomorrow I have soccer and I have all of this homework to do.

B It seems as though you feel overwhelmed by all of the things that you have to do.

A Yeah. Its like I try my best to keep up but I just can't. It makes me feel like giving up and quitting.

B You wish you could just give up.

A Yeah. No more piano, no more choir, no more soccer and no more homework.

B You feel like quitting everything.

A I sure do. But I also like doing all of those things. If I quit I'd miss them. Maybe if I take things one step at a time I'll be able to keep up.

B It doesn't feel so bad now. You feel as though you can cope if you take things one step at a time.

Roleplay: Empathy

A My Mom is going away on business again. She's always working. It seems like I never see her anymore.

B You really miss your Mom when she's away.

A Yeah, I do. Its bad enough when she works long hours but now she has to go away on these trips and sometimes she's even gone on the weekends.

B You feel pretty down about your Mom being away on weekends as well.

A Its this stupid new job of hers. She never had to go away when she had her old job. Sure she'd work alot, but we'd still get time together on weekends.

B Before you'd still see her, but now it seems like she's always busy and that hurts.

A It sure does. And it makes me angry to. She could say to her boss, "No. I won't go." but instead she says to me, "Sorry, we can't go out again this weekend."

B That really bugs you when she says that she won't be around.

A Yeah. Its like work is more important than me.

B Its like you don't count so much.

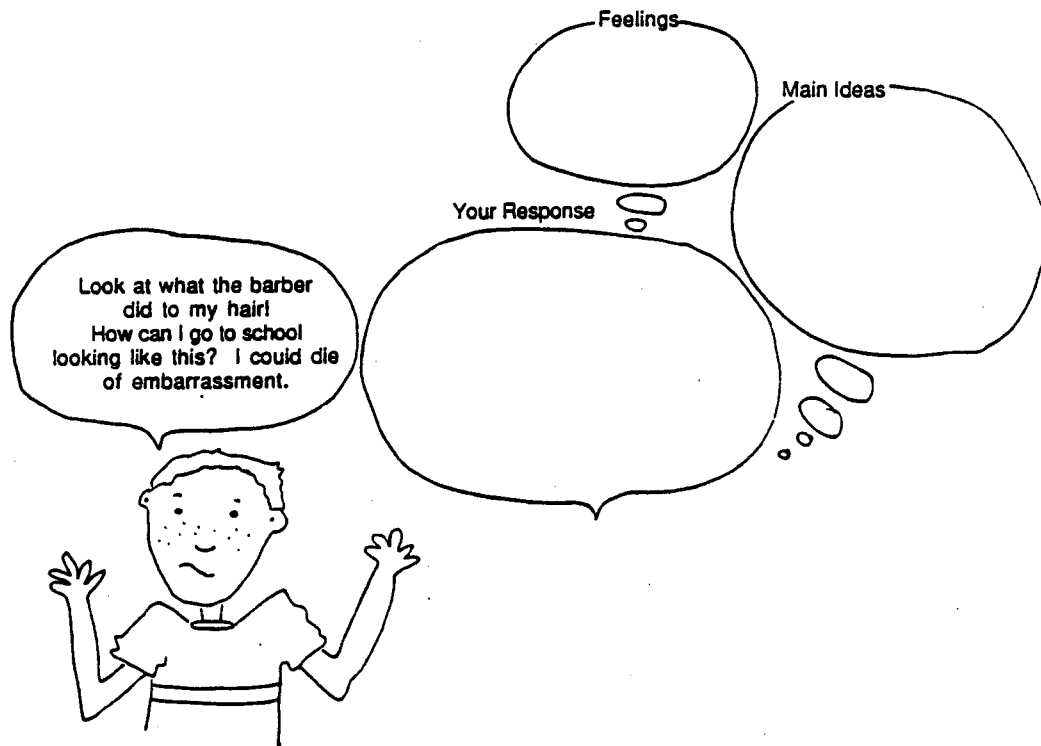
A Yeah, it does feel that way - but you know I still count alot. She really does care about me. She says she has to go away on these trips. Its part of her job. And this new job means alot to her.

