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Interpersonal Communication Skills
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DISSERTATION
Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate
School of The Ohio State University

By
Kent Guenther Hamdorf, B.A., M.S.

* * * * *

The Ohio State University
1975

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

The overwhelming goal of any parent is to raise a child who is a self-fulfilled, fully alive, productive, authentic and constructive human being in society. For parents to fulfill this objective and to help a child develop his fullest potential they must be able to communicate with the child, both verbally and nonverbally.

More than at any other time in the parent-child relationship, communication comes to an impasse when the child reaches adolescence. It is during adolescence that the child experiences many physical and psychological changes within himself. It is at this time that he challenges not only his parents, but society's beliefs as well. At this time he may think he is an adult, wants to act like an adult, yet at the same time he wants and needs the security of his parents' love. Davis (1940) in his paper "The Sociology of Parent-Youth Conflict," discussed eleven factors he believed to be related to the problems that American parents have in living with and raising their adolescent. These are: the rate of social change, the decelerating rate of socialization of the parent in contrast to that of the child, a combination of physiological differences
between parent and child, adult realism versus youthful idealism, the nature of parental authority, conflicting norms, competing authorities, poor age grading, concentration within the small family, open competition for socio-economic position, and sex tension. (pp. 523-535) While these were considered to be factors in creating parent-youth conflict in the 1940's, they still can be applied to parent-youth relationships in the 1970's.

Part of a parent's responsibility is to provide for his child the physical needs (food, shelter, and clothing). Without these essentials the child would soon die. A second part of parental responsibility involves providing the adolescent with emotional satisfaction. This task is one of the hardest for the parent to fulfill. LeMasters (1970) states "many parents are quite competent in their jobs and other areas of their lives, yet they feel insecure and inadequate when dealing with the concern regarding emotional satisfaction in raising their children." (p. 1) In his book *The Helping Process*, Carkhuff (1972) points out that:

"You must train for life. You must develop skills in the physical areas to be spontaneous and creative. You must develop skills in the physical areas through physical training programs. You must develop skills in the intellectual areas through intellectual training programs. You must develop skills in the emotional and interpersonal areas through training programs." (p. 165)

If what he says is true, then parents may benefit from training on how to establish positive, growth-producing relationships with their children.
Family communication, or more specifically parent-adolescent interpersonal communication skill, is believed to be one of the major skills that a parent should develop if family interaction is to continue on a positive growth course. However, Bienvenu (1967) states "there are increasing indications that parent-adolescent communication is a significant problem facing the American family." (p. 117) Since parents do influence and help shape their adolescent it would seem important to teach parents certain interpersonal skills in order to close the so-called "communication gap." Satir (1972) feels "it is largely through family communication that a child begins to develop his self-worth, learns about the rules and values of the family and society, and finally learns to relate to and become a part of a society or culture." (p. 3)

Creating a smooth-functioning communication network between parent and youth requires a willingness to work at improving communication and a belief in the dignity of each family member. Bienvenu (1969) in a study on parent-adolescent communication, reports that most teenagers have trouble confiding in their parents. Therefore, it seems appropriate that basic elements of communication must be sharpened in order for effective communication to be established between parents and their adolescent.

Satir (1972) states than an appropriately functioning communication system implies adequate sending and receiving of both verbal and nonverbal messages. This means that every family member needs to be capable of accurately conveying his thoughts, feelings and wishes to the other members, as well as to decipher accurately
the thoughts, feelings, and wishes implied in the messages sent by the others. Bienvenu (1969) defines communication as:

"A process of exchanging feelings and meanings in order to understand one another. It helps one to see problems and differences from another's point of view. Characteristics of good communication include good listening habits, freedom of expression, understanding, and acceptance; criticism, lack of trust and lack of acceptance of the adolescent are characteristics of poor communication." (p. 117)

Many innovations have been made in the search for more effective parent-youth communication. Various types of parent education groups have been formed and programmed units of instruction have been developed on parent-youth communication. Brim (1965) and Buckland (1972) state that to date there has been no consensus as to what constitutes an "excellent" program and there is limited research as to effectiveness of communication programs.

Present Investigation

Reading books, attending educational programs, seeking professional, physical and psychological help are among ways parents can be educated to cope with and understand their adolescent. This investigation was an attempt to examine one way in which parents can be educated to communicate with their adolescent. More specifically it was an attempt to examine a particular type of interpersonal communication skills training program for parents. It was the attempt of this study to examine whether or not changes took place in the perceived level of communication between parent and adolescent.
after parents were trained in certain interpersonal communication skills. Does the perceived level of communication between a parent and adolescent change after completing an interpersonal communication skills training program?

There is a great deal of homespun wisdom, but very little empirical data on the topic of parent-adolescent communication. Only within the past ten years have patterns of family interaction involving parents and their adolescent children become acceptable areas of study for family therapists. (Goldstein, Judd and Rodnick 1967; Haley 1964; Morris and Wynne 1965) Educators have become increasingly interested in parent-adolescent interaction as they relate to school problems. (Myerhoff and Lurson 1965; Skillman 1964) Sociologists and psychologists attempt to link adequacy of communication with social class, sex of child and parent, and self-esteem. (Nye 1951; Psathas 1957; Clay 1968; Block 1937; Liccione 1955; Bienvenu Sr. and McClain 1970) Others have concentrated on certain problem areas of communication. (Farber and Jeanne 1963; Dubbe 1965) There has been little research done, however, on the effect of an interpersonal communication skills training program for parents of adolescents.

Brooks (1951) presented a list of problems that produced conflict between parents and adolescents. The list includes:

1) the relationship with others and one's self;
2) gaining security, status and love;
3) adjusting to home, school and other groups;
4) developing satisfying values, standards and goals;
5) resolving conflicting cultural situations;
6) sex, courtship and marriage.

Although unable to pinpoint specific problems which consistently produced conflict between parents and adolescents, Bath and Lewis (1962) suggested that conflicts may arise from deep emotional relationships between parent and child concerning acceptance, rejection and peer-protection.

Adolescence is regarded by many as a period of trials and tribulations not only by the child, but by parents and other adults as well. Erickson (1959) has characterized adolescence as a time of confrontation with the task of developing one's own identity. The young person has been socialized and has ordinarily established identification with his parent(s) and others in his social sphere. With the onset of adolescence, he begins to rely less and less on this identification and concomitant dependency on parents, and to seek greater independence.

McArthur (1962) suggests that certain of Havighurst's developmental tasks of adolescence and adulthood have a significant effect on parent-adolescent interaction. The developmental tasks of adolescence emphasized by McArthur are: 1) achieving emotional independence from parents; 2) achieving socially responsible behavior; 3) achieving new and more mature relations with agemates of both sexes. (pp. 188-190) Adult development tasks emphasized by McArthur are: 1) assisting adolescents to become responsible adults; 2) achieving adult civic and social responsibility; and 3) relating to one's spouse as a person. (p. 190)
Bernard (1964) states that "one of the three major dimensions of any human adjustment problem is the degree, extent or nature of the communication between or among the parties involved." (p. 709) Communication may be viewed as the index of family operations and the means whereby the family transacts the business of life (Scherz, 1962). It provides the blueprint by which the child grows from infancy to maturity (Satir, 1964). There are ever increasing indications that this vital facet of the family process is a significant problem facing the contemporary family.

It was the attempt of this study to:

1) examine an interpersonal communication skills training program devised to promote positive communication between parents and their adolescent;

2) investigate the relationship between selected factors and parents' and adolescent's perceived level of communication;

3) suggest program improvements and modifications which would facilitate the presentation of the interpersonal communication skills training program in the future.

It is hoped by conducting such a study that the investigator will learn what important elements lead to significant changes in parent-adolescent communication not found in a training program. It is not meant to be implied by this study that the only way to change parent-adolescent communication is through a training program. It is hoped that this attempt will provide stimulation for study of other ways to improve parent-adolescent communication and perhaps even suggest some
specific techniques for providing experiences outside the actual training program.

The major purposes and problems of the present study may be summarized in question form as follows:

1. Will parents who attend the interpersonal communication skills training program score themselves higher on perceived level of communication with their adolescent as measured by the PACI Form P after completing the training program than prior to training?

2. Will adolescents of those parents who attend the interpersonal communication skills training program score themselves higher on the level of perceived communication as measured by the PACI Form A after their parents receive the training program than prior to training of the parents?

3. Will the degree of relationship between like-sex (parent-adolescent) scores be higher than the degree of relationship between opposite-sex (parent-adolescent) scores? These relationships will be investigated for pretest and posttest scores.

Organization of the Study

The introductory chapter was devoted to giving a brief introduction to the study. Chapter II contains a presentation of studies related to parent-adolescent communication and significant interpersonal communication training models. Chapter III includes the research methodology including descriptions of the subjects, instrumentation and procedures. The results and analysis of data are presented
and discussed in Chapter IV. The conclusions of the investigation, limitations and implications for future research are discussed in Chapter V.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

Introduction

The literature related to the present study may be grouped under three major topics. The first topic is concerned with literature which describes parent-adolescent communication as it relates to parenting philosophy or the type of parent-adolescent relationship that exists within a family. Discussion is also given to the topics usually discussed between a parent and adolescent. The second topic is a review of the literature concerning various socio-economic and related variables that have an impact on parent-adolescent communication within the family setting. The third topic presents a review of interpersonal communication training models as they relate to the parent-adolescent relationship.

Characteristics of Parent-Adolescent Relationship

As Related To Communication

According to Block (1937) in a study of relationships between students and mothers, a high degree of disturbance in a child's life is due to the home situation. Most of the disturbances were due in part to differences in thinking in respect to various types of
adolescent choices, aspirations, and philosophy. The adolescents reported that difficulties arose from situations which they interpreted as "pestering" or "nagging" or "complaining", mistrust of children in their peer group, and excessive parental jealousy and worry. Additional areas of conflicts included such things as teasing, talking babytalk, bragging, failure to keep confidences and favoritism. A large majority of both sexes were disturbed because their sisters and brothers were presented as models by their parents and also because mothers tended to hold up school marks of other children to them if theirs were not as high as those of other students. To help alleviate these problems, Block suggests that parents need to be conscious of the existence and effect of conflict within the adolescent. By modifying or eliminating certain of their own behavior patterns parents can affect the amount of their adolescent's emotional disturbances.

Liccione (1955) in his study of changing family relationships of adolescent girls used the TAT to test whether the Oedipal Complex was revived at pubescence and found that the peak of mother-daughter hostility occurred at the age of 15. The results also indicated that there was a decrease in father-daughter conflict from age 11 to 15, but an increase at age 17. Liccione concluded from this study that increasing the amount of interaction between mother and adolescent also increased the amount of disharmony between them.

In a project sponsored by the staff at the Character Research Project Center it was found that an adolescent's life was influenced by parent-youth communication at home (Smith, 1963). The research also pointed out that those students who ranked highest in social and
moral maturity reported talking things over in the family and felt it was easy to converse with their parents. The majority of both sexes at all age levels felt parents could best help their adolescents by understanding, teaching and example. Additional studies by this group indicated that parents and adolescents were eager for better parent-adolescent interpersonal relationships.

In a study on parent and adolescent communication Dubbe (1965) asked groups of high school students and college freshmen to choose issues they considered most difficult to talk about with parents, and to select their "reasons for difficulty." The study was set up to help measure the difference in intensity of difficulty of communication and to learn why youths believed they had communication difficulties. Dubbe found that almost all of the college-age adolescents had some degree of difficulty in talking to parents. College-age boys indicated that certain topics were not discussed because of no need to do so. In addition, they listed conservatism of parents and fear as reasons for avoidance of certain topics. "Personal subjects such as sex, marriage, health habits and misbehavior were less easy for both sexes to discuss with their parents than were the more materialistic or social items such as car ownership, clothing and public affairs." (pp. 67-68) The 14-year olds indicated more difficulty in communication with fathers than mothers. However, boys indicated greater trouble than girls in communication with their mothers. Girls named fear, nagging, no need and age differences as the causes of their avoidance of certain topics in talking with parents. High school boys and girls had more difficulty communicating with their parents about intimate and personal topics.
than of matters not directly involving themselves personally. Cross-sex (father-daughter, mother-son) interaction on the majority of topics was more difficult than same-sex interaction.

General conclusions drawn by Dubbe regarding 14-year olds and their communication with their parents included:

1) The desire by both sexes to prefer peer group discussion of a personal or intimate nature to communication of this type with their parents.
2) A strong tendency toward self-reliance by both sexes, but appearing sooner and more prominently in the boy-parent relationship.
3) No need being given as a reason by both sexes for not communicating with parents.

Comparing the college-age youth with the high school youth, Dubbe concluded that any differences in topic importance was related to maturity. Dubbe reported that there is greater improvement in boy-mother communication by age 19 than in girl-mother communication for the same age group. Daughter-father communication worsens for girls from 14 to 19 years, but son-father communication improves for boys from 14 to 19 years. Dubbe surmised that the communication difficulty between parents and their adolescents is widespread. He conservatively states that more than one-fourth of the adolescents have severe and long-lasting difficulties because of poor relationships with parents. Dubbe feels that these difficulties can be overcome and eventually prevented by observing the following ideas: (1965, pp. 67-68)
1. Good wholesome relationships ride on the talk that passes between people - just plain talk.
2. Begin as early as possible to talk freely with children.
3. Always listen with interest and genuine regard.
4. Plan times for talks - regularly and frequently. Children need and want to talk to their parents.
5. Keep a good mental and emotional balance when talking to a child.
6. Don't force difficult or embarrassing subjects.
7. Be consistent, fair, and respectful. Don't be blunt or dogmatic.
8. Honor wishes for secrecy by children, or do not hear the secret.
9. Give positive words of praise, credit, and appreciation, and love.

If communication should break down Dubbe suggests: (1965, pp. 100-102)

1. Don't overlook the strong foundation of love and loyalty.
2. Master your own emotions.
3. Learn to listen.
4. Look toward agreements, and seek meanings in your talks.
5. Think.

In part of a larger study, Earle (1967) analyzed data from questionnaires administered to 8,770 junior and senior high school students in North Carolina and Ohio during April and May of 1960. He tested the hypothesis, "the closer adolescents perceive their relationship with their parents to be the more likely they are to
perceive a high level of communication with them. This linkage is more likely when parents are also believed to be equalitarian or democratic than when they are considered autocratic. " (p. 276) The hypothesis was tested on each of four parent-adolescent relationships: mother-son, mother-daughter, father-son and father-daughter. His hypothesis of a positive relationship between communication and interaction was supported by his findings. Respondents who perceived a close relationship with their parents claimed to have a high level of communication. In addition, he also found a curvilinear relationship between authority and closeness, the latter being least positive in both the autocratic and highly permissive families. Earle also found that adolescents who had democratic parents were more likely to report closeness and a high degree of communication with their parents than adolescents with autocratic parents.

Bionvou, Sr. (1967) found among 376 high school students significant contrasts in patterns and degrees of parent-adolescent communication by developing and administering the Adolescent Form of the Family Communication Inventory. Criticism, sarcasm and a lack of trust were most often cited as barriers to healthy communication by the high school students of both sexes. Mothers appeared to be more critical of their children than fathers. Even though fathers were felt to be more trusting by the adolescents than mothers, personal problems were discussed more frequently with mothers than fathers. Aspects of positive communication between parent and adolescent which the adolescents rated as conducive to good communication were good listening habits, freedom of expression, understanding and acceptance. Criticism, sarcasm, lack of
acceptance of the adolescent were associated with lower degrees of communication. He confirmed that adolescents value parental respect for their opinions, compliments, praise and expressions of confidence in their abilities.

Bienvenu, Sr. and McClain (1970) investigated the relationship between parent-adolescent communication and self-esteem in high school students. Communication (verbal and nonverbal) was defined as "how people exchange feelings and meanings as they try to understand one another and come to see problems and differences from the other person's point of view." (p. 344) The subjects' perceived level of communication were measured by the Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory (PACI) and a 35-item Self-Esteem Checklist (SEC) was developed to measure the subjects' self-esteem. Bienvenu, Sr. and McClain concluded that each member of the family is of vital importance in maintaining the strength of an individual's self-concept. They stated that positive statements and attitudes may communicate healthy self-regard. Destructive communication such as criticism and ridicule may contribute to low self-regard. The investigation seems to support the hypothesis that a positive relationship exists between the adolescent's self-esteem and his perceived level of communication with his parents.

Schab (1970) surveyed the attitudes of home atmospheres of approximately 1,000 N.E. Georgia students 14-18 years of age. The study revealed that: 1) students' home environments in N.E. Georgia are not unlike those obtained in similar surveys of adolescents in other parts of the nation, 2) students regarded their parents as sometimes strict and sometimes lenient, 3) students were inconsistent
regarding explanations for denied requests, 4) students agreed parents should not try to influence their choice of friends, 5) students rated their homes as good, and 6) students stated that their own children will be raised generally as they were. Schab noted that sex contributed more to the differences in students' attitudes towards parents than did scholastic ranking. He found that there was more fantasy than substance to the constant reference about the rebellion of youth against the home. Schab (1970) concluded "their homes, with whatever parental controls they contain, appear to be acceptable to most of these teenagers." (p. 56)

In her study of Patterns of Parent-Student Communications among students at a midwestern university, Kennedy (1970) drew data from a small portion of a larger study. She found that most parents seemed reluctant to admit to a change in communication with themselves and their college-age son or daughter. One-third of the students reported change in their communication with parents; the other two-thirds were unsure or reported no change.

Topics of parent and student conversation were arranged into three groups: 1) the parents' world, 2) the student's world, and 3) intellectual matters and world affairs. Data on the parents' world suggested that parent and student conversations centered around the parents' life rather than around a "youth oriented" society. Data on the student's world reported students' problems as frequent topics of parent and student conversation. Almost ninety percent of students and parents felt that students' feelings, experiences and ideas are important aspects of their communication. Parents were
cited as important counseling resources for personal problems. Both parents and students reported mother to be the recipient of student confidences on personal matters more frequently than father. Kennedy found that adolescents were least likely to go to parents concerning topics that involved embarrassing experiences on dates or sexual experiences. Students indicated they would approach fellow students rather than parents or professors to seek advice regarding academic problems. Students were likely to discuss their career and financial concerns with parents. Females had more communication with parents than males did. Females talked more with parents about world affairs and parents' feelings than males did. Males talked about personal matters with mothers more frequently than with fathers. Kennedy concluded that students and parents continue to be an important force in each others' lives.

Summary

An examination of the research related to parent and adolescent communication suggests that parents having a democratic relationship with their adolescent have better communication than autocratic parents have with their adolescent. Positive conversation between parents and adolescents creates feelings of higher self-regard among family members than negative communication does.

Mother created more disturbance in the parent-adolescent relationship than father. Adolescents reported that difficulties in mother-child interaction resulted from nagging, pestering, complaining, mistrust, parental jealousy and worry.
Discussion between parents and their adolescent centered around the materialistic or social items such as car ownership, clothing and public affairs. Personal subjects such as sex, marriage, health habits and misbehavior were less easy to discuss with parents and were more often talked over with peers. Boys indicated that some topics were not discussed with parents because of no need to do so. Boys felt their parents were too conservative to discuss certain topics. Girls felt that fathers' lack of time was the reason for poor daughter and father communication. Most topics were more difficult to discuss on a cross-sex (father-daughter, mother-son) basis than on a same sex (father-son, mother-daughter) basis.

The parent and adolescent relationship influences the communication that exists between a parent and adolescent. There is more and better communication in families where a democratic relationship exists between parents and their adolescent than in families where an authoritarian relationship exists. Democratic parents have a greater influence on their adolescent than parents who exert an authoritarian philosophy upon their adolescent.

**Socio-Economic Status as a Related Variable to Parent-Adolescent Communication**

Maas (1951) discusses the impact of differences in the family system and group relations of pre- and early-adolescents of two social classes (lower class and core culture). Warner's scales of social-class membership were used to determine status. He found that lower
class parents are often closed or inaccessible to the child's communication except for outright refusals by the child to comply with a parent's demand. This child is likely to be forbidden to communicate with one parent, usually the father. There is psychological distance between parent and child, if not actual rejection of the child by the parent. Maas reports that children within the core culture are more open for communication with parents than children within the lower class. Core culture parents were more likely to share plans, ideas and activities with their children than lower class parents. Children from the core culture felt freer to express both positive and negative feelings toward parents. The communication system of the core culture provided for more flexibility and openness.

Nye (1951) in a study on adolescent and parent adjustment tested whether or not socio-economic level is one variable in the differential adjustment of adolescents to parents. He hypothesized that: 1) in high socio-economic level families, adolescents are better adjusted to parents than adolescents in low socio-economic level families, and 2) socio-economic level differences in adolescent and parent adjustments are not explainable by factors mutually associated with socio-economic level and adjustment. Nye concluded that socio-economic level of the family is one significant variable in the differential adjustment of adolescents to parents, but it is not the only significant sociological variable. Residence, size of family, broken homes, employment status of the mother and age and sex of the adolescent are also significant factors to be considered. In addition, Nye states that socio-economic level is not equally significant in the sub-groups (small
families, families with employed mothers and broken families) considered in this study. Both the general findings that adolescent and parent adjustment is better at the high socio-economic level and the exceptions to that general finding provide inferences to be considered when examining adolescent and parent relationships in relation to parent education programs.

Elder, Jr. (1963) sought to assess the degree of parental power legitimation and its effects on: 1) the adolescent's desire to model parents, 2) obedience to parental rules and 3) autonomy in decision-making on three levels of parental power (autocratic, democratic and permissive). Elder concluded that adolescents were attracted more to democratic parents as models. Adolescents were more likely to model their parents and to associate with parent-approved peers if their parents explained their rules when asked to do so. He also concluded that variation in compliance by level of power was evident only when explanations were seldom given. Adolescents with democratic parents were more apt to abide by parental objectives. Adolescents with democratic or permissive parents were more likely to have confidence in their ideas and opinions and independence in decision-making when their parents explained their rules. Frequent explanations on the autocratic level of power related more to dependency. Infrequent explanations were related to both low confidence and independence in decision-making. Elder concluded that legitimizing of parenting dominance has the effect of making this power more acceptable, and in doing so heightens dependency needs as well as self-confidence of the adolescent.
Summary

The studies of the socio-economic level of the family and parental power on parent-adolescent communication imply that middle or upper class parents who have a democratic philosophy of family interaction have better communication with their adolescent than lower class families. In addition, the middle or upper class adolescent is more likely to be attracted to his parents as models and to associate with parent-approved peers than is the lower class respondent. Middle class respondents used many devices to supply context and clarify meanings, and they seemed better able to judge the clarity of a listener's perception. Adolescents from the middle class experienced more open communication with parents. They were more likely to share in plans, ideas and activities with their parents, than lower class adolescents. Middle class adolescents also felt freer to express both positive and negative feelings toward their parents.

In conclusion, the studies seem to support Nye's finding that the socio-economic level of the family is one significant variable in the differential adjustment of adolescents to parents. However, it is not the only one.

Interpersonal Communication Training Models

Buckland (1972) in her review of the literature concerning parent education found that "over the past eighty years many authors have attempted to assist parents in understanding their children through parent education programs by focusing their training on role
performance of the child." (p. 151) She stated that the trend in current parent education programs is shifting from "adjustment" of children and "role performance" of parents toward competence of both parent and child at many levels of functioning in respect to their relationship and societal change. To date there are a variety of parent education programs. (Auerback 1967; Pickarts and Fargo 1971; Gordon 1970) However, Buckland points out there has not been a consensus as to what constitutes an "excellent" program and no theory to guide the development of parent education programs. For the purpose of this study the following philosophies were considered as viable philosophies and theories for constructing an interpersonal communication skills training program in order to produce a positive change in the communication between parent and adolescent: 1) Thomas Gordon, author of Parent Effectiveness Training, 2) Robert Carkhuff who espouses the Helper-Helpee Dynamics of personal interaction, 3) Albert Ellis with his rational emotive therapy approach to human personality and its disturbances, 4) Virginia Satir on family processes, and 5) Rudolf Dreikurs, Don Dinkmoyer and Gary McKay who profess a democratic attitude for achieving a good parent-child relationship.

In his principles on helping, Carkhuff (1971) advocates that the effective person is a product of effective relations. The relationship between the helper and the helpee form the core of all learning and relearning which takes place. The effective person is able to integrate those experiences which are most helpful and discard those that are not. The learning process is interactional. The helper offers the most effective responses based on his past experiences. The helpee in turn
has the opportunity to accept or reject those responses based on his own experience. Carkhuff operationalizes the relationship between helper and helpee in terms of the level of communication of certain conditions existing between the two. These conditions are identified as responsive dimensions which focus around the helpee's experience. These conditions facilitate the helpee's development and the initiative dimension which centers around the helper's experience. The helpee is directed toward developing an orientation toward acting. Responsive dimension includes empathetic understanding, respect and concreteness. Initiative dimensions include genuineness, confrontation and immediacy. The degree to which these responsive and initiative dimensions are achieved in the helper and helpee relationship can produce a gain or constructive change in the helper, according to Carkhuff.

Satir (1972) describes the family as a "factory" where either a physically healthy, mentally alert, feeling, loving, playful, authentic, creative human being is developed or it is a factory where a non-productive, non-creative and non-warm person is developed. The adults of the family are the people-makers, entrusted with the task of preparing children for their roles in society. In her book Peoplemaking, Satir (1972, p. 13) suggest that adults greatly influence and shape these four aspects of family dynamics:

1) self-worth - the feelings and ideas one has about himself
2) communication - the ways people work out to make meaning with one another
3) family system - the rules people use for how they should feel and act; and
4) link to society - the way the people relate to other people and institutions outside the family.
She contends that these four aspects of family dynamics are changeable and correctable at any one point in time and that a person's behavior is the outgrowth of the interaction of these four elements at any given moment in time. Satir concludes that of these four aspects of family dynamics, communication is the largest single factor determining one's relationship with others.

Dreikurs (1964) and Dinkmeyer and McKay (1973) advocate much of the teachings of Alfred Adler. They advocate four basic requirements for development of a good parent-child relationship and for development of a child into a mature, healthy and socially responsible adult. Dreikurs, Dinkmeyer and McKay (1973, p. 14) stated that these four requirements are:

1) a democratic relationship based on mutual respect and a feeling that a child deserves to be treated with both firmness and kindness,
2) encouragement that communicates respect, love, support and valuing of the child as a person.
3) the use of natural and logical consequences to replace reward and punishment, and
4) a basic understanding of human behavior that helps parents to maintain a consistent approach to human relationships.

Dreikurs, Dinkmeyer and McKay conclude that our culture has moved from the autocratic traditions of parenting which implied that the parent was absolutely correct in his role of parent, through a permissive approach to parenting in which the parent set few limits, to now a more democratic parenting attitude. This attitude, democracy, encompasses the four basic requirements of producing healthy adults.

Gordon (1970) discusses his theory and program of parent effectiveness training in terms of three aspects of human relationships usually neglected in other theories. These are: (1) the existence of a power
differential between person, (2) the inevitability of conflicts in all relationships and (3) the methods utilized in human relationships for conflict resolutions. Gordon contends that significant change in parent-child relationships can only be brought about when the focus of change is directed toward the person with the most power. In this case the program focuses primarily on modifying the parent power. The program is called "Parent Effectiveness Training" or "PET." "PET" is conducted in a laboratory or workshop setting. It consists of twenty-four hours of classroom instruction, including lectures, demonstrations, listening to tape recordings, classroom participation experiences, role-playing, buzz sessions and general group discussion. Also included in the training is a workbook for each parent containing supplementary reading, self-instructional skill-practice materials, self-administering diagnostic inventories and at-home activities which require application of the methods taught in the classroom. "PET" is designed to facilitate a change in parents' attitudes toward their children as well as to teach the parents specific skills and methods for implementing those attitudes.

Gordon presents his theory of a healthy relationship as a set of nine principles. These are: (1) Feeling Acceptance of the Other, (2) Demonstrating Acceptance of the Other, (3) Trying to Become Accepting of More of the Other's Behavior, (4) Becoming Aware of Nonaccepting Feelings, (5) Communicating Unaccepting Feelings, (6) Communicating My Unaccepting Feelings Nonevaluatively, (7) Refusing to Use Power in Conflict-Resolution, (8) Refusing to Give in to the Other's Use of Power and (9) Resolving Conflicts By A "No Lose" Method. Gordon concludes that he is trying to teach parents a philosophy of child
rearing that embodies a new theory of healthy interpersonal relationships. He has translated this into everyday language in the form of a credo:

"A Credo for My Relationship with My Child"

You and I are in a relationship with each other. Yet each of us is a separate person having his own needs. I will try to be as accepting as I can of your behavior as you try to meet your own needs. I will even try to learn to increase my capacity to be accepting of your behavior. But I can be genuinely accepting of you only as long as your behavior to meet your needs does not conflict with my meeting my own needs. Therefore, whenever I am feeling nonaccepting of you because my own needs are not being met, I will tell you as openly and honestly as I can, leaving it up to you whether you will change your behavior. I also will encourage you to do the same with me and will try to listen to your feelings and perhaps change my behavior. However, when we discover that a conflict-of-needs continues to exist in our relationship, let us both commit ourselves to try to resolve that conflict without the use of either my power or yours. I will respect your needs, but I also must respect my own. Consequently, let us strive always to search mutually for solutions to our inevitable conflicts that will be acceptable to both of us. In this way, your needs will be met but so will mine. As a result, you can continue to grow and achieve satisfaction and so can I. And, finally, our relationship can continue to be a healthy one because it will be mutually satisfying. (Gordon, 1970, pp. 424-425)

Gordon's theory of parent effectiveness is developed around Carl Rogers' concepts of acceptance, congruence, understanding, being able to communicate these characteristics to others and Sidney Jourard's concept of the transparent self.

Ellis' (1971) theory of Rational Emotive Therapy (RET) is considered appropriate for an interpersonal communication skills training program because it explains that mental suffering does not come directly
from our problems or the unconscious feelings a person has about the problem. Rather it comes from the conscious or unconscious irrational and false notions that a person has about the problem. In order for a person to regain emotional equilibrium he must identify the false idea or ideas held. Then, by using logic he is shown how irrational these ideas truly are. Finally, he is encouraged to change his behavior.

Ellis uses an A-B-C approach to this disturbance. A is the activating experience which the person believes causes C, which is really the person's feelings of anxiousness, worthlessness and depression. The person learns that the activating event is not caused by any feeling or emotional consequence, but it is really caused by B - the person belief system. Ellis believes there are at least eleven neurotic superstitions or irrational ideas which a person has been taught from childhood by parents, other adults, social institutions and mass media.

Ellis (1971, pp. 61-87) feels the following irrational ideas contribute to a person's emotional disturbance:

**Irrational Idea No. 1:** The idea that it is a dire necessity for an adult human being to be loved or approved by virtually every significant other person in his community.

**Irrational Idea No. 2:** The idea that one should be thoroughly competent, adequate, and achieving in all possible respects if one is to consider oneself worthwhile.

**Irrational Idea No. 3:** The idea that certain people are bad, wicked, or villainous and that they should be severely blamed and punished for their villainy.

**Irrational Idea No. 4:** The idea that it is awful and catastrophic when things are not the way one would very much like them to be.

**Irrational Idea No. 5:** The idea that human unhappiness is externally caused and that people have little or no ability to control their sorrows and disturbances.
Irrational Idea No. 6: The idea that if something is or may be dangerous or fearsome one should be terribly concerned about it and should keep dwelling on the possibility of its occurring.

Irrational Idea No. 7: The idea that it is easier to avoid than to face certain life difficulties and self-responsibilities.

Irrational Idea No. 8: The idea that one should be dependent on others and need someone stronger than oneself on whom to rely.

Irrational Idea No. 9: The idea that one's past history is an all-important determiner of one's present behavior and that because something once strongly affected one's life, it should indefinitely have a similar effect.

Irrational Idea No. 10: The idea that one should become quite upset over other people's problems and disturbances.

Irrational Idea No. 11: The idea that there is invariably a right, precise and perfect solution to human problems and that it is catastrophic if this perfect solution is not found.

In his book The Rational Management of Children, Hauck (1967) adds another irrational idea to Ellis's list which is the idea that "beliefs held by respected authorities or society must be correct and should not be questioned." (p. 14) Hauck bases this idea on the fact that parents have their own pet notions, contrived from the society in which they live, as to how to raise children. When these notions are challenged parents become emotionally upset. To do the best possible job as parents and to rid themselves of these erroneous beliefs, parents must be able to work through these old ideas in a logical and rational manner. Parents must substitute new and more sensible beliefs and management principles. For this reason RET should be included in a family education laboratory.

Blakeman and Emcner, Jr. (1971) discuss some specific techniques and exercises which can be used at various stages of interpersonal communication in human relations training. The authors feel the
exercises should be consistent with the helping model itself. The helping model is described as the phases in the counseling process to be: 1) the helpful exploration of the predicament in which the helper finds himself, 2) the relationship in his own self-awareness to that predicament and 3) the development of a plan for action to be undertaken to solve that predicament. Blakeman and Emener stress that one may envision a hierarchy of necessary conditions within the helping process including empathy, respect, concreteness, genuineness and self-disclosure, confrontation and immediacy. The immediacy dimensions would supercede the order of presentation of the core dimensions. Exercises and techniques in communication training programs are directly related to the three stages (early, intermediate and later stage) used in training. Exercises used in the early stage of the program maintain threat at a reasonable and helpful level. At the same time conditions of helping and allowing trainees to relate their own strengths and weaknesses to the helping model are explored. Examples of techniques used at this stage are the use of audio or videotaped material which clearly represents different levels of helper functioning on the core conditions being presented. As the trainee proceeds into the intermediate stage, he is allowed more realistic feedback from the group regarding his strengths and weaknesses. Feedback and assessments are given in a more direct fashion. A technique used at this stage is called a "going-around" exercise. Group members are required to respond in turn to another group member who has volunteered to discuss either a role-played situation or a personally relevant situation. The later stages of training are
marked by conditions which are characteristics of a good one-to-one helping relationship. By this time the interpersonal relationships within the group are well established. The group has developed a feeling of cohesion and action conditions are offered freely without fear of creating an atmosphere of defensiveness and anxiety. The exercises used during this stage are directed to areas of weaknesses of the individual trainees. Plans are developed and carried out to overcome these weaknesses. An example of an exercise used in this stage is the involvement of three trainees given the roles of helper-helpee, observer. The helper is instructed to discuss a personally relevant situation with the helper while the third person observes and serves as the observer-rater. After the allotted time has passed for this exercise, the helper discusses the helpee's impact on him. The observer also gives his reaction to the helpee's effectiveness and pinpoints specific instances where the helpee could improve this functioning process.

Blakeman and Emener (1971) feel that there are three major ingredients in communication training: 1) the material and exercises must be relevant to the trainee's participation, 2) there must be thorough discrimination training, particularly on the condition of empathy and 3) there must be a good relationship between the trainer and the trainees because the trainer "models the model." In addition, Blakeman and Emener state that "one must be cognizant of the fact that one cannot go further in a training session than the trainer - trainee relationship will allow." (p. 939)
Therefore, it seems natural that a progression from safer to more threatening kinds of exercises and techniques are introduced throughout the training process. In conclusion Blakeman and Emener state that exercises and techniques are only the vehicles through which the principles and conditions of helping are taught. The trainer is of great importance in this model. It is through the trainer and his effectiveness in modeling the core conditions that a trainee learns to communicate more effectively.

**Summary**

Whether the model for increasing human effectiveness in communication between people espouses a counseling or a non-directive learner-centered didactic approach, or whether it focuses primarily on the individual learning about his own intra-personal communication system, it is evident that these models focus on individuality and the individuals's self-concept. The trainer must model the core conditions at all times if he expects his participants to learn to communicate effectively. In addition, the material and exercises used in a communication training program must be relevant to those participating in the program.
CHAPTER III

DESCRIPTION OF INVESTIGATION

The purposes of the protest study as stated in Chapter I were to: 1) present an interpersonal communication skills training program devised to promote positive communication between parents and their adolescent, 2) investigate the relationships between selected factors of parents' and adolescent's perceived level of communication and 3) suggest program improvements and modifications to facilitate the presentation of an interpersonal communication skills training program for future use. Primary focus of the interpersonal communication skills training program was on both the cognitive and affective domain of parent and adolescent behavior.

This study was an attempt to investigate three general questions which are restated below and followed with research hypotheses pertaining to each of the questions.

**Hypotheses**

**Question 1:** Will parents who attend the interpersonal communication skills training program score themselves higher on perceived level of communication with their adolescent as measured by the PACI Form P after completing the training program than prior to training?

**Hypothesis 1:** Posttest scores of parents in attendance at the interpersonal communication skills training program will be
higher on perceived level of communication with their adolescent as measured by the PACI Form P than their pretest scores.

**Question 2:** Will adolescents of those parents who attend the interpersonal communication skills training program score themselves higher on the level of perceived communication as measured by the PACI Form A after their parents receive the training program than prior to training of the parents?

**Hypothesis 2:** Posttest scores of adolescents whose parents attend the interpersonal communication skills training program will be higher on perceived level of communication as measured by the PACI Form A than their pretest scores.

**Question 3:** Will the degree of relationship between like-sex (parent-adolescent) scores be higher than the degree of relationships between opposite-sex (parent-adolescent) scores. These relationships will be investigated for pretest and posttest scores.

**Hypothesis 3:** There will be a higher degree of relationship between like-sex parent-adolescent scores than between opposite-sex parent-adolescent scores.

**Method**

Parents were asked to attend a series of six, two hour meetings. The meetings were held weekly at the TRI Counseling Center, 1760 Zollinger Road, Upper Arlington, Ohio, during the months of October, November and December 1974.
The six, two hour meetings were divided into one orientation meeting, four training sessions and one evaluation meeting. The subjects were informed at the orientation meeting of the purpose of the interpersonal communication skills training program. The PACI Form P and Form A were administered to the parents and adolescents at this time. Parents were separated from their adolescents during administration of the instrument.

The interpersonal communication skills training program was administered to the parents during the second, third, fourth and fifth meetings. The meetings focused on the topics "The Adult As A Parent", "The Parent As A Helper", "The Parent As A Communicator/Listener", and "The Parent As A Counselor."

During the sixth meeting the PACI Form P and Form A were again administered to the participants. Parents were separated from their adolescents during administration of the instrument. The meeting also included a general discussion of the training program with both parents and adolescents participating in the discussion.

Selection of Subjects

In cooperation with the TRI Counseling Center in Upper Arlington, Ohio, and the Franklin County Cooperative Extension Service Home Economics Clubs in Columbus, Ohio, twenty families were studied during the fall of 1974 to determine whether or not changes took place in the parents' and adolescent's perceived level of communication in the parent-adolescent relationship after parents were trained in certain
interpersonal communication skills.

The Director of the TRI Counseling Center and the Home Economics Extension Agent for Franklin County were contacted and agreed to support and promote the proposed study. For the purposes of this study there were two groups. Group I consisted of fathers, mothers and adolescents. Group II consisted of only mothers and adolescents. Group I met in the evening. Group II met in the morning.

Because of the individual nature of the training program, the number of parents enrolled in such a program was relatively small. In order to increase the sample size it was deemed advisable to use mothers and adolescents who were considered to be similar in background.

Description of the sample. Table 1 shows the number and percentage of participants as classified by kin in the Interpersonal Communication Skills Training Program. Group I consisted of nine families who enrolled in the interpersonal communication skills training program. Group II consisted of eleven families who enrolled in the training program for this study. The total sample of participants consisted of nine fathers, twenty mothers, nine sons, and eleven daughters. All forty-nine participants indicated no prior interpersonal communication skills training.
TABLE 1

Number and Percentage of Participants as Classified by Kin in the Interpersonal Communication Skills Training Program - Group I and Group II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of Kin</th>
<th>Total Number of Participants by Group</th>
<th>Total Number of Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group I</td>
<td>Group II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Son</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daughter</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Fathers in families of Group II did not participate in the interpersonal communication skills training program.

Selected socio-economic characteristics. Table 2 presents selected socio-economic characteristics of participants and their families. Fathers in Group I ranged in age from thirty-nine to fifty years with a mean age of 42.8 years. Mothers in Group I ranged in age from thirty-five to forty-nine years with a mean age of 41.5 years. Fathers in the families of Group II ranged in age from thirty-four to fifty-two years with a mean age of 42.4 years. Mothers in Group II ranged in age from thirty-three to fifty-two years with a mean age of 40.4 years. The adolescents in Group I ranged in age from twelve to seventeen years with a mean age of 13.5 years. Adolescents in Group II ranged in age from twelve to sixteen years with a mean age of 13.6 years.
Of the nine fathers in Group I five had done advanced graduate work. The mean number of years of education was 17 years for the fathers in Group I. Four of the mothers in Group I were college graduates, and the mean number of years of schooling was 15.5 years. The mean number of years of schooling for fathers in families of Group II was 16.6 years. Six of the fathers had completed some advanced graduate work. Five of the mothers in Group II did not have a college degree, but had completed some college work. The mean number of years of schooling for mothers in Group II was 14.2 years.

The majority of families in Group I and Group II, 66.7 and 90.0 percent respectively, received their family income from salaries, commission or regular income paid on a monthly or semi-monthly basis. Fathers in Group I had jobs in the areas of service and sales (22.2 percent), professional or technical (44.5 percent) or managerial (33.3 percent). Fathers in families of Group II held jobs in the areas of service and sales (18.2 percent), professional or technical (45.4 percent) or managerial (27.7 percent). The majority of mothers in Group I (66.7 percent) and Group II (54.6 percent) were housewives.

The length of present marriage for participants in Group I ranged from 14 to 24 years. The mean number of years of present marriage for parents in Group I was 18.1 years. Six, or 66.7 percent of the couples in Group I had been married between 15 and 20 years. In Group II the length of present marriage ranged from 14 to 28 years with a mean number of years of marriage being 18.5 years. Six, or 54.5 percent of the couples in Group II had been married
between 15 and 20 years.

The average number of dependents per family in Group I was 3.6. They ranged in age from 4 to 19 years. Fourteen, or 46.7 percent of the children were between the ages of 11 and 15 years. In Group II the average number of dependents per family was 4.2. These dependents ranged in age from 4 to 25 years. Twenty-five, or 54.5 percent of the children were between 11 and 15 years old.

The education of male adolescents in Group I ranged from seventh grade to eleventh grade. Female adolescent participants ranged from seventh to ninth grade. The average number of years of education for both male and female adolescents in Group I was 8.4 years. Two, or 40 percent and two, or 50 percent of the male and female participants respectively, were in the 8th grade. In Group II the adolescent male participants' education level ranged from seventh to tenth grade. The adolescent female participants' education level ranged from seventh to ninth grade. The average grade in school at the time of the study for male and female adolescents in Group II was seventh or tenth grade respectively. Four, or 57.1 percent of the female adolescents in Group II were in ninth grade. Five, or 28.6 percent and one, or 14.3 percent of the female adolescents in Group II were in seventh and eleventh grade respectively.
### TABLE 2

Selected Socio-Economic Characteristics of Families Who Participated in the Interpersonal Communication Skills Training Program - Group I and Group II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Group I Number</th>
<th>Group I Percentage</th>
<th>Group II Number</th>
<th>Group II Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Father's Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>under 35 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 to 44</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>54.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45 and above</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>36.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mother's Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>under 35 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 to 44</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>77.8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>72.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45 and above</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age of Male Adolescent Participant</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>under 13 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 to 16</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 and over</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age of Female Adolescent Participant</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>under 13 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 to 16</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>71.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 and over</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Characteristics</td>
<td>Group I</td>
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<td>Group II</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
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<tr>
<td>Father's Education</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school graduate</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than college graduate</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College graduate</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced graduate work</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>55.6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>54.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional training</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother's Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school graduate</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than college graduate</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>45.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College graduate</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>44.5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced college work</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional training</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source of Family Income</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profits and fees from a business or profession</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary, commission or regular income paid on semi-monthly basis</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>90.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Characteristics</td>
<td>Group I Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Group II Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wages: hourly wages, piece work, weekly paycheck</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Father's Occupation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unskilled</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi-skilled and skilled</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service and sales</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional and technical</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>44.5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>45.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managerial</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not stated</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>100.0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Mother's Occupation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unskilled</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi-skilled skilled</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Service and sales</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional or technical</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managerial</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housewife</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>54.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Stated</td>
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<td>100.0</td>
<td>11</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Characteristics</td>
<td>Group I</td>
<td></td>
<td>Group II</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Length of Marriage</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-20</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>54.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-25</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27.3</td>
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<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age of Dependent Children (Non-Participant)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 years and under</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>46.7</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>54.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>21 years and over</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Male Adolescent Participant's Education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7th grade</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8th grade</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9th grade</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10th grade</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11th grade</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Selected social issues in parent-adolescent communication as identified by parents and adolescents. Table 3 presents the distribution of degree of perceived communication in the parent-adolescent relationship by father, mother and adolescent. In Group I all of the fathers reported moderate, slight or no gap in communication with their adolescent, with each category receiving 3, or 33.3 percent of the responses. Six mothers in Group I, or 66.7 percent felt there was a slight gap in communication with their adolescent. Five, or 45.5 percent of the mothers in Group II felt there was no gap in communication. Three, or 27.3 percent of these mothers felt there was a slight communication gap. Two, or 18.1 percent of the mothers in Group II felt there was a moderate communication gap with their adolescent. Seven, or 77.8
of the adolescents in Group I felt they had a slight or no gap in communication between themselves and their fathers. In Group I adolescents reported moderate, slight or no gap in communication with their mothers, with each category receiving 33.3 percent. For, or 36.3 percent of the adolescents in Group II reported a slight gap in communication between themselves and their fathers. Three, or 27.3 percent of those adolescents reported a moderate communication gap with their fathers. Two, or 18.2 percent of the adolescents felt no communication gap existed with their fathers. In Group II eight, or 72.6 percent of the adolescents reported slight or no communication gap with their mothers.

**TABLE 3**

Classification of Degree of Communication Gap in the Parent-Adolescent Relationship as Perceived by Fathers, Mothers and Adolescent - Group I and Group II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree of Parent and Adolescent Communication Gap As Perceived by Father</th>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Group II*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large gap</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate gap</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slight gap</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No gap</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>99.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 3 - Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree of Parent and Adolescent Communication Gap As Perceived By Mother</th>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Group II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large gap</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate gap</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slight gap</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No gap</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Degree of Parent and Adolescent Communication Gap As Perceived By Adolescent

"With Father"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Group II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large gap</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate gap</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slight gap</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>44.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No gap</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

"With Mother"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Group II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large gap</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate gap</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slight gap</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No gap</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>99.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Fathers in Group II families did not participate.*
Table 4 presents the distribution of subjects hardest to discuss with parents by adolescents. Three, or 33.3 percent of the adolescents in Group I felt sex was the hardest subject to discuss with parents. Two, or 22.2 percent listed personal problems as the next most difficult subject to discuss with parents. Five adolescents in Group II, or 45.5 percent did not list any subjects as being hard to discuss with parents. Sex or personal problems had an even distribution of responses by the adolescents in Group II. Each category received 33.3 percent.

**TABLE 4**

Classification by Adolescents of Subjects Difficult to Discuss with Parents - Group I and Group II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Group II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feelings</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal problems</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(dating, allowances, friends, etc.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total 9</td>
<td>99.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 5 presents distribution of adolescents' classification of the main weaknesses of American parents. Four, or 44.5 percent of the adolescents in Group I reported understanding children to be the main weakness in American parents. Five, or 45.5 percent of the adolescents in Group II reported that American parents were "old fashioned."

**TABLE 5**

Classification by Adolescents of Main Weakness of American Parents - Group I and Group II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main Weakness of American Parents</th>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Group II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding children</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>44.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicating with children</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patience</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old fashioned</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>9</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory (PACI)

The Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory (PACI) Form A and Form P developed by Millard J. Bienvenu, Sr. (1969) was used to measure the perceived level of parent-adolescent communication. Form A of the PACI is designed to measure the adolescent's perceived level of communication in the parent-adolescent relationship. Form P of the PACI is designed to measure the parents' perceived level of communication in the parent-adolescent relationship. The inventories provide a two-sided approach to understanding the process of communication within the parent and adolescent relationship. Items in Form P are basically counterparts of items in Form A. The PACI was chosen because it:

1) required no more than a seventh grade reading level, 2) required the participant to respond in terms of their social emotional relationship in communicating with another family member, and 3) takes very little of the participant’s time to complete.