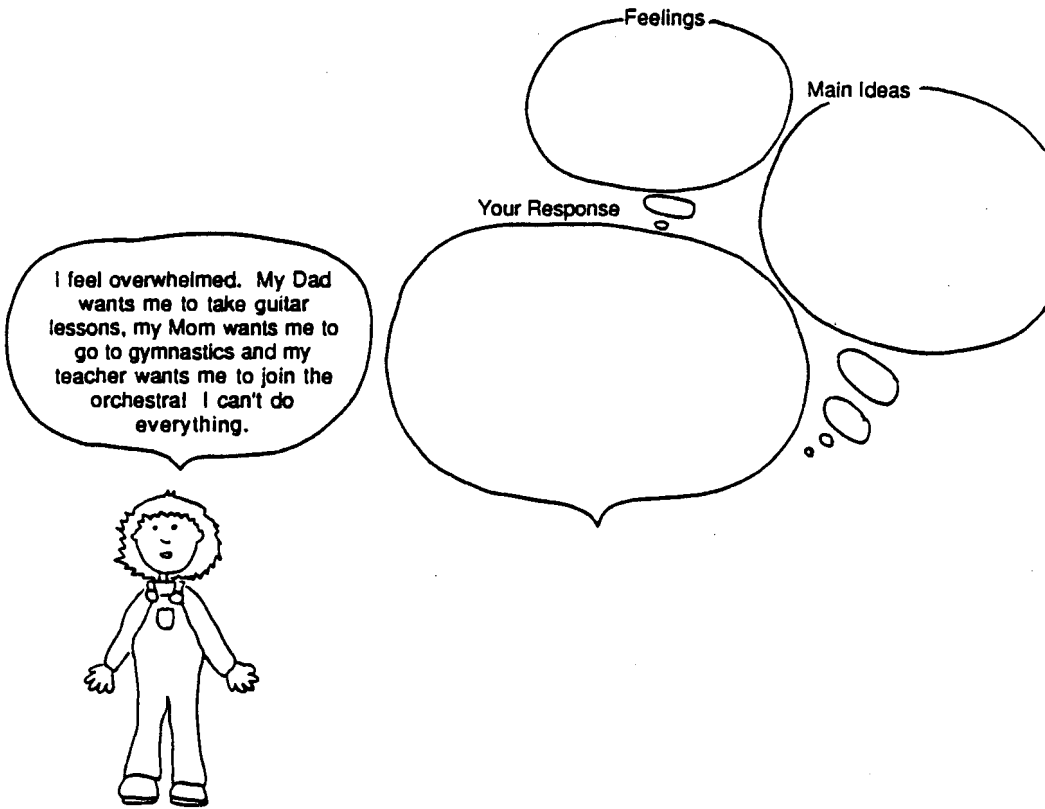
Roleplay: Clarification

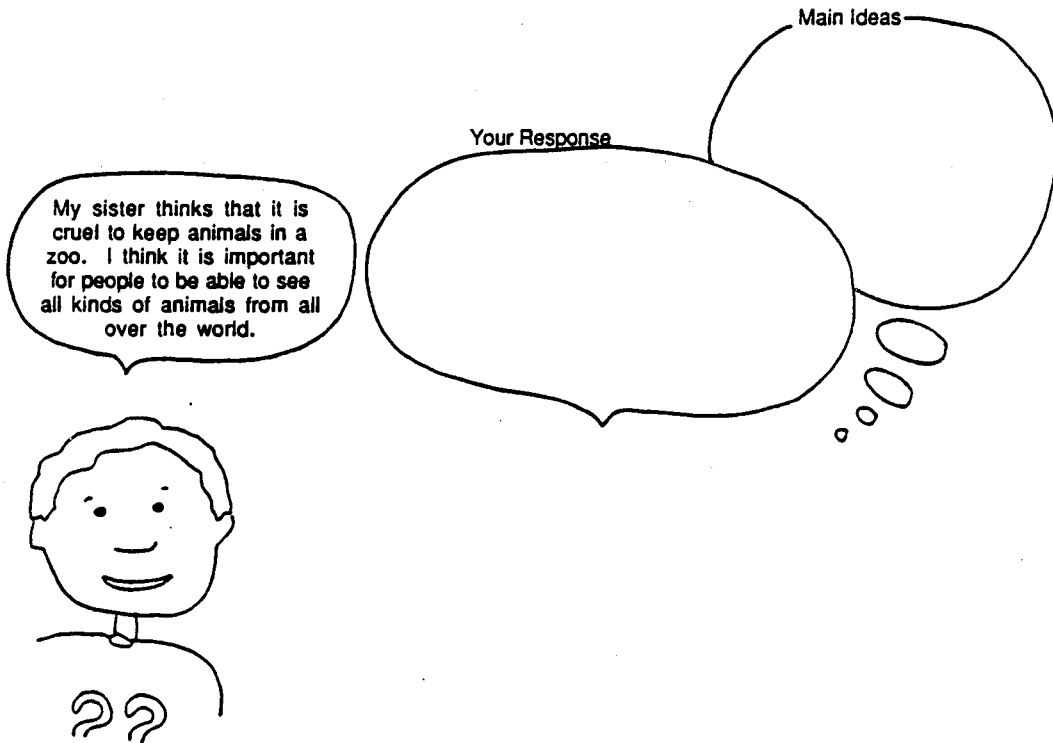
- A I think its unfair that my parents decide what I can and can not watch on T.V..
- B You think that you should be able to decide.
- A Yeah. They let my older brother watch whatever he wants even if it is gory or scary. But I'm only allowed to watch "nice" programs that they choose.
- B It seems even more unfair when your brother gets to watch whatever he wants.
- A I know that I'm younger than him but that doesn't mean that I can't make wise choices about what I watch.
- B You could make your own choices.
- A Yeah...If only my parents would give me a chance. What is really unfair is that they haven't even given me a chance to show themthat I can be responsible about my own T.V. watching.
- B They don't even give you a chance to show them that you can make choices for yourself.

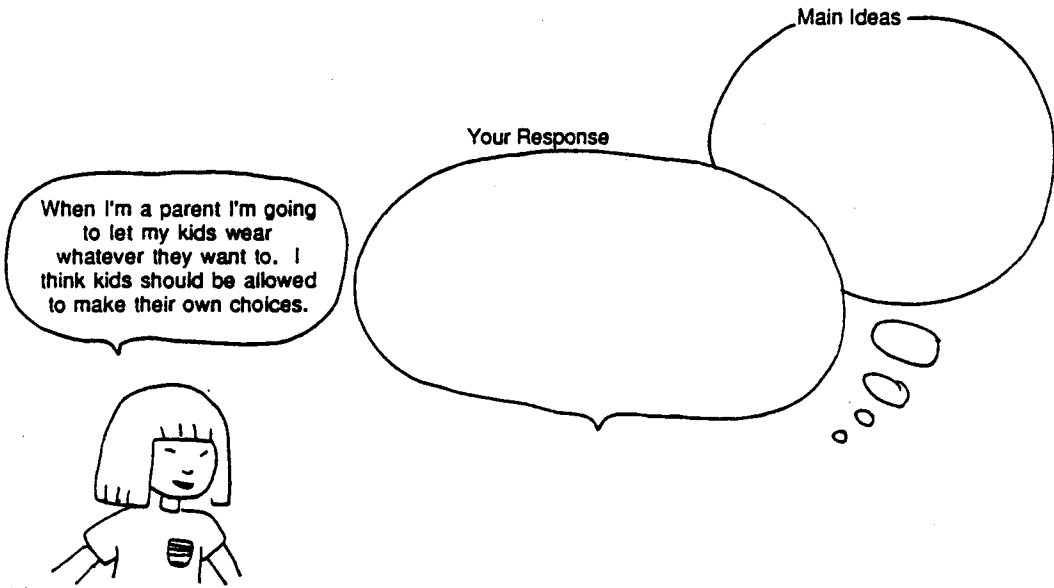
Roleplay: Clarification

- A My Dad always pays my sister for mowing the lawn. I don't think that that is fair. He doesn't pay me for any of the chores that I do.
- B It doesn't seem right that she should get money when you don't.
- A My Dad says that my pay for doing my chores is my allowance, but my sister gets an allowance too.
- B Getting your allowance doesn't make things equal.
- A No, it sure doesn't. I know mowing the lawn takes a long time. Longer than any of the other chores. So in some ways I can understand why she gets paid extra for doing it.
- B It sort of seems fair.
- A Yeah, I guess it does. Maybe there is something that I can do to make some extra money too. Like washing the car. That takes a long time and its not one of my regular chores. I think I'll talk to my Dad about that.









APPENDIX D

**Communication Skills Indexes:
Empathy
Clarification**

3. I think that it's wrong for people to steal no matter what the circumstances are. If someone gets caught stealing they should go to jail.

4. Whenever we pick teams someone ends up being last and that makes them feel bad. I wish my teacher would find some other way of forming teams.

5. Our social studies teacher says that everyone all over the world is basically the same. I think that we are all different - each and every one of us.

6. Schools are behind the times. For instance, I don't know why we have to practice our Math skills at school. I have a calculator that can do those questions better and faster than I can.

APPENDIX E

Rating Scales For Communication Skills Indexes:

**Empathy
Clarification**

Rating Scales For Communication Skills Indexes
Empathy Responses*

LEVEL 1: NOT HELPFUL: HURTFUL

Ignores what the other person is saying.	Ignores feelings
Ridicules the other person's feelings.	-critical
Imposes his/her beliefs or values on the other person in a way that denies.	-shifts from or denies reality.
Dominates the conversation	
Challenges the accuracy of the other person's feelings.	
Critical.	

LEVEL 2: NOT HELPFUL: INEFFECTIVE

Partial awareness of the other person's surface feelings.	Partial Awareness
Responds in a casual or mechanical way.	-disallows ideas
Rationales withholding involvement.	-moralizes
Ask questions to gather more data.	-advises
	-questions
	-tells how he/she feels

LEVEL 3: HELPFUL: FACILITATIVE

Reflects accurately and completely the surface feelings and communicates acceptance of the other as a person of worth.	Communicates understanding of what was said
Response is interchangeable with the other person's statement.	Reflects surface feelings

LEVEL 4: HELPFUL: ADDITIVE

Demonstrates a willingness to be a friend, and accurately understands and responds to the underlying feelings.	Adds new meaning
Goes beyond a level 3 response and suggests underlying feelings as well as adding new content.	

* based closely on the global rating scale developed by Carkhuff (1985) and two modified versions of this scale developed by McAllister (1978).

DIRECTIONS:

Higher scores reflect higher skill levels. A level 3.0 is considered to be a "good" empathy response. Score each response and then average scores to get an overall score of empathic communication skills.

When the initial sentence is a level 3.0, but the following sentence reduces to a level 2.0 (advice, questions) the score is 2.5.

When the initial response is 1.0 and subsequent sentences are a level 2.0, rate the response as 1.0.

Level 2.0 followed by a 1.0 tends to be a 1.0.

Scale for Rating Clarifying Responses

LEVEL 1: NOT HELPFUL: HURTFUL

Ignores what the other person is saying.	Ignores thoughts/ ideas
Ridicules the other person's thoughts/ideas.	-critical
Imposes his/her beliefs or values on the other person in a way that denies.	-shifts from or denies reality.
Dominates the conversation	
Challenges the accuracy of the other person's	ideas.
Critical.	

LEVEL 2: NOT HELPFUL: INEFFECTIVE

Partial awareness of the other person's surface ideas.	Partial Awareness
Responds in a casual or mechanical way.	-disallows ideas
Rationales withholding involvement.	-moralizes
Ask questions to gather more data.	-advises
	-questions
	-tells how he/she thinks

LEVEL 3: HELPFUL: FACILITATIVE

Reflects accurately and completely the surface thoughts/ ideas and communicates acceptance of the other as a person of worth.	Communicates understanding of what was said
Response is interchangeable with the other person's statement.	Reflects surface content

LEVEL 4: HELPFUL: ADDITIVE

Demonstrates a willingness to be a friend, and accurately understands and responds to the underlying thoughts/ ideas.	Adds new meaning
Goes beyond a level 3 response and suggests underlying thoughts/ ideas as well as adding new content.	

* based on the global rating scale developed by Carkhuff (1985) and two modified versions of this scale developed by McAllister (1978).

DIRECTIONS:

Higher scores reflect higher skill levels. A level 3.0 is considered to be a "good" clarifying response. Score each response and then average scores to get an overall score of clarifying skills.

When the initial sentence is a level 3.0, but the following sentence reduces to a level 2.0 (advice, questions) the score is 2.5.

When the initial response is 1.0 and subsequent sentences are a level 2.0, rate the response as 1.0.

Level 2.0 followed by a 1.0 tends to be a 1.0.

APPENDIX F

Student Evaluation

Listening to Friends
and Sharing Ideas and Feelings

Student Evaluation

The purpose of this evaluation is to give you an opportunity to think about your work and progress in this class.

THIS IS NOT A TEST

Please rate each of the following. Keep this scale in mind.

- 1-Poor
- 2-Satisfactory
- 3-Good
- 4-Very good
- 5-Excellent

The quality of:

your written work	1	2	3	4	5
your discussions with your group	1	2	3	4	5
your evaluations of your skills	1	2	3	4	5
your role playing and tape recording	1	2	3	4	5
your ability to listen	1	2	3	4	5
your understanding of clarifying	1	2	3	4	5
your ability to use clarifying	1	2	3	4	5
your understanding of empathy	1	2	3	4	5
your ability to use empathy	1	2	3	4	5
your effort in this class	1	2	3	4	5
Overall how would you rate your work in this class?	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX G
Curriculum Evaluation

Listening to Friends
and Sharing Ideas and Feelings

Curriculum Evaluation

The purpose of this evaluation is to find out how you feel about this program.

THIS IS NOT A TEST

As your honesty is important

this evaluation is anonymous. Please do not put your name on this paper.

Please read each statement, Circle the response which shows how you feel about each statement. Please keep this scale in mind.

SA - Strongly Agree
A - Agree
? - Unsure
D - Disagree
SD - Strongly Disagree

This class has helped me to know myself better.

SA A ? D SD

This class has helped me to understand others better.

SA A ? D SD

This class has helped me to be a better listener.

SA A ? D SD

This class has helped me to communicate better with my friends and family.

SA A ? D SD

This class has helped make school a better place to be.

SA A ? D SD

Comments

Please complete the following statements.

The most important thing that I learnt in this class was . . .

My favorite activity in the first section was . . .

because . . .

My favorite activity in the second section was . . .

because . . .

I find that these communication skills are _____ because . . .
(helpful/ not helpful)

I think kids _____ learn about empathy and clarifying because.
(should/ should not)

I found giving other students feedback on their communication skills . . .

I found the feedback I got from other students and the teacher. . .

I found working in co-operative learning groups. . .

I found the large group discussion. . .

If I was the teacher and could change anything about the program
I'd. . .

One thing I wouldn't change would be. . .

Other comments. . .

APPENDIX H

**Curriculum Evaluation:
Summary of Written Responses**

Curriculum Evaluation
Summary of Written Comments*

TOTAL
(% of responses)

The most important thing that I learnt in this class was. . .

to listen to one another (6)	
to listen nonjudgmentally (2)	
to listen to the other person first (1)	
to listen closely to other people's comments, suggestions, ideas etc. (1)	45.5%
empathy (1) and clarifying (3)	
clarifying (1)	18.2%
to understand each other (2)	
to understand others and be able to help them (1)	13.6%
to get along with each other (1)	
to get along better with family and friends (1)	9.1%
to talk properly (1)	4.5%
to share (1)	4.5%

Total responses	n=22
No response	n=7

*Similar written responses have been grouped together.

(#) indicates the number of students making each response or portion of the response.

For example,

empathy (1) and clarifying (3)

indicates that one student reported "empathy" and three students reported "empathy and clarifying".

TOTAL
(% of responses)

**My favorite activity in the first book was...
because....**

tape recording (roleplaying)	
it was neat listening to myself (2)	
I can hear what I said (1)	
it was fun (3) and normally we don't use recorders in school (1)	
you got to know your partner better and what they were like (1)	
role playing	
it helped me to understand what I could do to help my skills in empathy (1)	
it helped me say things better (1)	37.0%
empathy	
it was more interesting (1)	
it helped me to understand people's problems (1)	
it was fun (1)	
I like to give responses (1)	
it was easy for me (1)	18.5%
drawing the cartoon	
I like to draw (3)	11.1%
listening	
it was fun and easy to do (2)	7.4%
being nonjudgmental	
its fun and easy (1)	
it started well (1)	7.4%
the first task	
you were getting introduced to your new subject (1)	3.7%
filling in the cartoons	
it helped me to use the skills that I learnt (1)	3.7%
the writing activities	
it made me feel comfortable working on that. I felt uncomfortable talking. (1)	3.7%
answering questions	
I like answering questions and helping people (1)	3.7%
working on the feeling word chart	
I was good at it (1)	3.7%

Total responses n=27
No response n=2

TOTAL
(% of responses)

**My favorite activity in the second book was...
because...**

tape recording (role playing) (1)	
it was neat listening to myself (1)	
you can say what is true in your life (1)	
fun and easy to do (1)	
role playing	
it helped me with my clarifying skills (1)	
you could say what you felt (1)	
video recording (role playing) (1)	
helped me to learn how I could improve (1)	
then I could see things I do wrong with empathy or clarifying (1)	45.0%
clarifying	
it was fun (1)	
it was neat (1)	
I understand it (1)	
I like it more than empathy (1)	20.0%
the cartoons that you fill in	
lots of fun (1)	
it made me feel a little happier (1)	10.0%
making responses	
I like listening to what people have to say (1)	5.0%
making chart words	
I was good at it (1)	5.0%
task 7 (reflection)	
it was easy and I knew what I was doing (1)	5.0%
"In your opinion..."	
I didn't need to think of what to say in the beginning(1)	5.0%
the writing activities	
it made me feel comfortable working on that. I felt uncomfortable talking. (1)	5.0%

Total responses n=20
No response n=9

TOTAL
(% of responses)

I find that these communication skills are _____ because...
(helpful/ not helpful)

helpful

it helps you to understand others (5) feelings (1)
it helps you to understand yourself better (1)
it helps me (1)
you learn (3) more (1)
learn something new (1)
when someone needs comforting you can help (1)
you know what to say to someone who expressed their feelings (1)
it helps solve problems (1)
it is easier to communicate (1)
you can have friends (1)
helps you get along (1)
you get to know people better (1)
it helped to work on responding (1)
it is easier (1)
I knew some of this already (1) 93.0%

not helpful

I don't use them (1)
repeating what the other person says is dumb (1) 7.0%

Total responses n=27
No response n=2

TOTAL
(% of responses)

I found giving other students feedback about their communication skills...