The PACI is a forty-item inventory in which the subject chooses one of three possible responses ("Yes", "Sometimes" or "No"). The three possible responses were scored from zero to three with a favorable response (one indicative of good parent-adolescent communication) given the higher score. The "Sometimes" response when indicative of a favorable attitude or answer was given a weight of two. When suggesting an unfavorable attitude the response was given a weight of one. The range of scores on the inventory was from zero to 120. The higher the total score, the higher the level of parent-adolescent communication.
Three reliability studies have been made with the present 40-item inventory. Using the Spearman-Brown formula a split-half correlations coefficient, revealed a coefficient of .86 on scores of 74 teen-age subjects on the odd-numbered and on the even-numbered statements it revealed a coefficient of .86 after correction. The second reliability study used the Spearman-Rho test-retest formula on 84 subjects and showed a .78 coefficient of reliability. In a second test-retest reliability study of 63 additional subjects within a two-week period a reliability coefficient of .88 was obtained (Bienvenu, 1969, p. 4)

The PACI has been used to examine and assess parent-adolescent communication by counselors, educators and researchers. The PACI was used to assess the perceived level of communication in parent-adolescent communication by Bienvenu, Sr. (1968). Other uses of the PACI have been made by Bienvenu, Sr. and McClain (1970) to investigate the relationship between parent-adolescent communication and self-esteem in high school students. Copies of the PACI Form A and Form P scoring key, and manual, appear in Appendix A.

Training Model

The training model for the interpersonal communication skills program was similar to Ivey's (1971) micro-counseling approach. The main steps in the systematic skill building training model for parents were to:

1. Explain to the parents the objectives of the interpersonal communication skills, describing exactly what each skill entailed.
2. Demonstrate each interpersonal communication skill for the parents so they could observe the skill being effectively practiced. This modeling was accomplished through a lecture presentation using examples of parents' concerns.

3. Provide the parents opportunities to practice learned communication skills by role playing and to practice the skill with his adolescent between sessions. In role playing and actual practice, feedback regarding effectiveness of performance was given the parents by either this investigator or other program participants.

4. Provide opportunity for general discussion of the objectives of the training program. Through discussion it was hoped that the parents would integrate their understanding of the training objectives with their own practice experience at home.

5. Supply each parent in the study with a Parent Notebook. The Parent Notebook consisted of six At-Home-Readings and eight At-Home-Activities which served as support and discussion material for the training program. Each parent was expected to read the assignments and practice the appropriate activity between the weekly meetings. (See Appendix B for Parent Notebook) The reading and activity assignments were developed from the following resources:


Collection of Data

The responses of Group I and Group II subjects were collected in October 1974 at separate orientation meetings held for both groups at the TRI Counseling Center. This collection represented the pretest response data of the subjects used in the study.

A second collection of responses from the subjects under identical test conditions was made in December 1974 from both groups at the TRI Counseling Center. This collection of data represented the posttest responses of the subjects used in the study.

The same procedure for collecting data for the pretest and posttest was followed for Group I and Group II. Parents were asked to bring their adolescent to an orientation meeting. All participants were informed as to the purposes of the interpersonal communication skills training program. If both the parents and the adolescent were
interested in participating in the program, the parents were given a Parent Notebook. Parents and adolescents were then separated for the purpose of administering the appropriate parent-adolescent inventory.

The recommended procedure for administering the PACI to the participants was followed with only one exception. Instructions were read aloud to each group by the investigator. The investigator then allowed for as much time as necessary for questions about the inventory from the subjects. The prescribed amount of time, approximately twenty minutes, was allowed for completion of the inventory by each subject. Each subject placed his name on the front of the response booklet so that scores of family members could be identified and matched for comparison.

A follow-up phone call was made to the parents the day following the pretest to see if each family was still interested in participating in the training program. Any questions were answered about the training program and a re-commitment to attend all training sessions by parents was asked for by the investigator.

Posttest data collection was similar to pretest data collection. All parents were asked to come with their adolescent to the TRI Counseling Center. The same procedure for administering the inventory was followed. Upon completion of the inventory an evaluation period of the training program was held with both parents and adolescents participating in the discussion.
All research hypotheses were stated in the directional form. Hypotheses 1 and 2 were tested by employing the Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test. Hypotheses 3 was tested by using the Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient: $r_s$. These statistical tests were judged to be the appropriate statistical analysis to use for ordinal data.

Inventory scores for each participant and each parent-adolescent match (like sex vs. opposite sex) were compared on perception of communication as measured by the PACI, Form A or Form P before the training program and after the training program. The Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test and the Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient: $r_s$ statistical analysis were employed because it was believed to be the more powerful to use with a small number of participants. In addition, the Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Tests was used because it gave more weight to a pair which shows a large difference between the two conditions than to a pair which shows a small difference. (Siegel 1956)

In summary, this chapter described the purposes of the investigation, the hypotheses to be tested, the method of obtaining the subjects, the description of the socio-economic characteristics of the subjects and their families and selected social issues in parent-adolescent communication. In addition, the instrument used to gather the data from the subjects was described. Also included was a description of the training model and the type of statistical analysis that was used in this investigation.
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Analysis of Data

Analysis of data was computed by using individual scores attained on the pretest and posttest Form A and Form P of the PACI. Two groups were used to obtain data for this study. One group included both mother and father with the adolescent participating, hereafter called Group I. The other group consisted of mother and adolescent only, hereafter called Group II. The Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test and the Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient: $r_s$ were selected as appropriate for ordinal data from a small population assumed to be nonparametric in nature. The Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test was employed to analyze whether or not significant individual change had occurred in parent and adolescent communication between the pretest and posttest time period. The Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient: $r_s$ was used to analyze the relationship between like sex and opposite sex parent-adolescent scores at pretest and posttest. This analysis was to determine whether like-sex parent-adolescent scores are more highly correlated than opposite sex parent-adolescent scores.
The .05 level of probability was adopted as the criterion for failing to reject the null hypotheses. Hypotheses 1 and 2 were analyzed by the Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test. These null hypotheses were rejected if the level of significance was equal to or less than the .05 level. Hypothesis 3 was analyzed by calculating Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficients between like sex and opposite sex parent-adolescent scores on the PACI. It was rejected if the associated level of significance was less than the .05 level.

To apply the Wilcoxon test to hypotheses Ho1 and Ho2 the $d_i$ = difference score was computed for each participant by matching his pretest score with his posttest score. Participants were divided into the appropriate group of father, mother or adolescent for analysis. Once divided into groups all $d_i$ scores were then ranked without regard to sign. The rank of 1 was given to the smallest $d_i$, the rank of 2 to the next smallest and so on until all $d_i$'s had been ranked. To indicate which ranks arose from negative $d_i$'s and which ranks arose from positive $d_i$'s the sign of the difference was affixed. Two scores of any pair which were equal were dropped from the analysis. For two $d$'s of the same size the rank assigned to them was the average of those ranks. $T$ was obtained by adding the smaller sum of like ranks together (Siegel, 1956).

To calculate the Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient: $r_s$ the various values of $d_i$ = difference score between the two ranks being analyzed was computed for each sex match grouping. Groupings were arranged by pretest and posttest scores for each sex match. Each $d_i$ was squared and all values of $d_i^2$ were added to obtain
for each grouping of sex matches. This value and the value of 

\[ N \sum_{i=1}^{N} d_i^2 \]

\[ N \] (number of subjects for each grouping) were entered directly into the following formula found in Siegel (1956, p. 204):

\[ r_s = 1 - \frac{6 \sum_{i=1}^{N} d_i^2}{N^3 - N} \]

One family dropped out of Group I and one adolescent refused to be administered the inventory. These two families were not included in the analysis.

**Between Parent-Adolescent Communication Difference**

To examine whether a positive change occurred in the parents' perceived level of communication in the parent-adolescent relationship as a result of the training program the following question was asked and hypothesis tested.

**Question 1:** Will parents who attend the interpersonal communication skills training program score themselves higher on perceived level of communication with their adolescent as measured by the PACI Form P after completing the training program than prior to training?

**Hypothesis 1:** Posttest scores of parents in attendance at the interpersonal communication skills training program will be higher on perceived level of communication with their adolescent as measured by the PACI Form P than their pretest scores.
Table 6 presents the difference between Group I pretest and posttest scores of male parents' perceived level of communication with their adolescent. The T value of 17.5 was obtained which is not significant at the .05 level. It was concluded that the difference between pretest and posttest perceived level of communication scores made on the PACI Form P by fathers in Group I were not significantly different. Therefore hypothesis 1 was not supported.

**TABLE 6**

Difference Between Pretest and Posttest Scores of Male Parents' Perceived Level of Communication with Their Adolescent - Group I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parent</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Rank of d</th>
<th>Rank with less frequent sign</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>-8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>-9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>-7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=8; T=17.5; p > .05; n.s.
Table 7 presents the comparisons between pretest and posttest scores of female parents' perceived level of communication with their adolescent for Group I. The obtained value of $T$ was 0 which is significant at the .01 level. It was concluded that the difference between pretest and posttest perceived level of communication scores made on the PACI by mothers in Group I were significantly different. Therefore hypothesis 1 was supported.

**TABLE 7**

Difference Between Pretest and Posttest Scores of Female Parents' Perceived Level of Communication with Their Adolescent - Group I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Female Parent</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Rank with less frequent sign</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>Posttest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$T = 0$

$N=8; T=0; p=.01; n.s.$
Table 8 presents the comparison of pretest and posttest scores of Group II female parents' perceived level of communication with their adolescent. The obtained value of $T$ was 19.5 which is not significant at the .05 level. It was concluded that the difference between pretest and posttest perceived level of communication scores on the PACI Form P for mothers in Group II were not significantly different. Therefore hypothesis 1 was not supported.

**TABLE 8**

Difference Between Pretest and Posttest Scores of Female Parents' Perceived Level of Communication with Their Adolescent - Group II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Female Parents</th>
<th>Score Pretest</th>
<th>Score Posttest</th>
<th>d</th>
<th>Rank of d</th>
<th>Rank with less frequent sign</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>j</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>-16</td>
<td>-8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>-11</td>
<td>-7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>-3</td>
<td>-3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$T = 19.5$

$N=8; T=19.5; p>.05; n.s.$
To examine whether a positive change occurred in the adolescent's perceived level of communication in the parent-adolescent relationship as a result of the parents attending the training program the following question was asked and hypothesis tested.

**Question 2:** Will adolescents of those parents who attend the interpersonal communication skills training program score themselves higher on the level of perceived communication as measured by the PACI Form A after their parents receive the training program than prior to training of the parents?

**Hypothesis 2:** Posttest scores of adolescents whose parents attend the interpersonal communication skills training program will be higher on perceived level of communication as measured by the PACI Form A than their pretest scores.

Table 9 presents the comparisons of matched-pairs scores of adolescents for Group I. The obtained T value was 9.5, which is not significant at the .05 level. Hypothesis 2 was not supported and it was concluded that the difference between pretest and posttest scores of the adolescents' perceived level of communication in the parent-adolescent relationship was not statistically significant.
TABLE 9

Difference Between Pretest and Posttest Scores of Adolescent's Perceived Level of Communication with their Parents - Group I

| Adolescent | Score Pretest | Score Posttest | d   | Rank of d | Rank with less frequent sign |
|------------|--------------|                |     |           |                             |
| a          |  74          |  76            | 2   | 1.5       | 1.5                          |
| b          |  84          |  84            | 0   | 0         |                             |
| c          |  85          |  78            | -7  | -6.5      | 6.5                          |
| d          |  86          |  93            | 7   | 6.5       |                             |
| e          | 101          |  98            | -3  | -3        |                             |
| f          | 108          | 102            | -6  | -5        |                             |
| g          | 109          |  111           | 2   | 1.5       | 1.5                          |
| h          | 110          |  106           | -4  | -4        |                             |

T = 9.5

N=7; T=9.5; p > .05; n.s.

Table 10 presents the difference between pretest and posttest matched scores of Group II adolescents' perceived level of communication with their parents. A T value of 11.5 was obtained which is not significant at the .05 level. Hypothesis 2 was not supported and it was concluded that the difference between pretest and posttest scores of Group II adolescents' perceived level of communication in the parent-
adolescent relationship was not statistically significant.

### TABLE 10

**Difference Between Pretest and Posttest Scores of Adolescent' Perceived Level of Communication with Their Parents - Group II**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adolescent</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
<th>d</th>
<th>Rank of d</th>
<th>Rank with less frequent sign</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>j</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>-6</td>
<td>-4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>-10</td>
<td>-7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>-5</td>
<td>-2.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>-7</td>
<td>-5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>-24</td>
<td>-9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>-9</td>
<td>-6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>-15</td>
<td>-8</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ T = 11.5 \]

N=0; \( T = 11.5 \); \( p > 0.5 \); n.s.
To analyze whether the degree of relationship between like-sex (parent-adolescent) scores were higher than the degree of relationship between opposite-sex (parent-adolescent) scores the following question and hypothesis was tested.

**Question 3:** Will the degree of relationship between like-sex (parent-adolescent) scores be higher than the degree of relationship between opposite-sex (parent-adolescent) scores. These relationships will be investigated for pretest and posttest scores.

**Hypothesis 3:** There will be a higher degree of relationship between like-sex parent-adolescent scores than between opposite-sex parent-adolescent scores.

Table 11 presents correlation coefficients indicating the degree of relationship between like-sex and opposite-sex parent-adolescent scores on the PACI at time of pretest and posttest. Due to the sample size of the study very few of the coefficients are statistically significant for hypothesis 3. It is also for this reason that much weight cannot be given to those coefficients that are statistically significant. Data does not support hypothesis 3 pretest scores for Group I regarding a higher degree of relationship between like-sex parent-adolescent scores than between opposite-sex parent-adolescent scores. Data does support hypothesis 3 pretest scores for Group II regarding a higher degree of relationship between like-sex parent-adolescent scores than between opposite-sex parent-adolescent scores. Data does not support hypothesis 3 posttest scores for Group I and Group II regarding a higher degree of relationship between like-sex parent-adolescent scores than between opposite-sex parent-adolescent scores.
TABLE II

Relationships Between Like-Sex and Opposite-Sex Scores - Group I and Group II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comparison</th>
<th>Pretest Group I</th>
<th>Posttest Group II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>rs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Like-sex</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father-son</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother-daughter</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opposite-sex</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father-daughter</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother-son</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05

Discussion of Results

This discussion will be devoted to examining the results of the data analysis as it relates to the research questions posed in this investigation. These questions precede each discussion section.

Question 1: Will parents who attend the interpersonal communication skills training program score themselves higher on perceived level of communication with their adolescent as measured by the PACI Form P after completing the training program than prior to training?
An analysis of the results indicated that for mothers in Group I the difference between pretest and posttest scores obtained on the PACI Form P for perceived level of communication in the parent-adolescent relationship did change significantly between this time period. For fathers in Group I and mothers in Group II the difference between pretest and posttest perceived level of communication scores made on the PACI Form P during this time period did not change significantly.

**Question 2:** Will adolescents of those parents who attend the interpersonal communication skills training program score themselves higher on the level of perceived communication as measured by the PACI Form A after their parents receive the training program than prior to training of the parents?

An analysis of the results indicated that for adolescents in both Group I and Group II the difference between pretest and posttest scores obtained on the PACI Form A for perceived level of communication in the parent-adolescent relationship did not change significantly during this time period.

**Question 3:** Will the degree of relationship between like-sex (parent-adolescent) scores be higher than the degree of relationship between opposite-sex (parent-adolescent) scores. These relationships will be investigated for pretest and posttest scores.

An analysis of the results indicated no significant relationship between like-sex scores on the posttest for either father-son or mother-daughter matches in either Group I or Group II. This was also true for opposite sex score matches on the posttest.
In conclusion, the data suggests that of the parents who participated in this interpersonal communication skills training program that mothers in Group I did significantly change in their perceived level of communication in the parent-adolescent relationship during this time period. Fathers in Group I and mothers in Group II did not significantly change in their perceived level of communication in the parent-adolescent relationship during this time period. This also held true for adolescents who participated in the program during this time period.
CHAPTER V

COMpendiuM

Summary and Conclusions

The purposes of this investigation were to: 1) present an interpersonal communication skills training program to parents devised to promote positive communication between parents and their adolescent, 2) investigate the relationship between selected factors of parents' and adolescent's perceived level of communication, and 3) suggest program improvements and modifications which would facilitate the presentation of an interpersonal communication skills training program for future use. The primary focus of the training program was on both the cognitive and affective domain of parent and adolescent behavior. To examine whether or not any change in the perceived level of communication had taken place during the training program, the PACI Form A and Form P were administered to adolescents and parents respectively, on a pretest-posttest basis.

Twenty families who were residents of Franklin County, Ohio, with at least one adolescent between the seventh and eleventh grade in October 1974, participated in this investigation. Only parents participated in the actual training program. Families were divided into two groups. Group I consisted of fathers and mothers of adoles-
cents, and Group II was comprised of mothers only. Group I consisted of nine families, with one family dropping out after the initial orientation session. Eleven families made up Group II, with one family refusing to be administered the inventory after the orientation session.

Parents attending the six, two-hour meetings were given a Parent Notebook which contained readings and activities to do at home. Each session between the orientation session and the evaluation session was devoted to teaching a specific interpersonal communication skill for use by the parent in the parent-adolescent relationship. During these sessions a discussion was led by this investigator as to the importance of a particular interpersonal communication skill. The parent was asked to discuss any communication problem he might have in his parent-adolescent relationship, and to role play and practice the skill before attempting to use it at home.

The major questions posed by this investigation may be summarized as follows:

1. Will parents who attend the interpersonal communication skills training program score themselves higher on perceived level of communication with their adolescent as measured by the PACI Form P after completing the training program than prior to training?

2. Will adolescents of those parents who attend the interpersonal communication skills training program score themselves higher on the level of perceived communication as measured by the PACI Form A after their parents receive the training program than prior to training of the parents?

3. Will the degree of relationship between like-sex (parent-adolescent) scores be higher than the degree of relationship between opposite-sex (parent-adolescent) scores. These relationships will be investigated for pretest and posttest scores.
Directional research hypotheses were stated. Analyses of the data provided evidence that supported only one hypothesis. The findings and conclusions of this investigation may be summarized as follows:

1. Parents who participated in the training program did in general score higher on the perceived level of communication in the parent-adolescent relationship on the PACI Form P after the training program. However this change was only significant for mothers in Group I.

2. Adolescent's scores did not change significantly in their perceived level of communication in the parent-adolescent relationship from the pretest to the posttest.

3. There were no data that gave support to the degree of relationship between like-sex (parent-adolescent) scores to be higher than the degree of relationship between opposite-sex (parent-adolescent) scores after the parents had completed the training program. Mothers tended to have better communication with either sex than fathers did.

**Limitations of the Study**

In this study, parents and their adolescents as a group were tested at two stages during an interpersonal communication skills training program. The purpose of the study was to examine whether or not changes took place in the perceived level of communication between parent and adolescent after parents were trained in certain interpersonal communication skills. No attempt was made to examine the influence of demographic or experiential factors on such change. No attempt was made to provide explanations for parent or adolescent behavior changes. The intent was to assess whether or not the perceived level of communication in the parent-adolescent relationship did actually make a change during an interpersonal communication skills training program.
Since no comparisons were made with other interpersonal communication skills training programs, nor with parents enrolled in more traditional parent education programs, no argument can be advanced for the relative efficacy of one program over the other.

A second area of limitation concerns the use of the PACI. While the instrument is designed to measure the level of perceived communication in the parent-adolescent relationship, communication is measured from more or less one point in time. Therefore, if a parent and adolescent had just had an argument, the perceived level of communication in the parent-adolescent relationship may be rated negatively, when in fact there may have been an improved communication level in the parent-adolescent relationship.

Implications

From the analysis of the findings and the conclusions, it appears that there is need for further investigation to gain insight into the types of interpersonal communication skills needed to produce a positive change in parent-adolescent communication. The following suggestions may be helpful in broadening the base of knowledge about what constitutes a good interpersonal communication skills training program for parents and adolescents.

1) Replication of this study with a larger number of subjects and a control group. In this way one could determine whether any significant change in parent-adolescent communication could actually
be attributed to the training program.

2) Establishment of longitudinal studies regarding the carry over of learning interpersonal communication skills in everyday life. Since this study was only a short term investigation, no evidence could be obtained as to the lasting positive change of such a training program on the parent-adolescent relationship and communication.

3) Introduction of variables such as non-intact families, and sex of parent and adolescent, parental income, and parenting philosophy. As the base of knowledge about parent-adolescent communication enlarges, introducing different variables could lead to new insights about factors contributing positively or negatively to communication within the parent-adolescent relationship.
APPENDIX A

PACI - FORM A AND FORM P, MANUALS AND SCORE KEY
FORM A

PARENT-ADOLESCENT
COMMUNICATION INVENTORY

Developed by
MILLARD J. BIENVENU, SR.

With this inventory you are offered an opportunity to make an objective study of communication between yourself and your parents to discover the good points in this relationship and also where you may be having problems. You will find it both interesting and helpful to make this study.

DIRECTIONS

1. The Parent-Adolescent Inventory is not a test. There are no right or wrong answers to it. The most helpful answer to each question is your indication of the way you feel at the moment.

2. Your answers to this inventory are confidential. You are not asked to sign your name or to identify yourself in any way. You can not receive a grade because all of the answers you give are considered right answers for you.

3. Use the following examples for practice. Put a check (/) in one of the three blanks on the right to show how the question applies to you and to your ways of relating to your parents.

    Do others try to see your side of things? ____________
    Do you express your opinions to your parents? _____ _____ _____

4. The YES column is to be used when the question can be answered as happening most of the time or usually. The NO column is to be used when the question can be answered as seldom or never. The middle column SOMETIMES should be marked when you definitely cannot answer YES or NO. USE THIS COLUMN AS LITTLE AS POSSIBLE. Most young people are able to give a yes or no answer to these questions.

5. Read each question carefully and mark your personal answer to it. Be sure to answer every question.

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>usually</th>
<th>sometimes</th>
<th>NO</th>
<th>seldom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Is family conversation easy and pleasant at meals?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do your parents wait until you are through talking before &quot;having their say?&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you pretend you are listening to your parents when actually you have tuned them out?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you feel that your father lectures and preaches to you too much?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does your family do things as a group?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do your parents seem to respect your opinion?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do they laugh at you or make fun of you?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you feel your mother wishes you were a different kind of person?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do either of your parents believe that you are bad?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does your family talk things over with each other?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you discuss personal problems with your mother?</td>
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<td>Do you feel your father wishes you were a different kind of person?</td>
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<td>Do your parents seem to talk to you as if you were much younger than you actually are?</td>
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<td>Do they show an interest in your interests and activities?</td>
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<td>Do you discuss personal problems with your father?</td>
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<td>Does he pay you compliments or say nice things to you?</td>
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<td>Do your parents ask your opinion in deciding how much spending money you should have?</td>
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<td>Do you feel that your father trusts you?</td>
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<td>Do you help your parents understand you by saying how you think and feel?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Does your mother pay compliments or say nice things to you?</td>
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<td>Does she have confidence in your abilities?</td>
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<td>Are your parents sarcastic toward you?</td>
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<td>Do you feel that your mother trusts you?</td>
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<td>Does your father have confidence in your abilities?</td>
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<td>Do you hesitate to disagree with either of your parents?</td>
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</table>
27. Do you fail to ask your parents for things because you believe they will deny your requests? YES       NO
    usually sometimes seldom

28. Does your mother criticize you too much? ________ ________ ________

29. Does your father really try to see your side of things? ________ ________ ________

30. Do either of your parents allow you to get angry and blow off steam? ________ ________ ________

31. Do either of your parents consider your opinion in making decisions which concern you? ________ ________ ________

32. Does your father criticize you too much? ________ ________ ________

33. Do you find your mother’s tone of voice irritating? ________ ________ ________

34. Do your parents try to make you feel better when you are “down in the dumps?” ________ ________ ________

35. Does your mother really try to see your side of things? ________ ________ ________

36. Do you find your father’s tone of voice irritating? ________ ________ ________

37. Do either of your parents explain their reason for not letting you do something? ________ ________ ________

38. Do you feel that your mother lectures and preaches to you too much? ________ ________ ________

39. Do you ask your parents about their reasons for decisions they make concerning you? ________ ________ ________

40. Do you find it hard to say what you feel at home? ________ ________ ________

MAKE SURE YOU HAVE ANSWERED ALL THE QUESTIONS

GENERAL INFORMATION

Your Age: ________ ________ Grade: ________ Sex: Male Female (Circle One)
    Years Months

NAME OF SCHOOL: ____________________ Town You Live In: ____________________

Religion: ____________________

No. of Children Living at Home (not counting yourself) ____________________

Where Do You Fit Into the Family? (Circle One)
    Oldest Child    In the Middle    Youngest Child    Only Child

AT HOME I LIVE WITH: □ Real Mother  □ Real Father
    □ Step-Mother  □ Step-Father

Other: ____________________________

Please fill in the next page
TUNING IN TO YOURSELF

Please write down the first thing that comes to your mind when you read the following words or phrases. Be honest with yourself to derive the maximum benefit from this self-evaluation.

1. Is there a communications gap between you and your father?
   Large Gap  Moderate Gap  Slight Gap  No Gap
   If so, in what way?  

2. Is there a communication gap between you and your mother?
   Large Gap  Moderate Gap  Slight Gap  No Gap
   If so, in what way?  

3. The hardest subject to discuss with my parents is  

4. What worries me most about my future is  

5. The main weakness of American parents is  

6. If 1 could have two things changed in my home life they would be:
   1.  
   2.  

7. It is hard for me to tell another how I really feel inside because  

8. When people first meet me they  

9. If only other people knew what I was really like inside they  

10. The person who best understands me is  

11. I get angry when  

12. IN COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE I WAS:  
   VERY FRANK  FRANK  NOT SO FRANK  

General Information:
Your age   Sex:  Male  Female  Grade  
Your Religion  Father's Occupation  
Mother's Education  Father's Education  

FORM P

PARENT-ADOLESCENT COMMUNICATION INVENTORY
Developed by MILLARD J. BIENVENU, SR.

With this inventory you are offered an opportunity to make an objective study of communication between yourself and your teen-age son or daughter to discover the good points in this relationship and also where you may be having problems. You will find it both interesting and helpful to make this study. Be sure to keep the particular child under study here in mind as you answer the questions below.

DIRECTIONS

1. The Parent-Adolescent Inventory is not a test. There are no right or wrong answers to it. The most helpful answer to each question is your indication of the way you feel at the moment. Be sure to keep one particular son or daughter in mind as you complete this form.

2. Your answers to this inventory are confidential. You are not asked to sign your name or to identify yourself in any way. You can not receive a grade because all of the answers you give are considered right answers for you.

3. Use the following examples for practice. Put a (✓) in one of the three blanks on the right to show how the question applies to you and to your ways of relating to the son or daughter.

   YES       NO
   usually   sometimes   seldom

   Does your son/daughter try to see your side of things?

   Do you express your opinions to him/her?

4. The YES column is to be used when the question can be answered as happening most of the time or usually. The NO column is to be used when the question can be answered as seldom or never.

   The middle column SOMETIMES should be marked when you definitely can not answer YES or NO. USE THIS COLUMN AS LITTLE AS POSSIBLE. Most parents are able to give a yes or no answer to these questions.

5. Read each question carefully and mark your personal answer to it. Be sure to answer every question.

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Box 427, Saluda, N. C. 28773
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Usually</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Is family conversation easy and pleasant at mealtimes?</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Do you wait until your son/daughter is through talking before &quot;having your say?&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Do you pretend you are listening to him/her when actually you have tuned him/her out?</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Does your spouse tend to lecture and preach too much to your son/daughter?</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Does your family do things as a group?</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Does your son/daughter seem to respect your opinion?</td>
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<td>7. Do you ever laugh at your son/daughter or make fun of him/her?</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Do you wish your son/daughter were a different kind of person?</td>
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<td>9. Do you feel that your son/daughter is bad?</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. Does your family talk things over with each other?</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Does your son/daughter discuss personal problems with you?</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. Does your spouse wish your son/daughter were a different kind of person?</td>
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<td>13. Does your son/daughter talk to you in a disrespectful manner?</td>
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<td>14. Do you show an interest in your son's daughter's interests and activities?</td>
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<td>15. Does your son/daughter discuss personal problems with your spouse?</td>
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<td>16. Does your spouse pay your son/daughter compliments or say nice things to him/her?</td>
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<td>17. Do you ask your son's/daughter's opinion in deciding how much spending money he/she should have?</td>
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<td>18. Do you discuss matters of sex with your son/daughter?</td>
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<td>19. Is it easy for your spouse to trust your son/daughter?</td>
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<tr>
<td>20. Does your son/daughter help you to understand him/her by saying how he/she thinks and feels?</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
21. Do you pay compliments or say nice things to your son/daughter?

22. Do you have confidence in his/her abilities?

23. Is your son/daughter sarcastic toward you?

21. Is it easy for you to trust your son/daughter?

25. Does your spouse have confidence in your son's/daughter's abilities?

26. When a difference arises are you and your son/daughter able to discuss it together (in a calm manner)?

27. Do you consider your son's/daughter's ideas in making family decisions?

28. Do you criticize your son/daughter too much?

29. Does your spouse really try to see your son's daughter's side of things?

30. Do you allow your son/daughter to get angry and blow off steam?

31. Do you consider your son's/daughter's opinion in making decisions which concern him/her?

32. Does your spouse criticize your son/daughter too much?

33. Do you find your son's/daughter's voice irritating?

34. Do you try to make your son/daughter feel better when he/she is "down in the dumps?"

35. Do you really try to see your son's/daughter's side of things?

36. Do you encourage your son/daughter to tell you his/her problems?

37. Does your son/daughter really try to see your side of things?

38. Do you tend to lecture and preach too much to your son/daughter?

39. Does your son/daughter accept your reasons for decisions you make concerning him/her?

40. Do you feel it hard to say what you feel in talking with your son/daughter?
GENERAL INFORMATION

Circle whether you are the Mother or the Father of the teen-age son or daughter on whom this study is being made?  Mother  Father

Husband's.

Your Age_________________, Wife's Age_________________, Length of Present Marriage_________________.

Marital Status (Check One):

Married  Separated  Divorced  Widowed

If Separated or Divorced, How Long Has It Been? _______________

Religion ____________________________________________

Your Children: Ages of Boys_________________, Girls_________________, Age of son daughter on Whom This Form Was Completed _______________

YOUR OCCUPATION, ____________________________

HUSBAND'S/WIFE'S OCCUPATION ____________________________

Draw a Circle Around the Number of Years of Schooling Your Husband/Wife Completed.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 1 2 3 4

Grade School  High School  College  Other

How much schooling have you had? _______________

THE MAIN SOURCE OF FAMILY INCOME IS: ____________________________

(Choose one of the following)

a) Savings and Investments.

b) Profits and Fees From a Business or Profession.

c) Salary; Commissions or Regular Income Paid on a Monthly or Semi-Monthly Basis.

d) Wages: Hourly Wages, Piece Work, or Weekly Pay Check.

e) Odd Jobs or Seasonal Work.

f) Social Security, Welfare or Unemployment Insurance.

PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS BY CIRCLING THE APPROPRIATE ANSWER:

1. Is there a "generation gap" (breakdown in communication) between you and your child?

Large Gap  Moderate Gap  Slight Gap  No Gap

2. In your opinion, does a generation gap exist between American teenagers and their parents (speaking of American families in general, not your family)?

Large Gap  Moderate Gap  Slight Gap  No Gap

3. If you feel there is a gap do you think it is larger than in previous generations?

YES  NO

4. How satisfied are you with the way your family communicates with each other?

Very Satisfied  Fairly Satisfied  Unsatisfied  Very Unsatisfied
Communication is how people exchange feelings and meanings as they try to understand one another and come to see problems and differences from the other person's point of view. Communication is not limited to words. It also occurs through facial expressions, gestures, and even through silences and listening. In the family, communication is a major element of interaction. Family happiness and success is commensurate with healthy and open communication; it is the tool by which problem-solving is accomplished.

There are increasing indications that communication failure is a major problem in the contemporary American family. A certain distance between the generations is natural and to be expected but the present gap is greater than necessary. To reduce this gap more effective dialogue and rapport with youth must be achieved by educators, counselors, and parents. And there must be better opportunities to understand feelings and attitudes on both sides of this equation. The Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory has been developed to help with the attainment of these goals.

**USE OF THE INVENTORY**

The Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory (PACI) was designed to help counselors, educators, and researchers assess parent-teen relations for purposes of individual counseling and for a better understanding of today's youth. clinically it is used for assessment (and diagnosis) of communication in the parent-adolescent relationship.

As a counseling tool completion of the PACI will provide clues to communication difficulties in the family constellation. At the same time this inventory helps the adolescent focus on his relationship with his parents in a way that promotes better understanding of his interaction with them. For the nonverbal youngster the PACI may be a medium through which he can express his feelings and make it possible for him to receive and profit from counseling.

In teacher and family life education the PACI has helped educators acquire a deeper understanding of high school students, their perceived relationship with their parents, their concerns and anxieties, and their views about family life. The PACI also lends itself to counseling and research as an objective measuring device in the area of family com-
munication. It provides information needed by counselors and research workers for determining the social class of each counselee or subject according to the McGuire-White Index of Social Status.

In its use in both teaching and research the PACI generates enthusiasm for a better understanding of family communication. Being self-administering and not lengthy, the PACI is suitable for individual and for group administration. Finally, this inventory can be used by individual families to study their own modes of communication. This use stimulates intrafamily dialogue and promotes insights into the internal operation of the family.

ADMINISTERING THE INVENTORY

The 40-item inventory can be administered to a single subject or to groups of subjects. It is best suited for youngsters 13 years and older with two parental figures in the home. These may be the natural parents, adoptive parents, or step-parents. The PACI is a self-inventory in which the subjects respond by checking one of the three answers provided for each question.

Individual Administration. When used with adolescents in a counseling situation it is best to administer the PACI at the conclusion of the initial interview. The counselor should motivate the counselee to be honest and frank by explaining how the inventory will help in counseling and by assuring him of its confidential nature. If time permits, the counselor may read the directions aloud as the youngster follows on his copy.

Group Administration. The administrator should explain the purpose for the administration of the inventory and describe the contribution that cooperation and objectivity will make to the group's study of family communication. He also should reassure subjects of anonymity, and "set the stage," for an atmosphere fostering interest and frankness. Prior planning is necessary to insure a smooth testing situation. Some factors to consider are seating arrangements, size of the group and comfort of the room.

In giving directions for both individual and group administration the counselor or teacher should stress that questions are to be answered according to the way the person feels at the moment and that the "sometimes" column is to be used only when absolutely needed.

There is no time limit for completing the inventory but most subjects take no more than 20 minutes. Upon its completion the subject(s) should be reminded to make sure all items have been answered.

SCORING THE INVENTORY

The three possible responses, "Yes," "Sometimes," and "No," are scored from zero to three with a favorable response (one indicative of good parent-adolescent communication) given the higher score. In some instances the "Yes" response may be favorable, in others unfavorable, depending on the wording of the item. It should be noted that a "Sometimes" response when indicative of a favorable attitude or answer is given a weight of two whereas when suggesting an unfavorable attitude.
given a weight of one. The possible range of scores to be earned on the inventory is from zero to 120. The higher the total score, the higher the level of parent-adolescent communication.

In scoring the answers on the individual inventory the score for each item may be marked along the edge of the page following the “No” response and then sub-totaled at the bottom of each page. The total score, obtained by adding the sub-totals from pages 2 and 3, is placed on the front page in the top right-hand corner. A paper key is provided for scoring.

VALIDITY

The first version of the Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory, following extensive pilot work, consisted of 36 items formulated from a review of the literature and from the author’s clinical experience. Other ideas for item formulation were obtained by examination of existing instruments dealing with family interaction. To promote face validity the 36 items were submitted to a clinical team consisting of a psychiatrist, psychologist and psychiatric social worker whose consensus was that all of the items are relevant to intra-family communication.

Data was then obtained from 376 high school youth in the spring of 1968. At the .01 level of confidence using the chi-square test, 31 of the 36 items were found to discriminate significantly between the upper and lower quartiles. Thirty out of these 31 items showed a discrimination of 20 per cent or better between the upper and lower quartiles. For cross-validation the mean scores of three major sub-groups (three different high schools) within the sample were compared. The same mean was found for two of the schools while the third school was one point higher.

Further validation was obtained from a study of 178 regular-session high school students and 97 summer-session students. The latter group were in attendance at summer school for reasons of failure and under-achievement. Using the “t” test a significant difference was found between the two groups with the regular-session students showing a higher level of parent-adolescent communication. Based on an item analysis of the first study mentioned and an evaluation of the latter study, the PACI then underwent a major revision.

Using this revised version a second quartile comparison was made from a study of 358 high school youth in the fall of 1968. At the .01 level of confidence using the chi-square test all 40 items were found to discriminate significantly between the upper and lower quartiles. Thirty-nine of the 40 items yielded a discrimination of 21 per cent or higher whereas one item showed a discrimination of 14 per cent.

Two additional studies with criterion groups were completed in the early part of 1969. A sample of 59 delinquent youth committed to a state training school was compared to an equal number of non-delinquent youth attending public school. The “t” test revealed a significant difference in the level of parent-adolescent communication between these groups with the 59 non-delinquents showing significantly better communication with their parents.

Twenty-five 10th grade honors students were then compared to 20 remedial students in the same school. Using the Mann-Whitney U test a highly significant difference in the level of parent-adolescent communication between the two groups was found in favor of the honors students.
RELIABILITY

Three reliability studies have been made with the present 40-item inventory. Using the Spearman-Brown formula a split-half correlation coefficient, computed on scores of 74 teen-age subjects on the odd-numbered and on the even-numbered statements, revealed a coefficient of .80 after correction. Using the Spearman Rho a test-retest study of 84 teen-age boys and girls within a three-week period revealed a .78 coefficient of reliability for this inventory. In a second test-retest reliability study of 63 additional subjects within a two-week period a reliability coefficient of .88 was obtained.

NORMS

Total Score

REFERENCES FOR THE COUNSELOR AND TEACHER

Books:


Journal Articles:


REFERENCES FOR THE COUNSELOR, TEACHER AND FAMILY


Books listed here may be ordered from

Family Life Publications, Inc., Box 427, Saluda, North Carolina 28773
FORM P

A COUNSELOR'S GUIDE
To Accompany

A Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory

by

MILLARD J. BIENVENU, SR.

Form P of the Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory is designed to measure the parent's perceived communication with the adolescent. It is a tool to help counselors, researchers and family life educators assess parent-teen relations for purposes of individual counseling and for a deeper understanding of today's families and youth. This form of the PACI is offered as a counterpart to Form A. The items in Form P are in most instances the counterparts of the items in Form A and provide a two-sided approach to understanding the process of communication in the parent-adolescent relationship.

USE AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE INVENTORY

The PACI lends itself for use in many settings where social workers, counselors, teachers, psychologists and related professionals work with parents and adolescents. As a counseling tool, Form P may be used initially in diagnosis for assessment of communication in the parent-adolescent relationship. Then, as a supplement to a counseling interview, it will provide clues to communication failures and patterns in this relationship. It also helps parents better understand the interaction with their adolescent. For the nonverbal parent Form P provides an excellent medium for the expression of feelings and for the acquisition of deeper insights into his or her relationship with a teenage son or daughter.

An especially valuable counseling technique—and communication exercise for the family—is to have the parents and the adolescent complete their respective forms, exchange them and then compare and discuss their answers with the help of the counselor. This can be done during or following the initial interview. This exercise affords the counselor a firsthand look at how the parent(s) and the adolescent interact and communicate with each other.

Form P is also an excellent family life education device. It will help educators acquire a deeper understanding of parents, their perceived relationship with their adolescents, and their views on the controversial "generation gap." It can be used with groups of parents as a springboard for discussion in meetings, and as a survey tool to furnish information for a program centered around parent-adolescent communication.
Parents and teenagers can be brought together in a family life education meeting for an exercise in parent-teen communication as outlined here or, individual families may be instructed on how to conduct this exercise at home. It is important that the family life educator specify exactly the ground rules under which this activity can be successful at home or in his presence. Among these would be: 1) a mutual agreement and commitment on the part of the parent and the adolescent to participate; 2) a mutual desire to be calm and objective in this study of their communication patterns; 3) a willingness to listen and to honestly evaluate the constructive criticisms and comments offered by each side; and 3) an agreement by the parents to avoid admonishments and reprimands that might normally emerge from an honest expression of feelings by the adolescent and an agreement by the latter to avoid rejecting and condemning or accusing remarks in response to honest expressions of feelings by the parent(s). Adherence to these conditions can result in a dynamic therapeutic experience for the family.

Form P, as with Form A, also lends itself to research as an objective measuring device in the area of family communication. A great advantage, not usually found with other instruments measuring parent-child interaction, is in being able to obtain information from both the parents and the adolescent. These inventories also provide information needed by research workers for determining the social class of each subject according to the Mc gums-White Index of Social Status.*


ADMINISTERING FORM P

The 10-item inventory can be administered to a single subject or to groups of subjects. It can be completed by one or both parents of an adolescent (or preadolescent) son or daughter. Subjects should understand clearly that they are to respond in terms of their social-emotional relationship to and communication with a particular son or daughter. A 7th grade reading level is sufficient for understanding the questions in Form P which also is a self-inventory. The subjects respond by checking one of the answers provided for each question.

Individual Administration. When used with parents in a counseling situation it is best to administer the PACI at the conclusion of the initial interview. The counselor should motivate the counselor to be honest and frank by explaining how the inventory will help in counseling and by assuring him of its confidential nature. If time permits, the counselor may read the directions aloud as the parent follows on his copy.

Group Administration. The administrator should explain the purpose for the administration of the inventory and describe the contribution that cooperation and objectivity will make to a study of communication with teen-agers. He also should assure subjects of anonymity, and "set the stage," for an atmosphere fostering interest and frankness. Prior planning is necessary to insure a smooth testing situation. Some factors to consider are seating arrangements, size of the group and comfort of the room.
In giving directions for both individual and group administration the counselor should stress that questions are to be answered according to the way the person feels at the moment and that the "sometimes" column is to be used only when absolutely needed.

There is no time limit for completing the inventory but most subjects take no more than 20 minutes. Upon its completion the subjects should be reminded to make sure all items have been answered.

SCORING THE INVENTORY

The scoring procedure of Form P is the same as for Form A. Be sure to use the scoring key provided for FORM P. The Form A key will yield a distorted score because some of the items in Form P are not identical to those in Form A.

In scoring Form P the three possible responses, "Yes," "Sometimes," and "No," are scored from zero to three with a favorable response (one indicative of good parent-adolescent communication) given the higher score. In some instances the "Yes" response may be favorable, in others unfavorable, depending on the wording of the item. It should be noted that a "Sometimes" response when indicative of a favorable attitude or answer is given a weight of two whereas when suggesting an unfavorable attitude given a weight of one. The possible range of scores to be earned on the inventory is from zero to 120. The higher the total score, the higher the level of parent-adolescent communication.

In scoring the answers on the individual inventory the score for each item may be marked along the edge of the page following the "No" response and then sub-totaled at the bottom of each page. The total score, obtained from adding the sub-totals from pages 2, and 3, is placed on the front page in the top right-hand corner. A paper key is provided for scoring.

Form A Norms may not be used in evaluation of Form P scores. Norms for Form P are not yet available. These are in progress. Dr. Bienvenu will welcome letters from educators or counselors who are willing to contribute data toward these norms.

Write To: Dr. Millard J. Bienvenu, Sr., Head
Dept. of Sociology-Social Work
Northwestern State College of Louisiana
Natchitoches, Louisiana 71457
### SCORING KEY
Parent Adolescent Communication Inventory
Form A
Responses and Weights to Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>YES usually</th>
<th>sometimes</th>
<th>NO seldom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
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APPENDIX B

PARENT NOTEBOOK
PARENT-ADOLESCENT
INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION
SKILLS TRAINING - PARENT NOTEBOOK
by
Kent G. Hamdorf

An educational experience for those people who take PARENTING seriously.

This Parent Notebook is not to be reproduced or used without the expressed consent of the author.
Memo To Parents:

This Parent Notebook is designed specifically to help you as a parent develop better interpersonal communication skills with your adolescent. While most of the principles, skills, and concepts used in the notebook have been designed for you, the parent, to use with your adolescent, they also will apply to other interpersonal relationships, as well.

The basic philosophies, concepts, and skills will be discussed and demonstrated in each meeting by the facilitator. Experience has proved that a good deal of just plain hard work (practice), dedication, and discipline outside of each meeting is very essential for a person to develop skills in order to communicate. This Parent Notebook is designed to help you practice some of the skills for using in your search for a positive growth-producing relationship with your adolescent.

Please note that each parent will receive a Parent Notebook. Even though you receive separate Parent Notebooks you are encouraged to work with your spouse on the exercises. You may decide to do the exercises separately, then discuss them jointly, or to work on them entirely as a joint project. Whatever you decide, you are strongly encouraged to do the exercises in order to receive the utmost benefit from your parent-adolescent relationship by doing these exercises.

There is an old saying that "practice makes perfect"; so it is with practicing these skills. Practice with your spouse, adolescent, children, neighbor. These are the most effective ways for you to develop your interpersonal communication skills. After awhile they will become a part of you - the real YOU. They will feel natural.

Please feel free to bring to the meetings any issues and concerns that you have when doing the Parent-At-Home-Activities. Personal expressions will not only prove to be valuable insights for you, but also for members of the series.

It is the sincere wish of the facilitator that his Parent-Adolescent Training Programming in Communication Skills Training will be a truthfully worthwhile and rewarding experience in enriching your relationship with your adolescent.
## AT-HOME-READING AND ACTIVITIES

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"Parenting Philosophies"

To be or not to be a parent is not the real question to be answered in this series of meetings. Rather the questions to be answered are "What kind of parent am I?" "How can I better establish a good communication pattern with my teenager?"

It has been said, "It is easy to become a parent, but very difficult to be one." Parents have two major concerns, the first is to provide for their children and adolescents the physical needs (food, shelter, and clothing). Without these essentials children would die. Today, especially in these United States, physical survival is almost guaranteed.

The second major concern most parents have in raising their children is emotional satisfaction. How to raise a satisfied, fully alive, self-fulfilled and constructive human being. This task, more than any other parenting task is one of the hardest to fulfill. Parents are constantly bombarded by mass media, child development specialists, literature, etc. on child management practices. Many parents come away from this material bewildered, fearful, and defeated. The knowledge of child management is usually only fragmenting, reliance on "old-fashioned" methods is weakening, disillusionment with the experts is growing, and emotional disturbance of our youth remains high.

The Family As A Factory

Virginia Satir describes the family as a "factory", where either a physically healthy, mentally alert, feeling, loving, playful, authentic, creative, productive, non-creative and non-warm person is developed. Or it can be a factory where a non-productive, non-creative and non-warm person is developed. As adults, you are the people-makers. The ingredients that you add to the finished product are:

- the feelings and ideas one has about himself, called self-worth
- the ways people work out to make meaning with one another, called communication
- the rules people use for how they should feel and act, which eventually develop into the family system
- the way people relate to other people and institutions outside the family, called the link to society

A successful parent-adolescent relationship depends upon good positive communication between the two generations. Communication can
develop a positive self-worth, communication can clarify the message being sent and received, and communication can let everyone know the rules in which they can operate within the family and society. Ask yourself the following questions:

- Does it feel good to you to live in your family right now?
- Do you feel you are living with friends, people you like and trust and who like and trust you?
- Is it fun and exciting to be a member of your family?

The Parent As An Adult

To be successful as a parent also depends upon both parents and adolescents being able to have many of their own needs met through the relationship. At the same time parents must also fulfill their adult needs, not all of which can be met through the role of parent. In fact, for many parents the role causes the adult to become somewhat constricted in the way in which they relate to children and others. In order for adolescents to enhance their own emotional growth and maturity it is important that adults remain as "adults" in their role of parent. To assure this, parents must find activities and relationships apart from their adolescents where adult needs can be fulfilled and adult behavior can be expressed. Husbands and wives should find this with each other in activities outside the parent-adolescent relationship (friends, associates, and adult activities). The parents must nurture and share love, affection, and intimacy in their relationship. Nothing is more meaningful to the growth and emotional development of the adolescent than the realization that their parents truly care for each other.

COMMON PARENTAL PHILOSOPHIES

Parents have been bombarded over the past many years with a confusing array of advice through books, magazine articles, newspaper columns, coffee-klatch conversations, and parents from past generations handing out their advice on how to parent. Those suggestions and information at times are most confusing and often contradicting. Added to this, is the idea of "I was raised by a mother and father and lived in a family, therefore I have the experience necessary to be a parent." Unfortunately there is a lot more to parenting than just having been raised in a family setting.

Most adults function as parents in one of three broadly defined areas and all encompass the use of power in the relationship. These three areas are: the Authoritarian Approach, the Permissive Approach, and the Democratic Approach. The person who usually holds the power in any one of these approaches is the parent. Therefore, the parent must learn to use his power in the most constructive, growth-producing way in order for the adolescent to grow into a
productive adult. Briefly listed below are explanations of the three approaches. While there is some overlapping, parents should be able to identify the attitudes they hold most consistently.