(POSITIVE) (73.1%)

- would help them learn more (1)
- helpful to make the next time they wrote something better (1)
- helped them understand if they are doing the right thing (1)
- helpful - they found out what they were doing wrong (1)
- helped them (1) on what they are doing wrong (1) 23.1%
- made me feel helpful (1) 3.8%
- easy since I learned empathy and clarifying (1) 3.8%
- good because we don't fight as much (1) 3.8%
- very interesting (1), O.K. (1), neat (1), better (1), good (3), fun (3)

(NEGATIVE) (15.3%)

- hard (1) 3.8%
- dumb (1) 3.8%
- boring (1) 3.8%
- was funny - like you were the teacher (1) 3.8%

(NEUTRAL)

- ? (3) 11.5%

Total responses n=26
No response n=3

TOTAL
(% of responses)

I found the feedback that I got from the other students and the teacher...

(POSITIVE) (76.0%)		
helped me to realize that my responses were not as dumb as I thought (1)		
helped my to improve my work (1)		
made me feel someone is assuring me and telling me I'm making progress or how I can improve (1)		
helpful (1) - I found out what I was doing wrong and how to improve it (1)		
helps me alot than just me working alone (1)		
helped me to learn what to say for all different problems (1)		
neat because they told me what I did wrong (1)	32.0%	
made me feel good to know they cared (1)		
it made me feel better (1)		8.0%
told me someone was listening to me (1)		4.0%
were really telling me something I have to do again (1)		4.0%
students' were good but the teacher's were great (1)		4.0%
were better than the first time (1)		4.0%
fun (1), O.K. (2), good (2)		
(NEGATIVE) (8.0%)		
stupid (1)		4.0%
boring (1)		4.0%
(NEUTRAL)		
? (4)		16.0%
	Total responses	n=25
	No response	n=4

TOTAL
(% of responses)

I found working in small groups...

(POSITIVE) (89.3%)	
better than working in big groups (6) easier than large groups (3)	32.1%
easy (1) if you needed help you got it (1) easy because it was easier to talk to the person (1)	10.7%
good because you share your feelings with someone (1) good because we share our ideas and that helped improve it (1)	7.1%
better than alone (1)	3.6%
helps me learn more (1)	3.6%
you get more chance at participating (1)	3.6%
great - I like it cause you can just work and feel good (1)	3.6%
interesting (1), quiet and peaceful (1), helpful (2), fun (3)	
(NEGATIVE) (10.7%)	
weird(1)	3.6%
hard (1)	3.6%
less helpful (1)	3.6%

Total responses n=28
No response n=1

TOTAL
(% of responses)

I found working in large discussion groups...

(POSITIVE) (57.1%)

great because I learnt alot and heard their stories (1)	
good because I know how other people feel(1)	
good because we got to talk about clarifying together and found out how others felt about it(1)	
fun to share your feelings(1)	14.3%
helped to learn (1) alot of things like clarifying, empathy and understanding(1)	7.1%
neat cause more answers(1)	3.6%
was good too (1)	3.6%
better than a small group (1)	3.6%
O.K. (1), interesting (1), exciting (1), very good (1), easy (1), helpful (2)	

(NEGATIVE) (42.9%)

harder than small group (2)	
worse than a small group (1)	10.7%
hard (1) I couldn't think of anything to say (1)	7.1%
bad!! Because they were boring. They also made the class feel restless (1)	3.6%
kind of confusing (1)	3.6%
stupid (1), too noisy (1), boring (1), no good (2)	

Total responses	n=28
No response	n=1

TOTAL
(% of responses)

If I was the teacher and could change anything about the program, I'd....

change nothing (9)	33.3%
get the children to work quietly (1)	
be more strict so that the kids would listen better (1)	
let them do what they want to do (1)	
make every kid learn (1)	14.8%
longer period (2)	
make it longer (1)	11.1%
(change) empathy (1)	3.7%
supply more tape recording (1)	3.7%
use more videotaping (1)	3.7%
take more work off instead of piling it on (1)	3.7%
make it in a different format (1)	3.7%
make it more interesting (1)	3.7%
make games out of the work (1)	3.7%
change class meetings (1)	3.7%
put some other kinds of questions not involving empathy and clarifying (1)	3.7%
? (1)	3.7%

Total responses	n=27
No response	n=2

TOTAL
(% of responses)

One thing I wouldn't change would be...

nothing (8)	30.8%
tape recording (5)	19.2%
book working (2)	7.8%
the teacher (2)	7.8%
the pictures (2)	7.8%
the tasks (1)	3.8%
video recording (1)	3.8%
keep the groups (1)	3.8%
responding (1)	3.8%
the discussion group (1)	3.8%
peacefulness (1)	3.8%
communicating (1)	3.8%

Total responses n=26
No response n=3

Other comments...

"This class was very important to people. It helped you to understand how others feel and how people feel about you."

"I liked this social studies activity alot. It helped me to get along with my family and friends better."

"I wish we did this socials project all year round."

"Empathy and clarifying were alot of fun to learn about because they helped me to improve my skills."

"I think this class was better than [what we normally do]."

"You're a nice teacher and we are gonna miss you."

"This class was the greatest."

"I will miss the program. It taught us something new."

"I like doing [the program] alot."

"I don't like this school."

"You are a great teacher. Your class helped me alot."

"I'll miss you."

"The program was the greatest."

"I think empathy is easier than clarifying because I had it longer."

"I found this socials project fun and good to learn about. I'm very glad you made this project up. It is very good and fun. But after a while, I found that I was getting behind and [found] things building up on me. Otherwise I loved it."

"I learned alot about communication and understanding people's feelings. I would like to say thank you for teaching us empathy and clarifying."

APPENDIX I

Relation of Empathy to Prosocial Behavior

Table I*

Relation of Self Reports to Picture/Story Measures of Empathy
to Prosocial Behavior

<u>Study</u>	<u>Age, N</u>	<u>Measure of Empathy</u>	<u>Measure of Prosocial Behavior</u>		
Cohen (1974)	Pand 62 girls, 36 boys, 36 girls & boys 72	Affect Matching	Teacher rating of consideration for others		-
					+
					+
Eisenberg & Lemon (1980)	P, 51	Modified FASTE verbal report	Observational indices -spontaneous behavior	r=-.29	-
			-requested behavior	r=+.11	+
		nonverbal report	-spontaneous behavior	r=-.41	-
			requested behavior	r=+.25	+
Fay (1970)	6-8, girls 30	FASTE	Sharing with unknown recipient	r=+.04	+
			Sharing with peer	r=-.05	-
	6-8, boys 30		Sharing with unknown recipient	r=+.09	+
			Sharing with peer	r=-.02	-
Feshbach (1982)	63-4, 100	Affect matching	Teacher and peer ratings of prosocial behavior Helping	r=+.27	+ 0
Howard (1983)	P, 35 boys girls	Affect matching	Observation of helping (high.low)		+ +
			Observation of comforting	ns	0
Iannotti (1975; Eisenberg & Miller, 1987)	Kand 63 boys 60	Emotional matching Situational matching (incongruent stimuli)	Sharing candy	-.45	-
				+.14	+
Iannotti (1985)	P, 52	Emotional matching (incongruent stimuli)	Observation measure	+.20	+
			Helping lab task	+.19	+
			Sharing lab task	+.02	+
			Teacher ratings	ns	0
Iannotti & Pierrehumbert, (1985; Eisenberg & Miller, 1987)	2 year olds (retested at age 5 for empathy),44	Emotional matching Situational matching (incongruent stimuli)	Observation in peer play at age 2	-.08	-
				-.02	-
Kameya (1976; Hoffman, 1982)	P, boys 109	FASTE	Picking up paperclips	ns	0
			Candy donation	ns	0
			Volunteering to color for sick children	ns	0

* Excerpted from Table I in Eisenberg & Miller (1987)

Knudson & Kagan (1982)	P & 62, 88	Affecting matching	Knight and Kagan Social Behavior Scale	ns	0
Kuchenbecker (1976)	4-5 & 7-8	FASTE	Sharing with peer	-.27	-
Lennon, Eisenberg & Carroll (1986)	P, 35	FASTE	Helping	-.10	-
			Private donations	-.03	-
			Public donations	-.17	-
Levine & Hoffman (1975)	P, 32	FASTE	Observational measure of cooperation	ns	0
			game measure of cooperation	ns	0
Marcus, Telleen & Roke (1979)	P, 32	FASTE	Observational indice of cooperation	ns	0
			Teacher & observer rating of cooperation		+
Miller (1980)	64 girls, 27 boys, 39	Affective matching	Donating candy	+0.38	+
				-.10	-
Panofsky (1976)	62,96	Affective matching	Helping		-
			Sharing		+
Sawin (1976; Eisenberg & Miller (1987)	61, girls, 50	FASTE	Donating	+0.19	+
	63, girls, 50		Teaching rating	ns	0
	61, boys, 32		Donating	-.26	-
	63, boys, 33		Teaching rating	+0.41	+
			Donating	+0.28	+
			Teaching rating	ns	0
			Donating	-.16	-
			Teacher rating	ns	+
Staub & Feinberg (1980; Eisenberg & Miller, 1987)	63 & 4 girls, 26 boys, 20	Affective matching	Observational indices		
			Helping	ns	0
			Requested sharing	ns	0
			Spontaneous sharing	-.38	-
			Helping	ns	0
			Requested sharing	-.63	-
			Spontaneous sharing	ns	0

Prosocial Behavior

Table II*

Relation of Self Report Indices of Empathy to Prosocial
Behavior in Simulation Experiments

<u>Study</u>	<u>Age.N</u>	<u>Measure of Empathy</u>	<u>Measure of Prosocial Behavior</u>		
Breham, Powell & Coke (1984)	61,67	Report of negative affect	Donating money to a poor child	ns	0
Peraino & Sawin (1981; Eisenberg & Miller, 1987)	61, girls, 58	Nonverbal report of affect	Sharing a toy	r=+.24	+
			Putting away toys for peer	ns	0
			Latency to calling for help for peer being bullied	ns	0
Zahn-Waxler et al (1982)	P, K, G1, 62,65 C6,60	Report of sympathy in reaction to a crying baby	Helping a crying baby	ns	0

* Excerpted from Table III in Eisenberg and Miller (1987)

Prosocial Behavior

Table III*

Relation of Questionnaire Indices of Empathy and Prosocial Behavior

<u>Study</u>	<u>Age,N</u>	<u>Measure of Empathy</u>	<u>Measure of Prosocial Behavior</u>		
Barnett & Thompson (1985)	64-5, 116	Bryant Scale (high/low empathy)	Teaching rating of helpfulness when		
			-a peer is in obvious need	ns	0
			-a peer is in subtle need	sig	+
Eisenberg, Pasternack & Lennon (1984; Eisenberg & Miller 1987)	62, 14	Bryant Scale	Helping adult pick up paper clips and toys	r=+.19	+
			Donating money to needy children	r=+.46	+
	64,34		Helping adult pick up paper clips and toys	r=+.24	+
			Donating money to needy children	r=+.15	+
Eisenberg-Berg & Mussen (1978)	69, 611 & 612 girls 37 boys 35	Mehrabian and Epstein	Volunteering to help the experimenter with a boring task	r=-.02	-
				r=+.40	+
Reed (1981)	13-18 yrs. boys JD, 52	Modified Mehrabian and Epstein	Helping to score questionnaires		
			-number scored	r=+.21	+
			-accuracy of scoring	r=+.14	+
Reichman (1982)	65-6, 85	Modified Mehrabian and Epstein	Peer and teacher rating of altruism, anonymous donating behavior		+
Rothenberg (1984)	G6, girls 88	Bryant Scale	Helping hospitalized children at cost to oneself	sig r	+
Strayer & Roberts (1984; Strayer 1983)	6-8, 33	Bryant Scale	Parental ratings	+.32	+
			Teacher ratings	ns	0
Sturtevant (1985)	G406, 161	Bryant Scale	Helping behavior donating behavior		0 +

* Excerpted from Table II in Eisenberg & Miller (1987)

REFERENCES

- Applegate, J. L. & Delia, J. G. (1980). Person-centered speech, psychological development, and the context of language usage. In R. St. Clair and H. Giles (Eds.), The social and psychological contexts of language. (pp. 245-282). Hillsdale, N. J.: Erlbaum.
- Applegate, J. L. (1980). Construct system and abstractness and person-centered communication among daycare teachers of differing social class: A naturalistic case study. In N. K. Denzin (Ed.), Studies in symbolic interaction. Vol. 3. (pp. 189-207). Greenwich, Conn.: JAI Press.
- Ashton-Warner, S. (1963). Teacher. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Aspy, D. N. & Roebuck, F. (1982). Affective education: Sound investment. Journal of Educational Leadership, 39, 488-493.
- Aspy, D. N. & Roebuck, F. (1984). Productivity in education. In D. N. Aspy, C. B. Aspy & F. N. Roebuck (Eds.) The third century in American education: Education in the age of productivity (pp. 91-98). Amherst, Mass.: Human Resource Development Press.
- Aspy, D. N. (1975). Empathy: Let's get the hell on with it. The Counseling Psychologist, 5, 10-14.
- Avery, A. W., Rider, K., & Haynes-Clements, N. (1981). Communication skills training for adolescents: A five month follow-up. Adolescence, 16, 289-298.
- Backlund, P. M. (1985). Essential speaking and listening skills for elementary school students. Communication Education, 34, 290-302.
- Barnett, M. A. & Thompson, S. (1985). The role of perspective taking and empathy in children's machiavellianism, prosocial behavior, and motive for helping. The Journal of Genetic Psychology, 146 (30), 295-305.
- Barnett, M. A. (1984). Perspective taking and empathy in the child's prosocial behavior. In H. E. Sypher & J. L. Applegate (Eds.) Communication by children and adults (pp. 43-69). Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications.
- Bessell, H. & Palomares, V. (1969). Methods in human development. San Diego, California: Human Development Training Institute.
- Bessell, H. & Palomares, V. (1970). Methods in human development: Theory manual (Revised). San Diego, California: Human Development Training Institute.
- Borke, H. (1971). Interpersonal perception of young children: Egocentrism or empathy? Developmental Psychology, 5, 263-269.
- Borke, H. (1972). Chandler and Greenspan's "ersatz egocentrism." Developmental Psychology, 7, 9-15.

- Borke, H. (1973). The development of empathy in Chinese and American children between the ages of three and six: A cross-culture study. Developmental Psychology, 9, 102-108.
- Breham, S. S., Powell, L. K., & Coke, J. S. (1984). The effects of empathic instructions upon donating behavior: Sex differences in young children. Sex Roles, 10 (5/6), 405-417.
- Brouwer, W. (1986). A Survey of peace education in the Canadian school system. Peace Research: The Canadian Journal of Peace Studies, 18(2), 25-38.
- Bryant, B. K. (1982). An index of empathy for children and adolescents. Child Development, 53, 413-425.
- Buber, M. (1948). Between man and man. New York: Macmillan.
- Burleson, B. R. (1982). The development of comforting communication skills in children and adolescents. Child Development, 53, 1578-1588.
- Burleson, B. R. (1984). Comforting Communication. In H. E. Sypher & J. L. Applegate (Eds.) Communication by children and adults (pp. 63-105). Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications.
- Carkhuff, R. R. (1971). The development of human resources. N.Y.: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Carkhuff, R. R. (1982). Affective education in the age of productivity. Journal of Educational Leadership, 39, 484-487. ✓
- Carkhuff, R. R. (1983). The art of helping. Amherst, Mass: Human Resources Development Press. ET
- Carkhuff, R. R. (1985). Helping and human relations: A primer for lay and professional helpers. Volume I: Selection and training. Amherst, M.A.: Human Relations Development Press.
- Carkhuff, R. R. (1987). The art of helping IV. Amherst, Mass: Human Resource Development Press.
- Carson, T. & Parsons, J. (1985). Peace education and the social studies. In J. Parsons, G. Milburn & M. Van Manen (Eds.), A Canadian Social Studies (pp. 268-283). Edmonton, Alberta: University of Alberta Press.
- Chad, G. (1971). Social characteristics of early adolescents. In J. Kagan and R. Coles (Eds.) Twelve to sixteen: Early adolescence (pp. 25-44). New York: W. W. Norton.
- Chandler, M. J. & Greenspan, S. (1972). Ersatz egocentrism: A reply to H. Borke. Developmental Psychology, 7, 104-106.