The Authoritarian Approach

The authoritarian approach is the oldest and most widely used in raising children and adolescents. The authoritarian parent applies the dictum of obedience as being good and obedience without question is very good by insisting that the adolescent obey and conform to the wishes of the parent without questions, complaints, and defiance. To secure this obedience the parent, through use of power, imposes his will on the adolescent, relying on force, threat, intimidation (making the adolescent feel not good, guilt, and wrong) to bring about the desired behavior. The decisions the parents make regarding appropriate behavior are not usually affected by what the adolescent does, who he is, or what the adolescent feels.

Like any other human being, the adolescent reacts to this superimposed behavior by defensiveness; fear, hostility and helplessness, along with feelings of guilt, anxiety and hostility. Adolescents act out their negative feelings aggressively by fighting, being defiant, rebelling, conspiring, and lying, etc. They also act out their negative feelings passively by withdrawing, daydreaming, procrastinating, and fantasizing.

The parents who use the authoritarian approach are not really involved with the adolescent, as their decisions affecting the adolescent seldom take the adolescent into account. They simply do what they feel they should do, and say whatever they feel they should say with little regard to what is going on inside the adolescent. The parent does not involve the adolescent in the relationship, and the value to the adolescent of growing up in a close relationship with the parent is lost.

A serious drawback of the authoritarian parent is that most parents occasionally feel wrong and guilty using their parental power, even though it comes so easily and so naturally to most parents. Thus, parents feel that they have been too arbitrary, too strong, or too demeaning toward their children; they may do a complete about-face and be more concerned, and more considerate toward their adolescent until such time as they have reduced the guilt feelings, then they go back to being authoritarian again. This kind of inconsistent vacillation is most confusing and distressing to the adolescent and creates great emotional conflict in many cases.

The Permissive Approach

The permissive method has some very important aspects for consideration. The adolescent is generally treated more fairly, what he says is taken into consideration, he is encouraged to be more creative and assertive, there is less use of negative punishment, and there is
The adolescent is amenable to the changes in, and modifications of his behavior because of an innate need to do those things which please and bring the acceptance of others. However, the permissive parent tends to avoid expressing expectations and directives which give the adolescent an indication of what is expected. As a result, the adolescent, not knowing this, often feels quite uncertain in his relationship with his parents and becomes demanding, inconsiderate, selfish, and insensitive. Although the general quality of the relationship may be better in a permissive home than in an authoritarian home, the adolescent frequently grows up to be insecure and lacking in self-direction.

A problem within the permissive home is that when the adolescent defines the behavior his decisions may be dangerously impractical or illegal. Most permissive parents are thus forced to become authoritarian in order to prevent such behavior. But, being uncomfortable in that role, they quickly revert to permissiveness again. This vacillation happens often enough in many permissive homes to cause the parents to seem inconsistent and arbitrary.

The Democratic Approach

Parents who use the democratic approach are quick to make clear to their adolescent the standards which they feel as parents expect in attitudes and behavior. They let the adolescent know where they, as parents, stand in terms of values, approach to life, cooperative attitudes around the house and in other facets of life. The democratic parent is willing to set firm limits in matters of health, safety, and family welfare, and enforce those limits with discipline if necessary. At the same time, the democratic parent encourages self-assertion, self-expression, and independent experimentation and decision making.

The democratic parent is wholly committed to the relationship with the adolescent and values the communication that flows between two individual human beings. When pointing the way to the adolescent, reason and explanation accompany requests.

At the same time, the democratic parent is as demanding of himself as he is of the adolescent, being both consistent in his own behavior and an effective model as well. The democratic parent is most concerned about the adolescent's ability to get along with other people, to develop consideration for the rights and feelings of others; to understand what is required of being a member of a family while the adolescent becomes a unique being.

The democratic parent respects the adolescent's independent actions and does not reward dependency. The parent sees to it that regulations are clearly and effectively enforced, but that the adolescent is encouraged to participate in setting the regulations
and defining the method of enforcement. Democratic parents balance much warmth with their control, and when issuing demands do so with clear communication about what is expected.

The democratic parent, while at the same time assuming the responsibility for the direction of the parent-adolescent relationship, is committed to involving the adolescent in the relationship as well. Through proper discipline, effective communication, and setting an appropriate adult example, the democratic parent helps the adolescent become responsible, self-directed, and concerned for the rights and feelings of other people.
EXPLORATIONS IN INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION PARENTING SKILLS

Part I Where Am I As A Parent?

1a. Envision a business progress chart as you draw a line that depicts the past, present, and future of your parenting. On this line mark an "X" to show where you are now.

1b. Write a brief explanation of the parenting line that you have drawn, describing your parenting philosophy. (You may want to refer to the types of parenting philosophy found in the Parent Notebook.)

1c. This part of the experience is called "Who Am I As A Parent?" Write down ten words that describes yourself most accurately in regard to being a parent.
1d. With your spouse discuss this page. Listen to your spouse, see if your ideas are similar.

2a. Describe the insights you gained from listening to your spouse about his/her parenting philosophy.

2b. Discuss with your spouse what you had in common and what you did not have in common.

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2c. From the questions you answered about being a parent and the knowledge you gained about your parenting philosophy, establish with your spouse what type of parenting philosophy will work for your family.
Activity Sheet #2

EXPLORATIONS IN INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION PARENTING SKILLS

Positive Parenting Reinforcement

Part I

Strength Sheet

Write the name of your spouse on this "Strength Sheet." Then, list the positive characteristics of your spouse, as you see them. Perhaps give a brief paragraph telling him/her where and how you visualize his/her strengths, talents, and abilities being used.

Strength Sheet for ______________________________
1) Describe in your own words what insights you gained from the "Strength Sheet" given to you.

2) State an Ultimate Objective which you have in mind for your future as it concerns parenting. (This is a generality; not a specific item.)

3) Write a Goal - for yourself - which is (a) personal, (b) attainable, (c) verifiable.

4) Make a plan to accomplish your goal. (This plan may involve you alone, one or more family members, etc.)
THE ADULT AS A PARENT - PART II

"Myths and Fallacies About The Parents' Real Role"

Many parents carry with them a lot of assumption they have learned in growing up either from their own parents, peer group, or society's belief as to what constitutes a good parent. These assumptions were treated as realities, and cover such things as: it is right to keep up a pretense that all is well when it isn't, work is good, and acquiring things is important. While these assumptions were often useful to the parent during his own childhood, the rapid rate of social change does not make these assumptions realities for this generation of adolescents. The same things holds true for some of the pet notions or ideas that parents have on how adolescents should be raised. The majority of these notions or ideas need to be challenged and questioned to see if they are consistent with today's parenting philosophies and social change and to see if new and more sensible ideas might not be substituted for the old. Hauck (1967) in his book on The Rational Management of Children suggests the following erroneous beliefs of child management (pp. 15-39).

Error #1 - Children Must Not Challenge Their Superiors

Children are taught to respect adults and in particular to "honor thy father and thy mother." True, this is as it should be, it makes the child aware of the superior wisdom and experience that an adult may have from his experiences in life. However, when we discourage our child from questioning and disagreeing with us; this sets up an inefficient method of child guidance for the following reasons:

1) It places the adult in the position of playing God. No one can ever be right at all times. Some of the disagreement and questioning we get from our child may well be because he is right and we are wrong. A child is not being disrespectful of his parents or adults when he is questioning, he is simply showing he has some ideas and feelings.

The parent who is calm, mature, and self-assured accepts his less than God-like wisdom and when under fire from his child does not feel threatened. For him honor is a thing to work for, not demand.
2) Silence does not mean agreement. Simply because the child does not say anything and is forced to do as a parent says is no proof that he really agrees with him. In all probability the difference of opinion will be stronger than ever. It is an empty victory for an adult; nothing constructive has been accomplished.

3) By failing to allow the child to express himself, parents do not help the child to think or express himself. If parents want to prepare their child for adulthood, the child must be encouraged in the skills of thinking and expressing himself. When parents do all the decision-making, a child is encouraged to become dependent upon that parent.

4) A parent asks the child to be untruthful. For the most part a child's disagreement stems from his sincere belief that he is right. True, the child may be in error, but until worked through with him, his view, for him, is correct. Therefore, when the grownup demands total agreement he is really telling the child to lie to himself.

5) Guilt can be created. If a child is accused of breaking one of God's commandments each time he disagrees with a parent's thinking he may develop feelings of being evil, sinful and wicked. This stems from the confusion between disapproval and honor; they are not the same. It is possible for a child to honor his parents and to disagree with them over issues at the same time.

6) Lastly, the child is denied the most essential tool for control of the emotions; the ability to reason. Reason helps a person rid himself of negative emotions.

It is safe to say that the parent(s) who adheres to this notion is planting seeds for future emotional pain. It is small wonder that this pet notion could be classified by the child as being rude and disrespectful.

Error #2 - A Child and His Behavior Are The Same

Probably one of the most common errors a parent makes is to judge a child as good or bad by his actions. This is to say a bright student is thought to be a better person than a dull one, and a skilled child is judged as being a better child than an unsilled one. In each of these situations the child involved is judged either good or bad.

This kind of thinking makes sense only if it is possible for humans never to misbehave or act inappropriately. It does not allow for accepting human beings as they really are: error-prone. It is important for a parent(s) to separate behavior from the person involved. We do not necessarily consider a person to be strange if he has a rare disease. We clearly separate the disease he has from him as a person in our thinking. There are at least three good reasons which account for objectionable behavior: 1) The child has low intelligence, 2) The child was ignorant or unskilled, and 3) The child is emotionally disturbed.
When a child does misbehave a parent needs to consider this list to see if one of the reasons fits with the behavior, then begin to help the child correct his behavior. In the end it will lead to a better parent-child relationship.

Error #3 - Punishment, Guilt, and Blame Are Effective Methods of Child Management

For too long parents have punished their child in anger, left the child thinking he was bad for acting badly (inappropriately), and instilled guilt for inappropriate behavior, whenever possible. For child guidance to be helpful it should satisfy the following three standards.

1) The discipline applied by the parent must not become a new crime, (for who then is really misbehaving?). For example, to cut off the hand of a thief may cure him of stealing, but in the end is sure to create more problems for him.

2) Undesirable behavior must become more desirable in some other way. For a child to stop thumb-sucking, only to start wetting the bed, profits no one.

3) The child must not only change in his outward behavior, but in his inward thinking as well. The child who is forced to change will comply only in the company of adults and do as he really feels as soon as he is on his own.

Harsh physical punishment, blame and guilt satisfy none of these criteria. In fact, they often lead to the criticism mentioned above.

Physical punishment and blame are aimed more at revenge than correction. Rather than punish with physical force it is better to discipline by showing the child the logical results of his misbehavior. Let us act rather than scold or sermonize. If applied in a calm, deliberate manner the child has time to think over his misbehavior without being in physical pain. His mind is free to concentrate on what he might do to avoid such unpleasant punishment in the future.

For too long, guilt has been regarded as absolutely essential to good conduct. Too often parents feel if you take away guilt, moral life would collapse. If guilt is such an efficient method to control behavior why do we have so much misbehavior? The truth is guilt only confuses the child's thinking so much so that he does not know how to avoid it. As stated before, a child must be able to think calmly about what will happen if he misbehaves in order for him to prevent it.

In summary, physical punishment (except as a last resort), blame, and guilt tend to create emotional disturbances and misconduct rather than reduce them. Discipline should be administered without guilt or blame and focused on the problem, rather than the child.
Error #4 - Children Learn More From What Their Parents Say Than From What They Do

"Do as I say, not as I do" is familiar advice given many children by adults who know only too well they themselves cannot often follow their own good advice. Yet so strong is the belief that lectures and advice are enough to train children, we ignore the obvious fact that we are always repeating ourselves. Why? Because more than advice is needed. We must be prepared to do what we advise.

If a parent shows through behavior that he seldom becomes angry over frustrations, he is giving evidence that what he says works. If it is possible for him it is possible for the child.

A child who is told he can control his temper at all times but sees his parents quarreling most of the time cannot take their statements seriously. He naturally wonders why they don't follow their advice if it is so good.

Verbal description can only go so far in teaching a skill. Imagine a painter or mechanic trying to describe only with words how to paint a landscape or adjust a carburetor. As a picture is worth a thousand words, so also is a demonstration. Parents who themselves save money can teach this by example so much more easily than parents who are careless with money.

Obviously more than merely setting an example is involved. If mother who is a perfect housekeeper nags at her daughter to keep a clean house, the resentment over the nagging may be so intense the girl may well have a sloppy house of her own someday despite the good example set by her mother.

If the adult has been reasonable with the child but a cherished lesson has not been learned, it can usually be assumed that the adult was practicing as he was preaching. Our actions are so much a part of us we easily become unaware of them. A perfectly well-meaning person may scold her child for procrastination yet not realize this is one of her biggest faults which the child is copying. This, in fact, is one good way to become aware of our own unconscious habits; observe our children. More than we realize it they are imitating us.

Error #5 - A Parent's Praise Spoils A Child

Too often as parents we take the good work and the success of our children for granted and seldom give special notice to their accomplishments. Is it because we as parents feel embarrassed, or because we were not praised when we were children? Some people believe it is a combination of both. Regardless, we as parents welcome praise and recognition for our good works. Just as we like to have praise and recognition for our success, so does a child. When we praise a child (or adult), we should remember: a) praise the act, not the child, b) praise is like a reward, strengthening the bo-
behavior, c) praise helps the person feel good about himself, he feels worthwhile.

Praise, if properly applied in a sincere fashion to the child's behavior, will be the finest food for his personality development. If a parent is going to err as to praise, he is doing less harm if he over-praises than if he under-praises. The dozens of "thank you," "nicely done," etc., throughout the day are helpful and need never be spared. These compliments help the child develop a very positive self-concept.

Error #6 - A Child Must Not Be Frustrated

Life is a series of problems and frustrations. For this reason, many parents out of concern and love for their child are over-protective of many of life's hard knocks. Many parents do this in the belief that life will all too soon force unpleasantness upon their child. True, this is a noble gesture by the parents, but all too often it's carried to an extreme. Since frustration is a part of life, it should not be denied the child. Instead, the parent needs to concern himself more with the task of helping his child learn how to remove frustrations, if possible, or otherwise to live with them. The reasons are: a) the protective parent who allows himself to take over his child's problem may well eliminate the problem at that point in time, but is sure to make the child's adulthood more frustrating, b) the problems and frustration of life puts color and flavor into life, challenging one's human resources. Boredom can be a greater frustration and source of unhappiness than many of the problems that are presented as a person. A person creates his own happiness by his ability to avoid unnecessary frustration, living calmly with those that cannot be removed for the present or forever, and being able to remove or at least minimize problems after they arise.

The considerate parent, therefore, tries to be fair to his child, allowing him to experience frustrations, and allowing the child to see that he is not perfect, remembering that as a person the parent, as well as the child, has a right to imperfections.

Error #7 - Spare the Rod and Spoil the Child - Heavy Penalties Work Best If Applied First

Too often as parents we get caught up with the notion; "one for good measure." Giving a child "one for good measure" somehow conveys to the parent the idea the child "couldn't have failed to get the message." Yet, this over-emphasis on the part of the parent has its serious drawbacks. For example, a grossly unfair and excessive penalty is likely to breed resentment in the child who may then turn around and defy his parents in conscious, or subconscious ways.

Parents should remember these points about discipline.
1) Discipline must fit the deed, not exceed it. 2) It should be applied gradually, getting more intense by degrees. 3) Discipline should be evaluated from time to time to see if it is accomplishing its purpose. If misconduct continues, parents need to discuss the problem with the child, remembering that listening and cooperating with the child is the most satisfactory form of child guidance.

**Error #8 - A Child Must Earn His Parents' Love**

Parents intuitively feel that reward tends to strengthen desirable behavior and punishment to weaken undesirable behavior. Therefore, they reason that love, a great reward, should be given as a reward for good conduct and withheld as punishment for misconduct. This notion is deceptively simple and misleading for it almost invariably leads to unexpected complications.

1. Just as we would not take away his books to punish him for a poor report card, so we must not withhold our love because he misbehaves. For the grades cannot improve without books available for study, and behavior cannot improve when we demonstrate through holding back our love that the child is unworthy of it.

We might justifiably decide that our children also had to earn their bread and butter. After all, they had no choice in the matter of being born and for that reason we recognize our responsibilities as parents to give them what they need to grow, both physically and mentally. Food, shelter and clothing are required for physical well-being, and love is required (for children at least) for emotional well-being.

2. To use love as a payment for good conduct is terribly hard on the learning process. It is literally a feast or famine proposition. The child is either a king or a beggar and his mind cannot relax enough to control his behavior if every action is going to head to such extremes. He focuses instead on what is going to happen to him, not how he might solve his problems at the moment. In other words he becomes distracted from the task at hand. Try to imagine how much you as an adult could learn about your job if you knew that one mistake would get you fired. Then you have some idea of why a child cannot profit from his experience either when his entire security is in the balance for each and every action.

To do his best a child must never worry over being loved and thought worthwhile. With this security in the background his energies of concentration and analysis are free to study and evaluate his actions. When he fails he will be calm though regretful and look back on his performance to see how it might be improved.
Error #9 - Children Should Be Calmed First, Adults Second

As parents we are continually being frustrated by our children. This is a fact of life which will never change. All behavior between people is frustrating at one time or another. We can only hope to minimize these frustrations, never eliminate them totally. Can we conclude, therefore, that happiness depends upon how much frustration one has to face? That is, will Billy, because he has at least three significant problems or "crosses to bear" such as a drunken father, poverty, and an unpleasant job at the garage after school, be more unhappy than Tommy whose parents are both in good health, are well-to-do, and who has a car of his own to cruise around in after school? Perhaps many people would automatically say Tommy must be happier than Billy. And perhaps they would be right. However, they would just as likely be wrong since happiness depends not on our frustrations or deprivations (short of physical pain) but on our attitudes over our deprivations. Billy, therefore, could well be the happier of the two boys although he is the more frustrated. Although Tommy has "everything" he may whine about not having a newer car, or not enough spending money, or time to enjoy himself away from homework. In short, he may feel quite miserable.

This example merely serves to show that frustration and emotional disturbance are different. To repeat, our children frustrate us (gives us problems) but they do not disturb us or make us unhappy.

In 99 percent of the families this is not understood. What they believe is the following:

1. We upset children by frustrating them.
2. They upset us after they become disturbed.
3. To restore peace and harmony, the child's emotions must first be calmed.
4. Then the parents' disturbance will ease off.

This may seem like simplicity and logic itself, but it is inaccurate and only works sporadically. We have just seen that a frustration does not need to lead to a disturbance. This applies to children as well as parents. Therefore, their problems or disturbances, which are our frustrations, cannot in turn upset us unless we allow them to do so.

Let us regard our children's frustrating behavior as Problem Number One, and our emotional reactions to Problem One as Problem Number Two. Thus, Robert, who is bringing home poor grades is frustrating us since he can do much better but won't. We could calmly think over this problem and decide to make Robert study harder, take away some of his privileges, or get him a tutor. If these measures do not work we can calmly think up other solutions, and these failing perhaps accept the boy as a poor student.
Most parents however, do not take such a calm approach. When faced with a frustrating problem, they usually upset themselves. Instead of having one difficulty to deal with, they now have two; the frustrating child and their uncomfortable emotional reactions to him. Often his second problem becomes far more annoying than the first. If this were not inefficient enough, the parent usually commits another error at this point; while he himself is still upset he attempts to deal with the child. This can often be a serious mix-up in priorities. Before problems outside of us can be solved we must first solve our own. The disturbed parent cannot do a good job of managing his or her children while still disturbed. Unless the adult is physically or emotionally in shape, his efforts at dealing with the outside problems will always be inferior to what they otherwise might be.

Good child management proceeds along these lines:

1. We frustrate our child, who then, because of their immaturity, upset themselves.
2. We accept this as Problem One, to be worked on and solved, not as a reason for us to create Problem Two (self-disturbance).
3. Having remained calm and limiting our problems just to one (outside of ourselves) we devote our attention to the child and apply all our knowledge to helping them calm down also and then teach them to remove, minimize, or avoid future frustrations.

THE ADULT AS A PARENT - PART III

"The Parents' Real Role"

As a parent he is charged with three main responsibilities. These are: to provide a healthy atmosphere, to encourage independence, and avoid pity.

First and foremost parents need to provide a healthy atmosphere, one which facilitates growth and cooperation. The parent must learn to accept and respect his adolescent, to treat him as an equal person entitled to basic human rights. As a parent he must learn to listen to and help clarify his child's thoughts and feelings. He must empathize rather than sympathize with his adolescent. The parent must learn to encourage his adolescent, to promote a sense of responsibility, and to set limits in a democratic fashion.

The second responsibility of parenting is to encourage independence. To foster independence the parent must permit the adolescent to experiment and develop his own capabilities. By trusting his adolescent he can communicate his faith in the adolescent's ability to function. The parent who is interested in promoting this quality looks for every opportunity to encourage independence, refraining from making decisions that the adolescent is capable of making. The parent allows the adolescent to make his own decisions, he does not preclude the need for parental guidance. It is through friendly discussion the parent helps the adolescent explore alternatives, clarify his action and implement his plan. It is only then that he will learn to function adequately when he experiences the consequences of his decisions.

Third, the parent avoids pity. Very damaging for an adolescent is for the parent to show pity or feel sorry for the adolescent. Feeling sorry for the adolescent only weakens and robs him of the courage needed to face life. The adolescent that is pitied soon learns to rely on self-pity as a way of avoiding unpleasant situations. At times he will manipulate others to feel sorry for him, hoping they will solve his problem for him.

The parent instead helps the adolescent face disappointment by recognizing and communicating that he is disappointed. He treats
disappointments as a fact of life. If a tragedy should occur, he helps
the adolescent plan ahead rather than dwell on the tragedy. He gets
the adolescent involved, keeps him busy. At the same time parents must
watch their own behavior, as adolescents tend to model what they see,
especially a parent.

Changing Your Parenting Role

The parent who wants to change his part in the interaction with
the adolescent can usually do so without changing his basic personality.
For the most part the parent only needs to learn more effective be-
haviors. Changing behavior requires basically two qualities: courage
and commitment. If you are courageous and really believe what you are
reading is what is needed for yourself and your adolescent, then success
with changing your role is fairly good. If, however, you lack courage,
or are not certain that this approach is for you, your chances are not
very good. Commitment involves taking specific principles and execut­
ing them as consistently as possible.

Secondly, the parent must refuse to be over-concerned about what
others think. If parents become concerned with what their neighbors,
their adolescent's teacher, or their own parents will think, chances
are they will fail. It is important to recognize that those who look
down on an individual are really expressing their own insecurity. When
a parent recognizes this, ignoring the opinion of others becomes less
difficult. The essential question that must be asked is: which is
more important to me, the opinions of others or my adolescent's wel­
fare?

The adolescent who is raised in a healthy atmosphere becomes
self-sufficient and independent. He is prepared to meet life head
on, standing on his own two feet. Through his courage and self-
confidence he increases his ability to handle difficulties and make
responsible decisions. Above all, he is a happy person enjoying life
and all it offers.

Reconstructing A Sound Parent Philosophy

Of primary concern in parent-adolescent interaction is being
able to know what causes the parent to do what he does. In order for
any situation to have a positive impact it must be thought through in
a calm and positive manner. Too often a parent will feel he is being
attacked, turning defensive toward the adolescent or other person.
This error is without doubt one of the primary mistakes made by adults
and must be corrected before good parent-adolescent interaction can
proceed. In order to do this and in order to begin to reconstruct a
sound parent philosophy we must first understand the difference between
three sets of terms: physical vs. psychological attack, frustration
vs. emotional disturbances, and desires vs. needs.
Physical vs. Psychological Attack. Any harm done to the body by an outside force, or by denying the body its essentials such as food, liquid, air, and warmth, can be called a physical attack. Such assaults can be committed against us by others, by the environment, or by ourselves. The pain from such attacks is real and caused by the person or thing which committed the assault. To make this more clear, let us say a person steps on a nail and feels pain in his foot. If we call the nail \( A \) and pain \( C \), it is logical to conclude that the nail caused the pain, or that \( A \) caused \( C \).

A psychological attack on the other hand is always committed only by people against other people. Furthermore, environment cannot pain us psychologically, only physically. Therefore, we distinguish two kinds of pain, physical and emotional. If an adolescent says, "I hate you, Mother," this is an aggressive statement which is frustrating to the parent because she is hearing something she does not want to hear, and the mother may become quite upset over these words. Let us call the adolescent's words \( A \) and the mother's reactions to these words \( C \). Are we still correct in concluding that the upset was caused by the words? Can we say \( A \) caused \( C \) as we did in the case of a physical attack? Practically everyone would say "yes." But this is totally incorrect. If we think this over carefully we will realize that mother was not hurt by these words since the words cannot cut her skin like a knife, or break a bone like a car accident might, or deny her of food, air or warmth. Only a physical attack can do that.

Yet she is upset. If it was not her adolescent's nasty remarks which upset her what was it? It was the thoughts she told herself after hearing her child's comment. Let us call these attitudes, opinions, or silent sentences \( B \). It is \( B \), therefore, and not \( A \), which caused her to be upset at \( C \). We feel according to what we think. If we tell ourselves angry sentences at point \( B \) we feel sad, depressed, and listless in our bodies (point \( C \)).

Frustrations vs. Emotional Disturbances. Whenever we are upset we are not correct in saying "you upset me," or "that upset me." No, what really happened is that someone or something frustrated us and we have now upset ourselves over the frustration. The adult, to become calm, must first ask himself "What did I say to myself just before I became upset? I must have convinced myself of something that is foolish or untrue. Let me find what that sentence or belief is and then I'll examine it and try to convince myself that belief is truly false." When these false beliefs are thoroughly challenged, emotional disturbances dissolve. Notice, we have not said the frustration (point \( A \)) disappears, only that the disturbance (point \( C \)) over the frustration is reduced. Ridding oneself of the frustration (if it can be done at the time) is an entirely separate task and can be accomplished much more easily after the guardian is calm again.

Suppose the mother had said to herself, "The poor girl is upset, I wonder how I can calm her?" In the meantime I needn't take
hor seriously since her saying I'm hateful doesn't make me so. That's her opinion because I didn't let her go to the movies. Anyway, children will be children, so I must expect this sort of behavior. That doesn't mean I have to let it go. On the contrary, because I dislike this kind of talk I'll have to penalize her so she doesn't act like this the next time I frustrate her." By having such calm, unblaming thoughts at B we can readily see how the mother will soon be undisturbed at C.

The following diagram will show this more clearly.

Physical Attack
A ------------ C

Psychological Attack
A ------- B ----------------- C

Child's
Words
Mother's
Thinking
causes
Emotional
Disturbance
About A

This brings us to a startling conclusion; no one can ever upset us, we always upset ourselves. This is true whether we are talking about something such as having it rain on the day we planned a picnic, to a death in the family. Unless the pain has been physically inflicted by someone or something directly on to our bodies, the pain is caused by our own incorrect thinking, nothing more.

Desires vs. Needs. A third reason in which we can suggest that an adolescent can upset their superiors has to do with the confusion adults have over desires and needs. The adult who wants, wishes, or prefers, certain behavior from the adolescent and is then frustrated will only experience a disappointment. He will certainly not be seriously upset since he has not made the issue overly important. All of us have been disappointed over literally thousands of desires without serious consequences whether it was to be rich or famous.

When we convince ourselves, however, that we need riches or fame, that it is necessary to have a well-behaved adolescent, then we have changed those harmless and healthy wishes into neurotic demands. A demand which is not satisfied will create intense feelings of anger. It will not have been the disappointing behavior of the adolescent which will have created our disturbance but rather our unreasonable demand that they do as we wish them to do.

Thus it can be said that it is very important to know where we as the parents are coming from. What causes us as parents to behave the way we do when we interact with our adolescent or for that matter others.

Ellis, in his rational-emotive theory on human behavior is
concerned with getting the person to see what he believes, to find false ideas among those beliefs, if they are present, to convince himself of their falseness, and then to practice not making himself angry again. Emotional correction involves four steps. First, we must determine which beliefs or assumptions are wrong. Secondly, we should reason with ourselves (if possible) until we see how incorrect these assumptions are: a person would use examples and logic until it is recognized as not being a tragedy, but an irritation at most. Third, a person would be advised to be as cooperative as possible and that if change still does not occur he can learn to accept things as they are and make the most of them. Learning to recognize that there is never any good reason for becoming emotionally upset over anything a person can do little or nothing about is the fourth basic step to establishing a new parenting philosophy. We must recognize we live in an imperfect world and to demand that it be perfect is foolish.

Ellis describes many of the neurotic reactions a person has as being superstitions. A superstition is a false belief. For example the ideas that stepping on a crack will break your mother's back or a black cat crossing our path will doom us for some time to come has been taught to all of us during our childhood. Most of us do not believe them any longer. Why is this? Simply because we have thought long and hard about them and decided with the help of logical reasoning and analysis that these beliefs were worthless. The moment we recognized these superstitions as being false they failed thereafter to disturb us.

However, we have been taught other superstitions which cause as much trouble when it comes to interaction with people and with ourselves and especially when it comes to parenting. There are at least eleven neurotic superstitions we have been taught from childhood through our parents, teachers, friends, neighbors, mass media, etc. Ellis in his book, Rational Emotive Therapy expresses what these eleven irrational ideas are and how they cause emotional disturbance as being:

1. The idea that it is a dire necessity for an adult human to be loved or approved of by virtually every significant other person in his community. No matter how hard we try we cannot get everyone to like us, and as long as we can still get enough cooperation from others to satisfy the essentials for physical survival, we truly do not need others' approval although it is perfectly fine to want it.

2. The idea that one should be thoroughly competent, adequate, and achieving in all possible respects if one is to consider oneself worthwhile. This represents a demand for perfection, something which is seldom attained and most often downright impossible. We get better and better at things only through making numerous errors and then correcting the errors with further trials.
3. The idea that certain people are bad, wicked, or villainous and that they should be severely blamed and punished for their villainy. People cannot help being people, that is, imperfect mortals who will often behave less than perfectly simply because they are mentally defective, ignorant and unskilled, or emotionally disturbed. Punitive punishing or blaming people for their sorry behavior has more often the effect of increasing their misconduct. Our penal systems and the endless examples of brutality from history give clear evidence for this.

4. The idea that it is awful and catastrophic when things are not the way one would very much like them to be. Getting terribly upset about the injustices of the world does little or nothing toward curing these ills. In fact, the more one focuses and worries over life's tragedies, the more unpleasant one makes one's life.

5. The idea that human unhappiness is externally caused and that people have little or no ability to control their sorrows and disturbances. In the final analysis, the external environment can only cause us physical pain, never emotional pain. The latter comes from within ourselves when we believe things which are illogical and we act upon them.

6. The idea that if something is or may be dangerous or fearsome, one should be terribly concerned about it and should keep dwelling on the possibility of its occurring. Chronic worrying seldom achieves the results calm deliberation and careful study do. If the danger is averted it is despite the over-concern, not because of it. In fact, excessive, neurotic worry often incapacitates the person to the point where the feared event is not avoided, but actually brought about.

7. The idea that it is easier to avoid than to face certain life difficulties and self-responsibilities. Doing the easy thing first and settling for immediate relief or pleasure is practically never as rewarding as delaying one's pleasures for the fruits that come through hard work. The proverb, "A stitch in time saves nine" expresses this idea nicely.

8. The idea that one should be dependent on others and needs someone stronger than oneself on whom to rely. A truly sound feeling of self-confidence comes not from what others do for us but what we can do for them and for ourselves. Mastery of the skills we wish to conquer comes only when we decide to do our tasks rather than have others do them for us.

9. The idea that one's past history is an all important determiner of one's present behavior and that because something once strongly affected one's life, it should indefinitely have a similar effect. If a person will seriously question the irrational beliefs he is presently guiding his life by, he can change his behavior no matter how long it had influenced him in the past. Man can learn, even how to unlearn a strong influence from childhood.
10. The idea that one should become quite upset over other people's problems and disturbances. We can do pitifully little in controlling the emotions and behavior of others, but we can do a great deal about controlling our own. Though we may want and can do something about another human's behavior, there is still no need for us to be upset over his problems. Only a sensible attack through action can change his problem, not the degree to which we become upset.

11. The idea that there is invariably a right, precise, and perfect solution to human problems and that it is catastrophic if this perfect solution is not found. The world can simply not be so thoroughly known that perfect solutions to our problems are possible. One is better off thinking of several possible solutions and then trying each one if it seems the present plan is unsatisfactory.

Dr. Hauck, in his book The Rational Management of Children, has suggested two additional neurotic superstitions which parents get caught up with in their philosophy of parenting. These are:

1. The idea that it is vitally important to our existence what other people do, and that we should make great efforts to change them in the direction we would like them to be. People find it quite difficult to grasp the point that forcing others to behave sanely (and this is especially true of adolescents) frequently makes them rebel against that sane advice. In the final analysis people will behave as they choose to behave unless we have such complete domination over their lives that we can actually force them to do as we command. A prison guard and a warden have this control over prisoners. But a parent, despite his insistence that he has this control over his children, is as wrong as he can be. Children are not prisoners and will exert their wills against dominating parents in so many devious ways that mother and father are often made completely exasperated as they attempt to engage in a neurotic power struggle with a child.

2. The idea that beliefs held by respected authorities or society must be correct and should not be questioned. This makes little sense because no one is perfect, and what we honor today is often cast aside tomorrow. No one, regardless of how much he was respected in his day, was totally free of stupid thinking, free of urging ridiculous ideas upon others, or free of being just plain asinine. The same applies to institutions, whether they be governments, universities, or churches. Each has had its share of propagating plain nonsense. The healthy person is not awed by reputation or title but attempts to think out clearly what is being offered and to do so solely on the value of the belief, not on who holds it.

These then are the neurotic superstitions many parents have been raised with. Practically all emotional disturbances can be traced to one or more of them. In helping a child over his emotional state an adult should help the child look for the idea or ideas he holds, locate the irrational ones and demonstrate to him through
reasoning how the idea is truly irrational. This can sometimes be done with one attempt; it sometimes needs many attempts. The parent should make every effort to teach his child to think rationally rather than irrationally, regardless of how often the issue comes up. After mother or father have challenged and questioned these beliefs often enough for the child, he will begin to learn how to do it himself. When he accomplishes that he is well on his way to a more stable, emotionally satisfying existence. Then, when his emotions are under control, the child can be shown what to do to relieve his problem, a thing he will have far more success with at this point because he will not get any interference from fears, jealousies, moods of despair, anger, and so on. The deck will be cleared, so to speak; the proper task of calmly solving his problems (if they can be solved) will proceed, and he will also learn not to be disturbed over his problems if he cannot solve them for the time being, or forever for that matter.

This is the new view, new, because reason has been seriously mistrusted as a method by which to maintain our mental balance. Yet it is a gift from the ancient Greek philosophers who along with a few outstanding thinkers throughout history, have been reminding mankind for hundreds of years that our disturbing emotions come only from our own disordered thinking.


Activity Sheet #3

"EXERCISE IN PRACTICING THE ABC'S OF PERSONAL PROBLEM SOLVING"

Directions: The first step in acquiring effectiveness in communicating with an adolescent is to become aware of where you - the parent are coming from. That is, what makes you react positively or negatively to something which your adolescent has said or done?

In the following exercise you'll be asked to work through consequences which most disrupted your parent-adolescent relationship that day. In order to complete these exercises you may want to periodically refer back to pages 23 to 25 in Part III of The Adult As A Parent. This section has to do with irrational ideas.

A = Facts and events, the activating event which you recently experienced and which upset or disturbed you.

B = Thoughts and ideas you had about this activating event. These ideas can either be rational beliefs (rB) or irrational beliefs (iB).

C = Feelings, consequences of your irrational belief (iB) about the activating event listed in question A.

D = Plan, and disputing, questioning, challenging used to change your irrational belief (iB) "What I'd do to correct the situation."

E = Effect or answer obtained from disputing your irrational belief (iB). This can be in two forms, the cognitive effect (cE), which is the mental answer worked through and achieved. The second form would be the behavioral effect (bE), which are the feelings that are a result of your disputing your irrational belief (iB).
A. **ACTIVATING EVENT** you recently experienced about which you become upset or disturbed. (Examples: "I went for a job interview." "My mate screamed at me.") .................................................................

B. **Rational BELIEF** or idea you had about this Activating Event. Examples: "It would be unfortunate if I were rejected for the job." "How annoying to have my mate scream at me!"

C. **Irrational BELIEF** or idea you had about this Activating Event. (Examples: "It would be a catastrophe if I were rejected for the job; I would be pretty worthless as a person." "I can't stand my mate's screaming; she is horrible for screaming at me!") .................................................................

D. CONSEQUENCES of your irrational BELIEF (IB) about the Activating BELIEF (IB) about the Activating Event listed in Question A. State here the one most disturbing emotion, behavior, or CONSEQUENCE you experienced recently. (Examples: "I was anxious." "I was hostile." "I had stomach pains.") .................................................................

E. **DISPUTING**, questioning, or challenging you can use to change your irrational BELIEF (IB). (Examples: "Why would it be catastrophic and how would I become a worthless person if I were rejected for the job?" "Why can't I stand my mate's screaming and why is she horrible for screaming at me?") .................................................................

F. Cognitive EFFECTIVE or answer you obtained from DISPUTING your irrational BELIEF (IB). (Examples: "It would not be catastrophic, but merely unfortunate, if I were rejected for the job; my giving a poor interview would not make a worthless person." "Although I'll never like my mate's screaming, I can stand it, he or she is not horrible but merely a fallible person for screaming.")

G. Behavioral EFFECT or result of your DISPUTING your Irrational BELIEF (IB). (Examples: "I felt less anxious." "I felt less hostile to my mate." "My stomach pains vanished.")

F. If you did not challenge your irrational BELIEF (IB), why did you not?

G. Under which erroneous belief of child management would you list this belief?
"EXERCISE IN PRACTICING THE ABC'S OF PERSONAL PROBLEM SOLVING"

WORKSHEET

PLEASE PRINT! BE BRIEF AND LEGIBLE! ANSWER QUESTION C FIRST: THEN
ANSWER THE OTHER QUESTIONS.

A. ACTIVATING EVENT you recently experienced about which you become
upset or disturbed. (Examples: "I went for a job interview." "My mate screamed at me.") ...................................................

rB. Rational BELIEF or idea you had about this Activating Event.
(Examples: "It would be unfortunate if I were rejected for the
job." "How annoying to have my mate scream at me!") .............

iB. Irrational BELIEF or idea you had about this Activating Event.
(Examples: "It would be a catastrophe if I were rejected for
the job; I would be pretty worthless as a person." "I can't
stand my mate's screaming; she is horrible for screaming at
me!") ..................................................................................................................

C. CONSEQUENCES of your irrational BELIEF (iB) about the Activating
BELIEF (rB) about the Activating Event listed in Question A.
State here the one most disturbing emotion, behavior, or CONSE-
QUENCE you experienced recently. (Examples: "I was anxious." "I was hostile." "I had stomach pains.") ..............................
D. DISPUTING, questioning, or challenging you can use to change your irrational BELIEF (IB). (Examples: "Why would it be catastrophic and how would I become a worthless person if I were rejected for the job?" "Why can't I stand my mate's screaming and why is she horrible for screaming at me?")

C.E. Cognitive EFFECTIVE or answer you obtained from DISPUTING your irrational BELIEF (IB). (Examples: "It would not be catastrophic, but merely unfortunate, if I were rejected for the job; my giving a poor interview would not make a worthless person." "Although I'll never like my mate's screaming, I can stand it, he or she is not horrible but merely a fallible person for screaming.")

B.E. Behavioral EFFECT or result of your DISPUTING your irrational BELIEF (IB). (Examples: "I felt less anxious." "I felt less hostile to my mate." "My stomach pains vanished.")

F. If you did not challenge your irrational BELIEF (IB), why did you not?

G. Under which erroneous belief of child management would you list this belief?
As an adult we have various roles to fulfill in society; husband or wife, daughter or son, grandmother or grandfather, employer or employee, parent, and a host of others. Basic to any one of these roles that we play is the value of helping our fellow man improve his life and cope with daily happenings. Many of us from time to time find ourselves playing the role of a helper in a relationship. This is especially true for parents, who want to help their adolescent develop into a mature, self-fulfilled adult. Their question is, "How can I as a parent help my child achieve his potential as a human being?" One way to do this is by developing helping skills or interpersonal relationship skills.

A helping relationship can be defined as one in which the participant intends that there should come about, in one or both parties, more appreciation of; more expression of, more functional use of, the latent inner resources of the individual. It is a relationship in which at least one of the parties has the intent of promoting the growth, development, maturity, improved functioning, improved coping with life of the other. It is obvious that such a definition covers a wide range of relationships which usually are intended to facilitate growth. It would certainly include the parent-adolescent relationship. It includes almost all educational efforts whether it be teacher, parent, or counselor or other persons.

What You Need To Know About Helping

1. Helping may be for better or for worse. The first thing is to recognize what you may or may not do with someone else could be harmful as well as helpful. It makes good sense that if you can help someone, you can also hurt him. The fact is that the things that you do with him may make a difference in his life. So, if the person means something to you, you want to do those things that are most helpful. We call the person whom you are trying to help in a helping relationship the helpee. The person doing the helping is called the helper.

2. The helper is most helpful when he understands and acts upon his understanding. Those helpers whose helpees improve are persons
who understand themselves and can act upon this understanding in their own lives. The helpees seek their help because the helpees are unable to understand themselves or unable to act upon this understanding. The helper understands the helpee and communicates this understanding to the helper. The helper also understands the helpee's need to do something about his problem and he assists the helpee in doing something about the problem. Understanding and action are the key ingredients of effective helping.

3. Lay people can learn to help as effectively as professional helpers. Lay people are persons who have not been trained to help but are interested in being helpful. For most purposes and most problems, lay people can learn to help as effectively, and often more effectively than professional helpers, that is teachers, guidance counselors, psychologists, psychiatrists, and social workers. For one thing, professional helpers do not have a monopoly on understanding and action. Lay persons can learn to understand others as well as or better than professionals and they can learn to act upon this understanding as well as or better than professionals.

4. Helpers from within the community involved will be more effective than helpers from outside. The people in the community are closer to the problems involved whether these problems are individual problems or community-wide problems. The people in the community can see the problems more easily through the eyes of the helpee. The people in the community can communicate this understanding more easily to the helpees because they speak their language. The people in the community know what actions are available to the helpee because they know the community from the inside. Black people can usually help black people more effectively than whites can. Spanish people can usually help Spanish people more effectively than others can. Poor people can usually help poor people more effectively than others can. Parents also can usually help parents more effectively in many cases than others can.

What You Need To Know To Help

For a parent to effect a positive change on behavior and to establish positive communication with his adolescent there are certain things the parent must learn in order to be as helpful as possible. Following are some guidelines that will help a parent to understand the goals in helping: (Helper in this case means the parent while helpee means the adolescent.)

1. The first goal of helping is to get the helpee to explore his problem. We cannot help a person unless we first understand his problem. How often when we are attempting to be helpers we give advice before we fully understand the problem. Since
the advise is not based upon the necessary understanding, it will
be "hit or miss" advice. Sometimes the helpee comes to us and
presents us with a problem that is not the real problem. It is
as if he is testing us to see how good we are at recognizing that
he has a problem. If we cannot sense the real problem than he
will not share it with us. And this sharing of the real problem
as seen by him is the necessary first goal of helping. When the
helpee explores himself he helps the helper to understand his
problem better.

2. The second goal of helping is to get the helpee to understand
himself. The fact that the helpee explores his problem does not
necessarily mean that he understands it as well as he should.
Sometimes he doesn't understand it at all and only shares it in
bits and pieces together in such a way that he can help the helpee
to understand the problem more fully.

3. The final goal of helping is to get the helpee to act upon his
understanding. As the helpee understands his problem more fully
he will see more clearly the different courses of action that
are available to him. Together, helper and helpee can consider
the short-term and long-term advantages of each course of action.
They can choose the best course of action and develop program
or ways of accomplishing that course of action. If the helpee
acts successfully he comes closer to dealing with the problem or
problems that brought him to look for help in the first place.

4. The different goals of helping are related to each other. The
goals of exploration, understanding, and action are related to
each other. After the helpee has acted upon his understanding
or the problem, he finds out the consequences of his action.
That is, he learns new things. He comes to explore and un­
derstand more of himself and his problems. As he understands more
of himself, he prepares to act once again in a way somewhat
different from the way he acted before. Again, there is new
learning that comes from his action. Often the cycle of
exploration, understanding, and action is repeated over and
over again. Each time, the helpee learns to understand his
problem more accurately and, therefore, to act more constructively
for himself and others.

How To Help

Now that we know what it is we are trying to accomplish let us
consider the ways that we can accomplish these goals. Clearly, helper
understanding is the best means to helpee understanding, and helper
action is the best means to helpee action. The helpee provides the
helpee with the experience of being understood and the experience of
being with someone who acts upon his understanding. The helper also
provides the helpee with a model to imitate just as the child imitates
his parents; the helper is someone who understands and acts upon his
understanding.
So far we have focused upon the helper characteristics of understanding and action. When an individual understands another individual he gives full attention to that individual. The talk centers around the feelings and experiences of the second person. We say that the first person (helper) responds to the second person (helpee).

When an individual acts in relation to another individual he acts on the basis of his experience. The action centers around the feelings and experiences of the first person. We say that the first person (helper) initiates action in relation to the second person (helpee).

Following are some guidelines in establishing a helping relationship:

1. The helper will be most effective during the early phases of helping when he responds to the helpee. The helpee will be most effective if he gives his full attention to the helper, doing all that he can to listen and to hear the helper and to let the helpee know that he understands what the helper is really saying. When the helper responds to the helpee, the helpee becomes involved in a process of self-exploration leading to self-understanding. There are a number of things that the helper can do in order to respond effectively. We call these the conditions that facilitate the helpee's effort to explore and understand himself. These facilitative conditions may be described as follows:

A. Empathy, or understanding: Understanding, or empathy is the ability to see the world through the other person's eyes. In helping, it is as if the helper "crawls" inside of the helpee's skin and feels the things the helpee feels, and experiences the world the way the helpee experiences it. The helper not only sees things the way the helpee sees things, but lets the helpee know what he sees, that is, he communicates what he sees to the helper.

B. Respect, or caring for someone: Respect is the ability to respond to the other person in such a way to let him know that you care for him and that you believe in his ability to do something about his problem and his life. At the very beginning of helping, the helper may not know enough about the helpee to communicate this specifically. As helping continues, the helper will come to know the helpee in specific ways so that he can communicate this respect for the helpee directly and specifically.
C. Concreteness, or being specific: Concreteness is simply the ability to enable the other person to be specific about feelings and experiences he is talking about. The helper helps the helpee to be specific about the helpee's own experiences and not the experiences of other people. This is particularly critical during the early stages of helping when concreteness helps to develop empathy. At later points the helper may attempt to be concrete in developing the stages of problem-solving.

2. The helper will be most effective during later phases of helping when he initiates action. The helper will be most effective if he uses what he learned by responding to the helpee as a basis for imitating his own expressions. That is, on the basis of what the helper learned from the helpee's exploration of his problem, the helper tries to put the picture together. The helper gives the process direction, attempting to get the helpee to understand himself at a deeper level and finally to act upon this understanding. Those conditions initiated by the helper we call action or action-oriented dimensions because they involve some actions on the helper's part and because they lead the helpee to initiate his own ideas of what's going on and to act upon those ideas. These action conditions may be described as follows:

A. Genuineness, or being real: Genuineness is simply the ability to be real in a relationship with another person. At first the emphasis is more on not being phony. Later the emphasis is upon the helper being as real as he can be. That is, he is free to be himself. He is really himself. The only important thing to remember here is that you're still trying to help the other person. So, if you have had feelings about him, it will be more helpful to ask about where these feelings came from rather than to dump them on him. Helping is for the helpee.

B. Confrontation, or telling it like it is: Part of being real is to tell it "like it is" to the other person. Confrontation is just telling the other person what you've been hearing as you've been listening to him. For example, you see him doing things different from the way he is talking and you put it to him. Or you confront him with the reality of a situation that is quite different from the way he's been picturing it. Or you just tell him that you see things a lot different from the way he does. Once you confront him you need to follow through and work out the differences between you.

C. Immediacy, or what's really going on between the two of you: Immediacy is your ability to understand different feelings and experiences that are going on between you and another person. The helpee may be telling the helper something about
how he feels about the helper without even knowing it. Often he can't tell the helper directly how he feels about him. The helper must be tuned in to these things so that he can understand the helpee. The helper must tell the helpee what is going on so that the helpee can understand himself. The helper must know where the helpee is coming from.