- Cohen, E. C. (1974). Empathy, awareness of interpersonal responsibility and consideration of others in young children. (Doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University). Dissertation Abstracts International (University Microfilms No. 74-13,879).
- Combs, A. W. (1982). Affective education or none at all. Educational Leadership, 495-497.
- Cooper, S., Munger, R., & Raulin, M.M. (1980). Mental health prevention through affective education in the schools. Journal of Prevention, 1, 24-34.
- Cox, R. D. & Gunn, W. B. (1980). Interpersonal skills in the schools: Assessment and curriculum development. In D. P. Rathjen & J. P. Foreyt (Eds.), Social competence: Interventions for children and adults. Willowdale, On.: Pergamon Press.
- Cummings, E. M., Zahn-Waxler, C., & Radke-Yarrow, M. (1981). Young children's responses to expressions of anger and affection by others in the family. Child Development, 52, 1274-1282.
- Delia, J. G. & Clark, R. A. (1977). Cognitive complexity, social perception and the development of listener-adapted communication in six, eight, ten and twelve year old boys. Communication Monographs, 44, 326-345.
- Deutsch, F. & Madle, R. A. (1975). Empathy: Historic and current conceptualizations, measurement, and a cognitive theoretical perspective. Human Development, 18, 267-287.
- Dorman, G., Lipsitz, J., & Verner, P. (1985). Improving schools for young adolescents. Educational Leadership, 44-49.
- Eisenberg, N. & Lennon, R. (1983). Sex differences in empathy and related capacities. Psychological Bulletin, 94, 100-131.
- Eisenberg, N. & Miller, P. A. (1987). The relation of empathy to prosocial and related behaviors. Psychological Bulletin, 101 (1), 91-119.
- Eisenberg, N., Pasternack, J. F., & Lennon, R. (1984). Prosocial development in middle childhood. Paper presented at the biennial meeting of the Southwestern Society for Research in Human Development, Denver, CO.
- Eisenberg-Berg, N. & Mussen, P. (1978). Empathy and moral development in adolescence. Developmental Psychology, 14, 185-186.
- Eisenberg-Berg, N., & Lennon, R. (1980). Altruism and the assessment of empathy in the pre-school years. Child Development, 51, 552-557.
- Elias, M. J. & Malher, C. A. (1983). Social and affective development of children: A programmatic perspective. Exceptional Children, 49, 336-349.
- Elkind, D. (1976). Egocentrism in adolescence. Child Development, 38, 1025-1034.

- Fay, B. (1970). The relationships of cognitive moral judgement, generosity, & empathic behavior in six & eight year old children. (Doctoral Dissertation, University of California). Dissertation Abstracts International, 47 (4), 3951-A. (University Microfilms No. 71-4868)
- Feshbach, N. D. & Feshbach, S. (1969). The relationship between empathy and aggression in two age groups. Developmental Psychology, 1, 102-107.
- Feshbach, N. D. & Roe, K. (1968). Empathy in six and seven year olds. Child Development, 34, 133-145.
- Feshbach, N. D. (1975). The relationship of child-rearing factors to children's aggression, empathy and related positive and negative social behaviors. In J. Dewitt & W.W. Hartup (Eds.), Determinants & origins of aggressive behavior. (pp. 427-436). The Hague: Mouton.
- Feshbach, N. D. (1975a). Empathy in children: Some theoretical and empirical considerations. Counseling Psychologist, 5, 25-30.
- Feshbach, N. D. (1975b). The relationship of child-rearing factors in children's aggression, empathy and related positive and negative social behaviors. In J. Dewitt and W.W. Hartup (Eds.), Determinants and origins of aggressive behavior, (pp. 427-436). The Hague: Mouton.
- Feshbach, N. D. (1978). Studies of empathic behavior in children. In B. Maher (Ed.), Progress in experimental personality research, 8, (pp. 1-47). New York: Academic Press.
- Feshbach, N. D. (1982). Empathy, empathy training and the regulation of aggression in elementary school children. In R. M. Kaplan, V. J. Konecni, & R. Novoco (Eds.), Aggression in children and youth. (pp. 192-208). Sithoff/Noordhoff International Publisher. Alphen den Rijn: The Netherlands.
- Feshbach, N. D. (1982b). Sex differences in empathy and social behavior in children. In N. Eisenberg-Berg (Ed.), The development of prosocial behavior. New York: Academic Press.
- Feshbach, N. D. (1979). Empathy training: A field study in affective education. In S. Feshbach & A. Fraczek (Eds.), Aggression and behavior change: Biological & social processes. New York: Praeger.
- Fry, T. (1986). Communication education and peace education: A beginning. Communication Education, 35(1), 75-80.
- Goldstein, A. P. (1981). Social skills training. In Goldstein, A. P. (Ed.) In response to aggression: Methods of control and prosocial alternatives. (pp.159-218) New York: Pergamon Press.
- Goldstein, A. P., & Michaels, G.Y. (1985). Empathy: Development training and consequences. Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Goodlad, J. (1984). A place called school. New York: McGraw Hill.

Gove, F. L., & Keating, D. P. (1979). Empathic role taking precursors. Developmental Psychology, 15, 594-600.

Griffen, A. H. & Carkhuff, R.R. (1976). Training as the preferred mode of treatment in reducing behavior problems of youth and their families. In R.R. Carkhuff and B.G. Berenson, Teaching as treatment. Amherst, Mass.: Human Resources Development Press. ET

Griffen, A. H. (1984). Educational interventions and human productivity. In D. N. Aspy, C. B. Aspy & F. N. Roebuck (Eds) The third century in American education: Education in the age of productivity (pp. 125-132). Amherst, Mass.: Human Resource Development Press.

Guernsey, Bernard G., Jr. (1977). Relationship enhancement, San Francisco, California: Jossey Bass. ✓ ET

Gulanick, N. & Schmeck, R.R. (1977). Modeling praise and criticism in teaching empathic responding. Counselor Education and Supervision, 16(4) 284-290.

Hamilton, M.L. (1973). Imitative behavior and expressive ability in facial expression of emotion. Developmental Psychology, 8, 138.

Hargraves, S. (1985). The nuclear anxieties of Burnaby youth: A partial replication of the Beardslee/Mach 1982 study. Faculty of Education, Simon Fraser University, Burnaby, B.C.

Harris, P. & Olthof, T. (1982). The child's conception of emotion. In G. Butterworth & P. Light (Eds.), Social cognition and affect. Sussex, England: Harvester Press.

Harter, S., & Alvy, K. T. (1973). The development of listener-adapted communications in grade-school children from different social-class backgrounds. Genetic Psychology Monographs, 87, 33-104.

Harvey, B., Howell, D., & Calthorpe, P. (1985). Canadian adolescents' concerns in the nuclear age: Implications for counsellors and teachers. Canadian Counsellor, 19(2), 53-61.

Hatch, E. J. & Guernsey, B. G. (1975). A pupil relationship enhancement program. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 54, 103-105.

Hater, S. (1982). A cognitive developmental approach to children's understanding of affect and trait labels. In F.C. Serafica (Eds.), Social-cognitive development in context. New York: Guildford Press.