3. The responsive and initiative conditions must be related to each other. The helper must first respond to the helpee's feelings and experiences. He must then put things together and initiate action on the basis of what he has learned by responding to the helpee. It is almost like a mother preparing a child for a father. The mother responds to the child and facilitates his efforts. The father initiates his own directions and acts upon his understanding. Even when the helper confronts, if he does so effectively, he will follow his confrontation with empathy for the feelings of the helpee. In other terms, if the helper tells it like it is, he must follow-up understanding where the helpee is. On the other hand, sometimes the helper must initiate action dimensions on his terms before he can get the helping process going. But, again, this is a last resort measure that he uses only if the helpee can't get started on the helpee's own terms. In effective helping, as in effective child-rearing, an understanding mother prepares the child for an action-oriented father. The mother gives the father the necessary recognition that he must have in order to be an important source of strength for the child to imitate. Whether you have a year or an hour to help, the order of helping is to respond first and initiate action later. Even if you have just fifteen minutes to help, you must use five minutes or so responding to the helpee in order to find out for sure where the helpee is before starting to put the picture together and acting upon that picture. The effective helper must be both mother and father - sometimes one, sometimes the other, sometimes both at the same time.

4. The helper will be most effective in the end when he helps the helpee develop a course of action for handling his problem. It isn't enough for the helpee to be both mother and father. Based upon the helper's understanding of the helpee's need to do something about his problem, the helper must help the helpee develop a better way of doing things. A course of action is just a way of doing things in a way that is better than you did them before. When you consider a course of action, you have to choose that way of doing things that gives you the best chance of being successful. You have to weigh short-term success with long-term success. Sometimes things that will do well in the short run won't make it in the long run. If you have the time, you will help the helpee set up a way of doing things that doesn't just work for the problem that he has now but also for the problems that he will have over a lifetime. If you don't have the time you must help the helpee to deal with his present problem and hope that
if he can handle this problem he'll have a better chance of handling other problems in his future.

EXERCISE IN HELPER-HELPEE RESPONSE

The first step in acquiring effectiveness as a helper is in responding to the helpee's message. Therefore, it is important for you, the helper, to become sensitively aware of the various ways you may typically block communication. Following are a list of messages, after each one write what you would typically give as a response. After you have given each of your responses try to classify each one into the categories found in Parent-At-Home-Activity #5.

1) Helpee: I don't want those vegetables. I can't stand them. They taste terrible.
   Helper response:

2) Helpee: Do I ever hate the guy down the street. He sure is a chunky one. He won't play at all.
   Helper response:

3) Helpee: I won't go skiing. It's too cold. Anyway I'm scared.
   Helper response:
4) Helpee: It's times like these that I hate you!

   Helper response:

5) Helpee: I really felt dumb when I made that mistake.

   Helper response:

6) Helpee: Dad, why can't I have the car? Everyone else has driven.

   Helper response:

Now go back and try to classify each response using the list of responses provided in Parent-At-Home Activity #7 - The Use Of Parental Authority: A Self-Analysis Exercise.
Perhaps the most essential skill necessary for successful interpersonal relations is communication. Communication is like a huge umbrella, it covers and affects all that we do. It serves as the medium to promote action, to release inner emotions (happy and sad), to understand each other, and/or a person to be accepted in our society. Communication can be defined as the process of transmitting attitudes, feelings, facts, beliefs, opinions, and ideas between living human beings by means of verbal and/or non-verbal methods.

Dinkmeyer and McKay state that, unfortunately, most parents are poor communicators in dealing with their children, correcting, nagging, and punishing to no avail. If a parent truly wants to establish a positive interpersonal relationship with his child he must learn how to accept, listen, clarify, understand and express not only his own feelings, but those of the child. In short, he must become an effective communicator.

Traditional Roles Parents Play When Responding to Children's Messages

Parents characteristically respond in discouraging ways when children send feeling messages. These responses fit neatly into traditional roles.

The Commander in Chief (ordering, commanding, threatening, controlling):
"Now listen here, don't you talk to me like that!"
"I said, get busy!"
"Do it -- or else!"
"Never mind, you're going to do what I say."

The Moralist (preaching, patronizing):
"You shouldn't do things like that."
"That's not the right thing to do."
"Good little boys don't do those things."

The Know-It-All (lecturing, advising, reasoning, appealing to the child's logic, being superior):
"That just doesn't make any sense."
"If I were you I would..."
"Now, you know better than that."
"I've had much more experience than you and..."

The Judge (making pronouncements, evaluating):
"You asked for it."
"You didn't do your best."
"Well, if you had studied harder..."

The Critic (ridiculing, name-calling, sarcastic, joking):
"You're too big for your britches."
"You're just lazy!"
"Listen here, smarty pants."
"You think you're a big shot around here."
"Ah, come on now, she can't be that bad. I imagine being in classroom all day with a bunch of little monsters like you would drive her crazy."

The Psychologist (diagnosing, analyzing, probing, interrogating):
"Your problem is..."
"How long have you been worried about this?"
"Okay, tell me exactly what happened."

The Counselor (reassuring):
"Everything is going to be all right."
"All children feel that way at times."
"Don't worry, it's just a stage you're going through - you'll get over it."

Responding to a child's messages in those ways tends to stifle communication with that child. The child may feel defensive, misunderstand, or resentful, and, more than likely, he will stop sharing his feelings. Parents miss many opportunities to help children handle their feelings and to build a good relationship when they rely on these kinds of responses.

How To Respond So Communication Lines Are Open

Basic to keeping the communication lines open is acceptance. Acceptance of the child for what he is, not what you, or someone else, want him to be. A parent not only has to feel accepting toward the child, but he must also express this acceptance. A simple acknowledgement by the parent that the child is understood can be sufficient. For example, such statements as "I see", "I understand", "I believe I know what you mean."

Acceptance does not have to be communicated verbally, it can be communicated by such nonverbal clues as facial expressions, posture, or gestures. A simple smile and a pat on the back can do much to a child to signify a parent's acceptance.
Acceptance of a child's activity and his capabilities to perform that activity can be demonstrated by noninterference. For example, if a child is building a model car, the parent does not offer assistance unless asked. To the child he indirectly communicates that his efforts and methods of attacking the project are acceptable. The primary concern here is not whether the child is following the instructions and performing correctly, but rather the sense of accomplishment and satisfaction the child receives from doing it himself. Interfering in order to show the child the "right" way only conveys nonacceptance of the child by telling him "You are not capable." And finally, nonverbal acceptance may simply involve listening. By allowing the child to talk freely with him, the parent indicates by such nonverbal clues as expressions and posture that he is interested, accepting, and attempting to understand what the child wants to communicate. The parent, by remaining silent, is in essence stating that he genuinely wants the child to share feelings.

**Communication Skills for Parents**

Communication is essential to our daily living, but how we communicate to others, and more specifically, to our children, is crucial. As pointed out earlier, parents have a way of destroying the communication between themselves and their adolescent; both a sender and receiver are needed. Basic to the communication process which involves both sending and receiving is the idea that a person regardless of being a sender or receiver, must be congruent if true communication is to take place.

The sender exposes his true self, allows his ideas and feelings to come out; he becomes transparently real to himself and to others. His listener or receiver learns how he really feels, if he is involved at all. For some listeners this is very dangerous, because they may find they do not like to hear what is being sent.

Communication can be described as an encoding and decoding process. Whenever a person decides to communicate with another person, he does so out of a need, because something is going on inside him. He may want something, he may be uncomfortable, he may have a feeling about something, or he may be upset. Bluntly stated, there is some type of disequilibrium taking place in the person's life. To bring some semblance or order back into the person's life, he may decide to talk. For example: a child wants a new bike.

**Child**

**Bike**
In order for the child to allow his parents to know of his desires, he becomes a "sender." He communicates something that he thinks will allow his parents to recognize his need for a bike. To communicate this need he might leave bike ads lying around, or say something such as, "Bill has a great-looking bike," or "I'm thinking of getting a paper route," or "School is sure a long way from here." This selection process is called encoding; the child selects a specific code to send. This code (or combination of verbal symbols) is then transmitted to the receiver (Dad) who picks it up.

When Dad receives the coded message he must then go through a process of decoding it so that he can understand its meaning in terms of what is going on inside the child.
If father decodes accurately, he will begin to understand that the child wants some other means of getting to school besides walking. Here is where trouble begins, because the receiver usually starts to become defensive about his own inadequacy of providing for the needs of the child. If he can control this urge, and begin to check out with the sender the accuracy of his decoding just to make sure he wasn't misunderstood, chances are better that good communication will result. Dad can do this by actually reporting back to the child his thoughts (the result of the decoding process), "You must want some different way of getting to and from school." Having heard his father's feedback, the child is able to tell his father whether or not he decoded correctly or incorrectly.

Child: Yeah, Dad, I've been looking at new bikes.
Dad: I see. What kind of bikes have you been looking at?
Child: Just a regular 10-speed bike like Bill has.

When Dad originally "fed-back" his understanding of the child's initial message, he engaged in active listening. The process can be diagrammed to look like this:

![Diagram of active listening process]

Active Listening: "You must want some different way of getting to and from school."
In active listening, the receiver tries to understand what the sender is feeling and what the message means. He (receiver) must focus on the sender and concentrate on the sender's message. Secondly, he puts his understanding into his own words and reports these ideas back to the sender. The receiver is careful not to send a message of his own—i.e., evaluation, opinion, advice, logic, or question. He feeds back only what he feels the sender's message meant.

In learning to reflect feeling:

1. Re-state the other person's expressed feeling in your own words rather than as a mimic or a parrot.

2. Preface reflected remarks at first with "You feel . . .", "You think . . .", "It seems to you that", and so on. Later in the interview you can dispense with such prefatory phrases. Formulate reflected remarks as statements, not as questions.

3. Speak quietly, slowly, and without emotional tone.

4. Wait out pauses. Long pauses often enable a person to say things that are hard to say. Inexperienced interviewers often are embarrassed by pauses and make distracting reflecting remarks to fill them.

5. Reflect only the last thought expressed by the sender.

6. Reflect only feelings actually expressed. It may be apparent, for example, that a person distrusts another, but distrust should not be reflected unless and until it is explicitly stated. A parent who diagnoses or anticipates distrust may injure the counseling relationship.

7. Reflect each opinion when it is expressed. When a person contradicts himself, saying on one occasion that he can't understand why someone did something, and on another, that he knows why the person acted as he did, proceed as if no inconsistency were present.

8. Make references to the act in reflecting remarks if a person cries during a discussion, provided the person is not attempting to hide the tears.

9. Watch for mixed feelings involving a conflict between (1) what the person wants and feels he should do; (2) what others think and what he thinks; and (3) his values and those of society. These ambivalent feelings should be reflected.
10. Reflect decisions, solutions, and constructive ideas when they predominate over feelings of confusion, hostility, fear, insecurity, rejection, and the like. However, there is no good done by over-re-evaluating these feelings and reflecting upon them before a person is ready to act upon his own suggested possibilities. Searching behavior reveals many possible actions, and a parent must not try to hasten their acceptance.

11. Avoid any indication of approval or disapproval in reflecting another's state of mind. It is important to refrain from questioning, probing, blaming, interpreting, giving advice, persuading, reassuring, and giving sympathy.

12. Avoid diagnosis. A diagnosis is an individual's interpretation of why the disturbed person feels as he does and leads to biased listening.

13. It is almost always safe to assume that what initially appears to be the problem is not the real one.

14. Avoid being solution-minded. Remember that the solution must come as a result of the person's own insight.


Exploring Alternative Solutions

Good communication between parent and adolescent requires that the parent(s) have faith in the adolescent to make good decisions. When the adolescent approaches the parent with a problem, or when the parent can detect one, the first important step in keeping communication lines open is to help the child clarify his feelings and beliefs. The adolescent can be guided by, "Is it possible that because...?" or "If you aren't exactly sure what the problem is, what do you guess it could be?" Changing roles (letting the adolescent assume the problem role while the parent becomes the adolescent) and acting through the problem could help the adolescent realize a hidden goal or motive, and could be analyzed by the question, "Could it be you do this, too?" To assist the adolescent in summarizing the problem after it has been discussed, the parent could say, "It seems so far you've said..."

Exploring these alternative solutions (by role playing, considering other solutions, or reasons, problem analysis) is a valuable way for parents to help the adolescent learn to cope with life's problems, and the main purpose is to aid the child to realize his feelings and develop his critical thinking ability.
The Concept of Problem Ownership*

In order to use reflective listening and alternative exploration skills, parents must understand the concept of problem ownership, or "Who is upset about this situation?"

1. The adolescent owns the problem if he is thwarted in satisfying a need. (The adolescent's behavior does not interfere with the parents' satisfying his own needs).

2. There is no problem in the relationship if the adolescent is satisfying his own needs (he is not thwarted, and his behavior is not interfering with his parents' own needs).

3. The parent owns the problem if the adolescent is satisfying his own needs but his behavior is a problem to the parent because it is interfering in some tangible way with the parent's satisfying a need of his own.

It is a mistake for parents to assume ownership of an adolescent's problem for it, 1) deprives the adolescent of opportunities to learn how to handle problems effectively, 2) hampers his relationship with the adolescent, and 3) decreases his own influence. Rather, reflective listening and alternative exploration help the adolescent become responsible for solving his own problems.

For parents to transfer ownership (allowing the adolescent to take responsibility for the problems he encounters in his life) can help the adolescent develop problem solving ability; parents can accept the child, listen, and demonstrate concern and understanding, realizing, however, that the adolescent is a separate individual, who must learn to stand on his own two feet.

Getting Adolescents To Listen To You

There are many methods for parents to influence their adolescent, probably the most common of which is verbal communication. The key to successful parental influence through communication can be explained in terms of "You Messages" (Gordon, 1970). "You Messages" contain and emphasize the word "you": "You'd better stop that," "You know better than that," whereas "I Messages" focus on the speaker: "I don't like seeing socks all over the floor," or, "I was

embarrassed when you told Mrs. Smith. " An "I Message" tells the adolescent how his behavior makes the parent feel, and focuses on the parent rather than the adolescent. Rather than blaming the adolescent, the parent shares his experience.

"I Messages" don't convey disrespect and criticism, are less likely to create antagonism and resistance, and so are generally more effective than "You Messages." However, the tone of voice is crucial when sending an "I Message;" a hostile-voiced "I Message" carries the same negativism as a "You Message" since both are aimed at another person. When using "I Messages," parents must be prepared to reflectively listen, because the "I Message" creates a problem for the adolescent; he must decide what to do about his parent's feelings.

It is essential that parents also send "I Messages" of praise. Adolescents need to know of their parents' positive feelings; such messages help the adolescent feel appreciated and loved, and what is of greater influence than appreciation and love.

Parents should strive for friendliness and cooperation in their communication with adolescents. Problems and conflicts can be resolved democratically as stated by Dreikurs and Grey in their book, A Parent's Guide to Child Discipline. These four principles are:

1. Mutual respect, with each person respecting the rights of the others.
2. Pinpointing the issue, rather than hiding or neglecting the real issue.
3. Reaching agreement by thinking about what he can do, rather than what he thinks the other person should do.
4. Participating in decision-making, including everyone involved. Choices must be offered, and other changes given.

Parent-adolescent problems can also be resolved by natural and logical consequences. Natural and logical consequences allow the adolescent to experience the discomforts of lack of respect for order. For example, if a book is lost, it is paid for by the one who lost it; if one is late for dinner, he eats cold food. Consequences must be impersonal, involve no moral judgements, and most important, must be applied in a friendly manner.

One of the four approaches to solving parent-adolescent problems (reflective listening and alternative exploration, "I Messages," problem-solving by reaching agreement, natural and logical consequences) the situation will largely determine which, or which combination of approaches parents will choose. There will be a better chance for effective and successful parent-adolescent communication if parents act, rather than react to a problem, if the adolescents' and parents' needs and ideas receive equal consideration, and if rules, once agreed upon, are democratically respected and observed by everyone.
LISTENING FOR FEELINGS AND EMOTIONS IN THE HELPER'S MESSAGE

Part I

Directions: Every person when he communicates to another person, communicates much more than just the words. He sends his emotions, and feelings along with just the words. It is the feelings and the emotions which give the true meaning to the message. Behind each word and each message often times lies the true meaning of what a person is communicating. Following are some typical messages that adolescents see. Read each carefully and separately, try to listen for the emotions and feeling in the message. In the right-hand column, write the feeling (one or several) words, which you feel the message conveys. Remember the content within the message is not as important as recognizing the "feelings" and "emotions" behind the message. When you finish share your reaction with your spouse.

The following is a list of some words depicting feelings and/or emotions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Glad</th>
<th>Defeated</th>
<th>Loved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relief</td>
<td>Lonely</td>
<td>Discouraged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proud</td>
<td>Left out</td>
<td>Happy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pleased</td>
<td>Guilty</td>
<td>Sad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fearfulness</td>
<td>Shame</td>
<td>Foolish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bored</td>
<td>Contempt</td>
<td>Anger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puzzled</td>
<td>Competent</td>
<td>Hatred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate</td>
<td>Unsure</td>
<td>Jealous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adolescent Statement</td>
<td>Adolescent's Feelings and/or Emotions</td>
<td>Parent's Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Oh, great, just what I needed, another parking ticket.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Gee, I was sure relieved when Sue brought that dress back.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Do you really feel I did a good job?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Oh, come on Dad, knock it off.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Just get out of my room.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I've done the best I know how.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I want to do it my way - after all it's my material.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Sue always looks nicer than I do.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Gee, I wish I had someone I could talk with.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. It's my body, and I'll do with it what I want! So there.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adolescent Statement</td>
<td>Adolescent's Feelings and/or Emotions</td>
<td>Parent's Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I think I know what to do, but I'm not quite sure. Could you run over that again?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I'm always doing the wrong thing. I can never do anything right.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. For awhile I was doing great, when all of a sudden things sort of went to pieces.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. The rest of the gang are going, why can't I? I always have to stay home when there is something fun to do.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. I never have any fun. The rest of the kids get to do it.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adolescent Statement</td>
<td>Adolescent's Feelings and/or Emotions</td>
<td>Parent's Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
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<td>-------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. I sure would like to ask her out, but I just can't call her up. What if she would say no, and then laugh?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. I'll never, never go out with him again.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Part II

*Directions*: Now go back and, in the Parent's Response Column, formulate your own "active listening" or "helping" response. Remember "active listening" is nothing more than feedback. Once you are finished, compare your response with your spouse.
Activity Sheet #6

PARENTS SENDING "I" MESSAGES

_Directions:_ Please read each situation and the "you" message. Then formulate your own "I" message. When you have finished, compare and discuss your "I" messages with those of your spouse.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation</th>
<th>&quot;You&quot; Message</th>
<th>&quot;I&quot; Message</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example:</td>
<td>&quot;You should be ashamed of yourself. We agreed on this time and then you completely forgot all about it. You're careless and neglectful of responsibility.&quot;</td>
<td>When I make plans, based on what you and I agree upon, and then you break them, I get to feeling very upset and frustrated while I'm waiting for you. And now I feel cheated and afraid that I won't get to go fishing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Mother wants to do her sewing. Adolescent keeps interrupting. Mother becomes irritated.</td>
<td>Do you have any respect for me when you see I'm doing something?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Adolescent comes in past curfew. Father is irritated.</td>
<td>Do you know it's past your curfew?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situation</td>
<td>&quot;You&quot; Message</td>
<td>&quot;I&quot; Message</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Adolescent keeps postponing cleaning the garage. Dad comes home expecting it to be done.</td>
<td>You know I asked you to clean the garage. You annoy me.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Adolescent is playing his radio so loud it is bothering the parents.</td>
<td>Can't you be more considerate of other people's rights? Why do you have to play the radio so loud?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Basic to the success or failure of any one relationship is the use of power in that relationship. The parent-adolescent relationship is no different. Most parents state children and adolescents want authority, that children and adolescents need it and want it, but in the same breath acknowledge that parents are wiser. For example, examine the various cliches that we have for supporting this belief; "Father knows best", "When you're older you'll realize how right we are", and "We know what's best for you". The only problem is that children and adolescents are not buying it and the parent-adolescent relationship is not getting any better.

Parental power or authority is always challenged by children, but seems more so during the time when the child reaches the adolescent years. This period of an adolescent's life is difficult not only because he is going through physical and psychological changes, but also because the adolescent becomes increasingly independent of his parents. He can no longer be controlled by their rewards and punishment. It is during this stage of life that he begins to try and reason things out for himself. The adolescent does not rebel so much against his parents, but rather against their power and the way it is administered. If parents would realize what a strong tool they have to change a person's ideas, and help clarify their thoughts and direction through logical, well thought-through reasoning, there would be little for the adolescent to rebel against.

One of the basic characteristics contributing to parental power is that parents have greater "psychological size" than the adolescent. It would be inaccurate to draw circles of parent and adolescent that were of equal size like the ones below.
To the adolescent, he and the parent are not of equal size. A more appropriate description of the parent-adolescent relationship would be:

This diagram implies that the adolescent sees the parent as having greater psychological size than he. An important theme of this whole series on interpersonal relationship has been to develop a strong and self-fulfilling relationship between parent and adolescent. In order to do this parents need to learn to use their power wisely and justly. Poor communication usually arises in a parent-adolescent relationship when a problem presents itself.

Three Ways To Solve A Problem

There are three ways to solve a problem. These are: 1) the parent wins - the adolescent loses, 2) the adolescent wins - the parent loses, and 3) what Dr. Thomas Gordon calls the "No-Lose" method for resolving conflict. In the first two methods power is focused on one individual in the relationship, and the other person comes out the loser. In the third relationship both parties are treated as individuals who possess equal or relatively equal power.

It is this method that can help a parent and adolescent solve their unique conflicts, by allowing the adolescent to participate in finding acceptable solutions. In turn the adolescent is motivated to carry out the solution, and has an opportunity to think for himself and develop his thinking skills. Through this method there are more chances of finding a better solution, there is less hostility and more love and respect for each other, less requirement of enforcement on the parents' part, and equal distribution of power and, most important of all, it gets to the real problem.

The Six Steps Of The No-Lose Method To Solving A Problem*

When implementing the no-lose method it is a good idea to remember that there are six steps to follow in order to have a more successful experience. These are:

Step I - Identify and define the conflict.
Step II - Generate possible alternative solutions.

Step III - Evaluate the alternative solutions.
Step IV - Decide on the best acceptable solution.
Step V - Work out ways of implementing the solution.

These are the key points to remember in solving a conflict.
What follows is a brief description of each of these steps.

Step I: Defining the Problem in Terms of Needs (not competing solutions)

This is a critical step in problem-solving. First, the statement of the problem should be in such a way that does not communicate blame or judgement. Sending "I Messages" is the most effective way for stating a problem.

Secondly, after stating your feelings, try to verbalize the other person's side of the conflict. If you don't know his side, ask him to state it for himself.

Frequently, it will take time to get the problem or conflict defined accurately. The other person may need to take some time to get his own feelings off his chest. He may initially get angry or defensive. This is the time to use Active Listening. He must have a chance to get his feelings out or else he will not be ready for the remaining steps in the problem-solving process.

Don't be in a hurry to get to Step II. Be sure you understand the other person's point of view, and be sure you state yours accurately and congruently. Don't undershoot your own feelings. If you do, the other person may not feel motivated to enter into problem-solving.

Frequently, a problem will get redefined as it is discussed - the initial statement of the problem will turn out to be a superficial one. Or, the other person's statement of his feelings may cause you to see the problem in a new light.

Before moving to Step II, be sure both of you accept the definition of the problem. Test this out - ask if he accepts that this is the problem you both are going to try to solve. Are both sets of needs accurately stated?

Lastly, make certain he understands clearly that you both are looking for a solution that will meet both sets of needs, that will be acceptable to both - nobody is to lose.

Step II: Generating Possible Solution (no evaluation allowed in this step)

This is the creative part of problem-solving. It is frequently hard to come up with a good solution right away. Initial solutions
are seldom adequate, but they may create stimulation for better solutions. Ask the other person first if he has any possible solutions. You'll have plenty of time to offer yours.

At all costs, avoid being evaluative and critical of his solutions. Use Active Listening. Treat his ideas with respect.

Try to get a number of possible solutions before discussing any particular one. Remember you are trying to arrive at the best solution, not just any solution.

If discussion bogs down, state the problem again. Sometimes this will start the wheels turning.

Generally, it will become apparent when to move to Step III - when you have generated a number of reasonably feasible solutions, or when one solution appears to be far superior to the others.

Step III: Evaluating and Testing the Various Solutions

This is the stage of problem-solving where you must be honest, and of course you want the other person to be honest, too. Both of you will want to do a lot of critical thinking. Are there flaws in any of the possible solutions? Any reason why a solution might not work? Will it be too hard to implement or carry out? Is it fair to both? Use Active Listening.

Sometimes in evaluating the solutions already generated, a brand new one will be thought of, better than any of the others. Or an earlier one will be improved upon by some suggested modification.

Failure to test solutions at this stage of the process will increase the chance of ending up with a poor solution, or one that will not be carried out earnestly.

Step IV: Deciding on a Mutually Acceptable Solution

A mutual commitment to one solution must be made. Usually when all the facts are exposed, one clearly superior solution stands out.

Don't make the mistake of trying to persuade or push a solution on the other. If he doesn't freely choose a solution acceptable to him, chances are he will not carry it out.

When it appears that perhaps you are close to a decision, state the solution to make certain you both understand what you are about to decide.
Frequently, writing down the solution will be necessary in order that later misunderstandings can be checked against the decision you both agreed upon.

Step V: Implementing the Solution

It is, of course, one thing to arrive at a creative solution, another to carry it out. Immediately after a solution has been agreed upon, it is generally necessary to talk about implementation.

WHO does WHAT by WHEN?

The most constructive attitude to have is one of complete trust that the other person will faithfully carry out his part of the decision. Avoid raising the question of what is to be done if he doesn't carry out the decision. Consequently, it is not wise to talk about penalties for failure to implement a solution at this time.

However, if later on the other person fails to carry out his end of the agreement, confront him with "I Messages." You also may be able to offer suggestions to help him remember to do his job.

Parents should avoid falling into the trap of reminding the other to carry out his tasks. The adolescent will grow dependent upon the parents' reminders rather than assume full responsibility for his own behavior.

Persons unaccustomed to using this method in the past may at first be lax in carrying out the solution. Be prepared to do a lot of confronting until he gets the idea that you are not going to permit him to "get the idea that you are not going to permit him to "get by." Don't delay too long before confronting him.

Step VI: Evaluating the Solution

Not all solutions from this method turn out to be the best. Sometimes you or the other person will discover weaknesses in the solution, in which case the problem should be returned for more problem-solving.

Sometimes it is important to ask the other person how he feels about the solution.

Both of you should have an understanding that decisions are always open for revision, but that neither of you unilaterally can modify a decision. Modifications have to be mutually agreed upon, just as was the initial decision.

Sometimes persons new to this method will discover that they over-commit themselves - in their enthusiasm they agreed to do too much or to do the impossible. Be sure to keep the door open for revision if this happens.
REMEMBER:

Your best tools for effective problem-solving will always be:

ACTIVE LISTENING
CLEAR AND HONEST SENDING
RESPECT FOR THE NEEDS OF THE OTHER
TRUST
BEING OPEN TO NEW DATA
PERSISTENCE
FIRMNESS OF YOUR WILLINGNESS TO HAVE IT FAIL
REFUSAL TO REVERT TO METHOD I OR II

KEY POINTS:

1. Never introduce the No-Lose method by bringing in as a problem the person's not doing something that had previously been decided by you. Example: Adolescent not carrying out the trash when parents had previously decided he was required to do so. In this case, it is far better to open up the whole question of chores, forgetting all previous decisions.

2. Don't try to problem-solve a complex problem when you have only a brief period of time. Set up a future time convenient to both you and the other person.

3. Don't introduce the No-Lose method by bringing up only those things that are problems to you. Open up the agenda for problems suggested by other person.

4. Introduce the No-Lose method by first explaining what the method is and how it differs from what you've been doing.

5. Include in each problem-solving situation only those persons involved in the problem.

6. Try not to go into the No-Lose method of problem-solving with a pre-conceived and fixed solution.

7. Don't rely on traditional or stereotyped solutions (or those of your neighbor). Your solutions may have to be unique ones because they will come out of a unique relationship.

Putting It All Together As A Parent

Establishing a positive parent-adolescent relationship can be both fun and trying, it can be rewarding and downright disappointing at times. True it does require a lot of work by both the parent and the child. It also requires change. While in the main it is probably the biggest challenge to the parent, it does require the adoles-
cent to alter some of his beliefs about himself, his parents, and society, but in the end it will be worthwhile. The following are some essential guidelines for becoming an effective parent for those who take parenthood seriously.

1. **Restrict talking to friendly conversation and use a respectful tone of voice:** To influence the adolescent the parent must learn to curb his criticism and talk in a positive vein. His tone of voice should convey respect and value for his adolescent as a person.

2. **Be both firm and kind:** When the parent decides upon a course of action, he must not vacillate, and he must remember to be friendly, nonjudgemental, and matter-of-fact when applying a consequence.

3. **Keep your control:** Adolescents often try to gain control by demanding special attention. Responding with anger rarely accomplishes anything. The parent stands a much better chance of succeeding with his adolescent by remaining calm, matter-of-fact, capable of planning an effective course of action.

4. **Utilize encouragement:** The parent can encourage the adolescent by recognizing effort and contribution, as well as accomplishment, and by demonstrating that he understands how the adolescent feels when things aren't going well. Unlike praise and reward, encouragement can be given even if the adolescent is not entirely successful.

5. **Use natural and logical consequences:** A misbehaving adolescent does not benefit from punishment. Instead, the parent must allow the adolescent to experience reality's lessons through the use of logical and natural consequences.

6. **Have courage:** While the parent is retraining himself and his adolescent, he may have to try out new methods several times. Changing behavior requires practices and patience. When new approaches fail, the parent should not despair, but stop and analyze his feelings and actions. Then he will learn how to proceed differently next time.

**Resources:**


THE USE OF PARENTAL AUTHORITY: A SELF-ANALYSIS EXERCISE

Directions: Listed below are typical ways parents use their power in the parent-adolescent relationship. In order for you to learn about your own parental power, please be as objective and honest with yourself as possible when answering the questions. By being honest and open with yourself you'll learn a very important aspect of how you as a parent use your power and authority.

Please read each statement and then indicate in the answer column whether it is likely or unlikely for you as a parent to use your authority in such a manner. Circle only one alternative; U = unlikely for you to use your parental power in this manner, L = likely for you to use your parental power in this manner.

The following definition of terms are supplied for your better understanding of the terms being used in this exercise.

1. "Punish" - Cause some kind of unpleasantness for the child through denying him something he wants or inflicting physical or psychological hurt.

2. "Reprimand" - Strongly worded criticism, "scolding", or "bawling out", dressing down, negative evaluation.

3. "Threaten" - Warn the child of possible punishment.

4. "Reward" - Cause some kind of pleasantness for the child through giving him something he wants.

5. "Praise" - Evaluate the child positively of favorably; say something good about him.
1. Praise your adolescent for the grade he received on an English paper.

2. Threaten your adolescent when he challenges your thoughts.

3. Threaten your adolescent by stating that you'll take away his driving privileges.

4. Promise your adolescent daughter something if she'll cooperate with you just this once.

5. Offer some type of reward to your adolescent son if he would cut his hair.

6. Threaten your adolescent son if he doesn't clean up his room.

7. Make your adolescent son or daughter clean up their own messes.

8. Reward your adolescent with a "thank you" for setting the table.

9. Praise your adolescent when she remembers to do something you asked her to do.

10. Reprimand your adolescent son for something he should have known.

When you are finished, share answers with your spouse.
THE "INVENTORY SHEET" METHOD FOR DECIDING WHAT TO PROBLEM-SOLVE

Directions: A most useful technique for learning the No-Lose method of problem-solving is the "Inventory Sheet" method. The goal is to separate those problems or concerns which are truly bothersome to the parent-adolescent relationship from those that are not; it is to help show ownership of the problem concern.

To initiate this exercise parents are to sit down with adolescent and describe the No-Lose method or problem-solving. When it is established that the adolescent understands the method, a sheet of paper should be divided, with a line down the middle; the parent or parents suggest that all problems which have been causing conflicts between them in the past be listed. The left hand column is for those problems "owned by the adolescent", that is, behavior of the adolescent that does not affect the parent in any way. The right hand column is for those problems or concerns owned by the parent-adolescent relationship; it is behavior of the adolescent and/or parent that affects the relationship. As each problem is brought by either parent or adolescent it is determined if it goes in the left or right hand column.

Once the inventory of problems or concerns has been completed, the parents inform the adolescent that these problems and/or concerns will be left for him to solve. The parents will keep hands off, unless asked by the adolescent for help in solving the problem. If asked, the parent should try to avoid supplying the answer, rather he should attempt to use his newly learned helping skills. These problems which have been accepted by the parent as being the adolescent's must have been within the area of the parents' acceptance.

In the right-hand column are the problems and/or concerns which need to be solved by implementing the No-Lose method. Remember the No-Lose method includes the following steps:

Step I - Defining the problem
Step II - Generating possible solution or brainstorming
Step III - Evaluating and testing various solutions
Step IV - Deciding on a mutually acceptable solution
Step V  - Implementing the solution
Step VI - Evaluating the solution

Key Points To Consider Before Beginning To Problem-Solve

1. Select a time when neither the parent or the adolescent is rushed.
2. Select a place where no one will interrupt.
3. Involve only those individuals who make up the problem.
4. State the problem in terms of your own feelings.
5. Use your helping skills.
6. Agree ahead of time that you are going to problem-solve until you reach an agreeable solution to the relationship.
7. Involve the adolescent, obtain as many solutions from him as possible.

| Problem and/or concerns that are the responsibility of the adolescent. | Problem and/or concerns of Parent-Adolescent Relationship |
What Is the Purpose of the Thought Provoker and Discussion Generator:

To assist the participant in learning to understand some of the concepts and ideas he reads about in the Parent-At-Home-Activities, and hears about at the meeting. By filling out the form you will have in front of you any words, ideas, and concerns you don't understand and ones you wish to bring up for discussion at the meeting. This will enable you to ask for clarification from group members in order that you will be able to put them into effect when you return home.

Response To Reading Materials

Topic:

Reaction To Reading Material: (What appealed to me most?.....Least?
What ideas were new or of particular interest?)

List and define new words or concepts which I came across in the reading:
APPENDIX C

TEACHING OUTLINE
Teaching Outline
Interpersonal Communication Skills
Training Program To Improve
Communication In The Parent-Adolescent Relationship

Orientation Session
Session #1

I. Introduction

A. Purpose of Program

1. To explain to the parents and the adolescents the Interpersonal Communication Skills Training Program.
2. To administer the Parent-Adolescent Inventory Form A and Form P to the participants.
3. To answer any questions participants might have about being involved in the training program.

B. Develop Oneness

1. To begin to build trust among participants and between participants and leader.
2. To begin to build a sense of responsibility among participants and between participants and leader.

II. Orientation Session

A. Housekeeping and Personal Comfort Duties

1. Personal introduction
   a. By group leader
   b. By participants
2. Human comfort needs
   a. Bathroom facilities
   b. Telephone
   c. Duties and time of meeting
3. Responsibilities of the participants and leader
   a. Meetings start on time and end on time
   b. Developing personhood
4. Making haste slowly
   a. There are no right answers or statements
   b. The right to pass is guaranteed
   c. The leader shares his values
5. Questions from participants

B. Explanation of the Interpersonal Communication Skills Training Program

1. Explanation of each session
   a. The Adult As A Parent
   b. The Parent As A Helper
   c. The Parent As A Communicator/Listener
   d. The Parent As A Counselor
2. Explanation of the Parent Notebook
   a. At-Home-Readings
   b. At-Home-Activities
3. Explanation of the Training Model
   a. Lecture-Discussion
   b. Role playing
   c. Evaluation

C. Getting the Go-Ahead

1. Agreement of the participants to participate
2. Administering the PACI - Form A and Form P
3. Questions

III. Assignment

A. Study Parent At-Home-Readings Numbers 1, 2 and 3
B. Do At-Home-Activities 1 and 2
C. Questions

IV. Conclusions

A. Summary of the evening

The Adult As A Parent
Session #2

I. Purpose

The purpose of this session is to help parents understand what has caused parent-adolescent conflict, designate various parenting philosophies, and introduce Rational Self-Analysis.
II. General Discussion

A. Last week's assignment
B. Questions about parent-adolescent relationship

III. Lecture - Demonstration

A. Lecture

1. Parent-Youth Conflict
   a. Kingsley Davis - Parent-youth conflict
   b. Erroneous beliefs of parenting

2. Examine parenting philosophies
   a. Authoritarian
   b. Permissive
   c. Democratic

3. Explanation of RET

B. Demonstrate RET

C. Role play

IV. Evaluation

A. Group Discussion
B. Administer session evaluation

V. Conclusion

A. Summary of evening's happenings
B. Assignments
   1. Study Parent At-Home-Reading Number 4
   2. Do At-Home-Activities Number 3

VI. Materials To Be Used

A. Parent Notebook
B. Overhead slides
C. Interpersonal Communication Skills Exercise

The Parent As A Helper
Session #3

I. Purpose

The purpose of this session is to explain the helping process (self-exploration, self-understanding, and constructive action).
The helping process will be broken down into four learning tasks: attending; responding; initiating; communicating.

II. General Discussion
   A. Last week's assignment
   B. Question about parent-adolescent relationship

III. Lecture - Demonstration
   A. Lecture
      1. Helping and Human Relations
      2. The Helping Process
   B. Demonstration
      1. Listening skills
      2. Role playing

IV. Evaluation
   A. Group Discussion
   B. Administer session evaluation

V. Conclusion
   A. Summary of evening's happenings
   B. Assignment
      1. Study Parent At-Home-Reading Number 5
      2. Do At-Home-Activities Number 4, 5 and 6

VI. Materials To Be Used
   A. Parent Notebook

The Parent As A Communicator/Listener
Session #4

I. Purpose
The purpose of this session is to help parents develop various communicating and listening skills to be used by parents in their parent-adolescent interaction.

II. General Discussion
   A. Last week's assignment
   B. Questions about parent-adolescent relationship
III. Lecture - Demonstration

A. Lecture
   1. Communication As A Person
   2. Communication to produce positive change
B. Demonstrate communication skills
   1. Active listening
   2. Silence
   3. Non-intervention
   4. Invitations to say more
C. Role play

IV. Evaluation

A. Group Discussion
B. Administer session evaluation

V. Conclusion

A. Summary of evening's happenings
B. Assignment
   1. Study Parent At-Home-Reading Number 6
   2. Do At-Home-Activity Number 7 and 8

VI. Materials To Be Used

A. Parent Notebook
B. Interpersonal Communication Skills Exercise

The Parent As A Counselor
Session #5

I. Purpose

The purpose of this session is to help parents develop the skill of using their parental power effectively in the parent-adolescent relationship and to practice various techniques to be used in problem solving.

II. General Discussion

A. Last week's assignment
B. Questions about parent-adolescent relationship
III. Lecture - Demonstration

A. The Parent As A Counselor
   1. Parent Power
   2. Solving problems
B. Demonstrate "No-Lose" Method for resolving conflict
C. Role Play

IV. Evaluation

A. Group Discussion
B. Administer session evaluation

V. Conclusion

A. Summary of evening's happenings

VI. Materials To Be Used

A. Parent Notebook
B. Interpersonal Communication Skills Exercise

Evaluation Session
Session #6

I. Purpose

To have parents and adolescents attend so that the PACI Form A and Form P could be administered.

II. The PACI

A. Administering
   1. Verbal direction
   2. Twenty minutes for participant to take inventory

B. Evaluation
APPENDIX D

LETTERS OF REQUEST FOR PERMISSION OF USE OF MATERIALS
Cooperative Extension Service
1787 Neil Avenue
Columbus, Ohio 43210

September 25, 1974

Libra Publishers, Inc.
391 Willets Road
Roslyn Heights, New York 11577

Dear Sir:

I am writing to request permission to use certain information contained in Dr. Paul A. Hauck's book *The Rational Management of Children* to be used in my research project on Parent-Adolescent Interpersonal Skills Training. The research is being done in order to obtain my Ph.D. in Counseling Education. I would like to secure permission to use Chapter II - "Erroneous Beliefs of Child Management." This material would be used in the Parent Notebook that each participant would be given. Full acknowledgement will be given the author and the publisher.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Kent G. Hamdorf
Extension Specialist
Human Relations &
Family Development

KGH/pja
September 25, 1974

Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.
383 Madison Avenue
New York, New York 10017

Dear Sir:

I am writing to request permission to use the material on pages 167-172 in Robert R. Carkhuff's book The Development of Human Resources. This material will be used by me for the purpose of conducting a Parent-Adolescent Communication Skills Program for parents and will be enclosed in their parent education notebook. The purpose of the program is to gather data for my research study. This research is being conducted in order to fulfill a requirement for my Ph.D. in Counseling Education.

Your cooperation will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Kent G. Hamdorf
Extension Specialist
Human Relations &
Family Development

KGH/pja
September 25, 1974

Simon and Schuster
Rockefeller Center
630 Fifth Avenue
New York, New York 10020

Dear Sir:

I am writing to request permission to use certain information from Dr. Don Dinkmeyer and Gary D. McKay's book "Raising A Responsible Child" in a research study on Parent-Adolescent Interpersonal Skills Training. The research is being done as part of the requirement for a Ph.D. in Counseling Education. I would like to secure permission to use excerpts from pages 65-67 and 122-123. This material would be used for the Parent Notebook which I'm compiling to be used by parents in a group meeting. Full acknowledgement will be given to the authors and the publisher.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Kent G. Hamdorf
Extension Specialist
Human Relations &
Family Development

KGH/pja
Cooperative Extension Service
1787 Neil Avenue
Columbus, Ohio 43210

September 25, 1974

Effectiveness Training Associates
110 South Euclid Avenue
Pasadena, California 91101

Dear Sir:

I am writing to request permission to use certain materials in your Parent Effectiveness Training - "Parent Notebook" in my research study. This research is being done as part of the requirement for a Ph.D. in Counseling Education. I would like to secure permission to use pages 37-38 of At-Home-Activity #15, and excerpts from At-Home-Activity #19 on page 43. This material will be used by me and used in the form of a Parent Handbook. Full acknowledgement will be given to Dr. Thomas Gordon and Effectiveness Training Associates.

Your cooperation will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Kent G. Hamdorf
Extension Specialist
Human Relations &
Family Development

KGII/pja
Cooperative Extension Service  
1787 Neil Avenue  
Columbus, Ohio 43210

October 2, 1974

Dr. Paul A. Hauck  
Suite 304  
Safety Building  
Rock Island, Illinois 61201

Dr. Hauck:

I am writing to request permission to use certain information contained in your book The Rational Management of Children to be used in my research project in my pursuit for my Ph.D. in counseling education. I have already written Libra Publishers and have secured their permission (please see copy of letter enclosed) to use said information. In turn, they suggested that I write to you and inform you of what I plan to do and also to obtain your permission.

I specifically would like to use Chapter II - "Erroneous Beliefs of Child Management" in my Parent Notebook for At-Home-Reading. I would be willing to share this notebook with you if you so desire.

Let me say also that I really enjoyed your book and have recommended it to many parents. I believe it is a good book to have in one's library.

Your cooperation will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Kent G. Hamdorf  
Extension Specialist  
Human Relations &  
Family Development

KGH/pja  
enclosure
October 16, 1974

Family Life Publications, Inc.
Box 427
Saluda, North Carolina 28773

Dear Sir:

I would like permission to use Dr. Millard J. Bienvenu, Sr.'s Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory Form A and Form P, in a research study that I am currently involved in for my Ph.D. The inventory will be administered on a pretest-posttest basis to a group of about 10 couples and their adolescents.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Kent G. Hamdorf
Extension Specialist
Human Relations &
Family Development

KGH/pja
APPENDIX E

LETTERS OF PERMISSION FOR MATERIALS
Cooperative Extension Service
1787 Neil Avenue
Columbus, Ohio 43210

September 25, 1974

Libra Publishers, Inc.
391 Willets Road
Roslyn Heights, New York 11577

Dear Sir:

I am writing to request permission to use certain information contained in Dr. Paul A. Hauck's book *The Rational Management of Children* to be used in my research project in my pursuit on Parent-Adolescent Interpersonal Skills Training. The research is being done in order to obtain my Ph.D. in Counseling Education. I would like to secure permission to use Chapter II - "Erroneous Beliefs of Child Management." This material would be used in the Parent Notebook that each participant would be given. Full acknowledgement will be given the author and the publisher.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Kent G. Hamdorf
Extension Specialist
Human Relations & Family Development

Permission granted but I suggest you also get the author's permission if you have not already done so. Address: Suite 304, Safety Bldg., Rock Island, Ill. 61201.

William Kroll, President
9/27/74
November 13, 1974

Mr. Kent G. Hamdorf, Extension Specialist
Human Relations & Family Development
Cooperative Extension Service
The Ohio State University
1787 Neil Avenue
Columbus, Ohio 43210

Dear Mr. Hamdorf:

Thank you for your letter requesting permission to use the following material in your dissertation or thesis:

pp. 167-172 from THE DEVELOPMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES by Robert R. Carkhuff.

The material you have requested may be used for the purpose you have indicated, provided that full credit is given to author or editor, title of the book, and Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., as publisher.

Should your dissertation or thesis later be accepted for any commercial publication or use, it would be necessary for you to renegotiate this permission, and our regular terms and fees would apply. If you have any questions, please let us know, and we will be glad to advise you.

Sincerely yours,

[Signature]
Abby Taillow
College Permissions Editor
Cooperative Extension Service
1787 Neil Avenue
Columbus, Ohio 43210

September 25, 1974

Simon and Schuster
Rochefeller Center
630 Fifth Avenue
New York, New York 10020

Dear Sir:

I am writing to request permission to use certain information from Dr. Don Dinkmeyer and Gary D. McKay's book Raising A Responsible Child in a research study on Parent-Adolescent Interpersonal Skills Training. The research is being done as part of the requirement for a Ph.D. in Counseling Education. I would like to secure permission to use excerpts from pages 65-67, and 122-123. This material would be used for the Parent Notebook which I'm compiling to be used by parents in a group meeting. Full acknowledgement will be given to the authors and the publisher.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Kent G. Hamdorf
Extension Specialist
Human Relations &
Family Development

KGH/pja

Dear Mr. Hamdorf:

Is this for your thesis or is this for a pamphlet that will be for sale or what. If it is for a doctorate you may have permission to use, but if it is going to be published there would be a fee.

Sincerely,

(Mrs.) Beatrice Hurwitz
Permissions Editor
December 9, 1974

Mr. Kent G. Hamdorf
Extension Specialist
Human Relations & Family Development
Cooperative Extension Service
1787 Neil Avenue
Columbus, Ohio, 43210

Dear Mr. Hamdorf:

Please forgive the lateness of my reply to you. Your letter has just come to my attention.

This letter will be your authorization to reprint pages 37 and 38 (At-Home-Activity #15) and excerpts from At-Home-Activity #19 on page 45. This material is to be used by you in a research study as part of the requirement for a Ph.D. in Counseling Education. Please see that full acknowledgement is given to Dr. Thomas Gordon and Effectiveness Training Associates.

Have a Happy Holiday Season!

Sincerely,

Eleanor M. Saris
Associate

Eleanor M. Saris
Associate
October 7, 1974

Mr. Kent G. Hamdorf
Cooperative Extension Service
1787 Neil Avenue
Columbus, Ohio 43210

Dear Mr. Hamdorf:

Permission granted to use Chapter II - "Erroneous Beliefs of Child Management" from my book, The Rational Management of Children in your research project.

Thanks for the kind review.

Sincerely,

[Signature]

Paul A. Hauck, Ph.D.
October 23, 1974

Mr. Kent G. Hamdorf
Extension Specialist
Human Relations and Family Development
1787 Nell Avenue
Columbus, Ohio 43210

Dear Mr. Hamdorf:

In reference to your letter to Family Life Publications dated October 16, 1974, you have my permission to use the PACI, Form A and Form P, in your research study. Family Life Publications has also granted their approval. My only request is that I receive an abstract of your dissertation with a copy of your bibliography. Should you be interested in my current bibliography, let me know and I will forward you a copy.

Sincerely,

Millard J. Bienvenu, Sr., Ph.D.
Professor and Head

DH


Dolworth, Ursula; Moore, Mary; Millick, Julie; and Leone, Patrick. "Training Student Volunteers." The Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1974, 53, 57-61.