Haynes, L. A. & Avery, A. W. (1979). Training adolescents in self disclosure and empathy skills. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 26(6), 526-530.

Hoffman, M. L. (1976). Empathy, roletaking, guilt, and development of altruistic motives. In T. Lickona (Ed.), Moral development and behavior, (pp. 124-142) New York: Holt Rinehart & Winston.

- Hoffman, M. L. (1977a). Empathy, its development and prosocial implications. In C.B. Keasey (Ed.), Nebraska Symposium On Motivation: Volume 25.(pp.169-218). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.
- Hoffman, M. L. (1977b). Personality and social development. Annual Review of Psychology, 28, 295-321.
- Hoffman, M. L. (1977d). Sex differences in empathy and related behaviors. Psychological Bulletin, 84, 712-722.
- Hoffman, M. L. (1982). Development of prosocial motivation: Empathy and guilt. In N. Eisenberg (Ed.), The development of prosocial behavior, (281-313). New York: Academic Press.
- Hoffman, M. L. (1984). Interaction of affect and cognition in empathy. In C.E. Izard, J. Kagan, & R.B. Zajonc (Eds.), Emotions, cognition, and behavior, (103-131). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Honig, A. S. (1982). Research in review: Prosocial development in children. Young Children, 37,(5), 51-62.
- Howard, J. A. (1983). Preschooler's empathy for specific affects and their social interaction. (Doctoral Dissertation, Kansas State University). Dissertation Abstracts International, 44 (12), 3954-B. (University Microfilms No. DA8407675).
- Howard, J. A. (1983). Preschoolers' empathy for specific affects and their social interaction. (Doctoral Dissertation, Kansas State University, Manhattan). Dissertation Abstracts International, 44, 3954B.
- Hughes, R., Tingle, B. A. & Sawin, D. B. (1981). Development of empathic understanding in children. Child Development, 52, 122-128.
- Iannotti, R. J. (1975a). The effects of role-taking experiences on role-taking, altruism, empathy, and aggression. Paper presented at the biennial meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development. Denver, Colorado.
- Iannotti, R. J. (1975b). The nature and measurement of empathy in children. Counselling Psychologist, 5, 21-25.
- Iannotti, R. J. (1985). Naturalistic and structured assessments of prosocial behavior in preschool children: The influence of empathy and perspective taking. Developmental Psychology, 21,(1), 46-55.
- Joyce, B.R. (1972). New strategies for social education. Toronto: Science Research Associates.
- Kalmakoff, S. & Shaw, J. (1987). Final report of the school peacemakers education project. Public Education for Peace Society.
- Kim, Y. O., & Stevens, J. M. Jr. (1987). The socialization of prosocial behavior in children. Childhood Education, 2, 200-206.

- Klien, R. (1970). Some factors influencing empathy in six & seven year old children varying in ethnic background. (Doctoral Dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles). Dissertation Abstracts International, 3960-A. (University Microfilms No. 71-3862)
- Knudson, K. H. M., & Kagan, S. (1982). Differential development of empathy and prosocial behavior. Journal of Genetic Psychology, 140, 249-251.
- Kuchenbecker, S. L. (1976). A developmental investigation of children's behavioral, cognitive, and affective responses to empathically stimulating situations. (Doctoral Dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles). Dissertation Abstracts International, 5328-B. (University Microfilms No. 77-8523)
- Kuchenbecker, S., Feshbach, N., & Pletcher, G. (1974). The effects of age, sex and modality upon social comprehension and empathy. San Fransisco: Western Psychological Association.
- Kurtz, R. R. & Grumman, D. C. (1972). Different approaches to the measurement of therapist empathy and their relationship to therapy outcomes. Journal of Consulting & Clinical Psychology, 39,(1), 106-115.
- Kvatochil, D., Carkhuff, R. R. & Berenson, B. G. (1969). Cummulative effects of past and teacher-offered levels of facilitative conditions upon indexes of student physical, emotional and intellectual funtioning. Journal of Educational Research, 63(4), 161-164.
- Lennon, R., Eisenberg, N. C., & Carroll, J. (1986). The relation between nonverbal indices of empathy and preschoolers' prosocial behavior. Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 7, 219-224.
- Leonidas, J. (1976). The adult-child workshop. Chapter 7 in R. Bierman, et al. Toward meeting fundamental human service needs. Guelph, Ontario: Human Service Community Inc. ET
- Levine, L. E. & Hoffman, M. L. (1975). Empathy and co-operation in four year olds. Developmental Psychology, 11, 533-534.
- Lipps, T. (1926). Psychological Studies. Balitmore: Williams & Wilkins.
- MacIntosh, R. (1987). The Canadian peace educators directory. Alberta: Pembina Institute for Appropriate Development. Drayton Valley.
- Manning, M. L. Allen, M. G. (1987). Social development in early adolescence. Childhood Education, 172-176.
- Marcus, R. F. Telleen, S., & Roke, E. J. (1979). Relation between cooperation and empathy in young children. Developmental Psychology, 15, 346-347.
- Martin, G. B. & Clark, R. D. III (1982). Distress crying in neonates: Species and peer specificity. Developmental Psychology, 18(1), 3-9.

- McAllister, H. N. (1978). The implementation and evaluation of a training program in facilitative functioning for pre-service teachers. Masters Thesis. Faculty of Education, Simon Fraser University, Burnaby, B.C.
- McCune, S. (1984). Framing a future for education: Restructuring education for an information society. In D. N. Aspy, C. B. Aspy & F. N. Roebuck (Eds) The third century in american education: Education in the age of productivity (pp. 37-56). Amherst, Mass.: Human Resource Development Press.
- McDougall, W. (1908). Introduction to social psychology. London: Methuen.
- Mead, G. H. (1934). Mind, self and society. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Mehrabian, A. & Epstein, W. A. (1972). A measure of emotional empathy. Journal of Personality, 40(4) 525-543.
- Miller, R. L. (1980). The impact of training upon the level of affective sensitivity (empathy) in fifth & sixth grade students. (Doctoral Dissertation, Michigan State University). Dissertation Abstracts International, 41 (12), 4962-A. (University Microfilms No. 8112124).
- Minuchin, P. P. & Shapiro, E. K. (1983) The school as a context for social development. In P. H. Mussen (Ed.), Handbook of child psychology. (4th Ed.). New York: Wiley.
- Mussen, P. H. & Eisenberg-Berg, N. (1977). Caring, sharing and helping. San Fransisco: W. H. Freedman.
- Newberg, N. A. & Loue, W. E. (1982). Affective education addresses the basics. Educational Leadership, 498-500.
- Pancer, S. M. & Weinstein, S. M. (1987). The development of affective skills in school age children. Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 8, 165-181.
- Panofsky, A. D. (1976). The effect of similarity?dissimilarity of race and personal interests on empathy and altruism in second graders (Doctoral Dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles). Dissertation Abstracts International, 37, 200-A.
- Parker, K.R., Goldberg, S., MacDonald, B., & Rigby, J. (1986). Canadian children's concerns about their future. Departments of Family Medicine and Pediatrics, McMaster University, Hamilton, Ontario.
- Petrovsky, A.V. (1986). Education for peace in the USSR. Prospects, 16(4), 533-536.
- Piaget, J. (1967). Six psychological studies. New York: Random House.
- Piaget, J. (1970). Piaget's theory. In P. H. Mussen (Ed.), Carmichael's Manual of Child Psychology, Vol 1. New York: Columbia University Press.

- Pinnel, C. (1984). Preparing for the future. In D. N. Aspy, C. B. Aspy & F. N. Roebuck (Eds) The third century in American education: Education in the age of productivity (pp. 27-36). Amherst, Mass.: Human Resource Development Press.
- Pitsula, P. (1987). Report on alternate dispute resolution projects. Centre for Education, Law and Society, Simon Fraser University, Burnaby, B.C.
- Prospects (1985). The full text of the Unesco Recommendation on Education for International Understanding, Cooperation and Peace and Education related to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms was published in Prospects, 3 (15), 445-53.
- Raths, L. E. (1971). Social change and values. Impact. (New York State Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development). 7(1), 8-12.
- Raths, L. E., Harmin, M., & Simon, S. B. (1966). Values and teaching. Columbus, Oh.: Charles E. Merrill.
- Raths, L. E., Harmin, M., & Simon, S. B. (1978). Values and teaching. Columbus, Oh.: Merrill.
- Raths, L. E., Wassermann, S., Jonas, A., & Rothstein, A. (1986). Teaching for thinking (2nd ed.). New York: Teachers' College Press.
- Reed, N.H. (1981). Psychopathic delinquency, empathy, and helping behavior. (Doctoral Dissertation, Loyola University of Chicago). Dissertation Abstracts International, 43 (5), 1626-B.
- Reichman, F. E. (1982). Empathy and trait anxiety in relation to altruism in children. (Doctoral Dissertation, Hofstra University). Dissertation Abstracts International, 43 (5), 1626-B. (University Microfilms No. DA8223889)
- Richards, E. (1986). The Debate About Peace Education. Canadian Institute for International Peace and Security, 10.
- Ritter, E. (1979). Social perspective taking ability, cognitive complexity and listener-adapted communication in early and late adolescence. Communication Monographs, 46, 40-51.
- Rogers, C. R. (1961a). Communication: Its blocking and its facilitation. Centennial Conference on Communications, Northwestern University.
- Rogers, C. R. (1961b). On becoming a person. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Rogers, C. R. (1969). Freedom to learn. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill.
- Rogers, C. R. (1975). Empathic: An unappreciated way of being. Counseling Psychologist, 5, 2-9.
- Rogers, C. R. (1983). Freedom to learn for the eighties. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill.

- Rogers, C. R., & Truax, C. B. (1967). The therapeutic conditions antecedent to change: a theoretical view. In C. R. Rogers, E. T. Gendlin, D.J. Kiesler, C.B. Truax (Eds.), The therapeutic relationship and its impact: A study of psychotherapy with schizophrenics. University of Wisconsin Press. Madison:Wisconsin.
- Rogers, D. L. & Ross, D.D. (1986). Encouraging positive social interaction among young children. Young Children, 41 (3), 12-17.
- Rothenberg, S. H. (1984). Empathy and sacrifice as factors in altruistic helping of sixth grade girls. (Doctoral Dissertation, Hofstra University). Dissertation Abstracts International, 45 (11), 3657-B. (University Microfilms No. DA8428954).
- Rotheram, M. J. (1980). Social skills training programs in elementary and highschool classrooms. In D. P. Rathjen & J. P. Foreyt (Eds.), Social competence: Interventions for children and adults. (pp. 69-109). Willowdale, On.: Pergamon Press.
- Sagi, A., & Hoffman, M. L. (1976). Empathic distress in the newborn. Developmental Psychology, 12(2), 175-176.
- Selman, R. (1975). Level of social perspective taking and the development of empathy in children: Speculation from a social-cognitive viewpoint. Journal of Moral Education, 5, 35-43.
- Selman, R. (1980). The growth of interpersonal understanding. New York: Academic Press.
- Shantz, C. U. (1975a). The development of social cognition. In E. H. Hetherington (Ed.), Review of Child Development Research, 4, 257-323. University of Chicago Press: Chicago.
- Shantz, C. U. (1975b). Empathy in relation to social cognitive development. Counseling Psychologist, 5, 18-21.
- Shantz, C. U. (1983). Social cognition. In P. H. Mussen (Ed.), Handbook of Child Psychology. (4th Ed.). New York: Wiley.
- Simner, M. L. (1987) Newborn's response to the cry of another infant. Developmental Psychology, 5, 136-150.
- Smithers, S. (1978). A developmental reconsideration of empathy. Human Development, 20(6), 1-37.
- Sommers, F. Goldberg, S., Lavinson, D., Ross, C., and Lacombe, S. (1984). Children's mental health and the threat of nuclear war: A Canadian pilot study. Physicians for the Prevention of Nuclear War. Fourth Congress, Finland.
- Spivack, G., Platt, J. J. & Shure, M. B. (1976). The problem solving approach to adjustment. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Sprinthall, N. A., & Erickson, V. L. (1974). Learning psychology by doing psychology: Guidance through the curriculum. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 52(6).

- Staub, E. (1971). The use of role-playing and induction in children's learning of helping and sharing behavior. Child Development, 42, 805-816.
- Staub, E. (1978). The development of positive social behavior and morality. New York: Academic Press.
- Stevenson, S. L. (1985). Interpersonal communication based competency programs: Assessing their effectiveness. (Doctoral Dissertation, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale). Dissertation Abstracts International, 47 (4), 4116-A. (University Microfilms No. DA8610600)
- Strayer, J. (1980). A naturalistic study of empathic behaviors and their relation to affective states and perspective-taking skills in preschool children. Child Development, 51, 815-822.
- Strayer, J. (1985a). Children's affect and empathy in response to T.V. dramas. Paper presented to the American Psychological Association, Los Angeles.
- Strayer, J. (1985b). Current research in affective development. Journal of Children in Contemporary Society, 17(4), 27-55.
- Strayer, J. (1986). Children's attributions regarding the situational determinants of emotion in self and others. Developmental Psychology, 22(5), 649-654.
- Strayer, J. (1987). Empathy and Sympathy in a Social Context. Paper presented at the symposium: Emotions and Relationships, S.R.C.D., Baltimore.
- Sturtevant, A. E. (1985). The relation of empathy, mood, prosocial moral reasoning, and altruism in children. (Doctoral Dissertation, New York University). Dissertation Abstracts International, 46 (8). (University Microfilms No. DA8521994)
- Thornberg, H. (1982). The total early adolescent in contemporary society. The Highschool Journal, 65, 272-278.
- Truax, B.C., & Carkhuff, R.R. (1967). Toward effective counselling and psychotherapy. Chicago: Aldine.
- Underwood, B. E., & Moore, B. (1982). Perspective-taking and altruism. Psychological Bulletin, 91, 143-173.
- Urberg, K.A. & Docherty, E.M. (1976). Development of role-taking skills in young children. Developmental Psychology, 12, 189-203.
- Vogelsong, E. (1978). Relationship enhancement training for children. Elementary School Guidance and Counseling. 272-279. ET ✓
- Walkley, A. M. (1989). Understanding one another: A cooperative learning curriculum for creating a peaceful classroom. Burnaby, B.C.: Public Education for Peace Society.
- Wassermann, S. Interactions I handbook: Promoting student reflection through empathy. Burnaby, B.C.: Simon Fraser University.

- Wassermann, S. (1985). Growing teachers: Is there life after Pac-Man? Childhood Education, 61(5) pp. 331-336.
- Wiggers, M. & Van Lieshout, C. F. M. (1985). Development of recognition of emotions: Children's reliance on situational and facial expressive cues. Developmental Psychology, 21(2), 338-349.
- Wilberg, H. 1981. JPR 1964-1980-What have we learnt about peace? Journal of Peace Research, 18(2).
- Youniss, J. (1975). Another perspective on social cognition. In A. Pich (Ed.) Minnesota Symposium on Child Psychology (Vol. 9). Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.
- Zahn-Waxler, C., & Radke-Yarrow, M. (1982). The development of altruism: Alternative research strategies. In N. Eisenberg, The development of prosocial behavior (pp. 109-137). New York: Academic Press.
- Zahn-Waxler, C., Friedman, S. L., & Cummings, E.M. (1983). Children's emotions and behaviors in response to infant's cries. Child Development, 54, 1522-1528.